



The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2005



Ministry of Rehabilitation and
Development and the Central Statistics
Office, Kabul



June 2007



**MINISTRY OF RURAL REHABILITATION AND DEVELOPMENT
AND THE CENTRAL STATISTICS OFFICE, KABUL**

The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2005: Afghanistan

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NSS (National Surveillance System) 2007

**The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2005: Afghanistan.
Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development
and the Central Statistics Office, Kabul.**

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“In the name of Allah, the most Merciful and the most Compassionate”

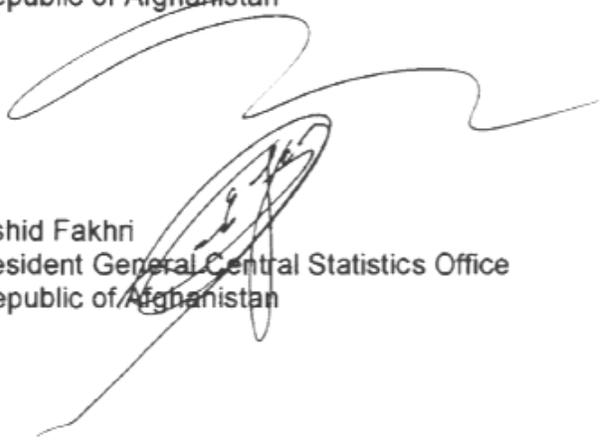
Presentation

It is our great pleasure to present the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA 2005). The Assessment surveyed 30,822 households amongst Kuchi, rural and urban dwellers, the largest household survey ever conducted in Afghanistan. This Assessment, managed by Afghans, is a landmark in the reconstruction of our country in the post-Taliban era.

This document includes national and provincial household perceptions of health care, housing, access to information, agricultural constraints, shocks and attitudes, past programme participation and intervention preferences. It also contains quantifiable data on demographics, electricity, drinking water and sanitation, agriculture, livestock, dietary diversity and the Millennium Development Goals.

We express our thanks and appreciations to the European Union, Ministries and other Government institutions, the Famine Early Warning Systems Network, the U.S. Agency for International Development, the World Food Programme, local and international organizations for supporting the National Surveillance System Project; furthermore our thanks go to the staff that have assisted in completing this round of analyses and the enclosed publication and data set. As a nation we look forward to their continued support and assistance.

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EUROPEAN UNION
DELEGATION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION TO AFGHANISTAN

NRVA 2005

The European Union represented by the EC Delegation supports the Government of Afghanistan, in particular the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation & Development and the Central Statistical Office in a range of areas. One of the important EU projects is the *'Provision of Technical Assistance to the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development for further development of a national poverty, vulnerability and food security surveillance system'*

This project with a total cost of 3.5 million euros supports the Vulnerability Analysis Unit (VAU) at KIRRD and the National Surveillance System (BISS) Unit at CSO. The overall objective of the EU support is the reduction of poverty levels in Afghanistan, by generating information which contributes to improved policy development and programming

This report presents the main findings from the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2005 (NRVA 2005) which was implemented by the VAU and NSS-Units. For the first time it provides a representative and in-depth overview on the actual situation of rural and urban people in Afghanistan. This information is crucial for the development of refined policies for the Afghan National Development Strategy (ANDS) and several other Government policy reforms and programmes. Furthermore, the NRVA-2005 data base and analysis forms the basis for poverty and vulnerability analysis by international organisations and donors.

I am also glad to announce the publication of the NRVA Database on an interactive website <http://www.nss-afghanistan.com> which will allow a broad audience to extensively utilise the valuable data of the NRVA-2005.

The NRVA-2005 has significantly contributed to improved information on the living conditions of the people of Afghanistan. This will allow a better targeting of national policies and programmes and subsequently international support. The EU will continue providing support to poverty and vulnerability analysis by funding the NRVA-2007 and related activities.


Dr. Hansjörg Kretschmer
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List of Acronyms

CSO	Central Statistics Office
DAP	Di-ammonium phosphate
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
FAAHM	Food, Agriculture and Animal Husbandry Information Management and Policy Unit, MAAH
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FEWS NET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
GOA	Government of Afghanistan
HIV/AIDS	Human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
IHMR	The Indian Institute of Health Management Research
INGO	International Non-governmental Organization
JHUBSPH	The Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health
MAAH	Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOPH	Ministry of Public Health
MRRD	Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NMAK	National Multi-Sectoral Assessment on Kuchi
NRVA	National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment
NSS	National Surveillance System
RAMP	Rebuilding Agricultural Markets Program
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNOPS	United Nations Office for Project Services
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USGS	United States Geological Survey
VAM	Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping Unit, WFP
VAU	Vulnerability Analysis Unit, MRRD
WFP	World Food Programme



Acknowledgments

The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2005 was the result of the concerted effort and dedication of the Afghan Government and its staff together with partners from the international community and non-governmental organizations. Inside the country and abroad there are an increasing number of institutions eager to better understand the constraints faced by the Afghan people in rural and urban areas, as well as those of the nomadic Kuchi, and to identify factors that could further enhance their social and economic recovery in the post-conflict era.

The Central Statistics Office (CSO) and the Vulnerability Assessment Unit (VAU) within the Ministry of Rehabilitation and Rural Development (MRRD) have taken the reins of the biannual assessment with significant financial support from the European Commission (EC) as part of the National Surveillance System (NSS) Project. Within this EC-funded project a team of highly motivated Afghan and international specialists took the main burden in implementing the NRVA, putting the data-base together and preparing the analysis. The team at MRRD is led by Amanullah Assil and Gulalai Habib. The CSO team is headed by Tariq Wardak and Abdullah Fakhri. Below an actual list of the project team is provided. The project is supervised by Matin Behzad, Rural Development & Food Security Advisor European Commission Delegation to Kabul.

The Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS NET) and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), also contributed to the completion of this report.¹ Abelardo Rodriguez significantly supported the NSS team in preparing the draft report.

The Vulnerability Analysis Mapping Unit (VAM) of WFP continues to collaborate with the CSO and MRRD teams in characterization of diets and food insecure groups. WFP/VAM generously contributed in the design, implementation, supervision training and analysis of NRVA-2005, donated electronic equipment and provided financial support for the team of enumerators. Technical contribution of WFP enabled the Government of Afghanistan to embrace this assessment. This type of collaboration is one of several others with technical teams from FAAHM and MAAH, MOPH, UNDP, UNICEF, The Asian Development Bank and The World Bank that have improved the skills of staff at CSO and MRRD to address food security, human development and poverty issues. We are thankful to all of them for their constant support.

The enthusiasm and cooperation of 30,822 households surveyed in 2005 is gratefully acknowledged and it is hoped that their collaboration will soon be reciprocated with more effective development interventions that will reduce their vulnerability and risks. Men, women and children kindly hosted the NRVA enumerators; local authorities were also instrumental to ensure coordination and security during the survey implementation.

The senior management at CSO/MRRD provided constant support for the implementation of NRVA in different stages. Without their support it would have been impossible to implement such a Herculean endeavour.

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650 female and male enumerators have carried out the survey work in NRVA 2005 and enabled us to benefit from the large data set, which is a guiding tool for most of the government development programmes.

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More information can be found on the following website: <http://www.mrrd.gov.af/vau>.



Key Findings and Recommendations

The NRVA 2005 was the second national exercise in data collection on risk and vulnerability factors that affect the Afghan population. The main objective of NRVA 2005 was to gather information to update and guide policy-making decisions in development programmes and to improve the efficacy of sectoral interventions. Between June and August of 2005, a national survey was carried out with a sample of 30,822 households in 34 provinces (1,735 Kuchi, 23,220 rural and 5,867 urban).

Data shows that the female to male ratio starts to decline above 24 years of age. There are higher mortality rates for women above 24 years of age compared to those rates of men in the same age groups. This appears to be related to the cumulative effect of disadvantageous conditions for women; such as lack of health facilities and practices, poor nutrition and frequency of marriages of girls under 15 years of age. In contrast to its neighbours, Afghanistan presents a gender gap that favours male survivals. This situation prevails, even after years of war in which male mortality would typically be higher than female mortality. Access to education, provision of health facilities and professional attention in rural areas deserve a high priority to rectify this situation. A demographic and public health study should assess these findings as soon as possible.

Surprisingly, only 2% of the rural and urban households reported having disputes about property rights. Further investigation is required to clarify this finding considering that contested property rights are expected in post-conflicts. Clear property rights are necessary, but not sufficient by themselves, for sustainable resource management.

Seventy-three percent of the households in Afghanistan perceive that they are in a comparable or worse situation with respect to one year prior to the survey. Twenty-four percent perceive being slightly better off and only 2% perceive a clear improvement. The urban households had 5% to 6% more optimistic perceptions compared to rural and Kuchi households, respectively.

Forty-four percent of the Afghan households perceive themselves as food insecure to different degrees, 28% of the urban households perceive themselves to be food insecure while in contrast, 40% of the Kuchi households and 48% of the rural households perceive this condition. These perceptions are in agreement with other findings. Out of the largest loans granted to the households during the year prior to the survey, 45% of the urban households used them to purchase food, and about 65% of both Kuchi and rural households also used them to cope with food insecurity. Further research is recommended to assess food insecurity and vulnerability of different groups and locations.

Fifty percent of the participating households in cash for work programmes in Uruzgan acquired income generating skills and to a lesser extent in Balkh, Kandahar, Takhar and Nangarhar. These cases, clearly aimed towards financial sustainability, could be extended or intensified.

Further work is required to assess the rural-urban, rural-Kuchi, and urban-Kuchi gap in terms of intake and quality of diet. The gap between urban vis-à-vis Kuchi and rural households is dramatic: more than 53% for maternal health, more than 36% in access to safe drinking water and more than 25% in improved sanitation. This does not mean that urban well-being should be taken for granted, but these gaps, and others estimated in the report, should be used to prioritize development actions.



It is essential to establish cause-effect relationships with quantitative socio-economic indicators, qualitative perceptions, and covariate and idiosyncratic shocks to fine-tune recommendations for Kuchi, rural and urban households. Contextualization based on some of the variables included in the NRVA data set would allow better and more effective programme implementation. The NRVA enables estimation of risk and vulnerability, and as a consequence provides a richer framework for risk mitigation.

It is suggested that VAU staff include annual or biannual thematic working papers on selected topics such as: gender and public health, education, resource sustainability, agriculture and livestock, and migration and remittances in order to promote discussions among different sections within MRRD, CSO, and other public offices.



1.

Introduction

In 2003 the government of Afghanistan launched a unique national assessment to support the development work of different government and non-government organizations working in different sectors. Prior to this assessment, most of these organizations were doing their own surveys based on their demands. The World Food Programme (WFP) of the United Nations was managing a nationwide assessment and collecting information on food security, and there was a wish among the development community to have an improved methodology for nationwide assessments. A workshop was held in Mazar-e-Sharif in April 2003 to design a Nationwide Assessment based on government decision and stakeholder demand, and the outline of a questionnaire for the 2003 survey was prepared. This questionnaire was further developed jointly by the WFP and the Vulnerability Analysis Unit (VAU) within the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development (MRRD).

The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) 2003 was implemented between July and September of 2003 lead by WFP and supported by the Vulnerability Analysis Unit (VAU) of the Ministry of Rehabilitation and Rural Development (MRRD). A workshop was held in June 2004, in which some preliminary results of the 2003 were discussed and recommendations were made for the NRVA 2005.

The First Phase of the National Surveillance System (NSS) project was launched in September 2003 by MRRD, with financial support of the European Commission and the United Nations; the objective of NSS was to lead and coordinate, among NGOs and government agencies, the efforts to monitor the situation in the country. A final report of NRVA 2003 was released on December 2004. A consumer satisfaction survey was carried out at the end of 2004 to ascertain the extent of use of NRVA-2003 data and to collect demands for data for the NRVA 2005 from different governmental and non governmental organizations.

Preparatory work for the NRVA 2005 was underway in the spring 2005, coinciding with the beginning of the Second Phase of the National Surveillance System (NSS) Project, of which both the Central Statistic Office (CSO) and MRRD are the implementing agencies. While CSO leads on data gathering and its custody MRRD helps on survey implementation, analysis and interpretation, as well as dissemination of findings. The goal of the NSS project is to reduce poverty in Afghanistan and it has four objectives: to conduct nationwide assessments such as the NRVA, to conduct emergency assessments and response to protect deterioration of people's livelihoods (early warning systems), to carry out special studies upon demand, and to contribute to the capacity building of government staff.

The NRVA 2005 survey, implemented between June and August 2005, was a massive and concerted effort in which very isolated areas in the country were sampled. Since the completion of the field survey both CSO and MRRD have been actively sharing data, information and analytical services to the development community within Afghanistan and internationally. The NRVA 2005 is an instrument that allows in-depth analysis of different aspects of the Afghan economy. As it will be explained below, the NRVA 2005 is not statistically comparable with NRVA 2003, as such it is not possible to assess rates of change with respect to 2003 (i.e., NRVA



2005 is statistically representative at provincial and national level while NRVA 2003 is not); however, NRVA 2005 but sets a baseline that can be used for future assessments, such as the NRVA 2007 and others to follow. As it will be shown here, NRVA 2005 is a forward-looking instrument that has been used to develop the capacities of the national staff at CSO and MRRD in reference to Millennium Development Goals. Household quantitative data form the building blocks that support this report. These blocks are complemented with both the perceptions of *shura* assemblies and perceptions of households.

Preparatory arrangements for the NRVA 2007 are underway and it is expected that all lessons learnt during the implementation and analysis of NRVA 2003 and 2005 will built a cornerstone in the planning and implementation of NRVA 2007. In particular it is currently discussed to randomly distribute the upcoming NRVA samples into 12 months rather than to carry out a whole assessment in one season of the year. This shall ensure a further significant reduction of non-sampling errors in the field.

The success of the NSS project should be measured in terms of empowerment of the Afghan staff to design, implement, analyze, interpret and disseminate findings of the nationwide surveillance system.



2.

The 2005 Assessment

The assessment takes into account a series of recommendations made by several stakeholders during a workshop held in June 2004 when the preliminary NRVA 2003 results were discussed. The assessment includes urban households allowing a more comprehensive appreciation of the status of the country in the summer of 2005.

2.1. Objectives

The primary objective of NRVA 2005 is to collect information at community and household level to better understand livelihoods of Kuchi (nomadic pastoralists), rural and urban households throughout the country, and to determine the types of risks and vulnerabilities they face. National and international stakeholders can benefit from the summarized findings of the report or the data set made available for in-depth analysis to develop strategies to address the short, medium, and long-term needs of the nomadic, rural and urban populations through better informed and timely policy development and intervention strategies.

2.2. Methodology

2.2.1. Instruments

The core of NRVA 2005 is being formed by the household questionnaire. The household questionnaire consisted of the following 18 sections; the first 14 were answered by the male head of household or male respondent, and the last four by the female members of the household:

- Household register and education;
- Housing;
- Household facilities;
- Drinking water;
- Assets and credit;
- Livestock;
- Agriculture and land tenure;
- Migration, remittance and social networks;
- Sources of income;
- Households expenditures;
- Cash for work;
- Food Aid and iodized salt;
- Household shocks and coping strategies;
- HIV/AIDS;
- Food consumption;
- Maternal child health;
- Children 0 – 59 months;
- HIV/AIDS and literacy test.



The total number of questions that were asked to the sampled households exceeded 260 but not all questions were answered because some of them were eliminated based on the responses provided (with skipping rules). The household is regarded as the unit of analysis. In Afghanistan there is a need to address the questions to males and females depending on their nature. In every sampled community 12 households have been interviewed. On average the time required to answer the household questionnaire was less than two hours. Besides the household questionnaire, information was gathered at community level. Therefore, two community questionnaires were designed – one male and one female. These two questionnaires addressed the following topics:

Male <i>shura</i> questionnaire	Female <i>shura</i> questionnaire
Community information; Access to infrastructure; Markets access; Health access; Education; Community roles and governance; Programme activities; Community priorities; Water table.	Health access; Community bodies and governance; Community priorities.

2.2.2. Sampling

A sample of 30,822 households from 34 provinces (1,735 Kuchi, 23,220 rural and 5,867 urban) was drawn excluding 6 districts that were not enumerated (as CSO household listing data was not available at the time of sampling the Livestock Census [FAO, 2003] data was used). Twelve districts were enumerated only by male surveyors in all Zabul (11 districts) and Maruf district in Kandahar due to security restrictions; however, in the se districts the food consumption part of the female questionnaire was filled out by male enumerators interviewing male respondents.

Rural and Urban Settled Households

The analytical domain, the unit at which the data are statistically representative, is at the level of 34 rural provinces; in contrast to NRVA 2003, the province of Uruzgan was split into smaller Uruzgan and Daykundi; the same happened to Parwan, which was split into Parwan and Panjsher. In addition to these 34 provincial analytical domains, there are 10 urban areas with populations larger than 10,000 households. The survey has also collected data representative of these 10 urban domains. Thus, there are 44 settled analytical domains. Because Kuchi have been considered as one national analytical domain, there are a total of 45 analytical domains for NRVA 2005.

Collecting representative data with a proportional sample at the provincial level creates a challenge because of the large variation in provincial population from the smallest population in the province of Nimroz, with only 13,941 rural households, to Hirat, with 226,650 rural households. To adjust the sampling to the available budget, the province Jawzjan with 50,900 rural households, has been used as the base analytical domain for which the sampling fraction has been determined.

For those domains with populations less than Jawzjan, and where the sample fraction delivered less than 350 households, further clusters were added to ensure a minimum sample size of 350 households. The sample is therefore not self-weighting.



For those provinces or districts within provinces where the sample frame was not yet available at the time of sampling (42 districts), the Livestock Census database was used to draw a sample.

On arrival at a village, the number of households was determined during the male community interview. As it was difficult for the enumerators to predict the number of households within dwellings, an additional question was asked for the total number of dwellings in the village. This number was divided by 12, to create a sampling interval for households within the community. The enumerators then selected a household each time they counted the sampling interval houses. By using this method, the sampled households were randomly and spread equally throughout the village.

Kuchi households

The household listing conducted by CSO did not effectively include the migratory Kuchi population to the date of the survey; hence there was no effective sampling frame for this population. Apparently, this lack of enumeration of the Kuchi population includes those that have recently settled. This is exactly the same population that was surveyed during winter/spring 2004 by the National Multi-Sectoral Assessment for Kuchi (NMAK)², i.e. the Kuchi that is still nomadic and those that have recently settled since the onset of the last drought period. This is the best estimate of the current Kuchi population. The unit of observation for the survey was the Kuchi communities in their winter location, where one or more Kuchi communities may have been located. The sample frame for the survey was created by constructing the predicted Kuchi populations in their summer location, for which information was collected from the NMAK 2004 survey.

2.2.3. Data collection and analysis

Government and non-government organizations at the provincial and national level were contacted for provision of male and female enumerators, as the team composition was designed for four enumerators (two males and two females, based on the questionnaire design). Full advantage was taken from WFP's regional level enumerators who had previous experience in surveys. Training was conducted in eight regions using two trainers. A test was given to the enumerators, and only those who passed were included in a four-person team (two females and two males, excluding Zabul). Support from local mullahs and teachers in the Maruf district of Kandahar, Logar and Zabul provinces was sought by the NRVA management team to overcome security issues. The field work started in June and was completed in August 2005. Readings with Global Positioning System were taken to verify the locations of the sampled villages. Eight regional coordinators were hired by the NSS project to supervise the enumerators in eight regions. In addition, the WFP/VAM regional team leaders and monitors were involved in the supervision of field work of NRVA 2005 enumerators.

Automated data entry

Teleform Enterprise version 8 (Cardiff software, donated by WFP) was used throughout the process to scan the NRVA 2005 Teleform questionnaires filled in the field. Teleform is an electronic pre-programmed method of gathering data (optical readable software), often used for its speed and accuracy in large surveys and censuses. A scanner capable of processing 60 sheets per minute was used.

Unlike NRVA 2003, where Teleform was only used for the *shura* and wealth group data after being transcribed by VAM and key enumerator staff into scan able formats;

² Weijer F. de (2005)



finally the information was scanned into a Microsoft Access database using Teleform. The NRVA 2005 was completely designed in Teleform; then the enumerators filled in the pre-designed questionnaire sheets and the data were directly scanned into the Access database.

Scanning 1.3 million data sheets took two to three months more than anticipated; the process was finally finished in February 2006. These delays were partially due to the quality of enumeration of questionnaires, computer hardware that was not powerful enough to sustain the processing required (alleviated by the loan of a high-speed server from UNOPS) and the absence of a stable electricity supply (alleviated by the loan of the power generator from WFP).

Once the data were scanned, the programme logically checked if the number of responses per question was not exceeded. Unfortunately, within NRVA 2005 a decision was taken to insert the number of the response within the answer circles. This resulted in some false positive answers as a high percentage of the answer circles were already coloured. Only when a true answer was also indicated (giving two responses) the programme stopped asking for verification, if there was no response then the false positive was accepted and these responses were taken out during normal cleaning practices. Once a questionnaire was validated, the image file was deleted and the data was written to the Access database.

Descriptive statistics were estimated with SPSS and Genstat. Cluster analysis using ADATTI software was used for food security profiling. Provincial statistics produced are included in the Annex; those for national, Kuchi, rural and urban categories are included in the main body of the document.

Data constraints and limitations

In spite of the time spent on the design of the questionnaire and its implementation in NRVA 2005, the data gathered have the following limitations:³

- *Seasonality.* Food security assessment and household perceptions are only valid for the summer season, rather than for the whole year.
- *Limited data on non-food consumption.* Due to the multilateral nature of the assessment most of the non-food consumptions (except communication costs) have been included as groups to avoid an exhaustive questionnaire with a strong risk of lowering the quality of data.
- *Income.* The module on income was designed to look at the number of income generating activities in a household; these can be used for profiling household livelihoods, but should not be used for quantification of income.
- *Infant and child mortality.* Although the age of each child bearing woman was included in the male questionnaire, it was impossible to construct an unambiguous link of these ages to the multiple women in the female questionnaire. Therefore, it is not possible to calculate child mortality for a standard reference period with this design.⁴
- *Rounding food consumption quantities.* The food consumption quantities were obtained by asking female respondents of households to estimate the weights of the different types of 69 foods consumed by the household in the past seven days. If weights were provided in local units, then the enumerator, with support from the respondent, estimated the weights in kilograms. Inevitably, it must be assumed that there was wide scale rounding up or down.

³ The complete NRVA 2005 questionnaires are available (http://www.mrrd.gov.af/vau/NRVA_2005.htm).

⁴ MOPH-JHUBSPH-IIHMR (2006).



- *Inseparable Kuchi information.* Kuchi, as the nomadic pastoralists are known in Afghanistan, were sampled as one national analytical domain regardless of considering their migration pattern. While there are two main types of Kuchi population in Afghanistan: long range and short range migratory Kuchi, NRVA 2005 did not collect this information from the Kuchi communities that it enumerated. While there might be socio-economic differences between these two types of Kuchi, these groups cannot be identified within NRVA 2005 sample.
- *Security limitations to female enumerators.* Due to poor security for female enumerators in 11 districts of Zabul province and one other district (Maruf district of Kandahar) only the food-consumption module of the female questionnaire was enumerated by men to male heads of households or male respondents, to provide food security and household perceptions from these highly insecure areas.

2.3. NRVA 2005 in relation to NRVA 2003

It is very tempting to compare the figures of NRVA 2003 with those of NRVA 2005. However, the methodology used in NRVA 2003 is different from the one used for NRVA 2005. The main differences between NRVA 2003 and NRVA 2005 can be summarised as follows:

NRVA 2003	NRVA 2005
<p>Sample frame not proportional to population.</p> <p>Sample selection was not random (based on different agro-ecological zones).</p> <p>Household selection was not random (based on wealth groups)</p>	<p>Proportional to population (used updated CSO figures).</p> <p>Sample selection was based on random start method to have a better geographical distribution of the sample.</p> <p>The household selection was based on the random start method within villages.</p>
<p>Four levels of data collection:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District level. • Community <i>shura</i> level. • Wealth group level. • Household level. 	<p>Two levels of data collection:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community <i>shura</i> level. • Household level. <p>Only market data is collected at district level.</p>
Covered only rural areas and Kuchi.	Covered rural and urban areas and Kuchi.
Used common questionnaire and after completion of the field work, the data were transcribed into Teleform format.	Teleform questionnaires were used in the field and used as the data entry instrument.
<p>Coverage:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 32 provinces • 368 districts • 1,853 villages • 5,559 wealth groups • 11,757 rural households 	<p>Coverage:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 34 provinces • 392 districts • 2,597 clusters • No wealth groups • 30,822 households
<p>Female enumerators were not involved in the south and most part of eastern areas; so, female information is lacking.</p> <p>Poor female coverage.</p>	<p>Female enumerators participated in the whole assessment in all provinces except Zabul.</p> <p>Good female coverage.</p>
Managed by WFP/VAM.	Managed by Government (CSO-MRRD).



NRVA 2003	NRVA 2005
Partial stakeholder participation for questionnaire design.	Full stakeholder participation in the questionnaire design.
Several different trainers were involved in the training of the enumerators. This allowed the possibility for variation among enumerators.	Uniform training: just 2 trainers who were involved from design to implementation for the whole country.
Household food consumption, but no household non-food consumption. Food poverty calculation only possible at the household level.	Household food consumption and about 25 items of non-food consumption at the household level.

Thus, it may be safely assumed that the quality of the NRVA 2005 data is superior to that of NRVA 2003. The development of these two rounds of NRVA must be regarded as a learning curve for all Afghan stakeholders.

Apart from NRVA 2003 and 2005, other household surveys have been conducted in Afghanistan. Some of them covered similar topics as NRVA, for example the Demographic and Health Survey and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (UNICEF, 2003) are some of the surveys that deal with public health.

2.4. Note to the reader

Unless specifically stated, the numbers of households shown in the table results and Annexes are weighted to represent the whole population. Most of the provincial and selected statistics mentioned in the text are supported with tables in the Annex but some other figures in the text can be estimated using the data set available on the NSS website.



3.

Socio-economic situation

The socio-economic situation is characterized by household demographics, housing, water and sanitation, household asset ownership, access and utilization of education and health facilities, livelihood activities, agricultural and livestock production, transportation and access to markets.

3.1. Population

The population of Afghanistan is very young; 52% is 17 years of age or younger, out of this 16% is pre-school age. Each column in the histogram below represents 5 years; showing that most people within the population are between 5 and 15 years (highlighted in orange). Average life expectancy at birth is 43 years (ADB 2005b).

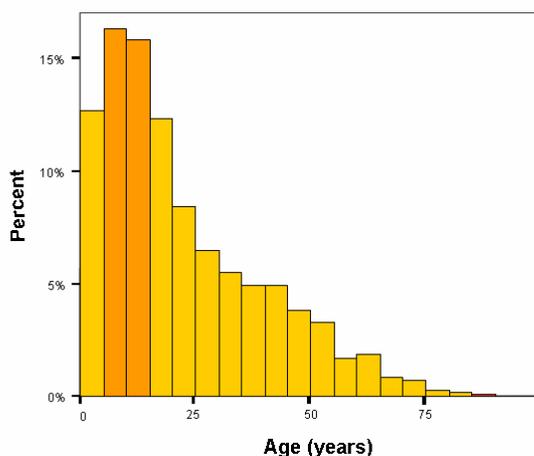


Figure 1: Percent of population by age

Fifty-four percent of the population is male and 46% is female. The average⁵ age of females is 21 years, and that of men is 22 years. The average age of women above 25 years is 40 and that of men is 42 years. On the average, each woman has given birth to 6.6 children (UN Commission on the status of Women, 2006).

Table 1: Age categories of population

Age category	%
0-<6	16
6-<13	24
13-<18	13
18-<24	13
24-99	35

Overall, the average number of people per household in Afghanistan is 7.4, the mode and median are 7. The Kuchi and rural households share the same descriptors,

⁵ Unless it is otherwise specified, average refers to the arithmetic mean. In a broader sense, the average also refers to the median (middle value that separates the higher half from the lower half of the data set) and mode (most frequent or common value in the data set), which are other estimates for the central tendency.



average number of members per household is 7.5, and mode and median is 7. The urban households are slightly smaller; the average is 6.8, and the mode and median is 6. Among provinces, at one extreme Hilmand has an average of 9.1 household members, where the mode is 7 and the median 9; at the other extreme, Nimroz averages 6.0 members, and the mode and median is 6.

Two percent of the households in Afghanistan are headed by females. Female headed households are highest in Nimroz (9%), followed by Samangan (6%), Kapisa and Nuristan (5%), and Hilmand and Wardak (4%). There are 4% male disabled head of households, while among the female heads of household, only 3% are disabled.

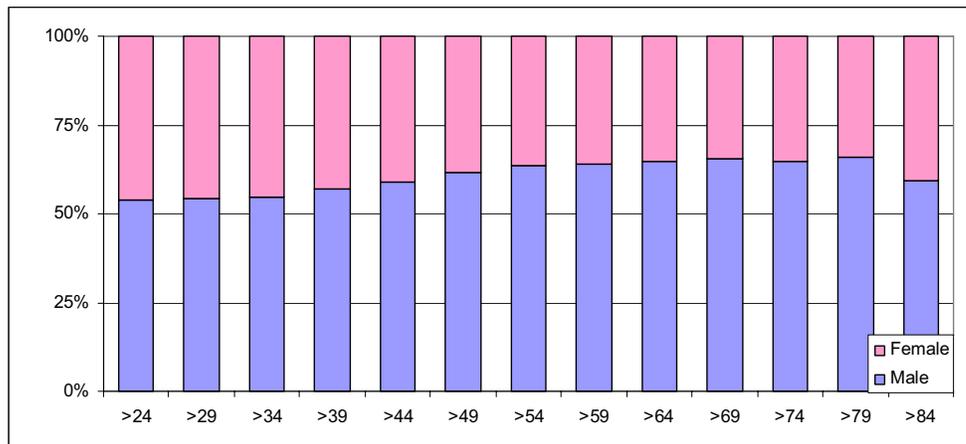


Figure 2: Proportion of females and males in groups of age above 24 years

The first column in the figure above represents the proportion of females and males in the Afghan population between 25 and 99 years; the subsequent columns represent the female and male proportions for groups with increasing ages up to 99. The female to male ratio drastically declines above 40 years to 70 years, which could be related to the cumulative effect of disadvantageous conditions of women and the biological burden of giving birth to several children. In general, women have a longer life expectancy, and histograms of the female and male shares for different age groups would be expected to be convex from below. Neighbouring countries of Afghanistan (India, Pakistan, Iran and Tajikistan) show that the probability at birth of surviving to 65 years for females is 70% and that of males is 63% (UNDP, 2006). Furthermore, out of all countries listed by UNDP only Zambia and Zimbabwe⁶ have lower probabilities for females at birth surviving to 65 years than males (average females 17% and average males 18%). The NRVA 2005 shows that Afghanistan is an outlier among its neighbours and it is not only in line but possibly exceeds these two African countries where females have lower probabilities of reaching an advanced age, as shown in the figure. This situation is further compounded by the casualties of war, expected to be higher for men than for women, which would further deepen the gender gap flagged by NRVA 2005 data (see section 3.4).

⁶ While Zambia and Zimbabwe have been severely hit by HIV/AIDS there is no evidence that at present this is a common element to explain this gender gap. Afghanistan has only 50 known cases of HIV. However, given the much higher HIV cases in neighbouring Pakistan (74,000) and Iran (14,000), an unknown behaviour of refugees returning from abroad, injecting drug use and low literacy to put the country at risk (<http://www.youandaids.org/Asia%20Pacific%20at%20a%20Glance/Afghanistan/Index.asp#scenario>).



*A demographic study should assess these findings as soon as possible.*⁷

3.2. Education

3.2.1. Literacy

Afghanistan is one of the countries in the world with the lowest literacy rates, especially amongst women. Therefore attention will be paid to gender issues in the following section.

Heads of households or male respondents were asked if they and other household members could read. Slightly more than quarter (28%) of the population (6 years old and above) in the country can read. The urban population has the highest literacy rate (56%), followed by households in the rural areas (23%), while only 6% of the Kuchi can read. The overall literacy rate of women is 18% and that of men is 36%. Female to male literacy ratio is 0.5 for all the population and the Kuchi, 0.4 in the rural areas and 0.7 among the urban population. This ratio is 0.8 in Iran, 0.7 in India, 0.6 in Pakistan and above 0.9 in the neighbouring Central Asian countries (UNDP, 2006).

Table 2: Overall literacy rates (%) in Afghanistan for 6 years old and above

Categories	Female	Male	Average
Kuchi	4	8	6
Rural	13	32	23
Urban	47	64	56
National	18	36	28

Overall, the highest literacy rates in Afghanistan are found in the provinces of Kabul (58%), Balkh (44%), Kapisa (39%), Parwan (37%) and Hirat (36%) and the lowest rates are in Zabul (<1%), Paktika (2%), Hilmand and Uruzgan (5%). Kabul, the capital, has a high level of access to school; Balkh and Hirat are provinces with big urban and high urban population with better access to education facilities. During recent years of war many households of Kapisa and Parwan have been displaced to Kabul. These provinces have been the focus of decision makers to invest in education. Zabul, Paktika, Hilmand and Uruzgan have faced many years of insecurity.

Overall provincial findings show that Kabul, Faryab, Hirat (0.7), Paktya, Nuristan, Kunduz, Balkh and Badakhshan (0.6) have the closest gender balance across the country.⁸ In contrast, Zabul, Paktika and Uruzgan show the lowest female to male literacy ratio (0.1 or less) and absolute number. Traditions and attitudes constrain female literacy, and this is compounded by difficult or limited access to schools.

⁷ Teleform errors were mentioned in section 2 and there are problems with the complex family structure and relationships in the household units. However, the gender and number of family members is likely to be the most reliable demographic information.

⁸ Whilst Nuristan is the 18th province in terms of literacy ranking, it has a relatively high female to male literacy ratio. During the Mujahedin and Taliban leadership, some literate families moved from urban areas to their places of origin due to security reasons and losing their jobs. Recently, there is a considerable improvement in provincial literacy due to migration to Pakistan for religious education in Nuristan province.

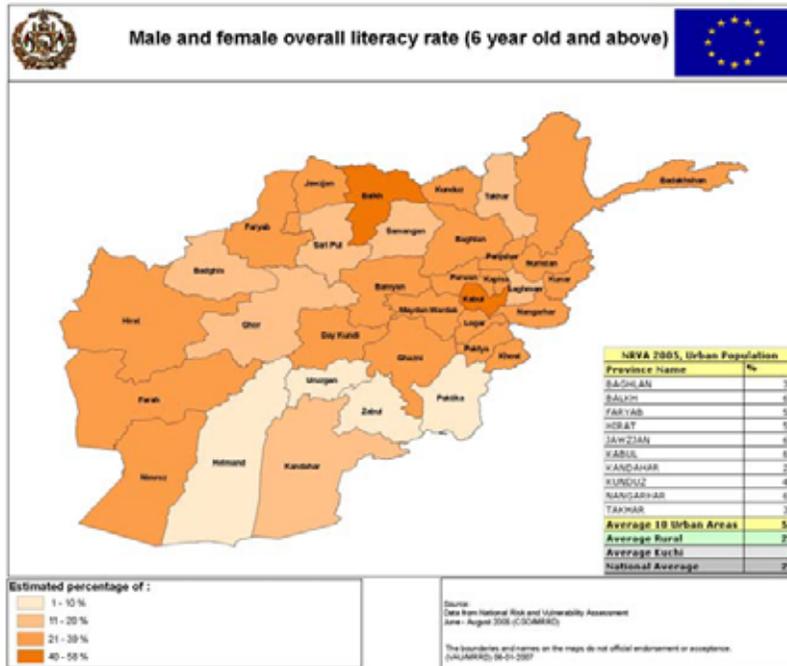


Figure 3: Literacy rate, females and males (6 years old and above)

Literacy in Afghanistan is associated with culture and attitudes toward literacy, access to schools, security and public investment. The low literacy rates in the southern provinces and Paktika in southeast are mostly related to security and cultural factors; in Badghis and Ghor, remoteness and poor access to schools and in Sar-I-Pul, limited number of schools and long distances explain the low literacy rates.

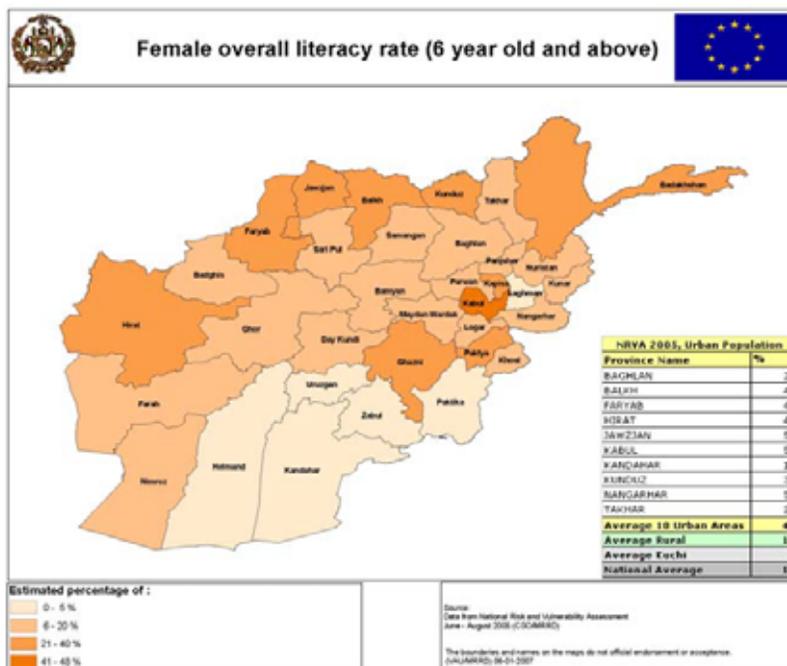


Figure 4: Literacy rate, females (6 years old and above)

Kabul, Balkh and Hirat have the highest rates of female literacy, while in the south security and cultural factors constrain female literacy. Generally Kabul, Kapisa in the central part, Hirat in west and most of the north and northeast province and Ghazni and Paktya have better female literacy rate.



Female Literacy rate is higher in Kabul, Balkh and Hirat. These provinces have higher urban resident with high access to female education. The four provinces with the lowest female to male literacy ratio are Zabul, Paktika, Uruzgan and Hilmand. These provinces are highly insecure, traditional and have limited educational facilities.

In the **rural areas** the highest literacy rate occurs in Parwan (41%), Kapisa and Panjsher (40%), Ghazni and Balkh (37%) Kabul and Paktya (36%). The lowest rates are in Zabul (<1%), Paktika (2%), Hilmand (5%) and Uruzgan (6%). Parwan, Kapisa and Panjsher have closest access to the capital of the country with lot of movement to capital. Kabul is capital of the country and Balkh rural households have good access to education facilities. Paktya province amazingly shows the fifth highest literacy rate. The lowest four provinces may also present security problems, traditional attitudes and limited access to schools. Rural provinces with high female to male literacy ratio are Faryab (0.7), Hirat, Nuristan, Badakhshan and Paktya (0.6), while Zabul, Paktika, Uruzgan, Hilmand and Kandahar have the female to male ratio of 0.1 or less.

Literacy rate in the ten provinces urban dwellers is highest in Kabul (67%), followed by Jawzjan (65%), Nangarhar (64%), Balkh (60%), Faryab (55%) and Hirat (53%). The lowest rate is observed in Kandahar (22%).

Overall, Kuchi literacy rate is only 6% (4% for women and 8% for men). The nomadic and semi-nomadic nature of this group further limits their access to basic education. A possible way to address this limitation could be through the examination of literacy programmes for migratory groups in other parts of the world and an adaptation of some of their elements into a strategy to promote Kuchi literacy.

The national literacy rate of the **age group of 15-24 years** is an indicator of the achievement of the young and productive adults (this is an indicator for the MDG No. 2, *Achievement of universal education by 2015*). The overall average literacy for this age group is 31%. The highest rate is in the urban areas (64%), followed by the rural areas (26%) and only 6% among the Kuchi. The female to male literacy ratio is highest among the Kuchi households (0.9), closely followed by the urban areas (0.8) and the lowest value in the rural areas (0.3). The high female to male literacy ratio for Kuchi is relative to a 6% overall literacy rate. The NMAK survey (Weijer 2005, p. 40) found that only 5 females can read out of 10,000 compared to 200 males out of 10,000. This needs further investigation. In the urban areas women have better access to schooling, while in the rural areas both cultural traditions and low access to schools limit female literacy.

Table 3: Literacy rate among 15-24 years old population

Category	Female	Male	Average
Kuchi	5.6	6.1	5.9
Rural	11.6	35.7	25.6
Urban	55.4	70.5	63.6
National Average	19.6	39.9	31.3



3.2.2. School attendance

The net enrolment ratio in primary education is the number of children 6-13 years enrolled and attending primary school. NRVA 2005 estimates the national average for attendance as 29% female, 43% male and 37% overall. The achievement of universal primary education (MDG No. 2) by 2015 also can be assessed by the net enrolment rate in primary education of 6 to 13 years old.

Table 4: Net enrolment (%) in primary education (6 to 13 years old)

Kuchi			Rural			Urban		
Female	Male	All	Female	Male	All	Female	Male	All
6	11	9	27	44	36	51	55	53

Net enrolment in urban areas is reported to be as high as 53%. With almost a 1:1 ratio of girls and boys attending primary school, indicating that in urban areas, the issue of getting children to school is not completely determined by culture, but may be due to access or other social challenges. In rural areas the average net enrolment is lower with only 36% and Kuchi only 9%; there is also a 1:2 ratio of girls to boys, indicating that there is a cultural challenge as well as a greater social and access challenge. These figures can also be used as a baseline for the achievement of the MDG No. 3, to promote gender equality and empower women. **Overall net enrolment** is 37%, for girls 29% and for boys 43%

In **rural Afghanistan**, Paktya (67%), Kapisa (62%), Kunduz (59%), Balkh (55%) and Faryab (54%) have the highest rate of enrolment of both girls and boys. Girls' enrolment is highest in Paktya (56%), Faryab (52%), Hirat (48%), Kunduz (47%) and Kapisa (46%) while boys' enrolment is highest in Kapisa and Paktya (77%), Kunduz (69%), Balkh (67%), Khost (63%), Parwan (61%) and Panjsher (60%). In contrast, Zabul (<1%), Uruzgan (1%), Hilmand (6%) and Paktika (9%), in the south and south-eastern have the lowest rates of enrolment for girls and boys.

Overall enrolment in **urban areas** is 53%, with the highest figure in Kunduz (75%), Hirat (74%), Jawzjan (67%) while Kandahar (34%) and Baghlan (36%) present the lowest rates. As the overall enrolment decreases, female and male enrolment also follows the same trend in the respective provinces. In one extreme, the highest overall enrolment in Kunduz is 75% while girls' enrolment is 74% and that of boys is 76%. In the other extreme, Kandahar has 34% overall enrolment while girls' enrolment is 28% and that of boys is 36%.

Kuchi have a 9% national rate of enrolment for both girls and boys; girls' enrolment is 6% and boys' is 11% (no figures are available from the NMAK survey for comparison).

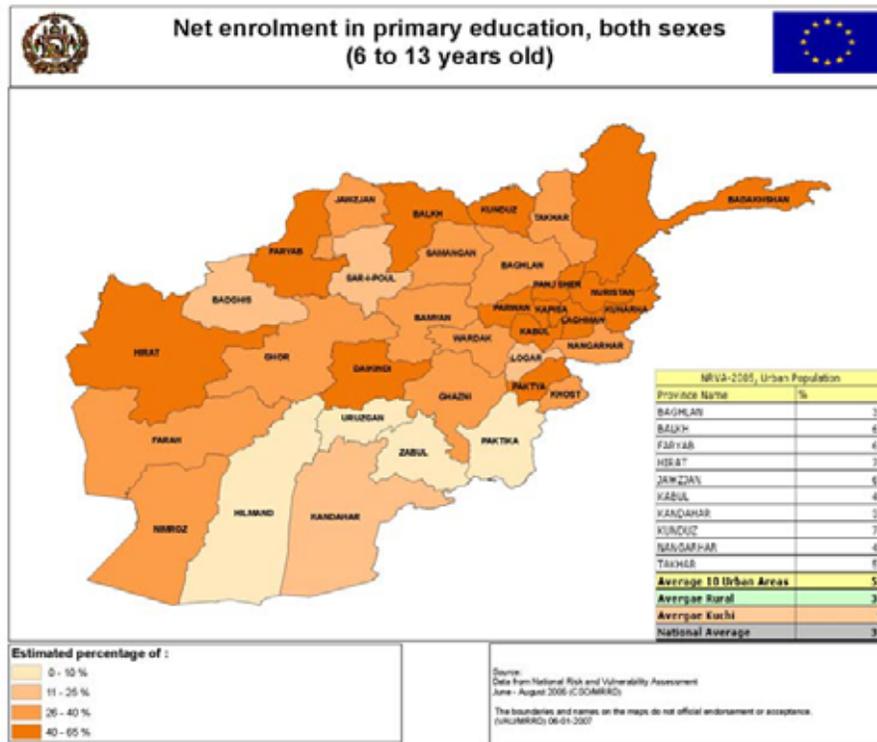


Figure 5: Net enrolment in primary education, both sexes (6-13 years old)

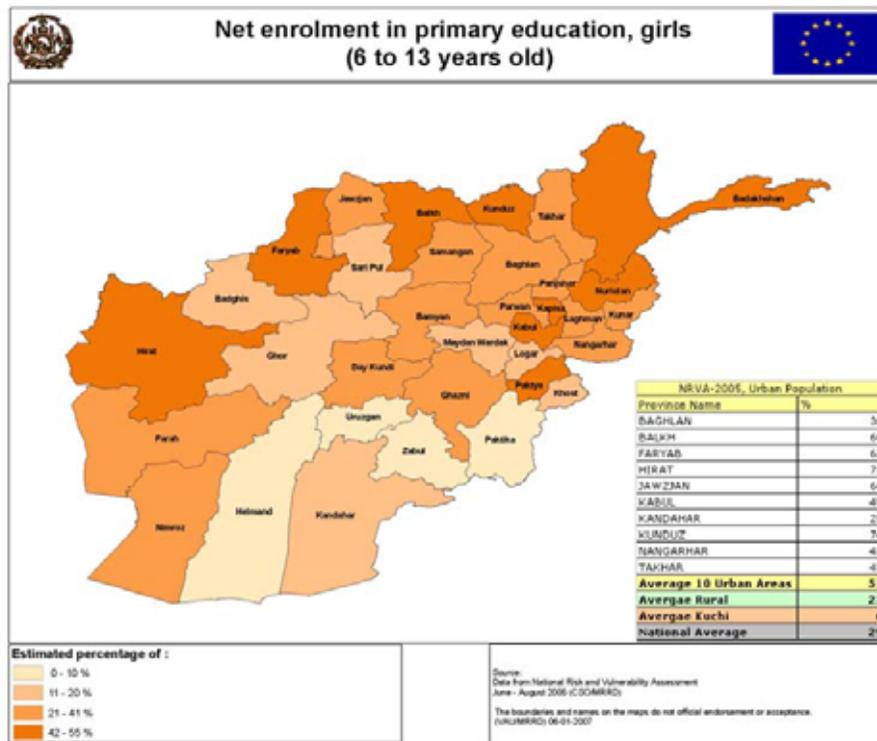


Figure 6: Net enrolment in primary education, girls (6-13 years old)

With improved access to schools for both girls and boys and changes in cultural attitudes, the female to male literacy ratio should increase. These changes are already evident in the urban areas with higher exposure to non-traditional sources of information.



3.3. Access to information

The NRVA 2005 questionnaire included six groups of sources of information:

- Mass media: radio, television, national network and internet.
- Social network: relatives, local market, group or associates, business or work associates.
- Local leaders: mullah and community leaders.
- Local media: community bulleting board and local newspaper.
- Official staff: government officials and NGOs.
- Political: political party.

Overall, the social network accounts for most of the diffusion of information, 74% of all households. Mass media is also an important source (60%), followed by local leaders (39%). Other forms of information such as local media (9%), official staff (12%) and political parties (1%) are far less important.

Table 5: Most important sources of information (%)

	Radio, TV, national network Internet	Relative, local market, group or business or work associates	Mullah, community leaders	Community bulletin board, local newspaper	NGO/ Government	Political party
Categories	Mass Media	Social Networks	Local Leader	Local Media	Official Staff	Political
Kuchi	45	76	38	5	10	0
Rural	57	77	44	7	14	1
Urban	75	60	16	18	6	1
National	60	74	39	9	12	1

Mass media in Paktika and Laghman is the most important source of information (92%), Sar-I-Pul (29%) and Bamyán (26%). In Kapisa and Takhar, the social network forms the most important source (93%). Local leaders as a source of information are as high as 83% in Nuristan, Badghis (82%) and Sar-I-Pul (80%) or as low as in Logar (3%), Zabul (5%) and Nimroz (6%).

In the **rural areas** the figures match closely with the national figures. The social network is the most important source of information (77%), followed by the mass media (57%) and local leaders (44%). When these figures are compared with urban data, there is an interesting difference. Because **urban life** is more anonymous than that in rural areas, it is no surprise that the social network (60%) is less important than the mass media (75%). The role of local leaders in urban areas is even less important (16%).

The figures for **Kuchi** households are similar to those in the rural areas, with the main difference that Kuchi households have less access to mass media (45%). When radio is taken into consideration, these figures do not differ much from the overall mass media figures. Therefore, within the various forms of mass media, radio takes the most prominent position (Table 5).



3.4. Health care

Women marry young, the most common age being 20. However, NRVA 2005 data show 52,700 cases of girls 10 or 11 years old being married (13 girls out of 1000 women).⁹ Only 19% of the deliveries are born in suitable health facilities such as government hospitals or NGO health centres. The rest are home-delivered or by female neighbours or relatives; out of them 57% were delivered by female relatives or friends, and 41% were delivered by a traditional birth attendant. The map in Fig. 7 shows the distribution of married women in the households up to age 49 with knowledge on how to avoid pregnancy.

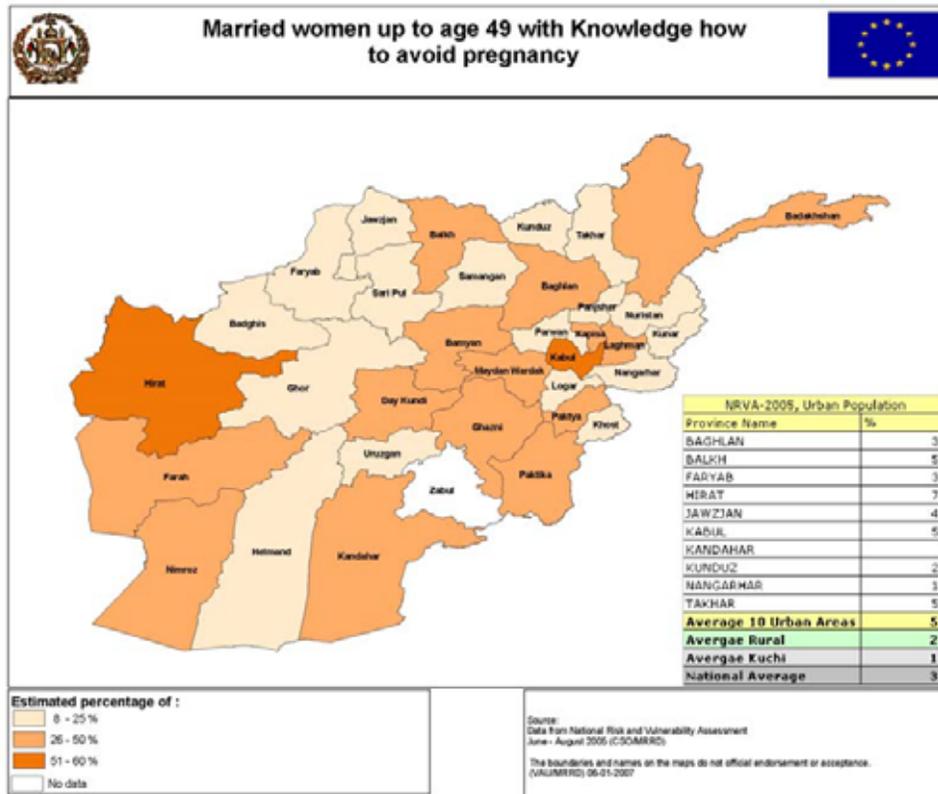


Figure 7: Married women in the households up to age 49 with knowledge of how to avoid pregnancy

In general, urban households have higher knowledge of methods to avoid pregnancy. The provinces of Kabul and Hirat, with a high literacy rate and urban populations, show the highest knowledge of birth control methods.

Overall, only 31% of the married woman up to 49 years of age know or have heard about methods to avoid pregnancy. Of those, 44% said that they are using them. Specifically, 44% use the pill, 37% use injection, and 8% use condoms, 6% use early withdrawal, and 3% use sterilization. The percentage use of condoms, restricted to the married woman up to 49 years of age who stated that they are using contraceptive methodes, is 9% in urban areas, 7% in rural and 17% among the

⁹ Afghanistan registers 1600-2200 death women per 100,000 live births (GOA, 2005) and each woman averages 6.6 live births in her life (UNESOC, 2006), compounding to an 11-15% chance of dying due to motherhood. The World Health Organization has expressed that a nutritional gap, early marriages and domestic violence are other factors that exacerbate female mortality (Technical Working Group No. 4, meeting held on 19 June 2005, *Maternal Health*, Millennium Development Goal No. 5, <http://www.and.s.gov.af/mdgsgroups.asp>). Furthermore, about 60-80% of the marriages in the country are forced marriages; many of those, especially in the rural areas, involve girls below the age of 15 and child marriages are about 40% of all marriages (UNESOC, 2006 and Amnesty International, 2005).



Kuchi. The high frequency of use among the Kuchi depends on the fact that the absolute number for Kuchi is lower than urban and rural households. Only a small proportion of Kuchi women are aware of methods to avoid pregnancy; out of them only some use a contraceptive method, and among them only some use condoms. Furthermore, Kuchi woman may not have as much access to other methods as settled population as well.

The map in figure 8 depicts the distribution in use of condoms as one method to avoid contraception or sexually transmitted diseases.

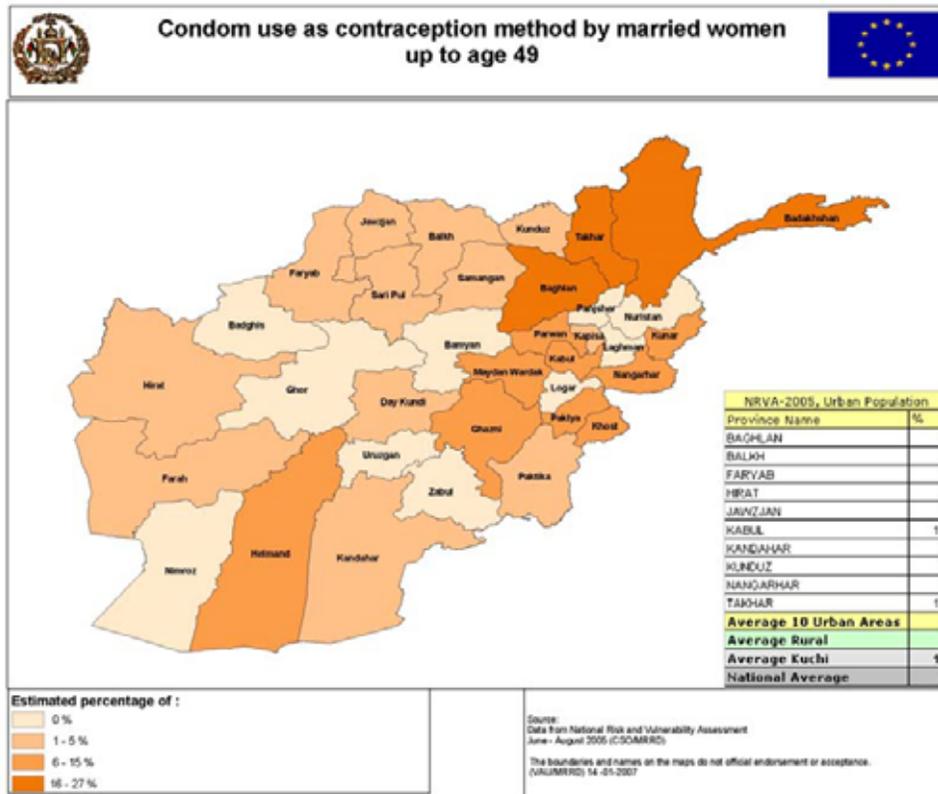


Figure 8: Condom use as contraceptive method by married women
Culture and education, especially of women, are directly linked with the use of contraceptive methods.



Table 6: Contraceptive methods used by married woman in the households up to age 49, out of those using any of these methods

Categories	Pill %	Condom %	Injection %	Sterilization %	Early withdrawal %	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	38	17	34	5	6	13,431
Rural	42	7	41	2	6	362,416
Urban	48	9	28	6	8	171,504
National Average	44	8	37	3	6	547,351

Barriers to health care and perceptions

During 2005 the NSS project as part of the NRVA assessment also collected data from the female and male *shuras* within a community. This assessment was to record the perceived attitudes of the *shuras*, which traditionally play an important role in the self governance of the Afghan communities. The lack of health facilities and medical attention has been flagged by the *shuras* as high priority for public intervention.

Nationally, most of the *shuras* responded that the closest health care facilities were clinics without beds (basic health centres). Nuristan was the only province which consistently (male or female *shura*) responded that most of the health facilities were health posts. The most frequent answer among the households in Balkh, Jawzjan and Takhar is that hospitals are their closest health facility.

In those communities that do not have a community health worker, the *shuras* were asked if they thought a health worker would go to the communities in an emergency. Sixty-seven percent of the female *shura* recorded that the community did not have a community worker within it and that most of them believed that the health worker would not visit the community, even in the case of emergency. The male *shura* responded with a higher level of scepticism than the female *shura*; 72% thought that help would not be provided in case of emergency.

There is need to overcome the barriers in access to health care for all sectors of the population but especially for women. Women above 24 years of age have higher mortality rates than men of the same ages; this is probably related to deficiencies in health care and nutrition. The NRVA 2005 questionnaire did not address the types of health problems prevailing among women. Attention should be paid to the nexus health care and nutrition.

3.5 Housing and services

In the survey, households were asked to characterize their current dwelling. In addition, information was collected on main sources of lighting, electricity, cooking fuel, drinking water and sanitation. Also, the enumerators were instructed to make an evaluation of the housing facilities.

3.5.1 Housing

Overall, **single private housing** was reported as the most frequent type of dwelling (72%) while 17% of the households **share a house** with others. In the **urban areas** these figures are slightly different, with 63% private housing and 22% sharing housing. In recent years there has been a lot of migration into the urban areas, where

the supply of houses is more limited. In Kabul and urban Nangarhar (Jalalabad) the share of single private houses is the lowest with 56%. In Kabul large numbers of houses have been destroyed during the various periods of war and Jalalabad hosted many internally displaced people from different parts of the country in last years of war. The highest number of households living in a single private house can be found in Takhar (94%) and Jawzjan (86%). These provinces have suffered comparatively little damage during the years of war. Seven percent of the urban households live in temporary shelters, with Baghlan having the highest frequency (25%).

Table 7: Types of housing (%)

Categories	Single family house	Part/ shared house	Separate apartment	Part/shared apartment	Tent	Temporary shelter / shack	Other
Kuchi	20	5	0	0	71	4	0
Rural	77	17	1	0	1	4	0
Urban	63	22	4	1	0	7	2
National	72	17	1	0	4	5	1

In the **rural** areas 77% of all households live in a single private house, whereas 17% share one. The share of temporary shelters is somewhat lower (4%). In Paktika nearly all households live in a single house (99%), while neighbouring Paktya (43%) and Zabul (27%) have the lowest share of single private houses. Nangarhar (52%) and Paktya (39%) have the highest number of households sharing a house.



Nomadic Kuchi households usually live in tents. Twenty percent of all Kuchi households live in a single family house. This does not mean, however, that these households live in a house throughout the year. There are some periods when they move from their tents to a house, especially during the harsh winter period (semi-nomadic Kuchi).



The vast majority of all households claim **ownership** of the house where they live. They have acquired it, either by **inheritance** (72%) or **purchase** (13%). Four percent of all households consider themselves as **tenants**, and another 4% are **squatters**.¹⁰

Table 8: House acquisition

Categories	inherited	purchased	Occupied mortgaged dwelling	tenant	caretaker	Relative / friend owner	squatter	other
Kuchi	28	31	0		1	1	22	16
Rural	83	8	0	1	1	3	4	1
Urban	36	32	3	21	2	2	3	1
National	72	13	1	4	1	3	4	2

There is a great difference between **urban** and **rural** areas. In the urban areas the number of tenants is much higher compared to the rural areas – 21% and 1%, respectively. The total number of households that consider themselves as owners is 68% in the urban areas and 91% in the rural areas. **Kuchi** ownership of housing is somewhat more complicated to interpret because of the mobility of their settlements. Tents can be considered the full ownership of Kuchi households. Any single house or a shared house is also inherited or purchased.

Overall, most of the houses have been acquired by inheritance but many households (44%) **do not possess any documentation** that proves ownership. Thirty-one percent of those households who claim to be owners have a deed registered in the court or mazkan, and another 13% have their deed registered in district or sub-district offices. Five percent have their deed recorded elsewhere, while 7% of the interviewed household did not know where the deed was registered.

Table 9: Evidence of ownership (%)

Categories	No	Yes, court/mazkan	Yes, local records	Yes, elsewhere	Don't know
Kuchi	64	20	4	3	8
Rural	48	26	13	5	8
Urban	14	61	16	5	3
National	44	31	13	5	7

In the **urban** areas, the majority (61%) have their deed registered in court, ranging from 27% in Hirat to 95% in Jawzjan. Fourteen percent of all the urban households who own a house do not have a deed, with the highest figures in Takhar (28%). In recent years many refugees have returned to the country. In some of the provinces there are areas identified as urban *Nahias*. Whilst the municipality of the Ministry of Urban Development has not officially distributed land for house building, some urban land-owners have sold their land to the needy people without documentation (*Urfe Qabala*) so that they can build their houses. This category of urban residents does not have any legal or official document, but they are urban residents.

¹⁰ It should be noted that in the translation from English to Dari, which was used by the enumerators, a squatter is someone who lives in a temporary dwelling, rather than a person that occupies an existing house and not paying any form of rent.



The situation in the **rural** areas is different: 48% of all households do not have a deed. Panjsher (99%) and Paktya (93%) are the provinces where there are hardly any deeds registered. Of the deeds being registered, 26% are registered in court (Logar with 55% and Bamyan with 54% are the highest), 13% are recorded locally and 5% elsewhere. In rural Afghanistan housing registration has not taken place, so some provinces with limited number of urban households have been considered as rural. The reported deed registration in the court or Mazkan may be of those who live within the urban areas of these provinces, or some rural households refer to the deed they have for the land where they have built their houses. The majority (64%) of **Kuchi** households do not have a deed and 20% of households have their deeds registered in court (this maybe the deed of the land where the house was built). Only 2% have had a dispute over land during recent years.

As already mentioned, most houses are being owned by their dwellers. As a result 96% of all households do not pay any rent. Those households that pay **rent** in all the sample average AFG 2,700 per month. The rural average is AFG 1,448 and the urban average is twice as much (AFG 2,922).

Overall, the highest debts related to housing are in the urban areas (11% of households) followed by 9% of the rural households and only 2% of Kuchi households have one. Fifty-three percent of households in Nuristan have debts. In Nuristan there is a common practice of obtaining goods on credit, and there is a time of the year (generally autumn) when they sell their animals to pay back their loans.

Table 10: Outstanding debt on housing (%)

Categories	No	Yes
Kuchi	98	2
Rural	91	9
Urban	89	11
National	91	9



The local enumerators were instructed to assess the quality of housing of the surveyed households. This assessment can only be subjective, most likely also relative to their own house when judging other houses. Another factor compounding the subjective assessment is that these questions were included in the male part of the questionnaire; traditionally, the rooms for receiving guests are separate, so it was difficult to quantify their judgment without having access to all rooms of the house.

In some parts of the country such as the east, in the summer (when the assessment took place) the reserved place for male guests is outside, in front of the house (*Dera*). The lack of access to the main house made it difficult to evaluate the quality of the house. Male enumerators in such circumstances were advised to ask the female enumerators to evaluate the housing condition as they conducted the interview inside of the house. However, equivalence of male and female assessments is relative. Taking this into account, 43% of all dwellings were considered to be in a good condition (**windows and doors present and a non leaking roof**), 20% of all houses had one or more deficiencies of doors, windows or roof. Thirteen percent of all households live in **poor** housing conditions. Furthermore, 9% live in a **temporary structure** that can be described as being **good**, while 6% live in a **poor temporary structure**.

Table 11: Housing condition (%)

Categories	Non leaking windows, doors, roof	Leaking windows, doors, roof	Traditional tent	Relief tent	Temporary structure - good	Temporary structure - bad	Incomplete structure	Poor
Kuchi	11	4	66	4	2	3	2	8
Rural	43	23	1	0	8	6	5	14
Urban	51	13	0	0	15	8	4	8
National	43	20	4	0	9	6	5	13

Out of all **Kuchi** households interviewed, 66% lived in traditional tents at the time of the interview, these figures includes semi-nomadic populations, who stay in tents during summer. In the **urban** areas, 51% of all houses were in good condition, ranging from 2% in Nangarhar to 73% in Kunduz. The highest proportion of temporary structures was 16% in Hirat; out of those, 51% are of good quality and 12% of poor quality.

In the **rural** areas the housing assessed with good quality was 43%, and 23% was poor. The highest quality of houses was assessed in Paktika and Bamyān (about 90%; this figure may be biased by the local enumerators that compared their own housing with those of interviewees; housing in Bamyān generally looks among the poorest in the country). Ghazni and Zabul had the highest number of temporary structures. Overall, very few households (3%) own a **second dwelling**. The difference between urban and rural areas is negligible. Ten percent of **Kuchi** households possess an alternative dwelling; most likely their winter housing.

Table 12: Ownership of second dwelling (%)

Categories	No	Yes
Kuchi	90	10
Rural	98	2
Urban	97	3
National	97	3

3.5.2. Drinking water and sanitation

In the NRVA 2003 survey, safe drinking water was defined as water from hand pumps only, while all other water sources surveyed were considered to be unsafe, as per the UNICEF (2003a) definition. In NRVA 2005, the definition of water from a protected source was introduced.



Safe water is considered to be water from a protected source. Several options were mentioned in the questionnaire.

Safe water (protected)	Unsafe water
Hand pump – public	Shallow open well – public
Hand pump – in compound	Shallow open well – in compound
Bored well – hand pump	Spring – unprotected
Bored well motorized	Arhad
Spring – protected	Karez
Pipe scheme – gravity	River Lake Canal
Pipe scheme motorized	Kanda
Pipe scheme – municipal	Nawar Dand Dam
Bowser/water tanker	Pool Howz
	Drainage
	Other

Nationwide, 31% of the households have access to safe drinking water. Kuchi households have lowest access to safe drinking water (16%), while rural households have 26% and urban households 64%.

Table 13: Households with access to safe drinking water

Categories	% households	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	16	30,636
Rural	26	787,922
Urban	64	409,295
National	31	1,227,853



Rural households in Kandahar (50%), Logar (49%), Nimroz (45%), and Kabul and Nangarhar (41%) have the highest percentage of households with access to safe drinking water. Very low access to safe drinking water was reported in Samangan (4%), Daykundi (3%), and Nuristan (2%). No safe access to water was reported in Zabul. It should be pointed out that in a province like Nuristan, unprotected high-altitude water springs are endowed with high quality water, but as per the definition of safe drinking water, this source is accounted as unsafe.

Access to safe drinking water in urban households is highest in Kandahar (99%), followed by Kabul (71%) and Balkh (67%). Among the provinces with lowest access to safe drinking water are Baghlan and Hirat (35%) and the lowest access is in Kunduz (15%).

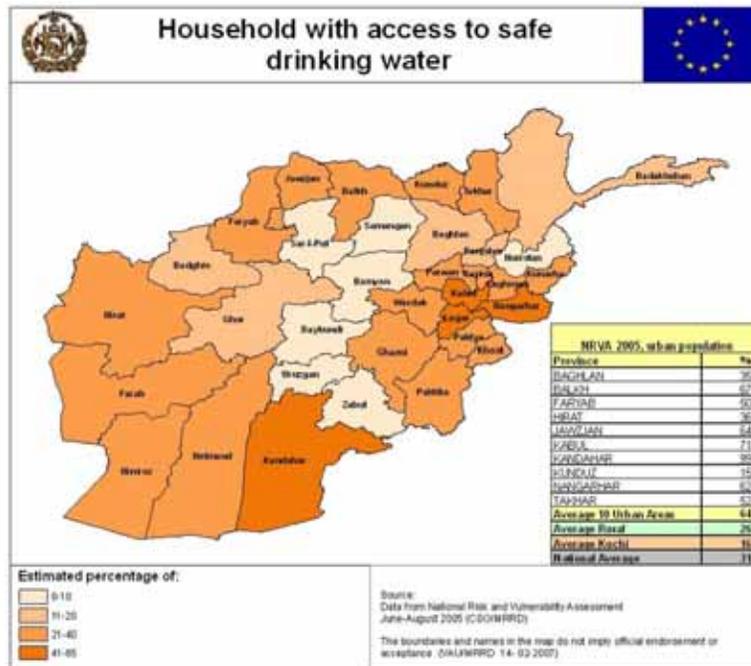


Figure 9: Households with access to safe drinking water

Provincial averages of access to safe drinking water are highest in Kabul (65%), Kandahar (54%), Logar (45%) and Nangarhar (43%). In contrast, Zabul (0%), Nuristan (2%), Daykundi (3%), Samangan (7%), Bamyan, Uruzgan and Sar-I-Pul (8%) have the lowest access to safe drinking water.¹¹

¹¹ In some province like Nuristan their main water sources are spring, which may be safe, but not protected, so based on the above mentioned definition considered as unsafe.



Payment for drinking water from the current main source

Nationwide, 5% of the households pay for the main source of drinking water. Two percent of Kuchi and rural households report paying for drinking water. In contrast, 16% of urban households pay for their main source of drinking water.

Table 14: Households paying for current main source of drinking water

Categories	% households	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	2	2,886
Rural	2	70,457
Urban	16	100,674
National	5	174,017

The **provincial average** shows the highest percentage of households paying for drinking water in Nimroz (30%), Samangan (22%) and Kabul (15%). Uruzgan, Laghman, Kapisa, Daykundi, Bamyan, Kunduz, Nuristan and Kunarha reported that they do not pay for their main source of drinking water at all. All the other provinces show 1% to 8% of households paying for their main source of water.

Amount paid for drinking water (June to August 2005)

Nationwide, the monthly payment for drinking water from the main source averages 181 Afs during the months when the survey was implemented (June to August). **Kuchi** households show the highest monthly payment (722 Afs), but it should be mentioned that only Kuchi from Badghis, Jawzjan and Samangan report such payments, purchasing from water tankers. **Rural** households average 188 Afs, which is higher than for **urban** households (162 Afs).

Table 15: Average monthly payment for drinking water

Categories	(Afs)	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	722	2,553
Rural	188	52,717
Urban	162	92,109
National	181	147,379

The **provincial rural** households with the highest monthly payment for drinking water are in Jawzjan (900 Afs), followed by Badghis (492 Afs), Balkh (454 Afs) and Samangan (285 Afs). While none of the rural settled households in Zabul, Uruzgan, Panjsher, Paktya, Paktika, Nuristan, Laghman, Kunduz, Kapisa, Kabul, Daykundi, Bamyan, and Baghlan provinces reported payment for the main source of drinking water at all. The remaining provinces have monthly payments ranging from 10 to 243 Afs. **Urban** households with highest monthly payments are in Faryab (563 Afs), followed by Jawzjan (290 Afs), Hirat (211 Afs), Kabul (168 Afs), Kandahar (144 Afs), Baghlan (129 Afs) Takhar (100 Afs), Nangarhar (98 Afs) and Balkh (33 Afs).

Overall provincial average monthly payment is highest in Jawzjan (532 Afs), followed by Badghis (513 Afs), Faryab (400 Afs) and Samangan (341 Afs). No payment for water was reported in rural households in Panjsher, Paktya, Paktika, Nuristan, Laghman, Kunduz, Kapisa, Daykundi, and Bamyan provinces. The rest of provinces have monthly payments ranging from 10 to 243 Afs.



Time taken to collect water from main source

The time required for the households to collect water from the nearest source and return shows the constraints to different sectors of the population.

Nationwide, 82% of the households obtain water from their communities (almost no time); 14% obtain it near their communities, within one hour or less; 2% take between a 1 to 3 hours; and 1% require 3 to 6 hours. None of the households reported longer times to acquire drinking water, with the exception of a few Kuchi households. **Overall**, **Kuchi** households report that 56% of them have their main water source within their community, requiring almost no time to collect water; 34% of the households require 1 hour or less, while 6% require 1 to 3 hours, 3% require 3 to 6 hours, and 1% require between 6 to 12 hours. None of them require more than one day to obtain water.

Overall, **urban** households report that 94% of them have close access to their drinking water sources with almost no time required and only 6% require 1 hour or less to acquire drinking water. **Overall**, **rural** households report that 81% of them have their main drinking water sources in the community, with almost no time needed to gather water, 15% get water within one hour, 3% require 1 to 3 hours and only 1% requires 3 to 6 hours to procure water.

Table 16: Time required to the nearest water source

Categories	No time – in community	Near community – 1 hour or less	1-3 hrs	3-6 hrs	6-12hrs	>1 day	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	56	34	6	3	1	0	183,039
Rural	81	15	3	1	0	0	2,934,038
Urban	94	6	0	0	0	0	580,542
National	82	14	2	1	0	0	3,697,619

Overall, the **provincial** average time required for the majority households to acquire is almost 'no time' because they have access to water within their communities. Households in Nimroz (100%), Kapisa (97%), Hilmand (94%), Nangarhar (93%), Kabul and Uruzgan (92%), and Bamyan and Panjsher (91%) reported the highest percentages with close access¹². In contrast, Badghis (60%), Nuristan (61%), Kunarha (62%) and Faryab (65%) reported the lowest percentages with close access to water.

Water available at one hour or less was reported in 38% of households in Nuristan, 32% in Kunarha, 29% in Logar, 28% in Parwan, and in 27% of households in Badghis. In contrast, water accessible at one hour or less was reported in 3% of households in Kapisa, 5% in Uruzgan, and in 6% of households in Hilmand. Water available at 1 to 3 hours was reported in 10% of households in Daykundi, 7% in Faryab and Badghis, and 6% of households in Kunarha and Samangan. Water collection times of a quarter to half a day were reported in 12% of Badakhshan households, 5% in Badghis, 3% in Faryab, 2% in Takhar and 1% of households in

¹² It is worth mentioning that the figure for Nimroz is not an indicator that households do not have problems with drinking water. It is likely to be provided by tanker or some other means in community. Only 38% of the households have access to safe drinking water and they have the highest incidence of water payment (30%), with an average monthly payment is 243 Afs/month during the summer, or the 5th highest in the whole country.



Zabul, Balkh, Kunduz, Samangan, Hirat, and Ghor. Water collection times of more than half a day (6 to 12 hours) were reported in 1% of households in Jawzjan, Faryab, Hirat and Badghis.

Use of alternative drinking water sources

Nationwide, 93% of households use the main source of drinking water for the entire year without using an alternative water source, while 4% use an alternative water source when the main source is not usable; only 3% use an alternative water source in conjunction with an insufficient main source of water.

Table 17: Household use of alternative sources of water (%)

Categories	No, main source is used solely all year	Yes, used in conjunction with main source	Yes, used when main source is not usable	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	85	4	11	184,482
Rural	94	3	4	2,952,044
Urban	95	2	4	605,715
National	93	3	4	3,742,241

Kuchi households reported the highest incidence of use (11%) of an alternative source of water when the main source is not available, while rural and urban households show only 4% incidence. The use of an alternative source in conjunction with the main source is minimum, 2% in the urban households to 4% among the Kuchi.

Provincial use of an alternative source of drinking water was reported as nil in Laghman, Paktika, Zabul and Daykundi. Samangan is the province with the highest incidence of alternative use of drinking water (32%). Samangan (13%), Kunarha (9%) and Jawzjan (8%) of households reported use of alternative water source usage in conjunction with main water source. Samangan (19%), Sar-I-Pul (13%), Nuristan (12%) and Takhar (10%) reported a high percentage of households using an alternative source when the main source is not available.

Toilet facilities

Nationwide, the traditional covered latrine was reported as the most commonly used toilet facility (57%), followed by *dearan / sahra*, which is a place within or an outside compound for waste products, animal manure, fire end products and used as toilet as well (13%), open fields or bushes (12%), and open pits (10%). Improved latrines were reported in only 5% of households, and flush toilets were reported in only 2% of households. Thus, if these facilities are defined as 'safe', then only 7% of households nationwide have access to safe toilet facilities. Among **Kuchi** households, 43% reported using open fields and 26% use open pits, while 17% use *dearan*. No Kuchi households reported using improved latrines or flush toilets. Among **urban** households, 67% reported using traditional covered latrines, while 20% use improved latrines and 7% have flush toilets. In contrast, open pits are used in 3%, and *dearan / sahra* are used in 1% of urban households. In **rural** areas 58% of households reported using traditional covered latrines, and 15% use *dearan / sahra*, while 13% use open fields or bushes and 10% use open pits. Only 3% of rural households have improved latrines, and 1% have flush toilets. Thus, only 4% of rural households have access to safe toilet facilities.

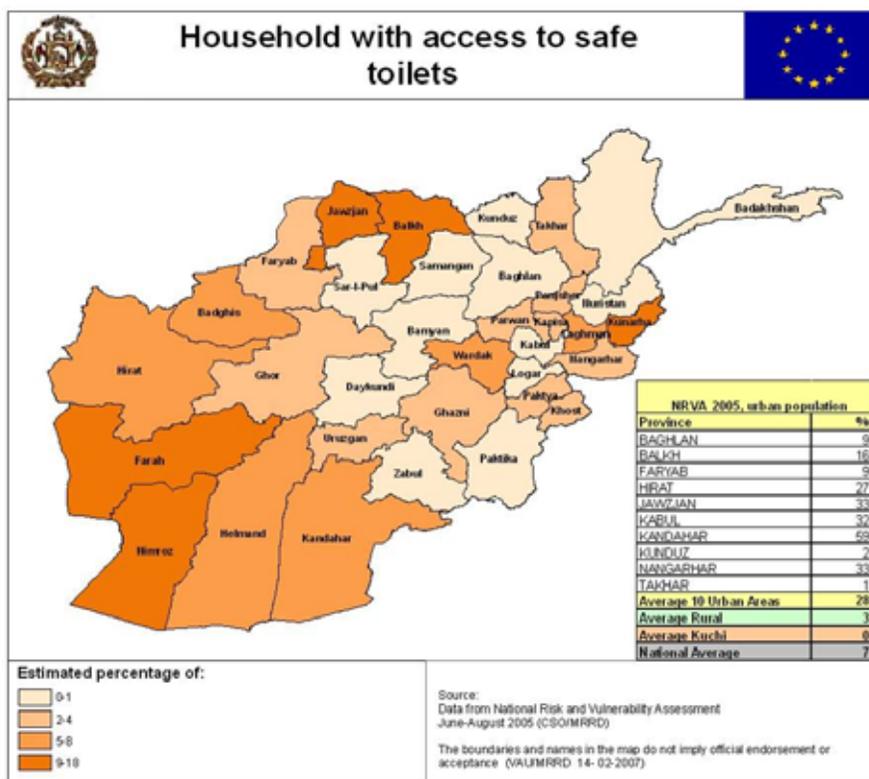


Figure 10: Households with access to safe toilets

Table 18: Availability of toilets in households (%)

Categories	None / open field / bush	Dearan / Sahrah (area in compound-but not pit)	Open pit	Traditional covered latrine	Improved latrine	Flush latrine	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	43	17	26	14	0	0	187,146
Rural	13	15	10	58	3	1	3,009,961
Urban	0	1	3	67	20	9	625,829
National	12	13	10	57	5	2	3,822,936

At the **provincial level** Ghor (68%), Daykundi (56%) and Badghis (41%) have the highest percentage of households using open fields or bushes as toilet facilities, while Kabul (0%), Balkh, Nuristan and Paktika (1%) are the lowest users of this type of facility. *Dearan/sahrah* is most commonly used in Nuristan (72%), followed by Khost (49%), Uruzgan (47%), Paktika and Paktya (46%). The lowest use of these facilities is in Balkh (1%), Ghazni and Kabul (2%) and Kunduz (3%). Open pits are frequently used in Bamyan (46%), Takhar (32%), Badakhshan (27%) and Uruzgan (21%). In Zabol none of the households use open pits at all; only 1% in Paktya, 2% in Balkh, Nimroz, and Daykundi, and 3% in Kapisa, Kunduz and Kandahar. The most deficient toilet facilities are in Ghor (93%), followed by Khost and Daykundi (80%), Nuristan (77%), and Uruzgan (70%).

Traditional covered latrines have highest use in Ghazni (87%), Kunduz (86%), Balkh (84%) and Zabol (83%) and lowest use in Ghor (6%), Daykundi (18%), Khost (19%), Nuristan (22%) and Uruzgan (27%). Improved latrines have highest use in Kandahar (19%), Nimroz (15%), Kabul and Jawzjan (14%), Balkh and Kunarha



(11%). None of the households in Daykundi, Bamyan, Paktika, Zabul, Sar-I-Pul, Logar, Samangan, Kunduz, Badakhshan, Nuristan, and Parwan reported any use at all of improved latrines. **Flush toilets** are only used in Kabul (11%), Hirat (6%), Kandahar (3%), and the provinces of Balkh, Nangarhar, Baghlan, Jawzjan and Kunarha (1%). In the remaining provinces, no households use flush toilets.

Access of toilet facilities inside the compound

Nationwide, 73% of the households have *dearan*. Kuchi households, mostly semi-nomadic with settled housing during the winter, have only (29%) of their toilet facilities *dearan*. Seventy-two percent of rural households use *dearan*. Urban households reported the highest percentage of *dearan* (85%).

Table 19: Toilet facilities located in within the compound

Categories	%	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	29	31,191
Rural	72	1,900,938
Urban	85	536,088
National	73	2,468,217

The highest presence of *dearan* is in Balkh (93%), followed by Uruzgan and Kandahar (89%), Hilmand (88%), Nimroz (87%), Khost and Kabul (85%). In contrast, Bamyan (19%), Daykundi (23%) and Ghor (33%) reported the lowest use of *dearan*.

3.5.3. Electrical power and other sources of energy

Access to electrical power

Electrification is a key factor for the development of all sectors of the economy. The national access to electricity from various sources is 23%.

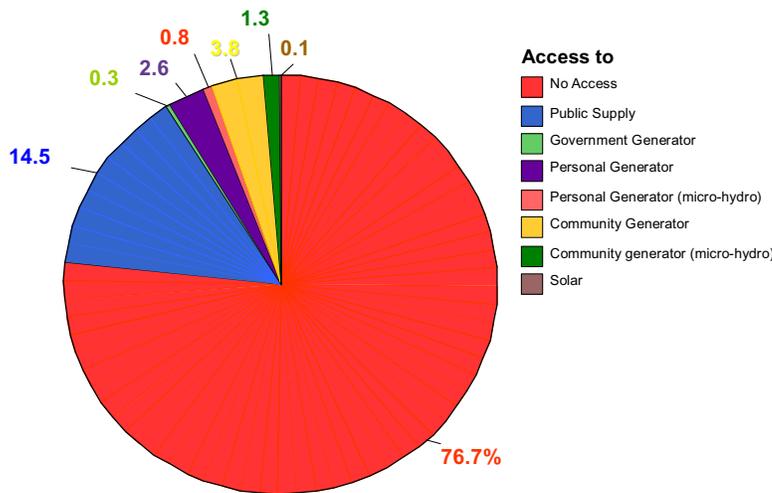


Figure 11: Sources of electrical power in Afghanistan

The highest access to electrical power, as expected, is found in urban areas (74%). Rural households have a much more limited access (13%) and the Kuchi have the lowest access (4%) due to their nomadic life style.



Table 20: Households that have access to any type of electrical power at some time during the year

Categories	% households	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	4	6,882
Rural	13	400,445
Urban	74	478,612
National	23	885,939

Overall **provincial** findings show that the highest access to electrical power is reported by households in Nuristan (62%), Kabul (61%), Balkh (49%), Jawzjan (42%) and Kunarha (41%). The lowest access to electricity across the country was reported in households in Badghis (0%), Badakhshan and Zabul (1%) and Ghor (3%). **Rural** provincial data shows that rural households in Nuristan (62%), Kunarha (41%), Ghazni (39%) and Nimroz (38%) have the highest access to electrical power. In contrast, households in Badghis (0%), Zabul and Badakhshan (1%), Kandahar (2%) and Takhar (3%) reported the lowest access of electricity from any source. Most of the **urban** households in Jawzjan (99%), Balkh (95%), Kandahar (85%), Nangarhar (83%), Hirat (74%), Kabul (71%), Baghlan (65%), Faryab and Kunduz (64%) have access to electrical power but in Takhar only 16% have access to electrical power. Figures for access to electrical power do not necessarily represent the degree of reliability of the availability of this service. Reliability of services can be measured as the number of uninterrupted hours of service during an average day.

Public supply grid

The national access to public supply grid is 14%. Urban households reported highest access to public supply grid (66%). Rural and Kuchi households have low access to public supply grid, with 4% and 2%, respectively.

Table 21: Access to public supply grid

Categories	% households	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	2	4,329
Rural	4	134,526
Urban	66	423,879
National	14	562,734

Overall provincial access to public supply grid is highest in Kabul (47%), Balkh (41%) and Jawzjan (38%). Nuristan and Daykundi do not have access to public supply grid at all; and Bamyan, Badghis, Kunarha, Takhar and Laghman have access to less than 0.5%. **Rural provincial** findings of access to public supply grid is reported to be highest in Nimroz (33%) followed by Jawzjan (21%), Hilmand ((16%), Parwan (16%), Balkh and Kabul (14%) and Logar (10%). Nuristan and Daykundi did not report any use of public electrical power. In the remaining provinces, households reported limited usage of public supply grid. In the **urban areas** the percentage of households with access to public electrical power is highest in Jawzjan (99%), followed by Balkh (92%), Kandahar (85%), Nangarhar (81%), Hirat (70%), Baghlan (65%), Faryab (63%), Kunduz and Kabul (57%). Takhar is the urban reporting the most limited usage of public supply grid (2%).

Main sources of cooking fuel in summer and winter

Knowledge of temporal and spatial patterns of energy use for cooking is tremendously important to assess needs of households.

Nationwide, animal dung and ping or bushes have the same usage (30%) for cooking purposes in the summer, followed by firewood (23%) and gas (10%), while other sources such as electricity (3%), crop residues or sawdust (2%) are used to a much lesser extent. The remaining sources are of low importance. During the winter



animal dung and ping or bushes are used for cooking slightly less, 24% and 23%, respectively. **Firewood** use increases to 35% as people use it for heating and electricity decreases to 1%, this may be due to shortages of electricity supply in the winter.

Table 22: Main source of cooking fuel in the summer and winter (%)

	Animal dung	Ping or bushes	Crop residues or sawdust	Firewood	Charcoal	Kerosene or oil	Gas	Electricity	Other	No. weighted observations
Summer										
Kuchi	49	41	2	7	0	1	0	0	1	187,590
Rural	34	35	2	25	0	0	3	0	1	3,005,455
Urban	4	4	2	18	2	1	49	17	3	628,674
National	30	30	2	23	0	0	10	3	1	3,821,719
Winter										
Kuchi	48	35	2	13	0	1	0	0	1	187,257
Rural	26	26	3	39	1	0	3	0	2	3,000,473
Urban	4	3	2	25	5	1	50	4	6	625,471
National	24	23	2	35	1	0	10	1	2	3,813,201

Kuchi households have the highest use of animal dung (49%), followed by ping and bushes (41%) and firewood (7%); the remaining sources are of limited use. During the winter Kuchi households slightly decrease the use of animal dung (48%), ping or bushes (35%) and double the use of firewood (13%); all the other sources remain at a limited level. **Urban households** are the highest users of gas for cooking (49%), followed by firewood (18%) and electricity (17%), while other fuels have limited use. In the winter urban households use the same proportion of animal dung and ping or bushes, but with an increase in firewood use (25%) and charcoal (5%), while the other sources have similar use to that reported in the summer. **Rural households** present the highest use of ping and bushes (35%), followed by animal dung (34%), firewood (25%) and limited usage of gas, crop residues and sawdust. In the winter they decrease the use of animal dung and ping or bushes to (26%) increase the use of firewood (39%). Small amounts of charcoal are used (1%) for cooking, while the other sources do not vary significantly between seasons.

The provinces with highest household use of **electricity for cooking** in the summer are Kabul (20%), followed by Kandahar, Baghlan and Kunduz (5%), Balkh (3%), Hilmand (2%) and Jawzjan (1%). In the rest of the provinces households do not use electricity for cooking at all. Among the provinces Kandahar and Kunduz reported the highest use of electricity in the winter (4%), followed by Hilmand, Balkh and Kabul (2%) and Jawzjan (1%); none of the households the rest of the provinces reported use of electricity for cooking.

The highest use for **gas** in the summer occurs in Kabul (40%), Nimroz (31%), Balkh (27%) and Hirat (23%). But Zabul, Uruzgan, Paktika, Nuristan, Paktya, Ghor, Logar, Khost and Sar-I-Pul report no use of gas. The remaining provinces use gas at an intermediate level. In the winter Kabul (43%), Nimroz (31%), Balkh (27%) and Hirat (23%) are the provinces with the highest use of gas. Zabul, Paktika, Nuristan, Ghor, Sar-I-Pul, Paktya, Logar and Khost do not use gas for cooking.

The highest use of **firewood** for cooking in the summer occurs in Nuristan (93%), Parwan (79%), Nangarhar (54%), Paktya (53%) and Kunarha (51%). Bamyán and Badghis (1%), Zabul (2%), Samangan (3%) and Ghor (4%) have the lowest use of



firewood as cooking fuel in the summer. Firewood use in the winter is highest in Nuristan and Khost (93%), Paktya (91%), Parwan (81%) and Laghman (78%). The lowest use is in Bamyán (2%), Badghis (3%), Ghor and Samangan (5%).

The highest use of **animal dung** as the main source of cooking fuel in the summer is in Badakhshan (64%), Faryab (62%), Kapisa and Takhar (60%), and Khost (50%). In Nuristan none of the households reported use of animal dung as main cooking fuel in the summer, while Nimroz and Paktya (1%) and Parwan only 6% of households use it as the main cooking fuel. Animal dung use in the winter is high in Takhar and Badakhshan (62%), Faryab (58%), Sar-I-Pul (49%), Zabul (48%) and Kunduz (46%). No use of animal dung takes place in Nuristan during the summer, while Paktya and Nimroz reported (1%), Khost (2%) and Kandahar (3%). Nuristan has abundant forest resources and animal production as the main sources of income. They also have access to high quality firewood year round; this could be the reason for the scant use of animal dung as the main source of cooking fuel in the winter.

Ping or bushes used as summer cooking fuel is highest in Zabul (86%), Bamyán (77%), Ghor (76%) and Samangan (73%). Households of Kabul (3%), Nuristan (7%), and Parwan (9%) have the lowest use. In the winter the highest percentage of households using this source of fuel was reported in Ghor (70%), Bamyán (61%), Badghis (60%) and Daykundi (54%). The lowest percentage of households using this fuel was reported in Kabul (2%), Parwan (3%) and Paktika, Khost and Kunduz (5%). Kunduz is the highest user of **crop residues or sawdust** as the main source of cooking fuel in the summer (14%) and winter (15%). A small proportion of households in half of the remaining provinces use this source as the main cooking fuel; the other half does not use this source at all in the summer or winter. Households in Kabul (3%), Parwan, Panjsher and Paktya (1%) are the only users of charcoal in the summer as main cooking fuel, while in the winter Samangan (23%), Baghlan (11%), Kabul (4%), Takhar and Kunduz (3%), Parwan and Kandahar (1%) are the only users of charcoal in the rest of the country. **Kerosene** or oil as a main source of cooking fuel in the summer was reported in Takhar (3%) and Balkh, Kabul, Parwan and Uruzgan (1%); however, there is no evidence of its use in the rest of the country. In the winter, kerosene is used in Takhar (2%) and Balkh, Kabul and Kandahar (1%) of the households without any use in other provinces.

Main sources of fuel for heating in the winter

Afghanistan is largely subject to variations imposed by a high mountain climate, with dry cold winters in the highlands; in the lowlands, winter can also be harsh due the country's location in the northern hemisphere. To cope with the winter temperatures, households make use of different sources of energy for heating.

Table 23: Sources of fuel for heating in the winter (%)

Categories	No heating in house	Electric heater	Gas heater	Kerosene heater	Firewood	Stoves burning straw, ping or manure	Charcoal	Other	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	24	0	0	1	19	42	1	13	177,600
Ural	4	1	0	1	39	41	1	13	2,988,738
Urban	5	5	6	3	42	9	9	20	625,540
National	5	1	1	1	39	36	3	14	3,791,878



Nationwide, firewood is the main source of heating in 39% of households, followed by stove burning straw, ping or manure (36%), while 14% of households use other sources, 3% of households use charcoal, and electricity, gas and kerosene heaters is used by 1% of households. Five percent of the households do not use any heating source at all.

Kuchi households have a high use of stoves burning straw, ping or manure (42%) in comparison to other sources; its use is higher than rural and urban households. **Firewood** has been reported as the main heating source in the winter (19%). Kuchi are the lowest users of firewood in comparison to rural and urban households, their migratory lifestyle limits their capacity to carry firewood. Only 1% of Kuchi households reported **kerosene** heater usage across the country, and use of electricity and gas heaters is not used at all. Only 1% of households use charcoal and 13% of the households report use of other sources for heating in the winter. About one quarter of Kuchi households report no use of heating at all, which is the highest figure compared to rural and urban households. This is likely to be related to their migration to warmer areas in the winter.

Urban households reported **firewood** as the most dominant source of heating (42%). Other sources amount to a substantial 20% that needs to be further investigated. **Charcoal and stoves burning straw, ping or manure** are reported by 9% of households. Gas, electric and kerosene heaters are used by 6%, 5% and 3% of households, respectively. Households with no use of heating in the winter are 5%. **Rural** households have a high use of stove burning straw, ping or manure (41%) in comparison to other sources. Firewood is used by 39% of the households and 13% report other sources. Charcoal, electric and kerosene heaters are each used by one% of households. No use of gas heater is found, this may be due to shortage of supply or high cost of transportation. Four percent of the households do not use a heating source, which is less frequent than Kuchi households but more frequent than urban households.

Provincial findings: Only 7 provinces report use of electricity as the main source of heating purposes, namely, Kandahar (7%), Hilmand (4%), Hirat, Kunduz and Balkh (3%), Kabul (2%) and Nimroz (1%). Firewood as main source of heating is used in Nuristan (93%), Paktya (92%), Khost (88%), Paktika (78%), Parwan (76%), and Laghman (73%). In contrast, the provinces with lower use are Badghis and Sar-I-Pul (8%), Ghor (10%) and Samangan (11%). Charcoal use in the winter is found in Samangan (21%), Baghlan (18%), Bamyana (14%), Kunduz (11%), and Kandahar (10%), while Takhar, Balkh, Panjsher, Kabul, Wardak, Parwan and Nimroz have limited use of charcoal. The rest of the provinces do not use charcoal as a source of heating. High use of stoves burning straw, ping or manure is found in Badghis (90%), Faryab (70%), Baghlan (62%), and Jawzjan and Badakhshan (60%). In contrast, low use occurs in Paktika and Kapisa (4%), Parwan (5%), Kabul (6%), Nuristan (7%) and Khost (8%).

The use of **gas heaters** is highest in Nimroz (19%) and Jawzjan (10%), while in Kabul (5%) and Farah (3%), their use is much lower. Use of gas heaters in the rest of the provinces does not exceed 1%. The use of kerosene heaters is relatively low, with highest use in Kunarha, Parwan, Balkh, Kabul and Farah (3%), Uruzgan, Kapisa, Baghlan, Zabul and Ghazni (2%), while other provinces reported 1% or no use of them at all. The highest incidence of absence of any source of domestic heating was reported in Nimroz (36%), Nangarhar (24%), Hilmand (20%), Logar (18%) and Daykundi (10%). Other sources of heating have been reported in high percentages in Sar-I-Pul (45%), Panjsher (42%), Bamyana (41%), and Ghazni and Hirat (30%) and with lesser percentage in other provinces.



Access to lighting in summer and winter.

Households were asked about their lighting sources in summer and winter. Among these sources are: no lighting at all, oil lamp, candles, electricity, generator, battery, gas, firewood or other sources. The table below shows the seasonal access for lighting.

Table 24: Sources of lighting (%) during the summer and winter

	No lighting	Lamp oil	candles	Electricity	Generator	Battery	Gas	Firewood	Other	Number of households
Summer										
Kuchi	4	92	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	187,035
Rural	1	86	1	7	5	0	1	0	0	3,016,183
Urban	0	24	1	61	6	2	5	0	1	627,844
National	1	76	1	15	5	1	2	0	0	3,831,062
Winter										
Kuchi	3	92	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	185,814
Rural	1	84	1	6	4	0	3	0	1	3,004,954
Urban	0	26	0	37	7	2	22	2	4	626,266
National	1	75	1	11	5	1	6	0	1	3,817,034

Nationwide, during the **summer**, most of the households (76%) rely on oil lamps for lighting, followed by public supply grid 15%, generators 5%, gas 2% and the rest of the sources of lighting are used by less than 1% of households. One percent of households reported using no source of lighting. **Kuchi** households during the **summer** have the highest use of oil lamps (92%), as well as the highest percentage of households not using any source of lighting (4%), and low percentages of access to electricity and generators. The Kuchi are the highest users of candles (2%). The same pattern is present in the **winter** time. **Urban** households during the **summer** have the highest use of electricity (61%), oil lamps (23%), generators (6%), batteries (2%) and gas (5%). Less than 1% has no source of lighting. The same trends exist in the **winter**, except for the significant increase in the use of gas. **Rural** households during the summer present a pattern of use of lighting somewhere between urban and Kuchi households, except that none of the rural households reported firewood as a source of lighting. **Rural** households show similarity with Kuchi households in the use of oil lamps, electricity, battery, and gas; however their use of candles, gas and no lighting at all is similar to urban households. The use of different sources of lighting by rural households is not different in the winter.

Provincial findings for the Kuchi, rural, urban categories show that Nuristan and Kabul (46%), Balkh (44%) and Jawzjan (34%) have the highest use of **electricity** as source of lighting in the households in summer; in contrast Paktika and Zabul (0%), Badghis and Uruzgan (less than 1%) have the lowest use of electricity. Households in Nuristan, Balkh and Jawzjan have the highest use of electricity during the winter, but Kabul province shows a significant reduction during the winter; this could be because of shortages in supply and increases in the use of electricity for heating purposes. The provinces with the lowest use of electricity in the summer also have the same pattern in winter.

Use of **oil lamps** is high in all provinces. Zabul (99%), Badghis and Badakhshan (98%), Uruzgan (96%) and Paktika (95%) have the highest use of oil lamps in the summer; in contrast Kabul (29%), Nuristan (38%) and Balkh reported the lowest use of oil lamps. There is consistency in terms of use of electricity and oil lamps in the



summer. Provinces with high use of electricity have least use of oil lamps and vice versa. A similar pattern of use is present in the **winter**.

Use of **generators** is reported to be highest in Ghazni (25%), Nuristan (15%), Paktya (12%) and Kabul (11%), while households reported their use in Laghman, Badghis and Zabul. Badakhshan, Ghor, Hirat, Hilmand, Jawzjan and Panjsher reported less than 1% use. Similar pattern of use prevail in the winter. **No lighting** at all is highest in Farah (5%), Uruzgan (2%) and Jawzjan (2%) and less than 1% across the country. A similar pattern of use prevails in the winter.

Gas usage is highest in Kabul (8%), Panjsher (6%) and Wardak (5%). None of the households in Paktika, Faryab, Takhar, Daykundi, Sar-I-Pul, Badghis, Badakhshan, Zabul, Jawzjan, and Uruzgan use gas as source of lighting in the summer. During the winter, Kabul (32%), Baghlan and Kapisa (11%) are the highest users of gas. Badakhshan, Nuristan, Bاميان, Ghor, Jawzjan, Uruzgan, Sar-I-Pul, Daykundi, Paktika and Badghis do not use gas for lighting in the winter. Candles have the highest use in Ghor (11%) and batteries in Kabul (3%); in the rest of the provinces their use is insignificant. The same situation is found in the winter.

3.6 Household asset ownership

The household questionnaire gathered information on each household's ownership out of 21 basic and productive assets.

The most commonly owned household asset are **glims**, traditional handmade low-cost carpets. Ninety-two percent of Kuchi and rural households own glims followed by 88% of urban households. However, urban households tend to have more and better quality carpets (35%) compared to the national average of 22% (Kuchi 12%, and rural 19%). **Watches or clocks** are found in 88% of the households (Kuchi 76%, rural 87% and urban 94%). **Radios** are owned in 78% of all households, (Kuchi 64%, rural 77% and urban 88%). Nineteen percent of the households own **televisions** (Kuchi 2%, rural 8% and urban 73%). Overall, 41% of the households own a **sewing machine** (Kuchi 17%, rural 39% and urban 61%). Ownership of small mobility/working assets, such as bicycles and carts, was investigated and found to be closely related to terrain, with rugged mountainous and desert areas, as well as areas lacking rural roads, presenting lower levels of ownership. More than one third of the households own a **bicycle** (Kuchi 20%, rural 32% and urban 55%). **Handcart** ownership shows similar percentages; 26% of households own a cart (Kuchi 11%, rural and urban 27%).

Table 25: Household assets (%)

Categories	Watch	Carpets	Gilim	Radio	Refrigerator	TV	VCR	Sewing-machine	Rug weaving loom	Carpentry	Generator	Thuraya
Kuchi	76	12	92	64	0	2	2	17	2	1	2	1
Rural	87	19	92	77	2	8	4	39	2	2	4	1
Urban	94	35	88	88	26	73	38	61	3	3	14	2
National	88	22	92	78	6	19	10	41	3	2	5	1



Table 25: Household assets (%) (continued)

Categories	Handcart	Bicycle	Motorcycle	Tractor	Combine thresher	Plough	Cereal grinder mill	Car	Truck
Kuchi	11	20	8	2	0	3	3	1	1
Rural	27	32	13	2	0	12	9	3	1
Urban	27	55	9	0	0	1	2	9	1
National	26	35	13	2	0	9	8	4	1

Farming equipment such as **tractors, ploughs** or **cereal grinders**, is rarely found. Among the Afghan agricultural households only 2% own tractors, and 9% of households own ploughs (Kuchi 3%, rural 12% and urban 1%). Eight percent of households own cereal grinders (Kuchi 3%, rural 9% and urban 2%).

Table 26: Availability of internet, computer and telecommunications (%)

Categories	Computer working	Internet user	Telephone	Mobile phone
Kuchi	0	0	0	0
Rural	0	0	0	2
Urban	3	1	2	41
National	1	0	0	8

The enumerators asked the male head or respondents about modern means of communications, such as **computers, Internet connections**, telephones and **mobile phones**. These assets are very rare in Afghanistan. Among them, mobile phones were the most common, with 8% of the households having one, and the bulk of ownership being found in Kabul province (47%). It seems very likely that these figures will rise during the coming years.

3.7. Household income and credit

The analysis has been limited to income generating activities in which households members are being involved, rather than the actual income earned from these sources.

Sources of income

The households have been asked to state the total number of their various sources of income. Eight clusters of activities were formed out of a total of 32 sources of income. The various sources have been grouped as follows:

1. Livestock: livestock production for home consumption; shepherding; production and sale of livestock and associated products.
2. Agriculture: crop production for home consumption; production and sales of field crops; production and sales of cash crops (non-opium); production and sales of orchard products; and agricultural wage labour.
3. Opium income: production and sale of opium, and opium wage labour.
4. Trade and services: sales of prepared foods; salary/government job; small business; petty trade; cross border trade; firewood/charcoal sales; military service; taxi/transport; and rental income.
5. Manufacture: mills; handicrafts; carpet weaving; and mining.



6. Remittances: remittances from seasonal workers; remittances from family members living permanently away from home.
7. Other: pension; other military benefits; sale of food aid; begging/borrowing, and other.
8. Non-farm labour: other wage labour; and skilled labour.

Agriculture is the most important source of income in Afghanistan. Almost one half (47%) of all households are engaged in one or more forms of agriculture, followed by non-farm labour (33%), trade (27%) and livestock (23%). Opium activities constitute only 4%, but they are widespread. Due to sensitivity of capturing precise information on opium it may be under reported.

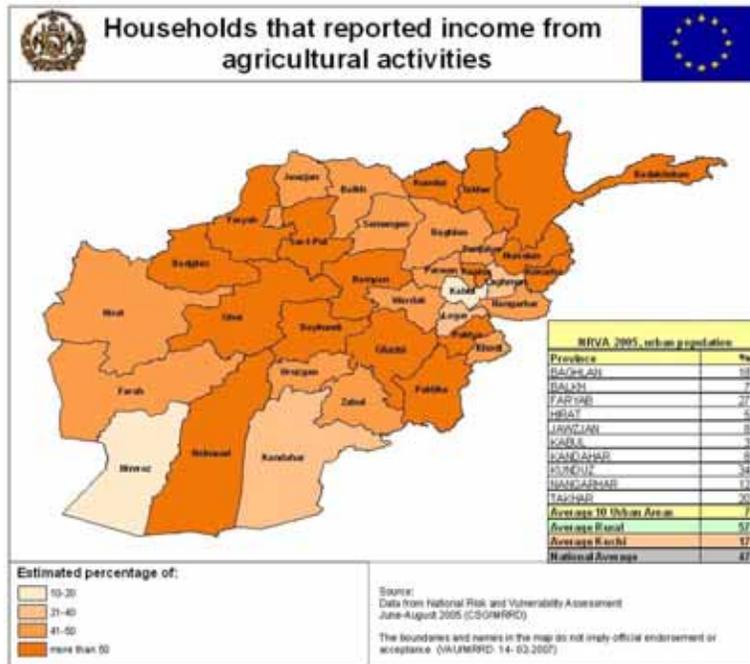


Figure 12: Households that reported income from agricultural activities
The majority of the Afghan population is traditionally engaged in agriculture, with regional differences, geological features that determine sources of water (karez in the south and springs in the north), and variations in altitude, climate, and vegetation.

Table 27: Sources of income (%) by groups

Categories	Agriculture	Livestock	Opium	Trade and services	Manufacture	Non-farm labour	Remittance	Others
Kuchi	17	74	3	8	2	29	2	4
Rural	57	25	5	21	4	34	6	5
Urban	7	2	1	58	6	27	1	9
National	47	23	4	27	5	33	5	6

In the **urban areas**, trade and services is the main source of income (58%) followed by non-farm labour (27%). Trade and services is highest in Jawzjan (74%), and Takhar has the largest share of non-farm labour (39%). In the urban areas, opium activities are present in Baghlan, Balkh and Kandahar. However, it was not possible to determine if the activities are related to production, processing or trade.



Agriculture (57%) and non-farm labour (34%) comprise the main source of income in the **rural areas**, similar to national figures. The provinces with a large proportion of households receiving some income from agriculture are Nuristan (88%), Bamyan (86%) and Sar-I-Pul (75%). The highest non-farm labourers can be found in Hirat (50%), Paktya (50%) and Parwan (49%). The highest opium activities are found among Hilmand rural households (45%).

As expected, most of the **Kuchi** households (74%) are involved in livestock and 29% of Kuchi households generate income from non-farm labour. However, it is not clear how much time Kuchi households are involved in non-farm labour. Furthermore, licit agriculture forms a source of income for 17% of the households and opium is reported in 4% of the cases.

Remittances

One of the important sources of income are the remittances from household members who migrate seasonally or permanently, within Afghanistan and abroad. Thanks to the strong social ties between the migrants and their relatives, the financial contributions help the livelihoods of those who remain in the rural villages or urban areas. NRVA 2005 distinguished between migration to the rural areas and migration to the urban areas; migration out of Afghanistan is differentiated for neighbouring Iran and Pakistan, the Arabian Peninsula, Europe and other countries.

Overall, 16% of households in Afghanistan have at least one migrant, and the breakdown into the three categories is as follows: Kuchi 7%, rural 19% and urban 5%. This suggests that those who live in the rural areas find fewer attractive employment opportunities than the Kuchi or those living in urban areas.

More people migrate either seasonally or permanently to Iran, estimated 217,640 households than to all other countries combined. Of those households who migrate to Pakistan the majority (75%) migrate seasonally. However, Europe shows a contrasting situation; although a smaller number migrate to Europe (estimated 11,198 households) the majority stay permanently (74%).

Table 28: Seasonal and permanent migrants within and outside Afghanistan

Migrated to	Seasonal (%)	Permanent (%)	No. weighted observations
Rural Afghanistan	89	11	131,122
Urban Afghanistan	89	11	132,136
Total within Afghanistan			263,258
Pakistan	75	25	85,477
Iran	47	53	217,640
Arabian Peninsula	51	49	60,935
Europe	26	74	11,198
Other	37	63	3,817
Total outside of Afghanistan			379,067

Nineteen percent of the rural households have migrants and the provinces with the highest figures are Paktika (43%), Wardak (37%) and Ghazni (36%). Takhar shows the highest proportion of urban households with migrants (15%).

Table 29: Frequency in reception of remittances by households (%)

Type of migration	Never	Once a year	2-4 times a year	≥4 times a year	No. weighted observations
Seasonal	15	50	26	9	372,031
Permanent	20	52	22	6	183,104
All					555,135



The response of households that receive remittances from relatives who are either seasonal or permanent migrants is very similar. Approximately 50% of households with migrants receive money once a year, 15-20% never receive any kind of payment, while less than 10% receive more regular payments of 4 or more times a year.

Credit

Credit is another source of income that allows households to cope with unforeseen circumstances or opportunities for new endeavours. Thirty-eight percent of **all households** reported having taken a loan in the year prior to the survey. The provinces with the highest number of loans are Daykundi (90%) and Bamyan (85%). In contrast, their neighbouring provinces of Uruzgan and Zabul have the lowest figures (6% and 2%, respectively).

Table 30: Loans taken by Kuchi, rural, urban households (%) during the last year

Categories	No	Yes	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	73	27	189,588
Rural	59	42	3,023,759
Urban	75	25	623,735
National	62	38	3,837,082

Rural households take out more loans (42%) than **urban households** (25%) and Kuchi households (27%). These figures are indicators of a strong social network in rural areas in comparison to urban areas. Of all the loans taken out, NRVA 2005 asked about largest loan. The largest proportion of loans (61%) was used to buy food. Loans used to purchase food for Kuchi, urban and rural households are 68%, 45% and 63%, respectively. The figures suggest that there is a high degree of food insecurity. NRVA 2005 did not capture information regarding 28,000 micro-loans that went to agricultural production between August 2003 and August 2005; 70% were for livestock purchases and 30% were for crop production. The majority of these loans were for Kuchi women and the rate of repayment is above 90% (RAMP, 2006a). The questions about credit and the largest loan in the household in the questionnaire were asked to the male head of household. Possibly because of the size of the micro loans and the fact that the majority of borrowers were women, the micro-loans were unnoticed or possibly misinterpreted by household respondents since the loans were generally for improving food security.

Table 31: Main use of largest loan (%)

Categories	Agricultural inputs	Opium cultivation	Construction other than house	Business investment	Land purchase	House purchase of construction	Home improvement	Food purchase	Health emergency	Bride price/wedding	Funeral	Other	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	1	0	0	5	0	2	2	68	10	6	2	6	49,062
Rural	4	0	0	2	1	5	4	63	8	6	3	4	1,201,020
Urban	1	0	0	12	1	9	9	45	10	6	3	5	149,069
National	4	0	0	3	1	5	4	61	9	6	3	4	1,399,151



In the **rural areas**, households in Paktika have the largest incidence of loans (96%) which have been used for purchasing food, and the Kunduz show the lowest occurrence of loans (27%) as it is an area with agricultural surpluses. In the **urban areas**, the situation is somewhat different. The use of loans to purchase food is less prevalent, and households tend to use their loans for business purposes (12%).

3.8. Agriculture and livestock

Agriculture continues to be the most important activity in Afghanistan (47%), as reflected by the percentage of households that either own or manage agricultural land or garden plots. Fifty-eight percent of the rural households, 12% of the Kuchi and 5% of the urban households have access to or manage these types of land.

Table 32: Households owning or managing agricultural land or garden plot¹³

	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Own or manage agricultural land or garden plot	12%	58%	5%	47%

Note: Based on the percentage above as fewer Kuchi and urban household are engaged in agriculture, their absolute number in the rest section of agriculture is lower compared to the rural population.

3.8.1. Land tenure

Only 2% of rural and urban households reported having disputes over ownership or right to manage their lands. Furthermore, Kuchi households did not report any land tenure disputes. These figures should be taken with caution, considering more than 20 years of war often thought to have produced many contested property rights (land, water and grazing).¹⁴ Secure property rights are required for sustainable resource use through long-term investments; if these rights are contested, land or resource managers pursue short-term profits.

¹³ Note: Based on the percentage above as fewer Kuchi and urban household have are engaged in agriculture, their absolute number in the rest section of agriculture is lower when comparing with rural population.

¹⁴ Reymon (2006) presents substantial evidence that grazing rights are latent and widespread in Afghanistan.

3.8.2. Agricultural production

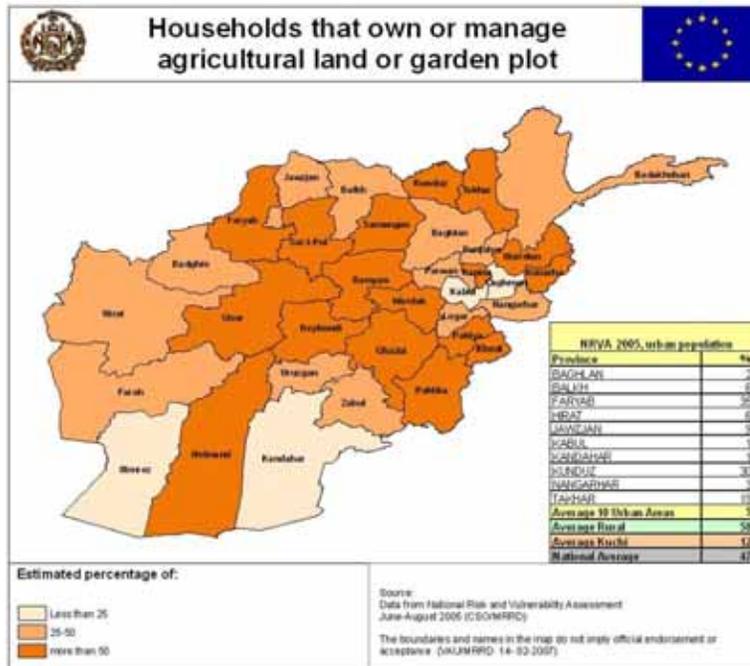


Figure 13: Households owning or managing agricultural land or garden plots
Kabul province as capital of the country, Laghman in the east, Nimroz and Kandahar in the south, show low level of access to agricultural land. Land ownership in Kandahar is in the hands of few households and high population density in Kabul and Laghman in comparison to the available arable land limits the access to agricultural land. As expected this map fully matches that of households with agricultural income.

3.8.2.1. Garden plots

Overall, 21% of the households engaged in agriculture in Afghanistan have access to garden plots, with the highest occurrence found among the urban households (29%), followed by the Kuchi (24%) and 21% among rural households.¹⁵ These plots have been acquired or accessed through inheritance (86%), purchase (7%), share-crop arrangements (3%) and rent (2%). Forty-three percent of the plots were bought amongst the Kuchi, 22% among urban households and only 6% among rural households. Share cropping arrangements are most common among the urban households (8%) and less than 3% amongst Kuchi or rural households.

Table 33: Ownership or management (%) of garden plots

Categories	Rent	Share cropped-in	Purchased	Inherited	Other	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	2	2	43	50	2	4,884
Rural	2	3	6	87	2	309,369
Urban	5	8	22	63	1	7,094
National	2	3	7	86	2	321,347

The majority (86%) of Afghan households that have access to a garden plot receive some benefit from the produce grown on them, and the Kuchi stand out with 98%.

¹⁵ The absolute numbers of garden ownership for urban and Kuchi household are very low. For Kuchis the figure still seems high considering their semi-nomadic behaviour; however, it is likely that they have garden plots in their winter locations.



Nomadic Kuchi have localized access to garden plots in Badakhshan, Balkh, Kabul, Kunduz, Sar-I-Pul and Takhar provinces. Garden ownership of Kuchi in these provinces may be due to high proportion of semi-nomads in these provinces.

The average size of urban garden plots is 5.2 jeribs¹⁶, which is twice the size of Kuchi and rural garden plots (2.6 and 2.7 jeribs, respectively). The larger size of urban garden plots is possibly due to the fact that some urban dwellers own plots in the outskirts of the cities and they call them 'garden plots'; the questionnaire did not establish a size limit on the definition for this type of land. Out of those households with access to a garden plot, 46% grow fruit and nut trees as the main crop, followed by 32% growing grapes and 10% growing wheat. This 10% growing wheat might come from young garden plots with inter-cropping

Table 34: Most important crops (%) in garden plots*

(Frequency)	First most important crop	Second most important crop	Third most important crop
+++	fruit/nut trees (44)	grapes (23)	fodder (20)
++	grapes (32)	fruit/nut trees (16)	other (13)
+	wheat (12)	fodder (12)	vegetables (12)

* The top three frequencies within the first, second, and third most important crops.

Overall, the most common source of water is through irrigation canals (49%), karez¹⁷ (20%) and springs (9%). The most commonly grown crops in garden plots fruit trees, grapes, wheat, fodder, and vegetables, among others. The garden plots play a key role in diet diversification either for home consumption or commercialization whenever there are some surpluses.

3.8.2.2. Irrigated land

Seventy-four percent of the rural households have access to irrigated land, followed by urban (65%) and Kuchi (55%) households. Many urban dwellers have retained ownership or access to their lands in the rural areas and it does not necessarily mean that their lands are in the urban areas.

Table 35: Irrigated land among those engaged in agriculture

Categories	%	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	55	12,210
Rural	74	1,279,311
Urban	65	20,161
National	74	1,311,682

Access to irrigated land amongst **rural** households engaged in agriculture is most scarce in Badghis and Sar-I-Pul (less than 20%) in contrast to Hilmand, Nangarhar, Nimroz, Nuristan and Paktika where 95% or more have access to irrigated land. While **Kuchi** households in Nangarhar, Paktika and Zabul have access to irrigated land, none of the Kuchi households have access to irrigated land in Farah and Faryab. Likewise, while all the **urban** households engaged in agriculture in Kandahar and Nangarhar have access to irrigated land; overall 65% of the urban households engaged in agriculture have access to irrigated land.

¹⁶ Five jeribs is approximately one hectare.

¹⁷ Traditional system to collect subsoil water (through gravitational pull) within tunnels in the foothills.



Nationwide the **size of irrigated plots** averages 7.5 jeribs for those households involved in irrigated agriculture; among the Kuchi households averages 10.5 jeribs, followed by the urban (9.7 jeribs) and the rural (7.5 jeribs) households.

Among those households that are engaged in irrigated agriculture or have land engaged in agriculture the majority (76%) own or cultivate the land, 6% crop-share out and 5% crop-share in. Much of Afghanistan's irrigated land does not receive sufficient water to ensure cropping for all seasons. There are traditional water sharing systems between upstream, midstream and lower stream irrigated land users to try and ensure there is equity of distribution of water throughout the irrigation system. NRVA 2005 indicates that 8% of irrigated land either fallow or uncultivated. The proportion of fallow irrigated land is very high in Zabul (84%), Wardak (36%), and Paktika (20%). This is linked with the severity of drought in the southern Afghanistan. Wardak province is also badly affected by drought. Insecure access to this land could be a problem could exacerbate the problem of limited water supply in Zabul and Paktika, but this needs to be further investigated.

Table 36: Type of ownership or management of irrigated land among households engaged in irrigated agriculture (%)

Categories	Owned but not - cultivated/fallow	Owned and cultivate by self	Owned and employ labourers	Share-crop out	Share-crop in	Rent out	Rent in	Mortgaged-out	Mortgaged-in	Owned and used by others for free	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	21	62	3	2	9	0	3	0	0	0	10,434
Rural	8	77	3	5	5	1	1	0	0	0	1,204,300
Urban	6	53	7	21	9	2	3	0	0	0	19,099
National	8	76	3	6	5	1	1	0	0	0	1,233,833

The majority (94%) of households engaged in irrigated agriculture in Afghanistan directly benefit from produce from the irrigated land.

Households were asked to rate the first identify the most frequent crops grown on their irrigated land. Overall (Kuchi, rural and urban), the households responded that the most important crops grown on irrigated land were wheat, opium and vegetables; these are frequently among the top priorities. The second most important crops were maize, barley and rice. The third most important crops were alfalfa, melons and watermelons and potatoes. This overall crop portfolio contributes to food security, forage for livestock production, and cash for the Afghan households. Readers interested in dissecting the household preferences, across provinces and/or by rural, urban or Kuchi can do with the micro-data available by submitting a data application available on the NSS website (www.mrrd.gov.af/vau).

Table 37: Most important crops (%) on irrigated land*

Frequency	First most important crop	Second most important crop	Third most important crop
+++	wheat (89)	maize (44)	alfalfa (20)
++	opium (3)	barley (19)	melon/watermelon (8)
+	vegetables (1)	rice (7)	potato (7)

* The top three frequencies within the first, second, and third most important crops.



3.8.2.3. Rain fed land

38% of Kuchi households engaged in agriculture have access to rain fed land, followed by rural (33%) and urban households (23%). Access to rain fed land amongst the rural households is the scarcest in the areas Laghman (1%), Nangarhar (4%) and Nuristan (3%). The Kuchi did not have access to any rain fed land in Balkh, Farah, Kunduz, Nangarhar and Paktika. Urban dwellers do not have access to rain fed land in Nangarhar and Kandahar. Low or no access to rain fed land in some provinces is due to the fact that in some provinces there is limited or no rain fed land.

Table 38: Type of ownership or management of rain fed land among households engaged in rain fed agriculture (%)

Categories	Owned but not - cultivated/fallow	Owned and cultivate by self	Owned and employ labourers	Share-crop out	Share-crop in	Rent out	Rent in	Mortgaged-out	Mortgaged-in	Owned and used by others for free	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	12	84	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	7,548
Rural	16	69	3	5	4	1	1	1	0	0	541,198
Urban	14	50	4	15	13	3	1	0	0	1	6,684
National	16	69	3	5	4	1	1	1	0	0	555,430

Out of the households engaged in agriculture, 69% owned and cultivated rain fed land by themselves, 16% owned but did not cultivate the land or left it fallow, and 6% shared-cropped the land. **Nationwide**, the average size of rain fed land is 2.0 jeribs. The average size of rain fed land of the **rural** households is 2.5 jeribs, followed by Kuchi households with 0.4 jeribs and only 0.3 jeribs in urban households. Overall, most of the households (79%) benefit from rain fed crops with very small differences amongst the three categories. Kuchi households and rural households in Kabul and Logar do not have access to rain fed land.

Table 39: Average size of rain fed land (Jeribs) among households with access to rain fed land:

Categories	Average rain fed	Minimum	Maximum	Number of households
Kuchi	9.7	1	40	7,770
Rural	13.1	1	513	561,469
Urban	19.6	1	150	6,785
Total average	13.1	1	513	576,024

Households were asked to rate the **three most frequent crops** grown on their rain fed land. Overall (Kuchi, rural and urban), the households responded that the most important crops grown in rain fed land were wheat, rapeseed and barley (1%). The second most important crops were barley, maize and flax; likewise, the third most important crops were flax, barley and melons or watermelons. This crop portfolio contributes to food security, forage and cash.

Table 40: Most important crops (%) in rain fed land

Frequency	First most important crop	Second most important crop	Third most important crop
+++	wheat (93)	barley (50)	flax (20)
++	rapeseed (3)	maize (17)	barley (17)
+	barley (1)	flax (11)	melon/watermelon (10)

* The top three frequencies within the first, second, and third most important crops.



3.8.2.4. Poppy cultivation

Poppy cultivation is illegal, and as such this is a sensitive issue, but households kindly responded to the questions. It remains unknown how many of the answers given were socially desirable. The ranking of opium as a crop grown in the home garden plots is relatively low. None of the Kuchi, rural or urban households mentioned poppy as the most important crop. However, it was mentioned by 6% of Kuchi households and 2% of rural households as the second most important crop. Kuchi, rural and urban households mentioned this crop as the third most important crop in their home gardens (8%, 2% and 3%, respectively). The low frequency of this crop in home gardens could be to avoid possible problems with the authorities or surveillance systems right on the premises of the homestead. This does not appear to be the case of poppy cultivation in irrigated land, as shown above. In this instance, poppy cultivation is popular but not necessarily the most frequent crop.

Afghanistan is known for its widespread poppy cultivation; until 2005, the country was the largest producer of opium in the world. The gross income from this crop is nine to ten times greater than that of irrigated wheat (UNODC, 2006); thus, widespread rural poverty fuels farmers' incentives to become involved in opium-related activities (production, processing or trade).

3.8.3. Livestock

Sixty-four percent of households within Afghanistan own some type of livestock or poultry; they rely heavily on livestock as a source of income and food. This is very clear among the nomadic **Kuchi**, where 89% of households own some type of livestock or poultry. Seventy-three percent of the **rural households** own livestock or poultry while only 10% of **urban households** own livestock or poultry. As the absolute number of urban dwellers with higher incomes demand greater availability and more diverse livestock products, it is expected that peri-urban livestock production systems will increase. Four percent of the households in urban Kabul have some type of livestock or poultry; Faryab has 40% and Kunduz 44%.

Few households own **camels or horses** (4% of each type nationally). Camels are almost exclusively found in **Kuchi** households, with 42% of households owning one or more camels while only 2% of **rural** households own camels. Thirteen percent of **Kuchi** households own horses while 4% of rural households and 1% in urban households own horses.

Forty-four percent of Afghan households own **poultry** and 45% own **cattle**; they are mostly owned by rural and Kuchi households. Donkeys, sheep and goats are largely owned by the Kuchi (67% to 76%) while 38% to 40% of rural households own these types of livestock respectively. Even though the frequency of urban households owning some type of livestock or poultry is low (10%), these could be intensive peri-urban production systems that take advantage of the high demand for livestock and livestock products.





Table 41: Households (%) owning different types of livestock or poultry

	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Cattle	48	53	5	45
Oxen/yaks	8	19	1	15
Horses	13	4	1	4
Donkeys	67	40	2	35
Camels	42	2	0	4
Goats	68	38	2	34
Sheep	76	38	3	34
Poultry	54	52	7	44

The number of animals representing different types of livestock or poultry in the three categories shows that the largest numbers of animals are found in rural households; however, Kuchi households own a substantial share, particularly camels and small ruminants (goats and sheep). The number of cattle estimated in NRVA 2005 is 6% below the estimates of FAO (2003); the estimates for the number of donkeys and poultry were 36% and 29% higher than FAO estimates. However, the number of horses, camels, goats and sheep estimated in NRVA were more than twice the estimates of FAO. The reason for this is that FAO (2003) did not fully cover the Kuchi (about 23,000 Kuchi households were assessed while according to NMAK-2004 there are 150,000 Kuchi households in the country excluding those who were crossing borders during the winter) who are the main managers of sheep, goats and camels.

Table 42: Livestock and poultry ownership (*10,000)

	NRVA 2005				FAO 03	% difference
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National		
Cattle	24.7	317.3	6.2	348.3	370.0	-6
Oxen/Yaks	2.5	88.4	1.5	92.5		
Horses	5.5	23.8	0.8	30.0	14.0	114
Donkeys	41.5	171.4	4.7	217.6	160.0	36
Camels	28.2	11.2	0.2	39.7	18.0	120
Goats	445.9	1,215.7	15.5	1,677.1	730.0	130
Sheep	785.7	1,259.9	30.8	2,076.4	880.0	136
Poultry	90.3	1,448.3	37.9	1,576.5	1220.0	29

The FAO survey (2003) was based on data collected in 36,700 villages covering around 3 million households while NRVA 2005 included 30,800 households in about 2600 communities or clusters representative of rural, urban and Kuchi households (representing 3.9 million households nationwide). NRVA 2005 livestock figures rely totally on household surveys. The FAO survey was based on a more extensive number of villages, but not information gathered at the household level and it did not include urban households. This could explain the large differences for camels, sheep and goats, which have a higher degree of mobility than cattle or poultry. Imports of animals could also explain part of these differences, but there is no information to support this. As will be discussed in the following sections, NRVA 2005 shows that the perceptions of needs and priorities of the *shura* responses (community level) are largely influenced by the elders, who tend to dominate in the meetings. Possible overstatements by households surveyed in NRVA 2005 for these four types of livestock should be taken into account for livestock policy interventions.



Table 43: Average herd or flock size *

	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Cattle	2.7	1.9	1.8	2.0
Oxen/Yak	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.5
Horses	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0
Donkeys	3.2	1.4	3.6	1.6
Camels	3.5	1.6	1.9	2.6
Goats	34.1	10.4	12.8	12.7
Sheep	53.5	10.7	14.4	15.5
Poultry	8.7	9.2	8.6	9.1

* This analysis includes only the households that reported owning livestock (excluding 0 or missing values of that type of livestock).

Kuchi households are largely dependent on livestock and poultry production, and they own more animals per household than rural or urban households. On average, the herd size of Kuchi households is 88 small ruminants (sheep and goats), 8.7 chicken, 3.5 camels, 3.2 donkeys, 2.2 horses, 2.7 cows and 1.7 oxen.¹⁸ The Kuchi national figures (NMAK-2004 survey) for the number of small ruminants were 50, camels 1.7 and cattle 1.2. These figures are about half of those in NRVA 2005. The findings of FAO 2003 indicate that in 2003 the national figure for ownership of cattle was 1.2 and that of sheep was 2.9, which is considerably lower than the NRVA 2005 figures. This difference could be due to the fact that FAO 2003 didn't fully cover Kuchi population whose main livelihood component are livestock keeping (especially small ruminants).

Two alternative estimates, using NRVA 2005 data, are offered here as shown in the table below.

Table 44: Average number animals by households

	Estimate 1 number of different types of animals per household	Estimate 2 average number animals per households that own some type of animal
Cows	0.9	1.4
Oxen	0.2	0.4
Horses	0.1	0.1
Donkeys	0.6	0.9
Camels	0.1	0.2
Goats	4.3	6.8
Sheep	5.3	8.4
Birds	4.0	6.4

The FAO estimates are in between the first and second alternative estimates. Differences in sampling approaches between NRVA 2005, FAO (2003) and the NMAK survey need to be taken into account before drawing conclusions about the dynamics of the national herds, or the composition at the household levels for Kuchi, rural and urban households.

¹⁸ The high figure for oxen could be due to the relative weight of these animals among the semi-nomadic Kuchi, who may be able to secure feed for their animals.

3.8.4. Inputs

The main **source of traction** reported by Afghan households is animal (54%), mechanical (35%), and only 12% manual. Nuristan has the highest frequency of **manual cultivation** while it is almost absent in Nimroz, Baghlan, Hilmand, Kunduz and Samangan. Small and sloping plots in the mountainous province of Nuristan restrict mechanization and make it difficult to use animals for traction. Women in this province are mainly involved in agriculture.

Sixty-eight percent of the overall households involved in agriculture use fertilizers of some type, of which rural households accounted for 98%, urban areas and Kuchi accounted for approximately the same percentage (1% each). The number and percentage of households using solid waste fertilizer



(weighted of total) is shown in the table. The use of manure (animal fertilizer) in the rural areas is more than twice the use of human fertilizer. Treated yard manure is safe for agricultural production if properly treated. In the case of Afghanistan, a considerable proportion of human waste is not treated properly, thereby posing health hazards for both farmers and consumers. Seventy-four percent of the households in Nimroz, 63% in Nuristan and 56% in Logar use human solid waste as fertilizer.

Table 45: Use of solid waste and mineral fertilizer by households (%)

Category	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Human fertilizer	0	18	0	19
Animal fertilizer	1	45	1	46
Urea	1	77	1	81
DAP*	1	66	1	68

*Di-Ammonium Phosphate.

Households throughout Afghanistan use urea more commonly than Di-Ammonium Phosphate (DAP) (80% and 68%, respectively). This difference is found within the rural areas, as within Kuchi and urban the usage is about the same. However, the average urea usage in kg is approximately 30-40% more than DAP kg average usage. More households use fertilizer on fields than on gardens or both fields and gardens; they also use on average more fertilizer on fields than on home gardens.

The vast majority of households that use fertilizer buy it (78%); NGOs/INGOs play an insignificant role in providing fertilizer for households (less than one half percent). Twenty-five percent of households in Afghanistan involved in agriculture use pesticides; of these, 20% use pesticides only on fields, 3% of households use pesticides only on gardens, and 2% on both fields and gardens. Ninety-four percent of households purchase their pesticide.



Table 46: Use of pesticide

	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Total	
	%	%	%	No. weighted observations	%
No	1	73	1	1,303,081	75
Yes: Field crops only	0	19	0	340,148	20
Yes: Garden plot only	0	3	0	54,759	3
Yes: Both	0	2	0	37,458	2
Total	1	97	2	1,735,473	100

3.8.5. Constraints to agriculture

Agricultural production is largely subject to variations imposed by the high mountain climate, with dry, cold winters in the highlands and arid and semi-arid climates in the lowlands. Even though Afghanistan is not a poor country in terms of its per capita water availability, topography limits the options to harness and distribute the available water. Ten droughts have been reported since 1970, which represents a 28% chance of facing a dry year.¹⁹ Under this scenario, it is not surprising that, for example, in "...2004, widespread crop failure, caused by localized drought and plant and animal diseases—particularly the west, southwest and south—led to severe food shortages" (ADB, 2005a). Thus, Afghanistan faces the challenge of increasing its food security with limited irrigated or rain fed land, including agro-pastoral systems. Even though a 28 percent chance of drought is high, it is unknown how dry a drought is or how much rain is in an agricultural year not considered as drought (72% of the time). Drought, as the explanation for low agricultural or livestock performance, is used in a very loose way that tends to ignore what we know about the uncertainty associated with rainfall to develop drought management programmes and crisis (shock) mitigation.

Outbreaks of diseases and pest infestations may occur under different microclimatic conditions and can wipe out subsistence and high value crops. Monitoring of growing conditions is essential for timely interventions for pest control; the pay offs can be high (RAMP, 2006b). Animal diseases can be prevented with the use of vaccines and timely veterinary services that can reduce the spread of diseases. Systematic provision of veterinary services has proven to be highly cost-effective in Afghanistan (RAMP, 2006c).

The occurrence of natural disasters such as earthquakes, landslides, floods, heavy rain, hailstorms, frosts and severe cold temperatures affect entire regions or localized communities, and have a negative impact in the agricultural sector; however, mapping efforts to assess risk associated to such events is still limited.²⁰

Aside from the factors mentioned above, the lack of roads to access markets to sell products or purchase inputs, pricing information that could empower farmers to maximize profit margins, cooperatives or farmers' associations that could facilitate

¹⁹ Droughts for 1971-72, 1977, 1982-83 (Guimbert, 2004), 1999-2002 (FAO, 2005) and 2004 (World Bank, 2005b) have been documented. However, the term "drought" is imprecise because the lack of data and some authors refer to agricultural seasons based on long-duration wheat cultivation (starting in October and ending in May of the following year) or they refer to calendar years; crop yields and numbers of animals are indicators of "drought conditions".

²⁰ It was not until April 2003 that USAID and the United States Geological Survey launched the Agrometeorological Project to collect and systematize data in different provinces. USAID-USGS, Kabul and the Famine Early Warning System Network, Kabul serve to inform stakeholders in the agricultural sector and international cooperation about food security risks related to environmental and socio-economic conditions and discuss policy options for risk mitigation, publish bimonthly newsletters.



the access to local or international markets and credit, still prevails. Lack of storage facilities across the country limits the benefits of producers.

As will be discussed in Section 4, environmental, biological and socio-economic factors constitute covariate shocks that affect not only the livelihoods of those households involved agriculture and livestock production, but also those households involved in other sectors of the economy.

3.9 Transportation and access to markets

Road access is vital for physically accessing markets, either as suppliers or consumers. The average distance to the nearest drivable road was 7.4 Km for the Kuchi, 4.6 Km for the rural and 0.4 Km for the urban communities (4.0 Km for all categories). Regardless of the means of transportation, access to market is one hour or less, and there is daily means of transportation.

Table 47: Distance of communities to the nearest road (km)

Categories	Mean	Maximum	Minimum
Kuchi	7.4	80.0	0.0
Rural	4.6	90.0	0.0
Urban	0.4	20.0	0.0
National	4.0	90.0	0.0

Among those who responded that the roads are usable all year, 72% were Kuchi, 70% rural, 95% urban and the national figure was 75%. In contrast, most of the households mentioned that there has not been a change in the roads in the last three years; Kuchi reported 79%, rural households 58%, and urban households 61%, with the national figure at 60%.

Table 48: Change of road access in the last three years (%)

Categories	No change	Access improved	Access deteriorated
Kuchi	79	18	3
Rural	58	35	7
Urban	61	36	3
National	60	34	6

Some communities mentioned improvements in the road conditions: Kuchi 18%, rural 35%, urban 36% and the national figure was 34%. Other communities mentioned deterioration of road conditions, Kuchi 3%, rural 7%, urban 3% and nationwide 6%. The majority (67%) of communities acknowledged an increase in traffic during the last 3 years. Out of those, commercial trucks and vans were reported to show the largest increase by Kuchi households (36%), rural households (39%), urban communities (19%) and nationwide (35%).

Table 49: Traffic increase by type of transportation (%)

Categories	Public bus/truck	Commercial trucks / van	Private vehicles	Motorbikes	Other
Kuchi	31	36	26	7	0
Rural	18	39	32	10	0
Urban	30	19	33	17	0
National	21	35	32	12	0



Distance to markets within one hour, and existence of daily transportation would suggest that infrastructure is reasonable, but experience shows that this is not likely to be the case. These figures suggest that the situation is not totally congruent because there is no formal definition of drivable road or whether it requires a large lorry (commercial truck) or a small vehicle to negotiate it. A majority of households (75%) expressed that the roads are usable year around; at the same time, they expressed that there had no changes in the road condition. Thus, the only answer that seems to express the current situation is the perception of closeness to the markets within an hour and the availability of daily transportation.²¹

Physical access to markets is important, but the choices of selling and buying are equally important to enable economic growth. NRVA 2005 offered modest contributions to this knowledge. In reference to the main staple crop, wheat, 64% percent of the households engaged in agriculture stated that they grow wheat for home consumption and 12% stated that they have sold part of their harvest. Out of those who sold wheat, 36% percent sold it to a buyer from their village or city, while 34% sold to a buyer outside their village or city. Almost 80% of households do not have a choice about where they sell their wheat. Market pricing information about local and imported wheat, wheat flour, local and imported rice, sheep and goats, agricultural labour wages, raw opium, and fertilizer is available in VAU-FEWS Net (2006).²²

3.10. Expenditure

Data on expenditure for food and non-food items can be found in the NRVA 2005 data set available on the NSS website.

²¹ Recent analysis of roads and transportation in Afghanistan can be found in RAMP (2006d).

²² FAAHM (2005) and RAMP (2006e) provide further information about marketing practices of staple and cash crops in Afghanistan.



4.

Risk and vulnerability, perceptions of risk and well-being

Shocks are defined as uncontrollable and risky events that have negative consequences for individuals, households or communities. They can be natural, economic, political or social in nature. The NRVA household questionnaire splits shocks into **covariate shocks**, such as deficiencies in quantity and quality of drinking water, agricultural or livestock diseases, natural disasters, insecurity, unfavourable financial events or epidemics which affect a number of households, village or a wider area; and **idiosyncratic shocks**, which typically occur at a household level, such as loss of employment, the death of a household member or the loss or damage of property.

Table 50: Frequency (%) of shocks during the last year ²³

Categories	Have you had shocks?	Covariate						Idiosyncratic
	Yes	Drinking Water	Agric.	Natural disasters	Lack of security	Financial	Epidemics	Various
Kuchi	52	30	68	40	9	9	8	15
Rural	51	25	48	55	12	19	10	10
Urban	18	23	10	36	9	27	9	26
National	45	25	47	53	11	19	9	11

The World Bank (2005a) states that the urban areas have similar shocks to those experienced in rural areas, such as lack of water. However, within urban areas the effects of particular shocks seem to be concentrated. The results from NRVA 2005 in Table 50 show that the households in urban areas are more exposed to financial and idiosyncratic shocks and are less subject to natural disasters compared to the rural or Kuchi households. “The competition for space means that housing and land are at a premium. In addition the near total monetisation of the urban economy (as opposed to partial in the rural economy) means that people’s livelihoods strategies are dominated for the need for cash to meet expenditures. At the same time, there is an inherent instability of wage income opportunities due to informal employment markets in cities” (World Bank, 2005a, 61). Less dependence on social networks within the urban areas also makes the impact of idiosyncratic shocks more acute (26% urban compared to 15% and 10% for Kuchi and rural, respectively).

²³ The groups of shocks used in NRVA 2005 are drinking water (quality and quantity); agricultural (reduced quantity and quality of agricultural water, unusually high incidence of crop pests and diseases, opium eradication, ceasing cultivation of opium, unusual high level of livestock diseases, reduced availability of grazing areas, and reduced of Kuchi migration routes); natural disasters (earthquakes, landslides/avalanches, flooding, late damaging frosts, heavy rains preventing work, severe winter conditions and hailstorms); lack of security (insecurity/violence, and theft); financial (unusual high increases in food prices and unusual decrease in farm gate prices); epidemics (unusual level of human disease); various idiosyncratic (bankruptcy of a family business, serious illness accident for working household member, death of a working household member, and death of another household member, involuntary loss of house/land or livestock, and large increase in housing rent).



However, only 18% of the urban households acknowledged being affected by shocks in their lives while about 51% of Kuchi and rural households reported being affected by shocks.

Risk is defined as the probability of occurrence of a particular shock. Communities in the tail of a watershed are more likely to be at risk of having lower quality of drinking water, as well as highly fluctuating quantities of water, depending on the land management practices observed by the communities at the head of the watershed. Similarly, communities located in mountainous areas are more likely to have landslides and frost than those communities located in lower and flatter areas. Adverse effects of any given magnitude and their frequency of occurrence interacting with the socio-economic conditions of the communities or populations determines their vulnerability. In other words, **vulnerability** is the probability of the degree of damage or exposure to detrimental effects caused by the occurrence of shocks. Environmental, financial and social endowments determine the ability of households and communities to cope with shocks. In general, better-endowed households are less vulnerable than households with poorer endowments.

Vulnerability analysis related to food insecurity (Scaramozzino, 2006) offers two useful features, it is forward-looking and stochastic. The analysis is not only concerned with current food insecurity but the ability to address future insecurity through *ex-ante* assessment. The analysis also incorporates the risks associated with food insecurity, and, where possible, it can incorporate the use of social support systems and local knowledge of the households or communities. Nevertheless, food security entails a subset of elements in poverty analysis that is related to vulnerability, hazards and risks.

Scarce information is available regarding the frequency and the extent of these shocks and the agro-ecological and socio-economic characterization of communities. Some information related to drought and frost, and food insecurity is available through the Agro-meteorological and Famine Early Warning Systems Newsletter that coordinates efforts with FAAHM Crop and Food Supply Assessments Missions, upon request by the government of Afghanistan.²⁴

²⁴ <http://www.fews.net/centers/innerSections.aspx?f=af&pageID=alerts>



Figure 14: Households experiencing drinking water shocks (last 12 months)
Water quality and quantity problems exist throughout the country. More than half of the households reported poor water taste and drought in Badghis, decreased water table in Laghman and drought in Zabul during the previous year. The map depicts a horizontal and almost continuous strip, from Farah to Badakhshan, provinces in the strip have shown less water shocks, while those above and below the strip have shown higher (25-50%) incidence of drinking water shocks.

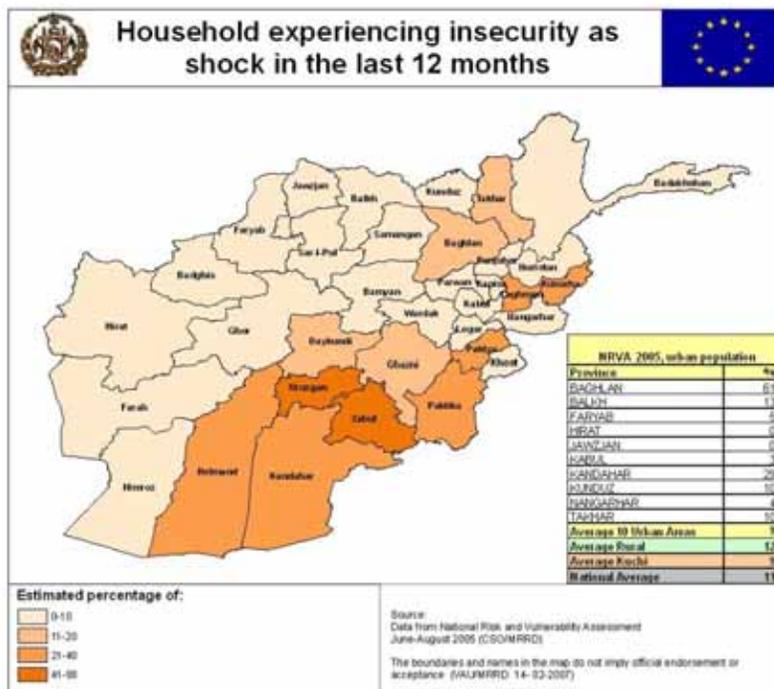


Figure 15: Households experiencing insecurity as shock (last 12 months)
The provinces adjacent with Pakistan generally show the highest insecurity.



Security has been an issue for more almost three decades. There is a clear pattern of insecurity perceived by the households in the southern and central parts of the country.

Idiosyncratic shocks are distributed in two more or less continuous bands oriented in a southwest to northeast direction. In the west, Nimroz, Farah, Hirat in the north, Faryab and Jawzjan present higher incidences of idiosyncratic shocks. Similarly, in the southwest, Kandahar and other parts of the country provinces like Ghazni, Daykundi, Logar, Kabul, Nangarhar, Bamyān, Baghlan and Kunduz present high incidences of these shocks.

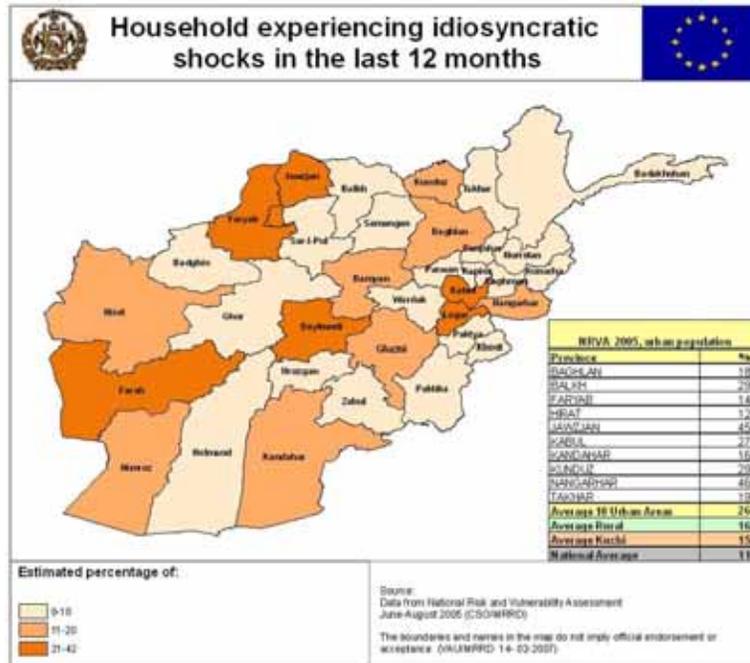


Figure 16: Households experiencing idiosyncratic shocks (last 12 months)

This report does not characterize the vulnerability of different domains or populations by province to different shocks or even suggest that there is a preconceived idea of how to cope with risk in a systematic manner. Rather, it shows that diversification of income or livelihoods can be used to understand how households have reacted to mitigate risk and vulnerability.

Income or livelihood diversification is an ancient response to coping with uncertainty. Data from NRVA 2005 for the four working categories in this report (Kuchi, rural, urban and national) can be used to assess frequencies of households that declared activities within each of the eight groups of sources of income mentioned in section 3.7. For example, if a household has livestock production for home consumption and sells livestock products, it is recorded as a household with only one source of income (livestock, despite having two activities within that group). If the same household grows, processes and sells opium, it will count opium as a second source of income. If this very same household has one or more members engaged in non-farm labour (clerk, accountant or teacher), the household accrues one more point towards this group of income. The spread in sources of income is a way to quantify livelihood diversification. It does not require monetary figures, but registers the presence or absence of means to sustain the household economy.



The table below shows that rural households have the most diversified sources of income; 48% have only one source of income (undefined group out of the 8 above) while 40% have two sources of income, 12% have three sources of income, and 1% have four sources of income and less than half percent have five sources of income.²⁵ In contrast, urban dwellers have much less diversified sources of income; 84% have only one source of income (trade and services, non-farm or manufacture would be the most likely) while 15% have two sources of income, 2% have three sources of income and only 0% have four or more sources of income. The exposure to environmental variability in the rural or Kuchi households is dramatically higher than that of the rural dwellers; therefore, income diversification is higher than in urban areas. In contrast, Kuchi households are less diversified than rural households.

Table 51: Income diversification

Categories	Increasing number of groups of income (%)*					Total	
	1	2	3	4	5	No. weighted observations	%
Kuchi	62	32	6	1	0	185,148	100
Rural	48	40	12	1	0	2,980,859	100
Urban	84	15	2	0	0	607,062	100
National	55	35	10	1	0	3,773,069	100

* The groups are any of those in section 3.7 (livestock, agriculture, opium, trade and services, manufacture, remittance, other and non-farm).

The national percentage of households with only one income group was 55%; this percentage was broken down as follows (using un-weighted observations):

Table 52: Households within the one income group

Income	No. un-weighted observations	%
Livestock	1,487	9
Agriculture	4,496	27
Opium	110	1
Trade and services	4,696	29
Manufacture	321	2
Remittances	374	2
Other	648	4
Non-farm	4,357	26
Total	16,489	100

The table below presents the combinations of groups for households with two groups of income. Nationally, there were 10,489 households with **two groups of income**. The most frequent combination of income sources was agriculture with a) non-farm activities (22%), b) livestock (22%), or c) trade and services (11%).²⁶ A similar pattern was also evident in the rural communities. In comparison, but not surprisingly, the **Kuchi** were more likely to combine livestock with a) non-farm activities (39%), b) trade and services (10%) and c) agriculture (17%). Households in the **urban** areas were more likely to combine trade and services with a) non-farm activities (26%), b) manufacturing (15%) or c) agriculture (13%).

²⁵ Because of rounding, anything less than 0.5% is recorded as zero in the tables throughout this report. Real zeros are indicated with empty cells or cells with one dot.

²⁶ The entries in the table depict the interactions of income groups that could eventually be traced to monetary values. The interaction is based on frequencies of households combining two groups of income or employment, rather than on a correlation based on market values derived from these activities.



Table 53: Household income from two sources (%)

Group		Agriculture	Opium	Trade and services	Manufacture	Remittances	Other	Non farm	Total	
Livestock	National	22	0	4	1	1	1	6	35	National
Agriculture			3	11	3	4	2	22	46	
Opium				0	0	0	0	1	1	
Trade and services					2	2	2	7	13	
Manufacture						0	0	2	2	
Remittances							0	2	3	
Other								1	1	
Total			22	4	16	6	7	5	41	
Livestock	Kuchi	17	1	10	2	3	8	39	81	Kuchi
Agriculture			2	2	1	1	0	6	12	
Opium				0	0	0	0	2	2	
Trade and services					1	0	0	3	4	
Manufacture						0	0	0	0	
Remittances							0	1	1	
Other								1	1	
Total			17	3	12	4	4	8	51	
Livestock	Rural	24	0	4	1	1	1	5	35	Rural
Agriculture			4	12	3	4	2	25	50	
Opium				0	0	0	0	1	1	
Trade and services					1	2	1	5	9	
Manufacture						0	0	1	2	
Remittances							0	2	3	
Other								1	1	
Total			24	4	16	5	7	4	40	
Livestock	Urban	5	0	3	0	0	0	1	10	Urban
Agriculture			0	13	2	0	1	7	24	
Opium				0	0	0	0	0	1	
Trade and services					15	4	9	26	54	
Manufacture						0	1	6	7	
Remittances							0	2	2	
Other								2	2	
Total			5	1	17	17	5	11	44	

Note: Number of un-weighted observations—national = 10,489, Kuchi = 540, rural = 8994, and urban = 955.

The table above was carried out to the second level of income diversification group for the national, Kuchi, rural and urban household categories. A third level, for example, households involved in agriculture, livestock and opium, would have a set of linkages with other sources of income. Even though these figures do not represent flows of income in Afghans they represent frequencies of households or livelihoods attached to different sectors of the economy. These relationships and the frequency of their occurrence can be related with perceptions of well being or risk as well as quantifiable socio-economic variables in NRVA 2005.



The different pathways of livelihood diversification adopted by households in different categories (Kuchi, rural and urban) and environments (natural, economic, and social, among others) are very difficult to generalize, and it is beyond the scope of this assessment. However, their **perceptions** on their ability to recover from these shocks, as reported by the interviewees, are described below.

Households were asked to express whether they have recovered from the shocks experienced in the previous year. Overall, most of them (61%) did not perceive themselves to have recovered from the shocks while 37% reported themselves to be partially recovered and only 2% completely recovered. The perceived ability to recover from the shocks was highest among the urban households, followed by the Kuchi and the rural households had the lowest recovery. Eighty-nine percent of the households in Panjsher, 88% in Zabul and 84% in Hirat stated that they had not recovered from shocks at all. In contrast, 17% of households in Kapisa, 7% in Jawzjan and 6% in Kunduz stated that they had completely recovered from shocks in the last year.

Table 54: Recovery from shocks (%)

	Not recovered at all	Partially recovered	Completely recovered
Kuchi	59	39	2
Rural	62	36	2
Urban	52	44	4
National	61	37	2

Households were asked to compare their overall economic situation with that of one year ago. Seventy-three percent of the households in Afghanistan perceived that they were in the same or worse situation with respect to one year ago. Twenty-four percent perceived being slightly better and only 2% perceived a clear improvement. The urban households had 5% to 6% lower perceptions of being much worse or slightly worse compared to rural and Kuchi households. Twenty-four percent of the households in Jawzjan, 19% in Badakhshan and 18% in Logar stated that they are much worse than one year ago. In contrast, 10% of the households in Kunduz, 9% in Hilmand and 7% in Uruzgan stated that they are much better than one year ago. There are many ways one can look at the provincial figures. Jawzjan has a bimodal distribution of perceptions of well-being with respect to one year ago, and Paktya has an exceedingly large proportion of households (85%) that perceive their condition slightly better (see Table A 91 in the annex). The variations from province to province need to be explained with local knowledge. Interested users of NRVA 2005 can examine some of these results at the provincial and regional level for rural households and urban dwellers.

Table 55: Perceived economic situation of households compared to last year (%)

Categories	Much worse	Slightly worse	Same	Slightly better	Much better
Kuchi	10	27	37	24	2
Rural	12	27	34	24	2
Urban	6	22	44	24	4
National	11	26	36	24	2



Urban households generally perceived themselves as being the same or economically better off compared to the rural or Kuchi households. “Uncertainty and irregularity of income are expressed as major concerns both for daily labour and civil servants” (World Bank, 2005a). The NRVA 2005 was undertaken during the summer, a time of relative prosperity and abundance of food for both purchase and trade. In the summer, daily labourers can supplement their income through trade where daily labour markets are more abundant.

Perceptions of food insecurity were assessed through the question of how often households have problems satisfying their food needs. Kuchi, rural and urban households “often” or “mostly” have problems to satisfy food needs with the same frequency (3% to 6%). However, only 28% of the urban households stated that they “sometimes”, “often” or “mostly” have problems to meet their food needs, compared with 40% of the Kuchi or 48% of the rural households. In general, **44% of the total households perceive themselves to be food insecure with different degrees** (sometimes, often or mostly having problems meeting their needs).

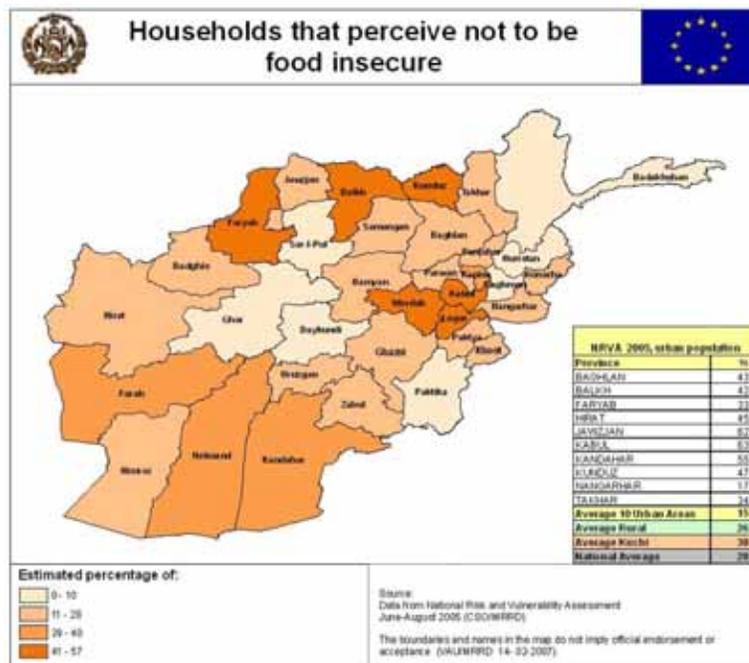


Figure 17: Households that perceived themselves not to be food insecure
Households in Ghor, Sar-I-Pul, Daykundi, Paktika, Laghman, Nuristan and Badakhshan provinces perceive themselves as the most food insecure in the country (Acknowledgement: this map is the opposite of the one on food insecurity).

Table 56: Households with problems satisfying their food needs (%)

	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Never	28	24	52	28
Rarely (1 to 3 times per month)	31	28	20	27
Sometimes (3 to 6 times per month)	31	37	21	34
Often (a few times every month)	4	6	4	5
Mostly (this happens a lot)	5	5	3	5

The perceptions of satisfaction of food needs, estimates of caloric intake and diversity of diet together with objective indicators of nutritional status—such as weight and height—could be used to quantify the extent and spread of food insecurity in the country at different levels or areas.



5.

Past programme participation

Food aid programmes have been used throughout Afghanistan to help relieve drought, flood or poverty. They provide an alternative to cope with environmental and social shocks. Participation in a selection of programmes was surveyed at the household level. This section briefly presents some aggregate results of all activities implemented by WFP, government, UN agencies or NGOs.

5.1. Cash for work

About 4% of households in Afghanistan (151,312) participated in cash for work or income generating programmes²⁷; 90% participated in rural areas, 9% in urban areas and 1% among the Kuchi. Among the participants within the households, 89% were men only, 3% were women only, and 4% children only. Kunduz, Laghman, Logar, Nimroz, Nuristan, Paktya, Sar-I-Pul, Uruzgan, Wardak and Zabul had men only participating. Parwan and Balkh had a high proportion of 'women only' participating (23% and 19%, respectively). More than 10% of households had children only participating in the programme in Balkh, Hilmand, Parwan, Sar-I-Pul and Takhar. Twenty-four percent of the households in Panjsher had men and children participating in the programme while Kabul had 16%.

Table 57: Participants in cash for work programmes (%)

Categories	Men only	Women only	Children only	Adults only	Men and children	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	86	0	0	0	14	1,554
Rural	89	4	4	3	2	136,555
Urban	90	2	3	0	15	13,203
National	89	3	4	2	3	151,312

Overall perceived benefits of these programmes vary. Seven percent did not perceive any benefit, 71% bought more food, 1% paid for education, 7% paid for medical expenses and 7% paid debts, among others. Sixty-two percent of the participating households in Jawzjan did not perceive any benefits out of the program, followed by Baghlan (29%) and Paktya (20%). The perception of lack of benefits is rather localized. Fifty percent of the participating households in Uruzgan acquired income generating skills, followed by Balkh (7%), Kandahar (6%), Takhar (5%) and Nangarhar (2%). Attention could be paid to the experiences in these provinces so that benefits can be extended or intensified.

²⁷ National Emergency Employment Programme, National Solidarity Programme, other cash for work and income generation projects.



Table 58: Perceived benefits in cash from work programmes (%)

Categories	No benefit	Bought more food	Paid for education	Paid medical expenses	Paid house rent	Paid off debts	Invested in productive assets	Improved literacy / education	Income generating skills acquired	Other	No. weighted observations
Kuchi	33	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	999
Rural	8	70	1	8	0	7	1	0	1	5	120,301
Urban	1	86	1	1	1	2	0	1	0	6	11,158
National	7	71	1	7	0	7	1	0	1	5	132,458

The overall perceived benefits of infrastructure created or rehabilitated by cash for work programmes was high (90%), and only 10% of the households did not perceive any benefit. Those who perceive the least benefits were the Kuchi (36%), due to their migratory lifestyle. The rural dwellers perceived that improved access to health facilities (28%), markets (34%), employment (24%), access to irrigation (12%) and safe drinking water (13%) were the most important benefits. Urban households perceived improvement in their access to health services (50%), access to markets (26%), drinking water (21%) and education (20%), environmental improvements (17%), among others.

Table 59: Perceived benefits of infrastructure from cash for work programmes (%)

Categories	No benefit	Improved access to health facilities	Improved access to education	Improved access to markets	Improved access to employment opportunities	Improved access to safe drinking water	Improved access to irrigation water	Other environmental improvements	Number of Households
Kuchi	36	7	0	7	7	0	7	7	1,554
Rural	10	28	17	34	24	13	12	10	136,555
Urban	7	50	20	26	12	21	5	17	13,203
National	10	29	17	33	23	13	11	10	151,312

5.2. Food aid and food for work

Three and a half percent of households at the national level indicated that one or more household members participated in one or more food aid programmes (relief food distribution, school feeding, institutional feeding, food for work, food for training or food for income generation).²⁸ The percentage the individual population groups working for food aid were Kuchi 3%, rural 4% and urban 1%.

²⁸ This analysis does not distinguish between WFP programmes and other UN, government or NGO programmes.



Of those households that indicated that they had one or more persons working on one or more projects, 99% worked in one food program; in rural areas 1% of households worked in two food programmes. Three percent of households would not specify what food aid programme they worked in. Ninety-three percent of those that identified the programme they worked for were rural, 3% were urban and 4% were Kuchi.

Of all of those that participated in food for work programmes since 2004, but not within the last 90 days prior to the survey (between June and August 2005,) the average percent of participating men was 9%, women 6%, adults 2%, children 18%, women and children 10%, men and children 8% and everyone 4%.

Of those that participated in the food aid programmes, the main benefits recorded were improved quantity of food (36%), and reduced household expenditure (25%), while only 14% indicated it improved the quality of food within the household. For secondary benefits the responses included reducing expenditure on food (45%), improved quality (23%) and improved literacy and education (8%). The third benefit recorded improved school attendance (25%), reduced food expenditure (19%), and improved literacy and education (15%).

Table 60: Perceived benefits (% frequency) of food aid programmes

		Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Main	Increased quantity	3	30	3	36
	Reduced food expenditure	0	24	0	25
	Increased quality	0	14	0	14
Secondary	Reduced food expenditure	2	41	3	45
	Increased quality	2	21	1	23
	Improved literacy/education	0	7	0	8
Third	Improved school attendance	1	26	0	27
	Reduced food expenditure	2	16	1	19
	Improved literacy/education	0	14	1	15

Of those that participated in food aid projects, the main perceived benefits from the infrastructure created were improved access to education (40%), improved access to health facilities (26%) and improved access to markets (10%). The secondary benefits were improved access to education (32%), improved access to markets (19%) and other environmental improvements (11%). The tertiary benefits were access to markets (24%), other (20%) and no benefit (11%).

Table 61: Perceived benefits (%) of infrastructure in food aid programmes

		Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Main	Improved access to education	0	39	1	40
	Improved access to health facilities	0	24	1	26
	Improved access to market	0	10	0	10
Secondary	Improved access to education	0	31	1	32
	Improved access to market	0	19	0	19
	Other environmental improvements	0	10	1	11
Third	Improved access to education	0	23	1	24
	Other	0	18	2	20
	No benefit	0	11	0	11



6.

Dietary diversity and food security profiling²⁹

Dietary diversity is defined as the number of different foods consumed during the week prior to the survey and the frequency by which these foods are consumed. These factors, along with the proportion of households accessing the market or those relying in their own production, were used to classify groups of food consumption.

6.1. Food consumption classification

The household food consumption classification followed a set of criteria based on the consumption of food items belonging to the main seven food groups: cereals; legumes and oilseeds; tubers and roots; vegetables and fruits; animal products; oils and fats; and milk and milk products. The criteria for qualifying the food consumption are as follow:

- **Low dietary diversity / very poor food consumption-** The household consumes less than four different food items out of the seven main food groups each day.
- **Low dietary diversity / poor food consumption-** The household consumes daily at least four different food items, plus an additional food item 2-3 times per week.
- **Better dietary diversity / slightly better food consumption-** The household daily consumes at least four food items and at least three additional food items, 3-4 days per week.
- **Better dietary diversity / better food consumption-** The household daily consumes at least five food items and two additional food item 4-5 days per week.

Based on these criteria, four distinct groups of households were identified with very different food consumption patterns. Within these groups there are three sub-clusters that that can be further differentiated.

6.2. Food security profiling

Low dietary diversity / very poor food consumption: 24% of the households are characterized by **very poor food consumption**. Households in this group have a poorly diversified diet, consisting of cereal and oil. Dairy, roots and sugar are consumed one to three times a week, and other food items are rarely consumed. The green colour in the cells for the different clusters indicates a high frequency of consumption (5 to 7 days a week); yellow denotes 3 to 4 days a week and red denotes 1 to 2 days weekly consumption. Blank cells denote zero consumption of a particular group. For example, 2,128 households in the third cluster consume wheat and oil daily, dairy products 3 to 4 times a week and potatoes once a week.

²⁹ This section relies on the collaborative work between WFP and VAU-MRRD.



Table 62: Clusters for households with low dietary diversity and very poor food consumption

Cluster	Cereal	Pulse/Nuts	Oil	Meat	Dairy	Eggs	Roots	Vegetables	Fruit	Sugar	Total Food consumption score	No. weighted observations and % in the total sample
1	7	1	7		4		2	1		7	30	3,881
2	6	1			3		2	1		3	18	1,516
3	7		7		4		1				22	2,128
Total												7,525
Percentage												24

Low dietary diversity / poor food consumption: the largest group of households in the sample (37%) are characterized by **poor food consumption**. In contrast to very poor food consumption category, this group has a slightly better access to food as many consume cereal, oil, sugar every day; some also consume dairy, and roots two to three times a week. Pulses, meat, fruits and vegetables are rarely consumed by these households.

Table 63: Clusters for households with low dietary diversity and poor food consumption

Cluster	Cereal	Pulse/Nuts	Oil	Meat	Dairy	Eggs	Roots	Vegetables	Fruit	Sugar	Total Food consumption score	No. weighted observations and % in the total sample
1	7	2	7	2	3		2	1	1	7	32	6,286
2	7	1	7	2	3		2	2			26	2,494
3	7		7		4		2	1		5	28	2,591
Total												11,371
Percentage												37

Better dietary diversity / slightly better food consumption: 20% of the sampled households have **slightly better food consumption**. This group is characterized by a more diversified diet, though the different foods are consumed with varying frequency. They tend to eat cereals, oil and sugar every day; some also consume vegetables. Moreover, they eat pulses, meat, eggs, root and fruit one to two times per week.



Table 64: Clusters for households with low dietary diversity and slightly better food consumption

Cluster	Cereal	Pulse/Nuts	Oil	Meat	Dairy	Eggs	Roots	Vegetables	Fruit	Sugar	Total Food consumption score	No. weighted observations and % in the total sample
1	7	1	7	2	4		2	1	1	7	33	2,762
2	7	2	7	1	3		3	7		7	38	2,544
3	7	2	7	6	4		5	4	3	6	43	712
Total												6,018
Percentage												20

Better dietary diversity / better food consumption: 19 % of households in the national sample have **better food consumption**. They have a more diverse dietary intake pattern than the other groups. They eat cereal, oil, dairy and sugar regularly. Pulses, meat, roots, vegetables and fruits are consumed three to five days a week. Some of them also eat eggs.

Table 65: Clusters for households with better dietary diversity and better food consumption

Cluster	Cereal	Pulse/Nuts	Oil	Meat	Dairy	Eggs	Roots	Vegetables	Fruit	Sugar	Total Food consumption score	No. weighted observations and % in the total sample
1	7	3	7	2	6	5	4	4	3	6	46	2,034
2	7	2	7	2	5	1	3	4	6	6	43	2,006
3	7	5	7	2	5		6	4	2	5	43	1,868
Total												5,908
Percentage												19

The first two groups comprise 61% of the Afghan population with a low dietary diversity and poor consumption; the third and fourth groups include the better-off sectors of the population.

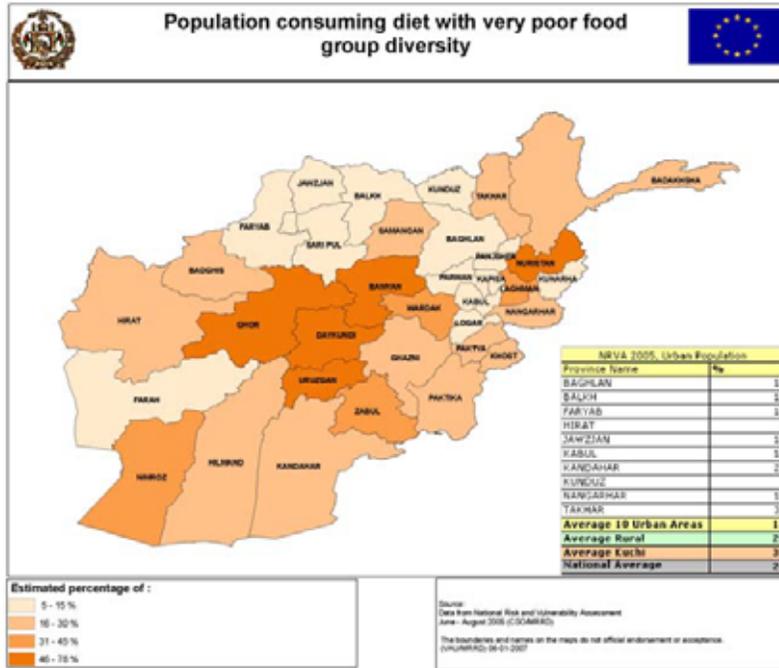


Figure 18: Population consuming a diet with low food diversity
 The highest percentages of households with low dietary diversity and very poor food consumption are found in the central part of the country and Nuristan province in the east. These areas have bad roads and difficult access to markets throughout the year. The northern parts of the country present higher dietary diversity related to higher and more diversified local production.

The minimum caloric intake of 2.067 kcal per person per day was adjusted by age and gender to produce another perspective of food insecurity.

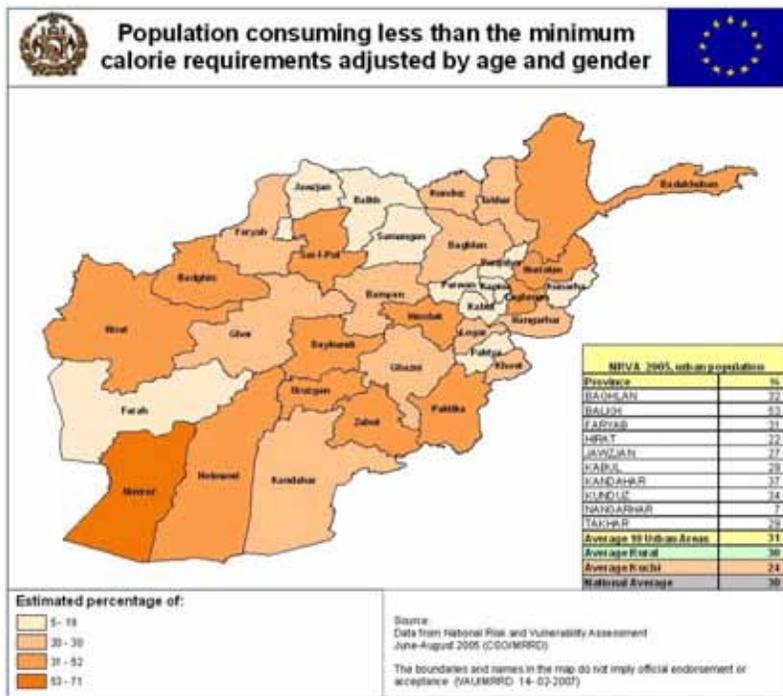


Figure 19: Population consuming less than minimum calorie requirements adjusted by age and gender



The first Millennium Development Goal, *Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger*, aims to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. NRVA 2005 data indicates that 30% of households eat, on average, below their daily requirement; the households in the urban areas (31%) are slightly more food insecure than both the rural and Kuchi population.

Table 66: Population (%) below minimum level of dietary energy consumption adjusted by age and gender (NRVA 2005)

	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National
Percentage	24	30	31	30

The population estimated to be below the daily intake requirement adjusted by age and gender is likely to lose weight; furthermore, if this condition prevails among children, their physical and mental development is at risk. However, caloric requirement is likely to underestimate nutritional requirements. When diversity of diet (very poor dietary diversity plus poor dietary diversity and poor food consumption) is included in the analysis, 61% of the households are likely to be below the nutritional threshold; however, this requires further verification. This finding can be related with households' perceptions that 44% are food insecure (section 4). Nutrition and poverty are related, but it is a complex relationship. Caloric intake and dietary diversity are not strongly correlated (Johncheck and Holland, 2005), and the correlation between low caloric intake and ownership of land, cattle and poultry has been found (World Bank, 2005a). The caloric intake threshold is not equivalent to a poverty line because a poverty line includes the non-food expenditure component such as housing, clothing, transportation, and other essential needs. Sufficiency of energy intake is most highly correlated with the food poverty, which uses expense to ensure on food items only. Further attempts to estimate expenditure-based food and overall poverty headcount rates should be made.

Further work is needed to analyse the rural-urban and Kuchi-urban gap using both quantity of intake and quality of diet. There may be some gender differences that explain the pattern of increasing number of women above 24 years dying more frequently than men of the same age group (see figure 2). This is likely to be a cumulative effect of several factors that determine lower women's survivability, of which, nutrition and health care are explanatory variables; this nexus needs to be investigated.



7.

Intervention preferences and priorities: Shuras' viewpoint

Based on the female and male *shura* questionnaires, the preferences and priorities for interventions for Kuchi, rural and urban were identified. The local authorities and households represented in the *shura* expressed preferences about improvement of water quantity, local roads, health and educational facilities and employment opportunities for women. The highest priorities were for improved water quantity and electricity supply, followed by health and education facilities. The priorities are slightly different between male and female *shura*, but overall there is a consensus (more similarity between males and females' perceptions in urban communities compared to Kuchi or rural), which suggests that the perceived limiting factors are so critical that there are no substantial differences.

It is interesting to note that, while there is a concern for improving drinking water quantity, there is no mention of water quality. Again, the issue of the availability of water may be so critical that quality is not an immediate concern. Interestingly, Kuchi and urban female *shuras* included the improvement of veterinary services, suggesting the relevance of livestock production to women, even in the urban environments.

Table 67: Preferences and priorities (from 1st to 5th) of intervention

	Female	Male
Kuchi	Improved drinking water quantity	Improved drinking quantity
	New or improved local health facilities for men and women	Repairing of local roads
	Improved veterinary services	New or improved local health facilities for women and men
	New or improved housing in the community	New or improved educational facilities for girls and boys
	Repairing local roads	Increased employment opportunities for women
Rural	Electric provision	Improved drinking quantity
	Improved drinking water quantity	Repairing of local roads
	New or improved local health facilities for men and women	New or improved local health facilities for women and men
	New or improved educational facilities for boys and girls	Electric provision
	Repairing local roads	Other
Urban	Improved drinking water quantity	Improved drinking quantity
	Electric provision	Electric provision
	Repairing local roads	Repairing local roads
	New or improved educational facilities for boys and girls	New or improved local educational facilities for boys and girls
	Improved veterinary services	New or improved local health facilities for women and men
	Other	Other



With the exception of water quantity shocks (ranked as number 3 in section 4), the preferences of intervention do not relate to the shocks mentioned above, not because there is lack of cause-effect between the shocks that randomly affect the livelihoods and the need for interventions to mitigate the impact of the shocks, but rather because they were not included in the pre-coded survey questionnaire. It is acknowledged that the opinion of elders or powerful figures in the *shura* heavily bias the overall assessment of the preferences and priorities of intervention.

Information provided by the households with regard to the effects of covariate shocks could be related to the results of the *shura* questionnaire for Kuchi, rural and urban populations, at the provincial level or a selection of provinces by region, depending on the purposes of the analyst accessing NRVA 2005 data set.



8.

Millennium Development Goals

The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – which range from halving extreme poverty to halting the spread of HIV/AIDS and providing universal primary education, all by the target date of 2015 – form a blueprint agreed to by all the world’s countries and the world’s leading development institutions (GOA, 2005).

In the some previous sections NRVA 2005 has been used to assess the status of some MDGs as examples of how the information in the data allows the estimation of baselines which will compare with NRVA 2007. At the same time NRVA 2005 has been used for capacity building of CSO and MRRD staff. The indicators in the table below were produced by NSS staff.

Table 68: NRVA 2005 and the Millennium Development Goals

	MDG	Indicator	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	National average
1	Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (%)	24	30	31	30
2	Achieve universal primary education	Net enrolment rate in primary education	9	36	53	37
		Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds (%)	5	25	63	31
3	Promote gender equality and empower women	Ratio of girls to boys in primary education	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.7
		Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 years old	0.9	0.3	0.8	0.5
4	Reduce child mortality	Proportion of 1-year-old children immunized against measles (%)	35	51	63	53
5	Improve maternal health	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (%)	7	9	52	16
6	Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	Use of condoms (%)*	17	7	9	8
7	Ensure environmental sustainability	Proportion of population using solid fuels (%)	98	98	75	94
		Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural (%)	16	26	63	31
		Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural (%)	0	3	28	7
		Prop. HHs with secure housing tenure (%)	28	44	83	49
8	Develop a global partnership for development	Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population	0.1	0.3	8.3	1.5
		Personal computers in use per 100 people	0.0	0.01	0.52	0.09
		Internet users per 100 people	0	0.01	0.18	0.03

* Out of those women using contraceptive methods; first, second and third married women in the household included. It should be mentioned that the absolute number for Kuchi is very low in comparison to rural and urban households.



The indicators for Kuchi, rural and urban allow estimates of gaps amongst the three categories and help explain the perceptions of the households about their food insecurity, relative prosperity and welfare of 2005 compared to that of 2004 (section 4 above). The gap in the availability of improved sources of water is 36% for rural and 46% for Kuchi households compared to the urban ones. The gap in the availability of improved sanitation is 25% for rural and 28% for Kuchi with respect urban households. The gap in maternal health is 53% for rural and 56% for Kuchi compared to urban households. The small gap in the proportion of households below the minimum caloric intake does not correspond to the perceived food insecurity amongst Kuchi, rural and urban households in section 4.

Establishment of a cause-effect relationship between some indicators and socio-economic variables and covariate and idiosyncratic shocks needs to be assessed to fine-tune recommendations for policy makers. The set of factors that hinder or enhance human and economic development for Kuchi, rural and urban populations need to be described and understood as part of a framework or contextualization for better and more effective programme implementation and emergency interventions, even though this report is released 18 months after the information was collected. The NRVA provides a context for better informed interventions and it has been used already by several government programmes to assess specific questions in different parts of the country.

Further analysis is warranted—an ex-ante analysis of food security/insecurity, including stochastic variables (Scaramozzino, 2006) or a risk-based approach to assessing household vulnerability (World Bank, 2005a). To accomplish this, the NSS team requires time and training to systematically digest the wealth of information available. It would be worth exploring the possibility of VAU preparing annual or biannual thematic working papers on selected topics such as gender and public health, education, resource sustainability, agriculture and livestock, migration and remittances to promote discussions among different sections within MRRD or CSO, or other public offices.

The NRVA 2005 is a forward-looking instrument, rather than one that is used to assess the rates of change with respect to 2003 (statistical restrictions prevent from making valid comparisons). Nevertheless, NRVA 2005 will serve as the baseline for statistical comparisons for the next NRVAs. The data set available through the Internet (www.mrrd.gov.af/vau or www.nss-afghanistan.com) will continue to be used by Afghan, regional and international institutions interested in economic and human development. As such, data of NRVA 2005 is an international public good made available by the MRRD and CSO.



9.

Summary and recommendations

Background and methodology

The NRVA 2005 was the second national exercise on data collection on risk and vulnerability factors that affect the Afghan population. The main objective of NRVA 2005 was to gather information to update and guide policy-making decisions in development programmes and to improve the efficacy of sectoral interventions.

Recognizing the increasing growth in urban population participating in the social, political and economic spheres of the country NRVA has included the 10 most important urban populations. Between June and August of 2005 a national survey was carried out with a sample of 30,822 households in 34 provinces (1,735 Kuchi, 23,220 rural and 5,867 urban). The sample size allows significant statistical inferences for different variable for these categories.

The NRVA data set is divided into 34 provincial rural domains, 10 urban domains and one aggregated domain for the Kuchi population. Four categories, namely, nationwide, Kuchi, rural and urban are used throughout this document in relation to different socio-economic variables and people's perceptions. Survey questionnaires and the complete data set are available in the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development (MRRD) website (www.mrrd.gov.af/vau and www.nss-afghanistan.com).

Population, education, access to information and health

Afghanistan is a very young country, as such, 52% of the population is 17 years of age or younger and out of them 16% is of pre-school age. The average age of females is 21 years, and that of men is 22 years. The average number of people per household is 7.4. Fifty-four percent of the population is male and 46% is female. Two percent of the households are headed by females. There are 4% disabled male heads of households; among female-headed households, 3% are disabled.

The female to male ratio starts to decline above 24 years, which appears to be related to the cumulative effect of disadvantageous conditions for women. In contrast to its neighbours, Afghanistan presents a gender gap that favours male survivability. This situation prevails, even after years of war in which male mortality is typically higher than female mortality. A demographic study should assess these findings as soon as possible.

Twenty-eight percent of the population (6 years old and above) in the country can read. The urban population has the highest literacy rate (56%), followed by households in the rural areas (23%); in contrast, only 6% of the Kuchi can read. The female to male literacy ratio is 0.5 for all the population and the Kuchi, 0.4 in the rural areas and 0.7 among the urban population.

The highest literacy are found to be in Kabul reaching 58%, Balkh (44%), Kapisa (39%), Parwan (37%) and Hirat (36%). Kabul, Balkh and Hirat are provinces with large urban areas, whilst Kapisa and Parwan are close to capital of the country with lots of movement and displacement to capital during recent years of ware. In contrast, the lowest rates are in rural Zabul (1%), Paktika (2%), Hilmand and Uruzgan (5%). The national average school enrolment rate is 37% (females 29% and males



43%). Paktika, Hilmand, Uruzgan and Zabul in the south and south-eastern parts of the country have the lowest female to male literacy ratios and enrolment rates. These provinces present security problems and their populations have strong cultural attitudes.

Improved access to schools for both boys and girls and changes in cultural attitudes should continue to improve gender equality, as is now apparent in the urban areas exposed to more diverse and modern sources of information. The persistence of security problems in the eastern and south-eastern parts of the country will continue to hinder social development, particularly women.

The Afghan society largely relies on social networks (relatives, local markets, business or group associates) to share information (74%). Radio and television also play an important role (60%); and mullahs and community leaders account for about 40% of information exchange. Among the urban households, with a more anonymous lifestyle than Kuchi or rural households, the social network is less important while mass media is more important.

Only 19% of the birth deliveries take place in suitable health facilities. The rest are home delivered with help of neighbours or relatives. Women marry young; the most common age being 20, but 13 girls out of 1000 women marry as young as 10 or 11 years of age. Only 31% of the married women know or have heard about contraceptive methods. Out of these women, 44% use at least one method; contraceptive pills (44%), injections (37%), condoms (8%), early withdrawal (6%), and sterilization (3%).

Lack of hospitals and health posts with beds, doctors and nurses were flagged by the *shuras* as the principal constraint to health care, predominantly in rural areas. Lack of health workers prevails in many communities; most *shuras* recorded that a health worker would not visit their community in a case of emergency.

Provision of health facilities and professional attention in rural areas deserve a high priority but it is also important to spread more and better information about health care practices. It is urgent to identify the causes of higher mortality rates of women above 24 years compared to that of men of the same age groups and to formulate policies to revert this situation unique in Asia. Evidence suggests that lack of health facilities and practices, poor nutrition and frequency of marriages of girls under 15 years explain this gender gap. Increased information on nutritional requirement in different physiological stages of women life (pregnancy, lactation) may also support household members to prioritise according to the nutritious food needs.

Living conditions

Nationwide, single private housing is reported as the most frequent type of dwelling (72% of households) but 17% of the households share a house with others. Migration to the cities and destruction of housing during the war has contributed to higher incidence of shared housing. Most of the Kuchi households live in tents during most of the year, but they tend to live in houses during the harsh winter period.

Overall, the vast majority of households claim ownership of the houses they live in. These houses were acquired through inheritance (72%) or purchase (13%). Four percent of all households considered themselves as tenants and another 4% consider themselves squatters. While the proportion of tenants is 21% in urban areas, it is only 1% in rural areas. Sixty one percent of urban, 48% of rural and 20% of Kuchi households have a deed registered in court.



Most of the people are resource poor. The most common assets (80-90%) found in the Afghan households are glims, watches and radios, followed by sewing machines, bicycles and handcarts (25-40%), and carpets and televisions (20%). Other assets such as ploughs, threshers and cereal grinders are more common among the rural households. Handcarts are equally common for both rural and urban households. Motorcycles are equally common among the urban and Kuchi households, but more frequently found among the rural households. Cars and power generators are much more prevalent among the urban households than among rural and Kuchi households. Overall, the asset endowment is lowest among the Kuchi and highest among the urban households.

Income, remittances and credit

Eight groups of sources of income were defined out of 32 activities (agriculture, livestock, opium, trade and services, manufacture, non-farm labour, remittances and other). Nationwide, the most prominent source of income is agriculture (47%), followed by non-farm labour (33%), trade (27%) and livestock (23%). Manufacture and remittances are sources of income in one out of 20 households. Among the households in the urban areas, trade is the most frequent source of income (58%) followed by non-farm labour (27%). Among the rural households agriculture (57%) and non-farm labour (34%) comprise the most frequent sources of income. Among the Kuchi households, 74% are involved in livestock and 29% are involved in non-farm labour.

Remittances from seasonal and permanent migrants, both domestic and abroad (263,258 and 379,067 estimated cases, respectively), provide economic support to their relatives. Nineteen percent of the rural, 7% of the Kuchi and 5% of the urban households have at least one migrant. This reflects less attractive employment opportunities for the rural households. Rural and urban migration (equally distributed) within the country is predominantly seasonal (90%). Seasonal migration to Pakistan is 75%, 50% to both Iran and the Arabian Peninsula, and only 26% to Europe. Permanent migration complements the seasonal migration figures, for example, 74% of the migration to Europe is permanent.

Credit is a source of income that allows households to cope with unexpected circumstances or opportunities for investment. Forty-one percent of the rural households, 25% of urban households and 27% of Kuchi households have received loans during the previous year prior to the survey.

Out of the largest loan granted to the households during the last year, 45% of the urban households used them to purchase food, and about 65% of both Kuchi and rural households also used them to cope with food insecurity. Further investigation is recommended to assess the use of credit for food as a nationwide indicator for food insecurity.

Household services

Nationwide, 31% of the households have access to safe drinking water. Kuchi households have the lowest access (16%), rural households 26% and urban households 84%. Access to safe drinking water in urban households is highest in Kandahar (99%), Kabul (71%) and Balkh (67%). In contrast, the lowest access is in Kunduz (15%), followed by Baghlan and Hirat with 35% access.

Fifty-six percent of Kuchi have their main water source in their community requiring almost no time to collect water, 34% require 1 hour or less, 6% require 1 to 3 hours, 3% require 3 to 6 hours, and 1% require between 6 to 12 hours. Most rural households (81%) have access to drinking water sources in their community, 15% get water within one hour, 3% require 1 to 3 hours and only 1% requires 3 to 6 hours



to procure water. Ninety-four percent of urban households have access to water within their community and only 6% require 1 hour or less to acquire drinking water.

Nationwide, the traditional covered latrine is the most common toilet facility (57%); followed by *dearan* (13%); open field (12%); and open pit (10%). Improved latrines and flush toilets are the only safe type of toilet facility, available in 5% and 2% of households, respectively.

Nationwide access to electric power is 23%; 74% in the urban areas, 13% in the rural areas and only 4% among the Kuchi. The sources of electric power comprise public supply grids, government generators, personal generators (engines), personal generators (micro-hydro), community generators (engines) and community generators (micro-hydro). National access to public supply grid is only 14%, the highest availability being in the urban areas.

The most important source of fuel for cooking in the summer is animal dung and bushes, followed by firewood and gas. During the winter the use of animal dung and bushes decreases while firewood use increases. Nationwide, firewood is the main fuel source for heating in 39% of households, followed by stove burning straw, bushes or manure (36%); the remaining households use other sources. Five percent of the households do not use any heating source at all.

Sources of energy for illumination in the summer and winter are very similar; 76% of the households rely on oil lamps, 15% on the public supply grid, 5% on generators, and 2% on gas and other sources.

Energy for heating, cooking, illumination and other amenities has a bearing on the environment. Widespread wood cutting has changed the Afghan landscape. Whilst the use of animal dung is a traditional and reliable method, it affects the nitrogen cycling and possibly the long-term soil fertility. Alternative energy sources such as natural gas or gasoline/diesel powered generators are not available or are at prohibitive cost. Public grid supply is very limited – and when available, is not steady or reliable.

Agriculture and livestock

Forty-seven percent of all households in Afghanistan (Fifty-eight percent of the rural households, 12% of the Kuchi and 5% of the urban households) own or manage agricultural land or garden plots. Surprisingly, only 2% of the rural and urban households reported having disputes about property rights.

Further investigation is required to clarify this finding considering that fuzzy property rights are expected in post-conflicts. Clear property rights are a necessary but not sufficient condition for sustainable resource management.

About 21% of the households engaged in agriculture have access to garden plots. Most of the plots have been acquired by inheritance (86%). The average size of the urban garden plots is 5.2 jeribs, and the average size of both Kuchi and rural garden plots is half of the size of urban plots. These plots are usually irrigated; fruit trees, grapes, wheat, fodder and vegetables are the most common crops that contribute to diet diversification and income generation.

Seventy four percent of the rural, 65% of the urban and 55% of the Kuchi households engaged in agriculture have access to irrigated land. Many urban dwellers have retained land ownership. Nationwide the average size of irrigated land is 7.5 jeribs out of those households involved in agriculture. Three out of four households own or cultivate their own land, 6% crop-share out and 5% crop-in. Eight percent of the



irrigated land is fallow or uncultivated. The most important crops are wheat, opium, vegetables, maize, barley, rice, alfalfa, melons or watermelons and potatoes for food security, forage and cash.

Thirty-eight percent of the Kuchi, 33% of the rural and 23% of the urban households engaged in agriculture have access to rain fed land. About 70% of these households owned and cultivated their own land while 16% leave it fallow and 6% share-cropped out. Average size of rain fed land for rural households is 2.5 jeribs while that of Kuchi households is 0.4 jeribs and only 0.3 jeribs for the urban households. The most important crops are wheat, rapeseed, barley, maize, flax, melons and watermelons.

Poppy is an illegal crop grown away from the homesteads, possibly to minimize problems with surveillance authorities. However, poppies are a preferred crop on irrigated land. The gross income from this crop is nine to ten times than that of irrigated wheat; thus, widespread rural poverty makes farmers prone to get involved in opium cultivation or related activities.

About two thirds of the households in Afghanistan own some type of livestock or poultry and rely on them as a source of food and income. The increasing numbers of urban dwellers with higher income demand more and more diverse livestock products, and it is expected that peri-urban livestock production will increase.

Eighty-nine percent of Kuchi, 75% of rural and 10% urban households own livestock or poultry. Forty-four percent of the Afghan households own poultry and 45% own cattle and these animals are mostly owned by rural and Kuchi households. Donkeys, sheep and goats are largely owned by the Kuchi but rural households also own these types of livestock to a lesser extent. Urban households owning some type of livestock or poultry are much less prominent, but they are likely to be related to peri-urban production systems. Camels and horses are mostly owned by Kuchi households and to a lesser extent are owned by rural households. Yaks and oxen are mostly owned in rural households, and to a lesser extent, by Kuchi households.

The size of the national herds is 3.48 million cattle, 0.92 million oxen, 0.30 million horses, 2.18 million donkeys, 0.40 million camels, 16.77 million goats and 20.75 million sheep; and 15.77 million birds. Nationwide, the average size of the herd or flock per household owing livestock or poultry is 2.0 cows, 1.5 oxen, 2.0 horses, 1.6 donkeys, 2.6 camels, 12.7 goats, 15.5 sheep and 9.1 birds. The numbers of horses, camels, sheep and goats estimated are more than twice the estimates of the FAO Livestock census. The reason for this is that FAO (2003) did not fully cover the Kuchi households (only 23,000 Kuchi households were assessed while according to the National Multi-Sectoral Assessment on Kuchi (NMAK-2004) there are 150,000 Kuchi households in the country excluding those who seasonally cross the borders, and were outside Afghanistan at the time of the survey), who are the main managers of sheep, goats and camels. In addition to that, better environmental conditions in the years prior to NRVA 2005 survey and two-year gap between these two assessments may cause changes. The FAO estimates are based on a census of 36,700 villages while NRVA is based on a sample of 30,822 households. For the Kuchi, the average size of the herd or flock per household is 2.7 cows, 1.7 oxen, 2.2 horses, 3.2 donkeys, 3.5 camels, 34.1 goats, 53.5 sheep and 8.7 birds.

Inputs and constraints to agriculture

The main source of traction for the Afghan households, engaged in agriculture, is animal (54%) and mechanical (35%); only 12% is manual. The use of manual traction is mostly related to plots in mountainous and sloping lands. Sixty-eight percent of the overall households engaged in agriculture use fertilizers of some type, of which rural households account for 97%. The use of urea and DAP is widespread (80% and 68%



of the households). Eighteen percent of the rural households use human solid waste as fertilizer and 45% use manure. Seventy-four percent of the households in Nimroz, 63% in Nuristan and 56% in Logar use human solid waste in agriculture. The use of human waste in agriculture is a safe practice if properly treated; it is recommended that the safety of such practices be verified.

The agricultural sector is largely constrained by biophysical and socio-economic factors. The cold mountain climate in the highlands and semi-arid climates in the lowlands limits production. Even though Afghanistan is not a poor country in terms of per capita water availability its topography limits the capacity to harness and distribute available water. While drought has been used to explain many of the fluctuations in agricultural output, the extent and spread of drought has not been systematically quantified until 2003.

Outbreaks of pests and diseases may occur under different microclimatic conditions and can affect crops and livestock. Natural disasters such as earthquakes, landslides, heavy rain, hailstorms, frosts and severe cold temperatures affect entire regions or communities and also have a negative impact on agriculture. Lack of roads to access markets to sell products or purchase inputs, pricing information that could empower farmers to maximize net benefits, farmers' associations that could facilitate the access to markets, and storage facilities to minimize spoilage, among other socio-economic factors, are all factors that limit farmers' choices.

Distance to markets within less than one hour from the communities and availability of daily transportation, as perceived by the *shuras*, would suggest that infrastructure is reasonable, but experience shows that this is not the case. Information collected in the shura assemblies should be verified at the household level. Accessing the markets and choices for selling and buying require pricing information, which is still very limited. NRVA 2005 has made modest contributions to this knowledge.

Risk and vulnerability

Vulnerability is the degree of damage or exposure to detrimental effects caused by the occurrence of uncontrollable natural and socioeconomic events (shocks). Covariate shocks affect a number of households, villages or a wider area while idiosyncratic shocks typically take place at the household level. Covariate shocks were grouped into drinking water, agricultural, natural disasters, insecurity, financial crises and epidemics. Idiosyncratic shocks entailed the loss of a family member, employment, or property.

Forty-five percent of the Afghan households perceived that they were exposed to some type of shock during the year prior to the survey; natural disaster was the most frequently covariate shock reported (53%) and epidemics was the least frequent (9%). Eleven percent of the households reported having idiosyncratic shocks. About one half of the Kuchi and rural households admitted to being affected by some type of shock. Shocks in agriculture and natural disasters were the two most commonly reported by Kuchi households (68% and 40%, respectively), followed by drinking water shocks (30%). The rural households were somehow similar to the Kuchi, but agriculture shocks were 40%, natural disasters 55% and drinking water 25%. Only 18% of the urban households acknowledged to be negatively affected by some type of shock. They mentioned natural disasters as the most important shock (35%), possibly cold temperatures in the winter, followed by financial shocks (27%) and idiosyncratic shocks (26%). Urban dwellers, dependent on paid employment, are very vulnerable to increases in the cost of food as well as to household specific shocks or losses.



Income or livelihood diversification

Income or livelihood diversification is an ancient behaviour to cope with uncertain events. Nationwide 55% of the households have income from one out of eight groups of income, 35% have income from two out of eight groups, 10% have income from three out of eight groups and less than 1% have income from four out of eight groups. Out of the households with only one source of income, 29% are into trade and services, 27% are into agriculture, 26% are into non-farm income activities and 9% are into livestock.

Out of the 35% of the Afghan households with two sources of income, the most common combination of income sources were agriculture with a) non-farm activities (22%), b) livestock (22%) or c) trade and services (11%). In contrast, but not surprisingly, the Kuchi were more likely to combine livestock with a) non-farm activities (39%), b) trade and services (10%) and c) agriculture (17%). Households in the urban areas were more likely to combine trade and services with a) non-farm activities (26%), b) manufacture (15%) or c) agriculture (14%). These combinations of sources of income reflect options that satisfy partially or fully household needs; they do not represent monetary flows, but they are quantifiable relationships of the commonly sought ways to make a living.

Perceived recovery from shocks

While it is difficult to generalize patterns of household behaviour in response to shocks, it is possible to assess household perceptions of their ability to recover from experienced shocks. Most of the surveyed households (61%) do not perceive that they have recovered from the last year's shocks while 37% perceive that they have partially, and only 2% perceive that they have completely recovered. The urban households appear to have the best ability to partially or totally recover from the shocks (46%); in contrast, 41% of Kuchi and 38% of rural households acknowledge their ability to recover partially or totally. Even though the urban dwellers have less reliance on their social network, they are exposed to a broader spectrum of choices due to higher literacy and media.

Seventy-three percent of the households in Afghanistan perceive that they are in the same or worse situation with respect to one year ago. Twenty-four percent perceive being slightly better off, and only 2% perceive a clear improvement. The urban households had 5% to 6% less pessimistic perceptions compared to rural and Kuchi households, respectively.

Forty-four percent of the Afghan households perceive themselves as food insecure to different degrees. Only 28% of the urban households perceive themselves to be food insecure while 40% of the Kuchi households and 48% of the rural households perceive this condition. These perceptions are supported by the proportion of loans used to purchase food in these groups mentioned above.

Past programme participation

National Emergency Employment Programmes, National Solidarity Programmes and food aid programmes have been used throughout Afghanistan to help relieve natural disasters, food insecurity and poverty. These programmes are divided here into cash for work and food aid or food for work. About 4% of the households in the survey participated in cash for work programmes and 3.5% participated in food aid programmes.

Four percent of the households in Afghanistan participated in cash for work programmes, 90% rural areas, 9% urban and 1% Kuchi. The participants were mostly men (89%) while women only participated in 3%, and children only participated in 4%; the rest were men or women in combination with children. Seventy-one percent



of the participants used the cash to buy food, 7% paid debts, 7% paid for medical expenses and 1% paid for education. Seven percent 'did not receive any benefit' (households localized in Jawzjan, Baghlan and Paktya), but the questionnaire does not allow specification of this perception.

Infrastructure has been improved in these programmes (90%), and as a result there is more access to health facilities and improved access to markets and education. Beneficiaries also report improved access to employment opportunities as time for travelling is likely to be reduced. Out of the 10% of the participants who did not perceive any benefit out of the infrastructure created or rehabilitated 36% were Kuchi.

Fifty percent of the participating households in cash for work programmes in Uruzgan acquired income generating skills and to a lesser extent in Balkh, Kandahar, Takhar and Nangarhar; these cases, clearly aimed towards financial sustainability, could be extended or intensified.

World Food Programmes, and other UN, government or NGO programmes directly donate food or use food as payment for work. These programmes are often associated to natural disasters or poverty. Three and a half percent of the households participated in these type of programmes (relief food distribution, school feeding, institutional feeding, food for work, food for training or food for income generation). These programmes have had mainly targeted rural households (93%) and to a much lesser extent, urban and Kuchi households.

The main benefits perceived by the participants were an improvement of the quantity of food (36%), a reduction of household expenditures (25%), while only 14% indicated that quality of food had improved. The main benefits perceived out of infrastructure rehabilitated or built were improved access to education (40%), improved access to health facilities (26%) and improved access to markets (10%).

Diet and food security

Data on the number of different foods consumed during the week prior to the survey, the frequency by which these foods are consumed and the proportion of households accessing the market or those relying in their own production were used to develop a typology of food consumption. The majority of Afghan households (61%) have low dietary diversity and poor food consumption; the remaining 39% of the households have better diets.

Twenty-four percent of the households were classified as having a low dietary diversity and very poor food consumption; 37% have low dietary diversity and poor food consumption; 20% have better dietary diversity and slightly better food consumption while 19% have a better diet diversity with better food consumption. Daykundi shows the highest incidence of people with low diet diversity and very poor food consumption, followed by Bamyan and Nuristan, and Nimroz, Zabul, Uruzgan and Ghor. Correspondingly, the urban populations in Takhar, Kandahar, Balkh and Kabul have the highest incidence of people with low diet diversity and very poor diets.

NRVA 2005 data suggest that 30% of the Afghan households do not meet their gender and age adjusted minimum daily kilocalorie intake.³⁰ Out of them, 31% live in

³⁰ The nutritional threshold or minimum calorie intake (2,067 cal per day) is not equivalent to a poverty line because the latter includes non-food expenditure to meet essential needs in addition to the food expenditures. If a non-food component is added to the food expenditure component, the percentage of individuals below the poverty line would be above the 30% mentioned above.



the urban areas, 30% in rural areas and 24% are Kuchi. The proportion of the population below the intake threshold is likely to lose weight; if this condition prevails among children their physical and mental development is at risk. National household perception of food insecurity (44%) is above the 30% based on kilocalorie intake and below the 61% based on low diet diversity and poor food consumption. Forty-five to 65% of the largest household loans during the last year were used to compensate food insecurity.

Further work is required to assess the rural-urban, rural-Kuchi and urban-Kuchi gap in terms of intake and quality of diet. It is possible that a nutritional gender gap contributes to the increasing number of women above 24 years with higher mortality than men of the same age groups. This has tremendous implications for the achievement of gender equality if the MDGs were re-written to include life expectancy.

The shura's viewpoint to interventions and priorities

It is a tradition in Afghanistan to contact the elders and prominent figures in the communities when implementing socio-economic surveys. NRVA 2005 visited with community leaders and households represented in the *shura* to gather their perceptions of preferences and priorities in developing interventions. The highest priorities were for improved water quantity and electricity supplies, followed by health and education facilities. Priorities and preferences of the female and male *shuras* were more similar among the urban communities than Kuchi or rural communities. *Shura* preferences and priorities of intervention do not necessarily relate to the shocks perceived by the households. It is at the household level that perceptions of risk and vulnerability are revealed more precisely.

Millennium Development Goals and NSS Project

The MDG indicators can be used not only to set a baseline for the future but also to estimate current rural-urban, rural-Kuchi and Kuchi-urban gaps. These gaps complement the understanding of household perceptions of food insecurity, relative prosperity and welfare in 2005 compared to 2004. The gap in some indicators between urban *Vis a Vis* Kuchi and rural categories is dramatic. The gap in the availability of improved source of water is 36% for rural and 46% for Kuchi households compared to the urban ones; this gap coincided with the top priority of the *shuras*. The gap in the availability of improved sanitation is 25% for rural and 28% for Kuchi with respect to urban households. The gap in maternal health is 53% for rural and 56% for Kuchi compared to urban households; this gap also coincided with the *shura* priorities. The gap in terms of the proportion of households that are below the calorie poverty line is 1% for rural and 7% for Kuchi compared to urban households; in contrast, the gap in perceived food insecurity is 28% for rural and 24% for Kuchi compared with urban households.

More analysis is required to establish cause-effect relationships with quantitative socio-economic indicators, qualitative perceptions, and covariate and idiosyncratic shocks to fine-tune recommendations for Kuchi, rural and urban households. Contextualization based on some of the variables included in the NRVA data set would allow better and more effective programme implementation, NRVA enables estimation of risk and vulnerability, and as a consequence provides a richer framework for risk mitigation.

The NRVA 2005 report is not a final product in the sense that many dimensions have not been fully explored for the national, Kuchi, rural and urban categories. However, the documentation associated with the data — the household, female and male *shura* questionnaires, methodological notes and some results elaborated here — demonstrate how the NRVA 2005 can be used for sector analysis and programme



development. The NRVA 2005 establishes a baseline for comparisons with the forthcoming NRVA 2007 and others to come.

The biannual nature of NRVA and the time lag between the collection of data in the surveys and the cleaned and operational data base limits its use for emergency or risk mitigating actions associated with covariate shocks. However, these actions can be more systematically implemented with better knowledge of the socio-economic characteristics of urban and rural populations, and factors that hinder or promote the realization of intervention objectives.

It is suggested that VAU staff elaborates annual or biannual thematic working papers on selected topics such as gender and public health, education, resource sustainability, agriculture and livestock, migration and remittances to promote discussions amongst different sections within MRRD or CSO, or other public offices.



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Acknowledgement

Except stated otherwise the tables where rural and urban households are involved, Kuchi households are included in the provincial average. However, due to the fact that Kuchi samples are not statistically representative at provincial level the result is separately presented at national level.



Table A 1: Average (mean, mode and median) number of household members by province

Province	Number of household members		
	Mean	Median	Mode
BADAKHSHAN	7.5	7.0	7.0
BADGHIS	6.8	7.0	6.0
BAGHLAN	6.5	6.0	6.0
BALKH	7.9	7.0	7.0
BAMYAN	7.0	7.0	5.0
DAYKUNDI	7.8	7.0	6.0
FARAH	7.1	7.0	7.0
FARYAB	7.6	7.0	7.0
GHAZNI	7.9	8.0	8.0
GHOR	6.6	6.0	7.0
HILMAND	9.1	9.0	7.0
HIRAT	6.5	6.0	6.0
JAWZJAN	7.6	7.0	6.0
KABUL	6.8	6.0	6.0
KANDAHAR	7.6	7.0	8.0
KAPISA	7.5	7.0	7.0
KHOST	7.8	8.0	8.0
KUNARHA	8.3	8.0	7.0
KUNDUZ	7.4	7.0	6.0
LAGHMAN	6.8	7.0	6.0
LOGAR	8.3	8.0	8.0
NANGARHAR	8.3	8.0	8.0
NIMROZ	6.0	6.0	6.0
NURISTAN	7.2	7.0	7.0
PAKTIKA	7.7	8.0	7.0
PAKTYA	8.4	8.0	7.0
PANJSHER	7.7	7.0	7.0
PARWAN	7.5	7.0	6.0
SAMANGAN	7.2	7.0	6.0
SAR-I-PUL	7.1	7.0	7.0
TAKHAR	7.2	7.0	6.0
URUZGAN	6.2	6.0	6.0
WARDAK	7.7	7.0	7.0
ZABUL	6.1	6.0	6.0
National	7.4	7.0	7.0

Note: Unless it is otherwise specified, average refers to the arithmetic mean. In a broader sense, the average also refers to the median (middle value that separates the higher half from the lower half of the data set) and mode (most frequent or common value in the data set), which are other estimates for the central tendency



Table A 2: Overall literacy rate (%), 6 year old and above ages by province

Province	Female	Male	Both sexes
BADAKHSHAN	22	38	31
BADGHIS	7	14	11
BAGHLAN	12	29	21
BALKH	32	54	44
BAMYAN	12	41	29
DAYKUNDI	18	38	28
FARAH	14	27	21
FARYAB	22	31	27
GHAZNI	21	48	35
GHOR	8	28	19
HILMAND	1	8	5
HIRAT	28	43	36
JAWZJAN	21	40	31
KABUL	48	66	58
KANDAHAR	5	26	16
KAPISA	23	53	39
KHOST	7	44	28
KUNARHA	18	47	32
KUNDUZ	24	40	33
LAGHMAN	5	22	14
LOGAR	9	31	21
NANGARHAR	15	41	29
NIMROZ	11	30	22
NURISTAN	19	31	25
PAKTIKA	0	4	2
PAKTYA	26	42	35
PANJSHER	20	43	33
PARWAN	20	51	37
SAMANGAN	10	28	19
SAR-I-PUL	6	18	12
TAKHAR	10	21	16
URUZGAN	0	10	5
WARDAK	10	38	25
ZABUL	0	1	1
National	18	36	28



Table A 3: Rural literacy rate (6 year old and above) by Province

Province	Female	Male	Both sexes
BADAKHSHAN	21	37	30
BADGHIS	7	16	12
BAGHLAN	9	28	20
BALKH	23	48	37
BAMYAN	12	41	29
DAYKUNDI	18	38	28
FARAH	16	30	24
FARYAB	20	30	25
GHAZNI	22	51	37
GHOR	9	30	21
HILMAND	1	8	5
HIRAT	23	38	31
JAWZJAN	11	34	23
KABUL	21	50	36
KANDAHAR	3	23	14
KAPISA	23	54	40
KHOST	7	46	29
KUNARHA	18	47	32
KUNDUZ	21	40	32
LAGHMAN	5	22	14
LOGAR	12	41	28
NANGARHAR	9	38	24
NIMROZ	13	34	25
NURISTAN	19	31	25
PAKTIKA	0	4	2
PAKTYA	27	43	36
PANJSHER	24	52	40
PARWAN	22	57	41
SAMANGAN	10	28	20
SAR-I-PUL	6	18	13
TAKHAR	9	19	14
URUZGAN	0	10	6
WARDAK	11	42	28
ZABUL	0	1	0
Rural	13	32	23



Table A 4: Literacy rates overall (%) in Afghanistan 15 – 24 years old

Province	Female	Male	Both sexes
BADAKHSHAN	26.5	46.1	37.5
BADGHIS	5.3	11.5	8.7
BAGHLAN	13.5	40.2	28.5
BALKH	35.4	58.3	48.7
BAMYAN	7.3	49.3	32.4
DAYKUNDI	13.1	28.6	20.7
FARAH	12.4	29.5	21.7
FARYAB	17.0	27.9	23.5
GHAZNI	26.0	60.3	45.7
GHOR	3.7	25.9	17.0
HILMAND	0.9	9.1	5.9
HIRAT	30.1	45.0	38.7
JAWZJAN	22.4	45.9	35.2
KABUL	55.7	72.7	65.2
KANDAHAR	2.7	22.5	13.0
KAPISA	25.5	62.0	46.6
KHOST	6.9	52.2	35.5
KUNARHA	15.9	49.2	32.6
KUNDUZ	20.7	44.6	34.6
LAGHMAN	3.3	28.0	18.5
LOGAR	8.5	30.7	20.9
NANGARHAR	15.5	47.7	34.3
NIMROZ	10.0	43.9	29.3
NURISTAN	8.7	25.3	17.7
PAKTIKA	0.0	3.0	2.0
PAKTYA	15.7	36.0	30.4
PANJSHER	21.6	50.1	38.4
PARWAN	20.9	61.1	44.1
SAMANGAN	7.7	20.5	14.4
SAR-I-PUL	4.8	17.7	11.8
TAKHAR	9.6	24.4	18.1
URUZGAN	0.9	7.2	4.4
WARDAK	8.1	42.5	27.7
ZABUL	0.5	0.0	0.2
Rural	19.6	39.9	31.3



Table A 5: Overall net enrolment rate (%) of girls and boys 6-13 years old by province

Province	Girls	Boys	Both sexes
BADAKHSHAN	43	49	46
BADGHIS	16	21	19
BAGHLAN	22	35	29
BALKH	48	66	58
BAMYAN	28	46	39
DAYKUNDI	41	57	50
FARAH	26	37	32
FARYAB	52	54	53
GHAZNI	30	47	39
GHOR	18	35	28
HILMAND	0	11	6
HIRAT	52	58	55
JAWZJAN	33	45	40
KABUL	44	48	46
KANDAHAR	12	33	23
KAPISA	44	75	60
KHOST	14	61	38
KUNARHA	36	51	43
KUNDUZ	52	69	62
LAGHMAN	39	55	48
LOGAR	13	30	22
NANGARHAR	28	51	39
NIMROZ	26	39	33
NURISTAN	43	52	47
PAKTIKA	2	16	9
PAKTYA	55	74	65
PANJSHER	32	49	42
PARWAN	30	53	42
SAMANGAN	29	43	37
SAR-I-PUL	15	30	22
TAKHAR	26	36	32
URUZGAN	0	1	1
WARDAK	20	41	31
ZABUL	0.0	0.2	0.1
Rural	29	43	37



Table A 6: Rural net enrolment rate (%) of girls and boys 6-13 years old by province

Province	Girls	Boys	Average
BADAKHSHAN	41	48	45
BADGHIS	18	25	22
BAGHLAN	21	37	29
BALKH	42	67	55
BAMYAN	28	46	39
DAYKUNDI	41	57	50
FARAH	29	44	37
FARYAB	52	55	54
GHAZNI	32	51	42
GHOR	20	38	30
HILMAND	0	11	6
HIRAT	48	54	51
JAWZJAN	26	40	34
KABUL	42	59	50
KANDAHAR	5	31	19
KAPISA	46	77	62
KHOST	15	63	40
KUNARHA	36	51	43
KUNDUZ	47	69	59
LAGHMAN	39	55	48
LOGAR	18	40	30
NANGARHAR	27	54	41
NIMROZ	29	43	38
NURISTAN	43	52	47
PAKTIKA	2	15	9
PAKTYA	56	77	67
PANJSHER	41	60	52
PARWAN	33	61	47
SAMANGAN	29	44	37
SAR-I-PUL	15	30	23
TAKHAR	23	34	29
URUZGAN	0	1	1
WARDAK	23	44	34
ZABUL	0	0	0
Rural	27	44	36



Table A 7: Household sources of information (%) by province

Source of Information overall by province	Radio, TV, national network, Internet	Relative, local market, group or associates, business or work associates	Mullah, community leaders	Community bulletin board, local newspaper	NGO / Government	Political party
Province	Mass media	Social network	Local Leader	Local media	Official staff	Political
BADAKHSHAN	33	79	66	5	34	0
BADGHIS	64	80	82	3	5	0
BAGHLAN	50	85	57	6	14	0
BALKH	69	72	38	27	10	0
BAMYAN	26	81	20	0	9	0
DAYKUNDI	52	51	28	22	5	0
FARAH	32	90	33	1	10	0
FARYAB	57	88	44	13	31	0
GHAZNI	67	75	25	15	11	1
GHOR	57	75	51	1	14	1
HILMAND	82	79	22	0	2	1
HIRAT	51	76	36	7	7	0
JAWZJAN	42	84	23	16	13	1
KABUL	77	52	12	15	7	1
KANDAHAR	66	69	43	1	14	1
KAPISA	60	93	27	8	12	0
KHOST	74	78	49	7	12	1
KUNARHA	69	80	39	3	13	1
KUNDUZ	72	76	39	15	6	3
LAGHMAN	92	86	22	11	12	1
LOGAR	65	53	3	6	1	2
NANGARHAR	67	64	35	16	3	0
NIMROZ	47	76	6	0	1	0
NURISTAN	79	61	83	9	23	21
PAKTIKA	92	66	71	0	0	0
PAKTYA	56	75	48	5	3	0
PANJSHER	78	73	49	2	21	0
PARWAN	58	60	53	5	23	0
SAMANGAN	44	58	30	15	7	0
SAR-I-PUL	29	56	80	0	69	0
TAKHAR	37	93	59	8	18	1
URUZGAN	63	86	56	3	0	7
WARDAK	64	78	48	3	5	1
ZABUL	48	88	5	0	2	0
National	60	74	39	9	12	1



Table A 8: The most common answer for type of closest health care facility by province

Province	Female	Male
	Most common answer	Most common answer
BADAKHSHAN	0	2
BADGHIS	2	2
BAGHLAN	0	0
BALKH	4	4
BAMYAN	2	2
DAYKUNDI	4	2
FARAH	2	2
FARYAB	2	4
GHAZNI	2	3
GHOR	2	2
HILMAND	2	2
HIRAT	2	2
JAWZJAN	4	4
KABUL	2	2
KANDAHAR	2	2
KAPISA	2	2
KHOST	2	1
KUNARHA	2	2
KUNDUZ	2	2
LAGHMAN	2	2
LOGAR	2	2
NANGARHAR	2	2
NIMROZ	2	2
NURISTAN	1	1
PAKTIKA	2	2
PAKTYA	2	2
PANJSHER	2	2
PARWAN	2	2
SAMANGAN	0	0
SAR-I-PUL	4	0
TAKHAR	4	4
URUZGAN	2	2
WARDAK	2	2
ZABUL		2
National	2	2

Note: 0 = Don't know; 1 = Health post; 2 = Clinic without beds (Basic Health Centre); 3 = Clinic with beds (Comprehensive Health Centre); 4 = Hospital.



Table A 9: Availability of community health workers by province

Province	Female		Male	
	Most common answer	No community worker (%)	Most common answer	No community worker (%)
BADAKHSHAN	4	82	0	89
BADGHIS	0	86	0	76
BAGHLAN	1	72	0	84
BALKH	0	35	0	32
BAMYAN	0	82	0	90
DAYKUNDI	1	79	0	94
FARAH	0	70	0	71
FARYAB	0	70	0	77
GHAZNI	0	82	0	76
GHOR	0	91	0	86
HILMAND	0	73	0	85
HIRAT	0	55	0	53
JAWZJAN	0	75	0	73
KABUL	1	40	0	32
KANDAHAR	0	59	0	39
KAPISA	1	57	1	67
KHOST	0	87	0	84
KUNARHA	0	64	0	69
KUNDUZ	0	77	1	83
LAGHMAN	1	76	0	73
LOGAR	0	75	1	65
NANGARHAR	0	67	0	61
NIMROZ	1	90	2	90
NURISTAN	0	52	0	50
PAKTIKA	0	100	1	100
PAKTYA	0	93	0	94
PANJSHER	0	76	1	78
PARWAN	0	76	0	68
SAMANGAN	1	71	0	82
SAR-I-PUL	0	61	0	69
TAKHAR	0	54	1	67
URUZGAN	0	82	0	89
WARDAK	0	75	0	84
ZABUL	0	100	0	100
National	0	67	0	72

Note: 0 = will not visit; 1 = 1 hr or less; 2 = 1-3 hrs; 3 = 3-6 hrs; 4 = 6-24 hrs and 5 = more than 24 hrs.



Table A 10: Married women in the household up to age 49 years with knowledge of how to avoid pregnancy (%)

Province	No	Yes	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	73	27	143,858
BADGHIS	85	15	100,923
BAGHLAN	68	32	125,084
BALKH	68	32	204,627
BAMYAN	61	39	58,888
DAYKUNDI	56	44	73,130
FARAH	53	47	95,763
FARYAB	87	13	155,615
GHAZNI	71	29	196,657
GHOR	92	8	125,451
HILMAND	86	14	188,979
HIRAT	40	60	349,137
JAWZJAN	85	15	88,675
KABUL	48	52	395,690
KANDAHAR	67	33	177,486
KAPISA	72	28	52,259
KHOST	78	22	95,770
KUNARHA	90	10	57,708
KUNDUZ	79	21	127,684
LAGHMAN	71	29	60,970
LOGAR	83	17	77,735
NANGARHAR	85	15	216,191
NIMROZ	57	43	14,865
NURISTAN	77	23	17,040
PAKTIKA	57	43	115,329
PAKTYA	50	50	68,469
PANJSHER	82	18	19,734
PARWAN	81	19	77,961
SAMANGAN	79	21	49,899
SAR-I-PUL	83	17	84,468
TAKHAR	77	23	137,827
URUZGAN	88	12	43,677
WARDAK	72	28	95,820
ZABUL*			
National	69	31	3,893,369

* No female enumerators participated in the Zabol province.



Table A 11: Use of contraceptive methods in married women up to age 49 with knowledge of methods of avoid pregnancy (%)

Province	No	Yes	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	35	65	37,096
BADGHIS	84	16	14,496
BAGHLAN	32	68	36,727
BALKH	78	22	96,532
BAMYAN	75	25	19,176
DAYKUNDI	78	22	30,900
FARAH	53	47	45,132
FARYAB	49	51	20,384
GHAZNI	70	30	54,499
GHOR	76	24	9,078
HILMAND	47	53	25,278
HIRAT	59	41	205,358
JAWZJAN	60	40	12,935
KABUL	43	57	198,070
KANDAHAR	61	39	61,055
KAPISA	42	58	14,351
KHOST	54	46	20,826
KUNARHA	76	24	5,796
KUNDUZ	36	64	25,205
LAGHMAN	98	2.2	17,420
LOGAR	83	17	13,176
NANGARHAR	52	48	29,775
NIMROZ	89	11	6,066
NURISTAN	65	35	3,780
PAKTIKA	9.6	90	48,618
PAKTYA	86	14	33,333
PANJSHER	76	24	3,456
PARWAN	47	53	14,931
SAMANGAN	14	86	8,868
SAR-I-PUL	23	77	13,311
TAKHAR	57	43	27,952
URUZGAN	95	5.1	4,875
WARDAK	61	39	26,844
ZABUL*			
National	56	44	1,185,299

* No female enumerators participated in the Zabol province.



Table A 12: Contraceptive methods used by married woman in the household up to age 49 (%), out of those that use any of these methods

Province	Pill	Condom	Injection	Sterilization	Traditional	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	44	27	23	1	4	24,347
BADGHIS	53	0	47	0	0	2,127
BAGHLAN	57	19	22	1	0	26,931
BALKH	52	2	42	2	2	23,375
BAMYAN	15	0	70	4	11	6,392
DAYKUNDI	36	3	42	8	0	7,416
FARAH	58	1	37	4	0	20,754
FARYAB	29	2	64	0	4	10,802
GHAZNI	37	9	38	1	12	17,222
GHOR	60	0	20	0	15	2,505
HILMAND	53	8	27	0	13	13,824
HIRAT	53	4	30	7	5	87,195
JAWZJAN	76	2	15	1	1	5,452
KABUL	43	14	29	5	8	118,879
KANDAHAR	53	5	36	1	5	21,969
KAPISA	7	4	52	7	28	8,509
KHOST	63	11	24	1	1	8,937
KUNARHA	25	8	42	8	17	1,512
KUNDUZ	58	1	31	4	6	17,208
LAGHMAN	0	0	67	0	33	390
LOGAR	42	0	47	0	0	2,413
NANGARHAR	44	8	46	0	1	14,768
NIMROZ	87	0	13	0	0	615
NURISTAN	35	0	0	48	13	1,380
PAKTIKA	10	1	84	0	4	44,622
PAKTYA	23	13	65	0	0	3,813
PANJSHER	6	0	88	6	0	816
PARWAN	52	9	35	3	0	7,524
SAMANGAN	84	1	10	0	5	9,093
SAR-I-PUL	35	1	24	2	38	10,671
TAKHAR	33	21	44	0	1	15,078
URUZGAN	67	0	0	0	33	375
WARDAK	34	6	31	10	19	10,437
ZABUL*						
National	44	8	37	3	6	547,351

* No female enumerators participated in the Zabul province.



Table A 13: Types of rural housing (%) by province, Part I

Province	Single family house	Part / shared house	Separate apartment	Part / shared apartment	Tent	Temporary shelter / shack	Other
BADAKHSHAN	90	7			0	3	0
BADGHIS	77	12			8	3	0
BAGHLAN	81	15			0	3	0
BALKH	92	6	0	0		2	
BAMYAN	84	6	0			8	1
DAYKUNDI	84	6		1	0	9	0
FARAH	90	9				0	
FARYAB	96	2		0	0	2	0
GHAZNI	73	17			0	10	0
GHOR	71	11	8	0	5	4	1
HILMAND	87	12	0			1	
HIRAT	72	16	0	0	4	8	1
JAWZJAN	93	3		0	0	4	
KABUL	66	32	0			1	0
KANDAHAR	68	18	0		3	11	0
KAPISA	77	21				2	
KHOST	57	36	1		2	4	0
KUNARHA	52	40				8	
KUNDUZ	74	21	0	2	0	3	0
LAGHMAN	74	15				5	5
LOGAR	86	10	0			4	
NANGARHAR	44	52	0	0		3	0
NIMROZ	77	16			2	4	
NURISTAN	90	6				4	
PAKTIKA	99		1				
PAKTYA	43	39	9	1	1	7	0
PANJSHER	80	16				4	
PARWAN	90	6	1	1		2	0
SAMANGAN	88	10				1	1
SAR-I-PUL	83	12			2	3	
TAKHAR	89	7	0	0	0	3	0
URUZGAN	89	9				2	
WARDAK	72	24	0		0	4	
ZABUL	27	68	0			5	
Rural	77	17	1	0	1	4	0



Table A 14: Types of rural housing (%) by province, Part II

	Single family house	Part / shared house	Separate apartment	Part / shared apartment	Tent	Temporary shelter / shack	Other
BAGHLAN	64	11				25	0
BALKH	77	13	2			8	
FARYAB	57	13	24	6		1	
HIRAT	66	17	0	0		12	4
JAWZJAN	86	13		0			
KABUL	55	27	7	2	0	6	4
KANDAHAR	72	21	0	1		5	1
KUNDUZ	70	21		1		9	
NANGARHAR	54	45				1	
TAKHAR	94	2				3	
Urban	63	22	4	1	0	7	2



Table A 15: Acquisition of rural housing (%) by province, Part I

Province	Inherited	Purchased	Occupied mortgaged dwelling	Tenant	Caretaker	Relative/ friend owner	Squatter	Other
BADAKHSHAN	87	10	0	1	0	1	1	0
BADGHIS	82	7		0	1		10	1
BAGHLAN	87	9			0	1	3	1
BALKH	91	4	0	1	1	1	2	0
BAMYAN	88	2			2	1	5	3
DAYKUNDI	86	4		0	2	2	7	
FARAH	65	27		2	0	4	2	0
FARYAB	90	8			0	1	1	0
GHAZNI	81	10	0	1	2	4	2	
GHOR	65	13	0	1	2	1	4	14
HILMAND	88	4				6	1	
HIRAT	69	15	0	1	1	3	10	1
JAWZJAN	88	6			0	1	4	0
KABUL	87	10	0	1	1	0	1	
KANDAHAR	56	11	0	0	1	18	12	3
KAPISA	91	6			1	0	1	0
KHOST	88	6	0	3	1	0	1	0
KUNARHA	88	2	0	0	0	5	5	
KUNDUZ	80	13	1	1		1	3	2
LAGHMAN	89		0		4	4	2	1
LOGAR	89	4	0	1	1	2	3	
NANGARHAR	89	5		0	1	1	3	0
NIMROZ	75	11	1	6	1	3	3	
NURISTAN	92				1	2	4	1
PAKTIKA	97	3						
PAKTYA	91	2		1	2	1	4	
PANJSHER	81	4		1	1	10	4	
PARWAN	87	7	0	2	2	1	1	0
SAMANGAN	75	17		3	0	1	2	2
SAR-I-PUL	84	10		1	2	0	2	0
TAKHAR	81	14		0	1	1	3	0
URUZGAN	93	5			2			
WARDAK	77	2		0	0	17	3	1
ZABUL	84	9		2	0	3	1	
Rural	83	8	0	1	1	3	4	1



Table A 16: Acquisition of rural housing (%) by province, Part II

Province	Inherited	Purchased	Occupied mortgaged dwelling	Tenant	Caretaker	Relative / friend owner	Squatter	Other
BAGHLAN	33	37	4	5	1	0	20	
BALKH	34	40	1	15	6	0	3	0
FARYAB	67	27	1	3	2		2	
HIRAT	38	36	3	18	2	1	3	
JAWZJAN	51	36	2	8	3	0	0	0
KABUL	32	34	3	22	2	3	2	2
KANDAHAR	42	23	4	22	3		4	2
KUNDUZ	51	27	3	13	1	1	6	0
NANGARHAR	16	10	1	70	2	0	1	
TAKHAR	51	30	4	13	1	0	1	
Urban	36	32	3	21	2	2	3	1



Table A 17: Evidence of rural housing ownership (%) by province, Part I

Province	No evidence	Yes, court / mazkan	Yes, local records	Yes, elsewhere	Don't know
BADAKHSHAN	36	34	13	3	15
BADGHIS	69	26	2	2	0
BAGHLAN	16	45	3	3	33
BALKH	38	44	10	4	3
BAMYAN	42	53	1	1	4
DAYKUNDI	60	13	4	7	15
FARAH	35	8	30	6	22
FARYAB	36	47	5	2	10
GHAZNI	71	22	1	4	2
GHOR	72	13	5	5	5
HILMAND	58	19	16	3	5
HIRAT	66	17	6	7	4
JAWZJAN	6	44	40	2	9
KABUL	48	38	3	6	5
KANDAHAR	39	38	8	5	10
KAPISA	75	22	2		1
KHOST	40	10	22	26	2
KUNARHA	40	3	16	32	9
KUNDUZ	15	42	29	3	10
LAGHMAN	66	1	22		10
LOGAR	43	55	1	1	1
NANGARHAR	37	35	12	6	10
NIMROZ	75	12	11	2	0
NURISTAN	71	1	0	0	27
PAKTIKA	3	20	74	2	1
PAKTYA	93	7	0		
PANJSHER	99	0	0	1	
PARWAN	50	27	22	0	1
SAMANGAN	64	21	5	3	6
SAR-I-PUL	35	14	12	13	25
TAKHAR	57	23	10	1	9
URUZGAN	45	39	2	13	2
WARDAK	74	19	3	3	1
ZABUL	55	44	1		
Rural	48	26	13	5	8



Table A 18: Evidence of rural housing ownership (%) by province, Part II

Province	No evidence	Yes, court / mazkan	Yes, local records	Yes, elsewhere	Don't know
BAGHLAN	22	71	1	0	5
BALKH	4	89	6	1	0
FARYAB	12	80	3	0	5
HIRAT	15	27	38	18	2
JAWZJAN	4	95	1		1
KABUL	11	62	19	6	3
KANDAHAR	36	51	4	2	6
KUNDUZ	10	65	21	1	3
NANGARHAR	25	60	5	2	8
TAKHAR	28	47	18	3	5
Urban	14	61	16	5	3



Table A 19: Outstanding debt on rural housing (%) by province, Part I

Province	No	Yes
BADAKHSHAN	91	9
BADGHIS	95	5
BAGHLAN	93	7
BALKH	94	6
BAMYAN	83	17
DAYKUNDI	87	13
FARAH	95	5
FARYAB	92	8
GHAZNI	94	6
GHOR	86	14
HILMAND	93	7
HIRAT	87	13
JAWZJAN	97	3
KABUL	92	8
KANDAHAR	77	23
KAPISA	90	10
KHOST	84	16
KUNARHA	92	8
KUNDUZ	96	4
LAGHMAN	100	0
LOGAR	91	9
NANGARHAR	95	5
NIMROZ	97	3
NURISTAN	48	53
PAKTIKA	95	5
PAKTYA	93	8
PANJSHER	84	16
PARWAN	89	11
SAMANGAN	93	7
SAR-I-PUL	88	12
TAKHAR	94	6
URUZGAN	99	1
WARDAK	94	6
ZABUL	100	0
Rural	91	9



Table A 20: Outstanding debt on rural housing (%) by province, Part II

Province	No	Yes
BAGHLAN	95	5
BALKH	98	2
FARYAB	93	7
HIRAT	87	13
JAWZJAN	97	3
KABUL	85	15
KANDAHAR	88	12
KUNDUZ	95	5
NANGARHAR	95	5
TAKHAR	92	8
Urban	89	11



Table A 21: Quality of rural housing (%) by province, Part I

Province	Non leaking windows, doors, roof	Leaking windows, doors, roof	Traditional tent	Relief tent	Temporary structure-good	Temporary structure-bad	Incomplete structure	Poor
BADAKHSHAN	47	9	0	0	5	9	5	24
BADGHIS	5	55	8	0	1	7	4	20
BAGHLAN	37	10	1	1	7	8	3	33
BALKH	56	26			5	8	4	1
BAMYAN	88	4			0		3	5
DAYKUNDI	47	37		0	3	2	9	4
FARAH	27	22	0		16	2	0	32
FARYAB	53	37	0		1	2	2	4
GHAZNI	32	20	0		28	12	3	4
GHOR	22	11	6	3	10	6	6	37
HILMAND	81	14			1	2	0	1
HIRAT	35	16	3		10	3	9	25
JAWZJAN	15	52			1	1	7	24
KABUL	66	7			14	6	4	2
KANDAHAR	42	24	1	2	3	11	5	12
KAPISA	60	17			1	0	5	16
KHOST	10	3	2	1	14	9	18	43
KUNARHA	48	14		0	16	4	4	13
KUNDUZ	53	20	0		6	3	7	11
LAGHMAN	32	21	0		6	33	2	7
LOGAR	24	47		1	5	6	11	5
NANGARHAR	24	44		0	10	8	9	5
NIMROZ	20	69	2				3	6
NURISTAN	78	9			1	4	2	7
PAKTIKA	91	9					0	
PAKTYA	46	14	0		1	6	2	31
PANJSHER	32	37			24	3	1	2
PARWAN	53	25			12	9	0	1
SAMANGAN	21	50		0	10	3	5	10
SAR-I-PUL	38	21	2	0	4	7	13	15
TAKHAR	32	30	0	0	5	5	8	21
URUZGAN	55	17					1	28
WARDAK	57	23		0	9	5	3	3
ZABUL	9	42			32	5		11
Rural	43	23	1	0	8	6	5	14



Table A 22: Quality of rural housing (%) by province, Part II

	Non leaking windows, doors, roof	Leaking windows, doors, roof	Traditional tent	Relief tent	Temporary structure-good	Temporary structure-bad	Incomplete structure	Poor
BAGHLAN	58	12			14	4	1	12
BALKH	65	15			11	2	1	6
FARYAB	20	29			16	25	4	6
HIRAT	15	1		0	51	12	18	4
JAWZJAN	46	49			2	0	2	1
KABUL	69	13	0	0	10	2	2	4
KANDAHAR	8	10			5	21	4	52
KUNDUZ	73	17			4	2	2	2
NANGARHAR	2	1		0	29	67	1	
TAKHAR	41	22			19	5	3	10
Urban	51	13	0	0	15	8	4	8



Table A 23: Ownership of a second rural dwelling (%) by province, Part I

Province	No	Yes
BADAKHSHAN	98	2
BADGHIS	92	8
BAGHLAN	98	2
BALKH	100	0
BAMYAN	96	4
DAYKUNDI	97	4
FARAH	99	1
FARYAB	99	1
GHAZNI	99	1
GHOR	95	5
HILMAND	100	0
HIRAT	95	5
JAWZJAN	99	1
KABUL	99	1
KANDAHAR	98	2
KAPISA	99	1
KHOST	96	4
KUNARHA	97	3
KUNDUZ	95	5
LAGHMAN	100	
LOGAR	99	1
NANGARHAR	99	1
NIMROZ	99	1
NURISTAN	99	1
PAKTIKA	100	
PAKTYA	97	3
PANJSHER	98	2
PARWAN	98	2
SAMANGAN	97	3
SAR-I-PUL	94	6
TAKHAR	97	3
URUZGAN	98	2
WARDAK	97	3
ZABUL	100	0
Rural	98	2



Table A 24: Ownership of a second rural dwelling (%) by province, Part II

Province	No	Yes
BAGHLAN	99	1
BALKH	99	1
FARYAB	96	4
HIRAT	98	2
JAWZJAN	98	2
KABUL	97	3
KANDAHAR	99	1
KUNDUZ	97	3
NANGARHAR	100	0
TAKHAR	98	2
Urban	97	3



Table A 25: Households using safe drinking water (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	13		13	18,688
BADGHIS	17		15	15,312
BAGHLAN	16	35	19	23,674
BALKH	12	67	31	60,028
BAMYAN	8		8	4,352
DAYKUNDI	3		3	2,678
FARAH	39		37	34,965
FARYAB	21	50	23	34,415
GHAZNI	37		35	63,555
GHOR	15		14	17,187
HILMAND	28		28	57,240
HIRAT	30	36	31	96,015
JAWZJAN	6	64	24	18,101
KABUL	41	71	65	263,170
KANDAHAR	50	99	64	116,394
KAPISA	26		27	14,160
KHOST	35		34	31,432
KUNARHA	24		24	15,876
KUNDUZ	29	15	25	29,316
LAGHMAN	39		39	23,400
LOGAR	49		45	27,632
NANGARHAR	41	62	43	95,870
NIMROZ	45		38	6,273
NURISTAN	2		2	300
PAKTIKA	28		28	33,189
PAKTYA	31		30	22,140
PANJSHER	18		16	3,024
PARWAN	31		32	23,295
SAMANGAN	4		7	3,270
SAR-I-PUL	9		8	6,240
TAKHAR	27	52	29	42,567
URUZGAN	9		8	4,000
WARDAK	24		22	19,866
ZABUL	0		0	229
National	26	64	31	1,227,853



Table A 26: Households paying for the main source of drinking water by province

Province	%	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	3	3,584
BADGHIS	2	1,875
BAGHLAN	3	3,475
BALKH	7	13,259
BAMYAN	0	0
DAYKUNDI	0	0
FARAH	2	1,401
FARYAB	1	1,613
GHAZNI	3	5,250
GHOR	1	756
HILMAND	1	1,728
HIRAT	8	24,762
JAWZJAN	3	2,416
KABUL	15	60,086
KANDAHAR	7	13,274
KAPISA	0	0
KHOST	7	6,096
KUNARHA	0	252
KUNDUZ	0	203
LAGHMAN	0	0
LOGAR	3	2,032
NANGARHAR	2	4,788
NIMROZ	30	5,002
NURISTAN	0	60
PAKTIKA	1	1,332
PAKTYA	2	1,599
PANJSHER	1	192
PARWAN	3	2,391
SAMANGAN	22	10,794
SAR-I-PUL	2	1,191
TAKHAR	2	3,220
URUZGAN	0	0
WARDAK	1	1,032
ZABUL	1	354
National	5	174,017



Table A 27: Average monthly payment (Afghans) for drinking water in the summer by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	10		10	3,200
BADGHIS	492		513	1,623
BAGHLAN		129	129	2,769
BALKH	454	33	80	12,491
BAMYAN				
DAYKUNDI				
FARAH	98		98	1,032
FARYAB	185	563	400	1,206
GHAZNI	51		51	4,375
GHOR	90		90	630
HILMAND	166		166	864
HIRAT	107	211	198	21,544
JAWZJAN	900	290	532	2,235
KABUL		168	168	54,530
KANDAHAR	206	144	199	11,597
KAPISA				
KHOST	234		234	4,826
KUNARHA	50		50	126
KUNDUZ				
LAGHMAN				
LOGAR	26		26	1,778
NANGARHAR	70	98	82	3,345
NIMROZ	243		243	4,961
NURISTAN				
PAKTIKA				
PAKTYA				
PANJSHER				
PARWAN	105		105	1,140
SAMANGAN	285		341	10,452
SAR-I-PUL	225		225	240
TAKHAR	55	100	61	2,028
URUZGAN				
WARDAK	60		60	387
ZABUL				
National	188	162	181	147,379



Table A 28: Time required accessing the main source of drinking water by province

Province	In community – No time (%)	Near community – 1 hour or less (%)	1-3 hrs (%)	3-6 hrs (%)	6-12 hrs (%)	> 1 day (%)	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	68	16	4	12	0	0	141,682
BADGHIS	60	27	7	5	1	0	99,195
BAGHLAN	73	20	4	3	0	0	114,923
BALKH	80	18	1	1	0	0	192,185
BAMYAN	91	9	0	0	0	0	51,000
DAYKUNDI	68	23	10	0	0	0	82,194
FARAH	78	19	3	0	0	0	91,539
FARYAB	65	22	7	4	1	0	148,399
GHAZNI	86	11	2	0	0	0	171,811
GHOR	72	24	3	1	0	0	120,738
HILMAND	94	6	0	0	0	0	204,432
HIRAT	85	11	2	1	1	0	296,430
JAWZJAN	88	8	0	3	1	0	76,240
KABUL	92	7	1	0	0	0	355,814
KANDAHAR	87	10	3	0	0	0	178,229
KAPISA	97	3	1	0	0	0	51,624
KHOST	82	15	3	0	0	0	85,595
KUNARHA	62	32	6	0	0	0	66,780
KUNDUZ	88	9	2	1	0	0	106,476
LAGHMAN	84	16	0	0	0	0	59,800
LOGAR	69	29	1	0	0	0	60,323
NANGARHAR	93	7	0	0	0	0	217,418
NIMROZ	100	0	0	0	0	0	16,399
NURISTAN	61	38	1	0	0	0	19,800
PAKTIKA	85	15	0	0	0	0	84,471
PAKTYA	76	22	2	0	0	0	71,790
PANJSHER	91	9	0	0	0	0	18,858
PARWAN	67	28	5	0	0	0	70,818
SAMANGAN	71	22	6	1	0	0	48,756
SAR-I-PUL	77	22	1	0	0	0	73,233
TAKHAR	79	14	4	2	0	0	129,476
URUZGAN	92	5	3	0	0	0	47,844
WARDAK	87	12	2	0	0	0	89,757
ZABUL	87	9	3	1	0	0	53,590
National	82	14	2	1	0	0	3,697,619



Table A 29: Household use of alternative source of water (%) by province

Province	No, solely main source is used all year	Yes, used in conjunction with main source	Yes, used when main source is not usable	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	96	0	3	137,970
BADGHIS	86	6	8	99,195
BAGHLAN	94	4	2	119,371
BALKH	84	6	9	189,574
BAMYAN	94	3	3	49,640
DAYKUNDI	100	0	0	81,370
FARAH	98	1	1	91,797
FARYAB	91	2	7	146,238
GHAZNI	90	5	6	174,520
GHOR	96	2	2	117,114
HILMAND	97	1	1	202,920
HIRAT	97	1	3	298,142
JAWZJAN	83	8	9	75,752
KABUL	96	1	2	376,321
KANDAHAR	94	2	4	178,830
KAPISA	91	5	5	48,735
KHOST	95	0	5	90,056
KUNARHA	87	9	4	66,402
KUNDUZ	97	2	1	103,059
LAGHMAN	100	0	0	59,280
LOGAR	91	2	6	60,577
NANGARHAR	97	2	0	212,371
NIMROZ	97	2	0	16,399
NURISTAN	85	3	12	19,140
PAKTIKA	100	0	0	117,327
PAKTYA	93	3	4	72,159
PANJSHER	93	0	7	18,810
PARWAN	90	2	7	69,906
SAMANGAN	68	13	19	47,388
SAR-I-PUL	85	1	13	74,433
TAKHAR	84	6	10	137,486
URUZGAN	99	0	1	48,496
WARDAK	98	1	2	88,338
ZABUL	100	0	0	53,125
National	93	3	4	3,742,241



Table A 30: Availability of toilets in Afghan households (%) by province

Province	None / open field / bush	Dearan / Sahrah (area in compound - but not pit)	Open pit	Traditional covered latrine	Improved latrine	Flush latrine	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	14	4	27	55	0	0	0	141,298
BADGHIS	41	6	9	36	7	0	1	99,084
BAGHLAN	18	9	4	66	1	1	0	124,187
BALKH	1	1	2	84	11	1	0	192,987
BAMYAN	15	7	46	32	0	0	1	54,808
DAYKUNDI	56	22	2	18	0	0	1	82,606
FARAH	28	25	8	32	7	0	0	91,668
FARYAB	2	4	13	79	2	0	0	148,608
GHAZNI	3	2	6	87	1	0	1	175,172
GHOR	68	7	19	6	1	0	0	120,612
HILMAND	7	12	12	64	5	0	0	204,216
HIRAT	7	5	14	60	8	6	0	310,280
JAWZJAN	17	4	11	53	14	1	0	76,225
KABUL	0	2	4	69	14	11	0	392,397
KANDAHAR	6	20	3	49	19	3	0	178,696
KAPISA	23	14	3	56	3	0	0	51,767
KHOST	24	49	8	19	1	0	0	88,389
KUNARHA	15	8	5	59	11	1	0	66,402
KUNDUZ	8	3	3	86	0	0	0	114,205
LAGHMAN	6	9	9	72	4	0	0	59,280
LOGAR	10	10	8	72	0	0	0	60,831
NANGARHAR	7	30	4	53	5	1	0	215,929
NIMROZ	11	11	2	60	15	0	0	16,440
NURISTAN	1	72	4	22	0	0	0	19,740
PAKTIKA	1	46	7	45	0	0	0	118,326
PAKTYA	16	46	1	34	3	0	0	71,175
PANJSHER	10	14	5	69	1	0	0	18,714
PARWAN	5	10	12	72	0	0	0	71,157
SAMANGAN	28	29	11	32	0	0	0	48,300
SAR-I-PUL	26	5	5	62	0	0	2	74,802
TAKHAR	7	10	32	51	1	0	0	142,299
URUZGAN	2	47	21	27	3	0	0	48,635
WARDAK	9	10	14	62	4	0	0	89,868
ZABUL	12	5	0	83	0	0	0	53,833
National	12	13	10	57	5	2	0	3,822,936



Table A 31: Toilet facility within the compound by province

Province	%	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	46	56,218
BADGHIS	68	40,194
BAGHLAN	41	41,648
BALKH	93	178,501
BAMYAN	19	8,976
DAYKUNDI	23	8,652
FARAH	81	53,535
FARYAB	73	107,128
GHAZNI	67	114,500
GHOR	33	12,963
HILMAND	88	167,400
HIRAT	79	227,672
JAWZJAN	75	47,648
KABUL	85	335,959
KANDAHAR	89	151,234
KAPISA	74	29,337
KHOST	85	58,846
KUNARHA	73	41,454
KUNDUZ	78	83,016
LAGHMAN	79	44,070
LOGAR	75	41,529
NANGARHAR	73	147,580
NIMROZ	87	12,686
NURISTAN	74	14,400
PAKTIKA	49	57,054
PAKTYA	75	45,018
PANJSHER	73	12,192
PARWAN	76	51,948
SAMANGAN	75	26,448
SAR-I-PUL	80	44,595
TAKHAR	52	68,454
URUZGAN	89	42,789
WARDAK	69	56,244
ZABUL	81	38,329
National	73	2,468,217



Table A 32: Households with safe toilet facilities (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average
BADAKHSHAN	0		0
BADGHIS	8		7
BAGHLAN	1	9	2
BALKH	10	15	12
BAMYAN	0		0
DAYKUNDI	0		0
FARAH	8		7
FARYAB	1	10	2
GHAZNI	1		1
GHOR	1		1
HILMAND	5		5
HIRAT	9	32	14
JAWZJAN	10	33	15
KABUL	0	32	25
KANDAHAR	7	57	22
KAPISA	3		3
KHOST	1		1
KUNARHA	11		11
KUNDUZ	0	2	0
LAGHMAN	4		4
LOGAR	0		0
NANGARHAR	2	33	6
NIMROZ	18		15
NURISTAN	0		0
PAKTIKA	0		0
PAKTYA	3		3
PANJSHER	1		1
PARWAN	1		0
SAMANGAN	0		0
SAR-I-PUL	0		0
TAKHAR	0	2	1
URUZGAN	3		3
WARDAK	5		4
ZABUL	0		0
National	3	29	7

Note: Kuchi average = 0%.



Table A 33: Households with access to any type of electricity at some time of the year (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	1		1	1,536
BADGHIS	0		0	378
BAGHLAN	4	65	15	19,589
BALKH	26	95	49	95,065
BAMYAN	6		6	3,536
DAYKUNDI	25		25	21,424
FARAH	10		9	8,625
FARYAB	12	64	17	24,784
GHAZNI	39		37	67,125
GHOR	4		3	4,143
HILMAND	21		21	41,910
HIRAT	6	74	22	69,186
JAWZJAN	25	99	42	31,871
KABUL	29	71	61	248,420
KANDAHAR	2	85	27	48,838
KAPISA	6		6	2,921
KHOST	4		4	3,556
KUNARHA	41		41	27,594
KUNDUZ	5	64	18	20,671
LAGHMAN	13		13	7,540
LOGAR	28		21	12,938
NANGARHAR	9	83	19	41,894
NIMROZ	38		32	5,330
NURISTAN	62		62	12,300
PAKTIKA	6		6	6,327
PAKTYA	16		16	11,550
PANJSHER	18		16	2,976
PARWAN	23		22	16,158
SAMANGAN	5		5	2,508
SAR-I-PUL	6		6	4,560
TAKHAR	3	16	5	7,155
URUZGAN	8		8	4,083
WARDAK	10		9	8,643
ZABUL	1		2	805
National	13	74	23	885,939

Note: Kuchi average = 4%.



Table A 34: Access to public electricity (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	1		1	1,280
BADGHIS	0		0	252
BAGHLAN	2	65	14	18,319
BALKH	14	92	41	78,924
BAMYAN	0		0.	136
DAYKUNDI	0		0	0
FARAH	1		1	756
FARYAB	9	63	14	20,997
GHAZNI	2		2	2,875
GHOR	2		2	1,749
HILMAND	16		16	33,486
HIRAT	2	70	18	57,540
JAWZJAN	21	99	39	29,553
KABUL	14	57	47	190,680
KANDAHAR	1	85	26	47,119
KAPISA	2		2	762
KHOST	2		2	1,905
KUNARHA	0		0	252
KUNDUZ	4	5	15	17,847
LAGHMAN	0		0	260
LOGAR	10		8	4,810
NANGARHAR	3	81	13	29,239
NIMROZ	33		28	4,592
NURISTAN	0		0	0
PAKTIKA	1		1	999
PAKTYA	1		1	603
PANJSHER	3		3	432
PARWAN	16		16	11,259
SAMANGAN	4		4	1,938
SAR-I-PUL	3		3	2,040
TAKHAR	0	2	0	559
URUZGAN	1		1	250
WARDAK	1		1	516
ZABUL	1		2	805
National	4	66	14	562,734

Note: Kuchi average = 2%.



Table A 35: Sources of cooking fuel during the summer (%) by province, Part I

Province	Animal dung	Ping or bushes	Crop residues or sawdust	Firewood	Charcoal	Kerosene or oil	Gas	Electricity	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	64	22	0	10	0	0	3	0	1	140,658
BADGHIS	49	41	6	1	0	0	3	0	1	98,691
BAGHLAN	40	18	1	30	0	0	7	5	0	123,895
BALKH	29	15	4	21	0	1	27	3	0	192,820
BAMYAN	20	77	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	55,080
DAYKUNDI	49	42	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	81,988
FARAH	15	33	1	34	0	0	16	0	2	92,589
FARYAB	62	29	2	5	0	0	2	0	0	147,084
GHAZNI	28	46	0	24	0	0	1	0	0	175,908
GHOR	19	76	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	119,493
HILMAND	47	28	4	18	0	0	1	2	0	201,081
HIRAT	22	36	5	12	0	0	23	0	1	310,093
JAWZJAN	26	49	0	9	0	0	14	1	0	76,107
KABUL	7	3	2	21	3	1	40	20	4	396,444
KANDAHAR	10	31	5	37	0	0	12	5	0	178,960
KAPISA	60	11	0	28	0	0	1	0	0	52,656
KHOST	50	13	0	36	0	0	0	0	0	89,723
KUNARHA	8	40	0	51	0	0	1	0	0	66,528
KUNDUZ	46	13	14	11	0	0	10	5	1	114,285
LAGHMAN	44	25	1	28	0	0	2	0	0	59,540
LOGAR	41	26	0	32	0	0	0	0	0	60,180
NANGARHAR	18	16	2	54	0	0	2	0	8	217,279
NIMROZ	1	48	0	20	0	0	31	0	0	16,399
NURISTAN	0	7	0	93	0	0	0	0	0	19,740
PAKTIKA	28	57	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	116,994
PAKTYA	1	45	0	53	1	0	0	0	0	73,266
PANJSHER	32	52	0	8	1	0	7	0	0	18,954
PARWAN	6	9	0	79	1	1	4	0	0	70,584
SAMANGAN	19	73	0	3	0	0	4	0	1	48,417
SAR-I-PUL	45	43	0	10	0	0	0	0	1	74,553
TAKHAR	60	16	0	11	0	3	7	0	4	143,548
URUZGAN	24	52	1	22	0	1	0	0	0	46,260
WARDAK	34	23	4	38	0	0	1	0	0	89,130
ZABUL	11	86	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	52,792
National	30	30	2	23	0	0	10	3	1	3,821,719



Table A 36: Sources of cooking fuel during the summer (%) by province, Part II

Province	Animal dung	Ping or bushes	Crop residues or sawdust	Firewood	Charcoal	Kerosene or oil	Gas	Electricity	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	62	14	1	18	0	0	1	0	3	139,890
BADGHIS	27	60	6	3	0	0	3	0	1	98,706
BAGHLAN	39	8	1	36	10	0	6	0	0	122,915
BALKH	18	20	4	28	0	1	27	2	0	192,818
BAMYAN	33	61	0	2	1	0	1	0	2	53,720
DAYKUNDI	35	54	0	11	0	0	1	0	0	81,576
FARAH	10	24	1	49	0	0	14	0	2	92,589
FARYAB	58	13	1	16	0	0	2	0	9	146,741
GHAZNI	9	50	0	39	0	0	1	0	1	175,908
GHOR	23	70	1	5	0	0	0	0	1	119,493
HILMAND	26	25	13	33	0	0	1	2	0	201,408
HIRAT	21	36	6	13	0	0	23	0	1	309,187
JAWZJAN	38	31	0	16	0	0	14	1	0	76,107
KABUL	6	2	1	32	4	1	43	2	9	394,759
KANDAHAR	3	18	5	56	1	1	13	4	0	178,960
KAPISA	34	13	0	52	0	0	1	0	0	52,275
KHOST	2	5	0	93	0	0	0	0	0	89,723
KUNARHA	5	27	0	67	0	0	1	0	0	66,654
KUNDUZ	46	5	15	19	3	0	7	4	1	114,157
LAGHMAN	5	17	0	78	0	0	1	0	0	59,410
LOGAR	26	29	0	43	0	0	0	0	1	59,958
NANGARHAR	7	21	0	61	0	0	2	0	8	218,253
NIMROZ	1	48	0	20	0	0	31	0	0	16,399
NURISTAN	0	7	0	93	0	0	0	0	0	19,740
PAKTIKA	25	5	0	70	0	0	0	0	0	115,662
PAKTYA	1	8	0	91	1	0	0	0	0	73,143
PANJSHER	21	52	0	18	1	0	8	0	0	18,906
PARWAN	10	3	0	81	1	0	4	0	0	70,014
SAMANGAN	16	50	0	5	23	0	4	0	2	48,417
SAR-I-PUL	49	31	0	15	0	0	0	0	5	74,553
TAKHAR	62	8	0	15	3	2	5	0	4	142,635
URUZGAN	27	21	0	49	0	0	2	0	0	46,385
WARDAK	25	13	1	60	0	0	1	0	0	89,112
ZABUL	48	38	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	53,028
National	24	23	2	35	1	0	10	1	2	3,813,201



Table A 37: Sources of fuel for heating during the winter (%) by province

Province	No heating in house	Electric heater	Gas heater	Kerosene heater	Firewood	Stoves burning straw, ping or manure	Charcoal	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	4	0	0	1	27	60	0	9	138,866
BADGHIS	0	0	0	0	8	90	0	1	98,439
BAGHLAN	1	0	1	2	15	62	18	1	122,275
BALKH	1	3	0	3	37	33	4	18	191,838
BAMYAN	0	0	0	0	30	15	14	41	52,768
DAYKUNDI	10	0	0	1	22	49	0	17	81,576
FARAH	4	0	3	3	55	35	0	0	92,016
FARYAB	2	0	0	0	20	73	0	5	148,953
GHAZNI	8	0	0	2	40	20	0	30	174,020
GHOR	7	0	0	0	10	70	0	13	118,878
HILMAND	20	4	1	0	28	43	0	5	202,914
HIRAT	1	3	1	1	20	44	0	30	309,686
JAWZJAN	5	0	10	1	17	60	0	7	76,410
KABUL	1	2	5	3	59	6	2	21	393,980
KANDAHAR	9	7	1	1	42	17	10	12	179,477
KAPISA	1	0	1	2	67	4	0	24	52,132
KHOST	1	0	0	1	88	8	0	2	89,691
KUNARHA	4	0	0	3	66	26	0	1	65,898
KUNDUZ	2	3	0	0	21	58	11	5	111,025
LAGHMAN	0	0	1	1	73	24	0	1	59,020
LOGAR	18	0	0	1	58	20	0	3	55,106
NANGARHAR	24	0	1	1	37	34	0	3	213,505
NIMROZ	36	1	19	0	29	12	1	2	16,481
NURISTAN	0	0	0	0	93	7	0	0	19,560
PAKTIKA	0	0	1	1	78	18	0	3	116,661
PAKTYA	0	0	0	1	92	4	0	2	73,389
PANJSHER	0	0	0	0	20	35	3	42	18,954
PARWAN	4	0	1	3	76	5	1	10	69,135
SAMANGAN	4	0	0	0	11	36	21	29	47,733
SAR-I-PUL	2	0	0	0	8	44	0	45	74,673
TAKHAR	1	0	0	0	23	43	7	26	138,751
URUZGAN	6	0	1	2	41	49	0	2	47,274
WARDAK	3	0	0	1	34	42	1	18	90,126
ZABUL	5	0	0	2	65	25	0	2	50,668
National	5	1	1	1	39	36	3	14	3,791,878



Table A 38: Source of lighting during the summer (%) by province, Part I

Province	No lighting	Lamp oil	Candles	Electricity	Generator	Battery	Gas	Fire wood	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	1	98	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	142,339
BADGHIS	1	98	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	99,210
BAGHLAN	1	80	0	12	4	0	4	0	0	123,072
BALKH	1	46	0	44	7	0	1	0	1	193,844
BAMYAN	0	94	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	55,760
DAYKUNDI	1	79	0	11	9	0	0	0	0	77,868
FARAH	5	89	0	3	2	0	1	0	0	93,363
FARYAB	0	87	0	10	2	0	0	0	0	149,682
GHAZNI	0	60	0	11	25	0	2	0	0	175,672
GHOR	1	86	11	1	0	0	0	0	0	120,516
HILMAND	1	77	0	19	0	0	3	0	0	204,432
HIRAT	1	77	0	21	0	0	1	0	0	310,571
JAWZJAN	2	63	0	34	1	0	0	0	0	76,181
KABUL	0	29	1	46	11	3	8	0	2	394,465
KANDAHAR	1	71	0	25	1	0	2	0	0	177,961
KAPISA	0	91	0	4	1	0	3	0	0	52,513
KHOST	0	95	0	1	1	0	2	0	0	89,072
KUNARHA	1	80	0	11	6	0	2	0	0	66,654
KUNDUZ	1	77	1	16	3	1	2	0	0	115,251
LAGHMAN	0	86	0	13	0	0	1	0	0	59,670
LOGAR	0	90	1	1	5	1	1	0	0	61,196
NANGARHAR	0	92	0	3	4	0	1	0	0	219,435
NIMROZ	1	65	0	29	4	1	1	0	0	16,440
NURISTAN	0	38	0	47	15	0	1	0	0	19,860
PAKTIKA	0	95	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	117,438
PAKTYA	1	85	0	1	12	0	1	0	0	71,802
PANJSHER	1	77	0	15	1	0	6	0	0	18,954
PARWAN	1	78	3	10	4	0	5	0	0	71,832
SAMANGAN	1	93	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	47,049
SAR-I-PUL	1	93	1	2	4	0	0	0	0	74,433
TAKHAR	1	94	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	141,760
URUZGAN	2	96	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	48,871
WARDAK	0	85	0	4	5	0	5	0	0	90,660
ZABUL	1	99	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53,236
National	1	76	1	15	5	1	2	0	0	3,831,062



Table A 39: Source of lighting during the summer (%) by province, Part II

Province	No lighting	Lamp oil	Candles	Electricity	Generator	Battery	Gas	Fire wood	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	1	95	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	141,443
BADGHIS	0	97	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	98,943
BAGHLAN	1	81	0	1	4	0	11	1	0	120,498
BALKH	0	48	0	41	8	0	2	0	0	193,209
BAMYAN	0	94	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	55,216
DAYKUNDI	0	79	0	12	9	0	0	0	0	77,250
FARAH	5	89	0	3	2	0	1	0	0	92,976
FARYAB	0	78	0	10	2	0	1	0	8	149,503
GHAZNI	0	58	0	11	25	0	5	0	0	175,797
GHOR	1	86	11	1	0	0	0	0	0	120,390
HILMAND	1	74	0	17	0	0	8	0	0	204,432
HIRAT	0	77	0	21	0	0	1	0	0	309,436
JAWZJAN	2	64	0	34	0	0	0	0	0	75,815
KABUL	0	30	0	15	11	4	32	2	6	392,931
KANDAHAR	1	71	0	23	1	0	4	0	0	177,961
KAPISA	0	84	0	4	1	0	11	0	0	52,513
KHOST	1	90	0	1	1	0	6	0	0	88,691
KUNARHA	1	80	0	11	6	0	2	0	0	66,402
KUNDUZ	1	74	0	16	3	1	4	1	0	114,995
LAGHMAN	0	86	0	13	0	0	2	0	0	59,540
LOGAR	0	88	1	1	5	0	3	0	0	61,085
NANGARHAR	1	90	0	2	4	0	2	0	0	219,177
NIMROZ	0	64	0	29	4	0	2	0	0	16,481
NURISTAN	0	37	0	48	14	0	0	0	0	19,740
PAKTIKA	0	95	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	116,772
PAKTYA	1	82	0	1	12	0	3	0	0	71,310
PANJSHER	1	79	0	13	1	0	7	0	0	18,858
PARWAN	1	78	3	8	4	0	6	0	0	71,376
SAMANGAN	1	94	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	47,163
SAR-I-PUL	1	93	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	74,802
TAKHAR	1	92	3	1	2	0	1	0	0	139,795
URUZGAN	2	97	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	48,885
WARDAK	0	83	1	4	5	0	7	0	0	90,531
ZABUL	1	97	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	53,118
National	1	75	1	11	5	1	6	0	1	3,817,034



Table A 40: Households' assets ownership (%) by province, Part I

Province	Watch	Carpets	Gilim	Radio	Fridge	TV	VCR	Sewing machine	Rug weaving loom	Carpentry	Generator	Thuraya
BADAKHSHAN	84	22	93	76	1	2	1	30	0	0	1	0
BADGHIS	93	18	99	82	1	1	1	13	10	2	0	0
BAGHLAN	93	18	87	79	4	10	9	38	3	0	2	2
BALKH	95	31	89	88	16	47	23	60	6	4	12	0
BAMYAN	79	8	95	42	0	1	0	23	1	1	1	0
DAYKUNDI	80	6	94	61	0	1	1	40	0	0	1	0
FARAH	77	23	87	69	1	19	8	41	0	0	4	2
FARYAB	88	16	95	83	2	15	6	48	11	4	6	0
GHAZNI	87	9	96	86	3	17	7	40	0	2	5	1
GHOR	68	31	93	66	0	2	2	23	1	6	2	1
HILMAND	96	32	96	86	7	8	10	34	1	2	3	7
HIRAT	80	28	84	62	7	38	9	39	6	1	2	0
JAWZJAN	91	34	98	77	12	31	18	49	5	1	9	0
KABUL	93	34	89	85	25	64	36	54	3	4	15	2
KANDAHAR	95	9	85	88	5	17	16	42	1	3	2	1
KAPISA	87	28	95	85	0	9	4	38	0	1	5	0
KHOST	97	31	83	90	1	3	2	55	1	1	4	9
KUNARHA	92	15	97	78	1	6	6	48	1	4	9	0
KUNDUZ	88	33	90	86	5	18	12	54	1	1	5	2
LAGHMAN	96	11	97	95	0	0	2	52	0	0	1	0
LOGAR	90	30	98	84	6	10	8	45	1	6	4	3
NANGARHAR	88	8	92	79	3	12	4	42	1	1	7	0
NIMROZ	86	15	90	77	6	15	4	31	0	0	0	0
NURISTAN	96	17	70	83	0	0	0	16	0	16	0	0
PAKTIKA	98	2	98	93	1	0	0	48	1	0	3	0
PAKTYA	97	32	96	97	1	0	2	34	0	3	6	0
PANJSHER	91	13	98	78	1	4	2	31	1	0	1	0
PARWAN	80	23	92	65	2	8	2	28	0	1	3	0
SAMANGAN	64	20	92	58	1	7	5	41	15	1	3	1
SAR-I-PUL	65	6	96	57	1	5	3	40	2	1	7	0
TAKHAR	82	13	93	68	0	7	4	33	1	1	6	1
URUZGAN	95	20	95	79	1	0	2	53	2	1	2	1
WARDAK	94	32	97	73	1	1	2	45	1	3	6	0
ZABUL	69	16	87	60	1	0	0	7	0	0	1	3
National	88	22	92	78	6	19	10	41	3	2	5	1



Table A 41: Households' assets ownership (%) by province, continued

Province	Handcart	Bicycle	Motorcycle	Tractor	Combine thresher	Plough	Cereal Grinder Mill	Car	Truck
BADAKHSHAN	6	7	2	0	0	18	4	1	1
BADGHIS	1	3	15	1	0	22	22	1	0
BAGHLAN	12	18	1	0	0	12	25	3	0
BALKH	12	46	20	3	0	11	6	7	1
BAMYAN	3	8	2	0	0	45	32	0	0
DAYKUNDI	8	2	4	0	0	27	20	2	0
FARAH	20	21	31	3	0	4	2	4	2
FARYAB	9	34	20	0	0	10	2	1	0
GHAZNI	41	44	22	1	0	7	5	3	2
GHOR	4	4	15	0	0	16	15	1	0
HILMAND	58	63	45	21	2	2	0	16	4
HIRAT	3	26	14	1	0	11	11	4	1
JAWZJAN	15	59	15	1	0	5	1	3	0
KABUL	31	50	5	0	0	0	2	9	1
KANDAHAR	55	56	12	1	0	0	1	4	1
KAPISA	37	40	9	0	0	34	37	1	0
KHOST	76	54	13	6	0	2	4	13	8
KUNARHA	25	14	4	1	0	37	7	4	0
KUNDUZ	28	50	12	3	1	16	22	4	1
LAGHMAN	26	29	2	0	0	7	1	0	0
LOGAR	49	61	14	3	1	1	1	4	3
NANGARHAR	24	41	3	0	0	1	1	1	0
NIMROZ	35	44	24	1	0	0	0	2	0
NURISTAN	1	0	0	0	0	16	16	0	0
PAKTIKA	63	61	13	2	0	1	6	0	0
PAKTYA	43	40	17	2	0	0	3	3	1
PANJSHER	14	13	1	0	0	1	1	2	0
PARWAN	31	22	2	0	0	8	3	0	0
SAMANGAN	3	12	3	1	0	18	21	3	0
SAR-I-PUL	1	10	9	0	0	23	3	0	0
TAKHAR	11	18	7	0	0	14	13	0	0
URUZGAN	61	52	3	1	0	0	0	1	0
WARDAK	41	44	13	1	0	17	21	6	4
ZABUL	25	25	6	1	0	0	0	0	0
National	26	35	13	2	0	9	8	4	1



Table A 42: Households using computers, Internet, telephones or mobile phones (%) by province

Province	Computer	Internet	Telephone	Mobile phone
BADAKHSHAN	0	0	0	0
BADGHIS	0	0	0	0
BAGHLAN	0	0	0	4
BALKH	2	0	0	17
BAMYAN	0	0	0	0
DAYKUNDI	0	0	0	0
FARAH	0	0	0	0
FARYAB	0	0	0	1
GHAZNI	0	0	0	2
GHOR	0	0	0	0
HILMAND	0	0	0	0
HIRAT	1	0	2	7
JAWZJAN	1	0	0	11
KABUL	3	1	1	47
KANDAHAR	0	0	0	7
KAPISA	0	0	0	3
KHOST	0	0	1	7
KUNARHA	0	0	0	3
KUNDUZ	0	0	0	7
LAGHMAN	0	0	0	0
LOGAR	1	0	0	6
NANGARHAR	0	0	0	6
NIMROZ	0	0	0	0
NURISTAN	0	0	0	0
PAKTIKA	0	0	0	0
PAKTYA	0	0	0	5
PANJSHER	0	0	0	0
PARWAN	0	0	0	1
SAMANGAN	0	0	0	2
SAR-I-PUL	0	0	0	1
TAKHAR	0	0	0	0
URUZGAN	0	0	0	0
WARDAK	0	0	0	5
ZABUL	0	0	0	0
National	1	0	0	8



Table A 43: Sources of income reported by all households (%) by province

Province	Agriculture	Livestock	Opium	Trade and services	Manufacture	Non-farm labor	Remittances	Others
BADAKHSHAN	55	24	7	32	4	29	1	7
BADGHIS	59	51	1	7	7	5	1	13
BAGHLAN	45	21	4	30	7	29	2	3
BALKH	42	20	9	34	12	28	1	2
BAMYAN	86	36	0	8	1	47	4	4
DAYKUNDI	71	16	5	5	0	30	3	9
FARAH	50	26	2	21	1	25	4	3
FARYAB	53	27	3	25	15	31	6	4
GHAZNI	57	49	0	17	2	28	18	7
GHOR	56	16	2	7	2	40	1	5
HILMAND	69	26	41	26	0	20	2	2
HIRAT	36	20	0	21	4	46	4	5
JAWZJAN	48	18	1	37	25	37	1	3
KABUL	11	3	0	53	6	27	1	9
KANDAHAR	28	8	4	29	2	34	5	10
KAPISA	62	19	0	32	2	36	15	9
KHOST	46	38	1	45	4	25	8	2
KUNARHA	74	48	1	33	2	28	11	6
KUNDUZ	66	27	0	28	6	15	1	4
LAGHMAN	29	17	0	36	0	39	9	3
LOGAR	31	32	1	26	2	46	6	3
NANGARHAR	48	14	4	31	1	38	9	6
NIMROZ	14	26	0	32	1	17	4	15
NURISTAN	88	88	1	4	0	14	7	5
PAKTIKA	65	40	1	5	1	48	21	0
PAKTYA	59	44	0	19	2	49	11	17
PANJSHER	38	37	0	29	1	51	1	3
PARWAN	39	19	1	27	4	45	1	2
SAMANGAN	36	15	1	17	8	28	3	9
SAR-I-PUL	75	21	1	13	6	45	4	3
TAKHAR	60	18	3	23	4	38	3	5
URUZGAN	40	38	5	14	2	18	10	2
WARDAK	43	21	1	24	1	45	16	6
ZABUL	50	20	4	16	5	37	1	0
National	47	23	4	27	5	33	5	6



Table A 44: Sources of income reported by rural households (%) by province

Province	Agriculture	Livestock	Opium	Trade and services	Manufacture	Non-farm labour	Remittances	Others
BADAKHSHAN	56	21	7	32	4	28	2	7
BADGHIS	65	45	0	8	7	6	1	13
BAGHLAN	54	24	3	26	8	30	2	3
BALKH	61	29	12	21	11	25	2	2
BAMYAN	86	36	0	8	1	47	4	4
DAYKUNDI	71	16	5	5	0	30	3	9
FARAH	56	17	3	24	1	24	4	4
FARYAB	60	23	4	22	16	34	7	3
GHAZNI	60	47	0	18	2	29	19	7
GHOR	60	10	2	8	2	42	1	5
HILMAND	70	25	41	26	0	20	2	1
HIRAT	48	23	0	11	6	50	5	5
JAWZJAN	67	16	1	26	31	38	1	3
KABUL	41	8	0	31	5	40	1	2
KANDAHAR	38	8	6	23	3	37	7	5
KAPISA	62	18	0	32	2	35	15	8
KHOST	45	36	1	45	5	24	8	2
KUNARHA	74	48	1	33	2	28	11	6
KUNDUZ	76	28	0	19	6	14	1	4
LAGHMAN	29	17	0	36	0	39	9	3
LOGAR	39	16	0	30	2	46	8	3
NANGARHAR	55	14	4	28	1	40	10	8
NIMROZ	16	11	0	38	1	21	5	18
NURISTAN	88	88	1	4	0	14	7	5
PAKTIKA	66	39	1	5	1	48	21	0
PAKTYA	61	42	0	20	2	50	11	15
PANJSHER	41	27	0	33	1	47	1	3
PARWAN	43	12	1	30	4	49	1	2
SAMANGAN	37	15	1	17	8	29	3	9
SAR-I-PUL	75	20	1	13	6	45	4	3
TAKHAR	65	19	3	20	4	39	3	5
URUZGAN	42	37	5	14	2	16	10	2
WARDAK	46	16	1	27	1	46	18	5
ZABUL	52	15	4	17	4	38	1	0
Rural	57	25	5	21	4	34	6	5



Table A 45: Sources of income reported by urban households (%) by province

Province	Agriculture	Livestock	Opium	Trade and services	Manufacture	Non-farm labour	Remittances	Others
BAGHLAN	18	2	3	54	5	32	2	5
BALKH	7	3	2	58	14	35	1	3
FARYAB	27	6	0	62	25	24	3	5
HIRAT	5	1	0	52	1	38	1	6
JAWZJAN	8	2	0	74	15	32	1	5
KABUL	3	0	0	61	6	22	1	11
KANDAHAR	8	1	1	43	2	27	0	21
KUNDUZ	34	21	0	58	7	20	0	6
NANGARHAR	12	0	0	58	1	27	0	0
TAKHAR	20	1	0	46	2	39	6	3
Urban	7	2	1	58	6	27	1	9



Table A 46: Migration outside of Afghanistan (%) by province

Province	Migration to Pakistan			Migration to Iran			Migration to Arabian Peninsula		
	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migrants	No. weighted observations	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migrants	No. weighted observations	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migrants	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	50	50	1,024	63	38	3,072			
BADGHIS	56	44	867	92	8	3,150	100	0	126
BAGHLAN	0	100	467	33	67	3,037	33	67	381
BALKH	51	49	4,701	44	56	9,029	16	84	770
BAMYAN	100	0	136	50	50	3,536	0	100	136
DAYKUNDI	25	75	824	24	76	17,098	0	100	206
FARAH	100	0	258	85	15	7,041	0	100	111
FARYAB	59	41	2,146	31	69	22,660	0	100	699
GHAZNI	73	27	18,972	27	73	24,875	10	90	2,486
GHOR	0	100	126	76	24	4,284			
HILMAND	95	5	4,536	81	19	3,456			
HIRAT	25	75	516	73	27	34,026			
JAWZJAN	100	0	536	38	62	2,518	50	50	244
KABUL	50	50	4,510	37	63	2,503	0	100	1,802
KANDAHAR	66	34	3,664	0	100	739	0	100	785
KAPISA				4	96	10,779			
KHOST	83	17	762				45	55	11,541
KUNARHA	88	13	6,048	83	17	756	0	100	1008
KUNDUZ	35	65	734	15	85	2,560	0	100	128
LAGHMAN	100	0	1,690	91	9	5,720	100	0	130
LOGAR	23	77	492	55	45	4,826	0	100	1,270
NANGARHAR	96	4	6,163	40	60	645	0	100	1,548
NIMROZ				60	40	615			
NURISTAN	74	26	1,380						
PAKTIKA	90	10	9,990	86	14	11,655	74	26	24,420
PAKTYA	89	11	4,305	16	84	8,721	52	48	8,733
PANJSHER				75	25	192			
PARWAN	50	50	684	48	52	3,303	0	100	114
SAMANGAN	75	25	912	22	78	1,026	0	100	456
SAR-I-PUL	67	33	360	54	46	6,480	100	0	240
TAKHAR	62	38	3,900	39	61	6,492	100	0	188
URUZGAN	91	9	2,861	94	6	4,472	75	25	1,500
WARDAK	69	31	1,677	16	84	8,256	38	62	1,677
ZABUL	100	0	236	100	0	118	100	0	236
National	75	25	85,477	47	53	217,640	51	49	60,935



Table A 47: Migration outside of Afghanistan (%) by province, continued

Province	Migration to Europe			Other destinations		
	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migrants	No. weighted observations	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migrants	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN						
BADGHIS						
BAGHLAN	0	100	127	0	100	269
BALKH	26	74	1,927	0	100	129
BAMYAN						
DAYKUNDI	0	100	206			
FARAH						
FARYAB	0	100	130			
GHAZNI	0	100	625	50	50	250
GHOR						
HILMAND						
HIRAT	0	100	258	0	100	128
JAWZJAN	0	100	177	0	100	59
KABUL	14	86	1,850	33	67	798
KANDAHAR	0	100	942	0	100	314
KAPISA						
KHOST	43	57	889	89	11	1,143
KUNARHA	50	50	756			
KUNDUZ	0	100	203			
LAGHMAN						
LOGAR	50	50	508	0	100	127
NANGARHAR	0	100	774	0	100	258
NIMROZ						
NURISTAN						
PAKTIKA	100	0	666			
PAKTYA	40	60	615			
PANJSHER	0	100	48			
PARWAN	0	100	114	0	100	342
SAMANGAN						
SAR-I-PUL						
TAKHAR						
URUZGAN	100	0	125			
WARDAK	50	50	258			
ZABUL						
National	26	74	11,198	37	63	3,817



Table A 48: Migration within Afghanistan (%) by province

Province	Rural migration			Urban migration		
	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migration	No. weighted observations	Seasonal migrants	Permanent migration	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	94	6	7,936	83	17	1,536
BADGHIS	100	0	252	77	23	1,119
BAGHLAN	95	5	12,192	59	41	1,849
BALKH	67	33	1,528	62	38	2,669
BAMYAN	82	18	1,496	81	19	2,856
DAYKUNDI	0	100	824	50	50	824
FARAH	100	0	1,806	82	18	1,401
FARYAB	70	30	2,308	75	25	4,130
GHAZNI	81	19	5,944	96	4	11,944
GHOR	100	0	2,016	97	3	7,923
HILMAND	99	1	29,808	98	2	12,096
HIRAT	83	17	2,283	97	3	4,749
JAWZJAN	86	14	854	80	20	913
KABUL	64	36	1,850	54	46	1,959
KANDAHAR	72	28	8,017	64	36	6,344
KAPISA	100	0	333	100	0	2,397
KHOST	33	67	762	0	100	127
KUNARHA	59	41	8,694	84	16	4,788
KUNDUZ	91	9	1,408	100	0	128
LAGHMAN	100	0	520	100	0	780
LOGAR	56	44	2,000	75	25	508
NANGARHAR	98	2	11,445	99	1	18,633
NIMROZ	0	100	41	60	40	205
NURISTAN	93	7	2,700	82	18	660
PAKTIKA	100	0	4,329	100	0	3,330
PAKTYA	100	0	492	100	0	2,829
PANJSHER	77	23	624	71	29	2,304
PARWAN	100	0	684	65	35	1,938
SAMANGAN	50	50	456	85	15	2,280
SAR-I-PUL	100	0	1,800	91	9	3,831
TAKHAR	86	14	3,207	90	10	6,941
URUZGAN						
WARDAK	99	1	12,513	96	4	17,673
ZABUL				75	25	472
National	89	11	131,122	89	11	132,136



Table A 49: Origin of migrants (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	9	0	9	13,056
BADGHIS	7	0	7	6,996
BAGHLAN	17	5	14	17,336
BALKH	15	4	11	21,114
BAMYAN	13	0	13	7,344
DAYKUNDI	24	0	24	20,188
FARAH	13	0	12	11,133
FARYAB	23	8	20	30,106
GHAZNI	36	0	35	63,193
GHOR	14	0	13	15,483
HILMAND	17	0	17	35,208
HIRAT	18	5	14	45,468
JAWZJAN	9	2	7	5,364
KABUL	6	5	5	20,278
KANDAHAR	14	6	12	21,498
KAPISA	26	0	26	14,033
KHOST	18	0	17	15,970
KUNARHA	28	0	28	18,900
KUNDUZ	5	1	4	4,980
LAGHMAN	15	0	15	9,230
LOGAR	22	0	17	10,572
NANGARHAR	21	1	17	39,190
NIMROZ	6	0	5	861
NURISTAN	22	0	22	4,320
PAKTIKA	43	0	43	51,615
PAKTYA	36	0	35	25,572
PANJSHER	22	0	19	3,648
PARWAN	14	0	14	10,572
SAMANGAN	17	0	17	8,094
SAR-I-PUL	17	0	17	12,711
TAKHAR	15	15	15	21,381
URUZGAN	16	0	15	7,458
WARDAK	37	0	34	30,960
ZABUL	3	0	3	1,534
National	19	5	16	625,366

Note: Kuchi average = 7%.



**Table A 50: Frequency of reception of remittances by Afghan households (%)
by province**

Province	Remittances from seasonal migrants					Remittances from permanent migrants				
	None	Once a year	2 to 4 times a year	4 or more times a year	No. weighted observations	None	Once a year	2 to 4 times a year	4 or more times a year	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	29	48	19	4	9,856	50	43	7	0	1,792
BADGHIS	60	25	13	3	4,017	29	57	14	0	882
BAGHLAN	45	40	11	4	12,065	39	43	14	5	2,813
BALKH	71	14	6	9	8,769	49	29	15	7	10,456
BAMYAN	32	26	35	6	4,624	58	32	5	5	2,584
DAYKUNDI	62	38	0	0	4,326	65	25	9	1	14,214
FARAH	51	38	10	1	8,829	29	41	20	10	1,272
FARYAB	21	48	27	4	12,525	17	57	24	2	17,370
GHAZNI	11	48	34	6	29,749	7	72	16	5	25,736
GHOR	24	62	11	3	11,829	17	17	67	0	756
HILMAND	2	75	23	0	34,128	0	83	17	0	1,296
HIRAT	31	36	23	11	29,632	29	32	38	1	9,472
JAWZJAN	42	26	18	13	2,721	19	45	33	3	1,970
KABUL	19	17	42	22	4,770	7	50	27	15	7,733
KANDAHAR	5	30	60	5	11,570	11	60	29	0	6,620
KAPISA	13	22	51	13	2,873	15	68	17	0	10,398
KHOST	2	30	50	18	7,112	4	43	45	9	7,096
KUNARHA	5	41	31	24	13,986	13	43	11	33	5,796
KUNDUZ	17	58	8	17	1,536	24	55	21	0	2,345
LAGHMAN	2	84	11	3	8,060	25	75	0	0	520
LOGAR	9	21	50	20	4,286	5	58	11	26	4,810
NANGARHAR	1	37	37	25	34,693	0	17	67	17	3,096
NIMROZ	0	42	33	25	492	13	63	13	13	328
NURISTAN	5	82	12	2	3,960	0	82	18	0	660
PAKTIKA	0	100	0	0	36,852	0	100	0	0	8,325
PAKTYA	0	53	42	5	12,177	0	88	11	1	12,042
PANJSHER	9	17	40	34	1,680	0	0	11	89	432
PARWAN	23	20	17	40	3,987	23	27	35	15	2,964
SAMANGAN	26	37	30	7	3,078	60	27	7	7	1,710
SAR-I-PUL	20	28	38	14	8,511	33	15	44	7	3,240
TAKHAR	12	56	15	16	10,922	46	19	29	6	5,256
URUZGAN	7	88	5	0	7,208	0	86	14	0	875
WARDAK	9	22	65	4	20,382	6	27	59	8	8,127
ZABUL	0	86	14	0	826	0	100	0	0	118
National	15	50	26	9	372,031	20	52	22	6	183,104



Table A 51: Loans taken out in the last year (number and %) by province

Province	No		Yes		Total	
	No. weighted observations	%	No. weighted observations	%	No. weighted observations	%
BADAKHSHAN	91,590	64	51,611	36	143,201	100
BADGHIS	63,564	64	35,505	36	99,069	100
BAGHLAN	89,666	72	34,879	28	124,545	100
BALKH	144,695	75	48,772	25	193,467	100
BAMYAN	8,160	15	47,600	85	55,760	100
DAYKUNDI	8,034	10	75,602	90	83,636	100
FARAH	58,044	63	34,398	37	92,442	100
FARYAB	105,246	71	43,688	29	148,934	100
GHAZNI	109,966	62	66,567	38	176,533	100
GHOR	29,235	24	92,022	76	121,257	100
HILMAND	157,098	77	47,118	23	204,216	100
HIRAT	128,450	42	181,138	59	309,588	100
JAWZJAN	41,840	55	34,448	45	76,288	100
KABUL	301,256	77	90,531	23	391,787	100
KANDAHAR	120,595	67	60,000	33	180,595	100
KAPISA	32,591	62	19,684	38	52,275	100
KHOST	55,862	62	34,575	38	90,437	100
KUNARHA	38,178	57	28,728	43	66,906	100
KUNDUZ	93,068	87	13,501	13	106,569	100
LAGHMAN	54,860	93	4,420	8	59,280	100
LOGAR	40,262	66	20,807	34	61,069	100
NANGARHAR	107,697	49	112,460	51	220,157	100
NIMROZ	10,943	66	5,702	34	16,645	100
NURISTAN	6,300	32	13,620	68	19,920	100
PAKTIKA	82,695	70	36,075	30	118,770	100
PAKTYA	39,288	54	34,101	47	73,389	100
PANJSHER	11,946	63	6,912	37	18,858	100
PARWAN	38,700	54	33,132	46	71,832	100
SAMANGAN	20,838	43	27,348	57	48,186	100
SAR-I-PUL	43,749	58	31,173	42	74,922	100
TAKHAR	91,330	64	52,485	37	143,815	100
URUZGAN	46,121	94	2,750	6	48,871	100
WARDAK	52,416	58	37,857	42	90,273	100
ZABUL	52,417	98	1,173	2	53,590	100
National	2,376,700	62	1,460,382	38	3,837,082	100



Table A 52: Main use of the largest loan (%) by province

Province	Agricultural inputs	Opium cultivation	Construction other than house	Business investment	Land purchase	House purchase of construction	Home improvement	Food purchase	Health emergency	Bride price / wedding	Funeral	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	3	0	1	1	1	3	3	67	11	2	4	5	49,307
BADGHIS	13	0	1	2	0	1	0	72	8	3	0	0	35,001
BAGHLAN	3	0	0	3	4	4	11	57	8	3	6	1	33,467
BALKH	8	0	0	9	1	4	4	58	10	5	1	1	47,244
BAMYAN	3	0	0	1	1	5	1	75	5	4	2	3	44,880
DAYKUNDI	2	0	1	1	0	6	1	78	6	2	1	3	73,954
FARAH	2	1	0	19	0	3	0	40	8	4	1	21	33,495
FARYAB	6	1	0	6	1	6	9	39	6	5	1	20	41,412
GHAZNI	11	0	0	3	0	4	3	56	7	9	4	3	64,706
GHOR	0	0	0	1	0	2	5	82	3	4	0	1	87,924
HILMAND	10	1	0	1	1	1	1	58	14	5	10	0	45,279
HIRAT	3	0	1	3	1	6	4	62	11	7	1	2	178,020
JAWZJAN	1	0	1	2	0	3	1	59	14	7	4	10	33,661
KABUL	4	0	1	5	1	11	9	45	5	8	6	6	84,372
KANDAHAR	5	1	0	6	1	8	1	58	11	5	3	2	59,196
KAPISA	1	0	1	2	1	5	3	68	5	7	5	2	18,922
KHOST	1	0	0	1	0	6	4	73	9	5	1	1	27,876
KUNARHA	6	0	1	0	0	2	1	58	23	3	5	1	27,972
KUNDUZ	27	0	3	4	1	10	3	28	11	9	3	2	13,245
LAGHMAN	0	0	0	0	0	6	3	32	27	18	12	3	4,420
LOGAR	1	0	1	7	1	9	1	54	4	16	5	2	19,807
NANGARHAR	0	0	0	6	1	4	1	56	10	5	4	13	108,638
NIMROZ	6	0	0	3	0	0	2	66	7	5	8	3	5,181
NURISTAN	21	0	0	0	0	8	2	50	12	1	4	1	13,560
PAKTIKA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	96	0	2	1	1	35,853
PAKTYA	2	0	0	0	0	1	2	74	1	13	6	0	32,391
PANJSHER	0	0	2	1	0	4	7	75	2	6	4	0	6,768
PARWAN	2	0	0	2	0	7	2	70	1	11	3	2	29,148
SAMANGAN	1	0	0	1	0	4	6	64	13	5	3	2	25,530
SAR-I-PUL	1	0	1	1	1	6	38	45	2	1	1	2	29,613
TAKHAR	5	0	1	5	2	4	12	43	16	10	2	1	48,961
URUZGAN	10	5	0	0	10	0	0	50	25	0	0	0	2,500
WARDAK	1	0	0	2	0	6	5	54	9	9	9	4	35,793
ZABUL	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	89	0	0	0	0	1,055
National	4	0	0	3	1	5	4	61	9	6	3	4	1,399,151



Table A 53: Households owning or managing agricultural land or garden plots (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	48		47	68,549
BADGHIS	52		46	46,011
BAGHLAN	37	2	28	35,930
BALKH	70	6	48	92,812
BAMYAN	92		92	51,816
DAYKUNDI	75		75	63,654
FARAH	55		49	47,067
FARYAB	58	35	51	76,695
GHAZNI	69		65	117,125
GHOR	60		57	69,039
HILMAND	67		66	136,512
HIRAT	54	6	40	126,286
JAWZJAN	39	9	30	22,788
KABUL	52	1	11	46,568
KANDAHAR	32	1	22	39,465
KAPISA	63		62	32,893
KHOST	54		56	51,051
KUNARHA	79		79	52,920
KUNDUZ	70	30	61	70,617
LAGHMAN	21		21	12,870
LOGAR	43		32	19,431
NANGARHAR	59	3	49	110,417
NIMROZ	19		16	2,706
NURISTAN	80		80	15,960
PAKTIKA	66		64	76,812
PAKTYA	62		60	44,403
PANJSHER	45		39	7,488
PARWAN	50		45	33,171
SAMANGAN	60		59	28,728
SAR-I-PUL	67		66	49,479
TAKHAR	61	19	55	80,422
URUZGAN	38		37	17,916
WARDAK	79		73	66,564
ZABUL	49		47	25,612
National	58	5	47	1,839,777

Note: Kuchi average = 12%.



Table A 54: Management or ownership of garden plots (%) by province

Province	Rent	Share cropped -in	Purchased	Inherited	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	9	4	6	80	1	14,379
BADGHIS	0	0	33	67	0	378
BAGHLAN	1	3	5	89	2	14,097
BALKH	4	5	5	84	1	9,634
BAMYAN	0	3	5	84	8	5,168
DAYKUNDI	0	1	1	95	2	17,304
FARAH	3	3	23	73	0	5,160
FARYAB	4	4	9	83	0	27,766
GHAZNI	2	2	6	86	3	40,500
GHOR	0	5	19	71	5	2,646
HILMAND	7	4	4	86	0	6,048
HIRAT	3	1	16	79	1	14,410
JAWZJAN	0	13	13	75	0	964
KABUL	1	2	7	90	0	30,704
KANDAHAR	0	15	1	83	1	11,815
KAPISA	0	0	2	95	3	7,620
KHOST	8	0	0	92	0	3,048
KUNARHA	0	6	6	88	0	4,284
KUNDUZ	2	1	16	76	5	15,274
LAGHMAN						
LOGAR	0	0	3	97	0	4,445
NANGARHAR	0	9	0	91	0	1,419
NIMROZ	0	0	0	100	0	164
NURISTAN						
PAKTIKA	3	0	0	97	0	11,322
PAKTYA	0	0	0	100	0	738
PANJSHER	0	0	0	86	14	336
PARWAN	3	1	5	91	0	17,898
SAMANGAN	0	7	3	86	3	3306
SAR-I-PUL	0	1	10	84	5	10,542
TAKHAR	0	4	12	84	0	15,328
URUZGAN	6	6	32	57	0	6,750
WARDAK	1	3	0	94	3	14,964
ZABUL	0	0	0	100	0	2,936
National	2	3	7	86	2	321,347



Table A 55: Size of garden plots (jeribs) by province

	Average size of irrigated land ownership/ households			Maximum size of irrigated land ownership/ households			Minimum size of irrigated land ownership/ households			No. Weighted observations
	Rural	Urban	Average	Rural	Urban	Maximum	Rural	Urban	Minimum	
BADAKHSHAN	2		2	26		26	0		0	145,505
BADGHIS	6		6	10		10	3		3	99,432
BAGHLAN	3		3	44		44	0		0	126,900
BALKH	5	7	6	22	22	22	0	2	0	194,469
BAMYAN	1		1	3		3	0		0	56,576
DAIKINDI	1		1	16		16	0		0	84,872
FARAH	6		6	32		32	0		0	95,280
FARYAB	2	7	3	15	20	20	0	0	0	150,121
GHAZNI	2		2	12		12	0		0	179,463
GHOR	2		2	8		8	0		0	122,109
HILMAND	2		2	5		5	0		0	206,808
HIRAT	2	4	2	10	20	20	0	1	0	314,071
JAWZJAN	2	7	4	3	50	50	1	1	1	76,772
KABUL	3	3	3	17	5	17	0	1	0	407,441
KANDAHAR	5	50	5	20	50	50	0	50	0	180,997
KAPISA	2		2	8		8	1		1	53,148
KHOST	3		3	6		6	1		1	91,945
KUNARHA	2		2	8		8	0		0	67,284
KUNDUZ	4	3	4	22	5	22	1	1	1	116,633
LAGHMAN	1		1	1		1	1		1	60,320
LOGAR	2		2	10		10	1		1	61,196
NANGARHAR	3		3	5		5	1		1	224,243
NIMROZ	3		3	4		4	2		2	16,645
NURISTAN	3		3	3		3	3		3	19,920
PAKTIKA	1		1	3		3	1		1	120,213
PAKTYA	1		1	2		2	0		0	74,004
PANJSHER	2		2	4		4	1		1	19,002
PARWAN	2		2	35		35	0		0	73,656
SAMANGAN	2		2	6		6	0		0	48,984
SAR-I-POUL	3		3	22		22	0		0	75,393
TAKHAR	2	2	2	20	10	20	0	1	0	145,526
URUZGAN	2		2	13		13	0		0	48,996
WARDAK	2		2	16		16	0		0	91,656
ZABUL	5		4	12		12	1		1	54,180
National	3	6	3	44	50	50	0	0	0	3,903,760

Note: Kuchi average = 2.5, maximum =13, minimum = 0.5



Table A 56: Most important crops (%) in garden plots by province

Province	Rapeseeds	Sugarcane/bet	Zira	Vegetables	Cotton	Fruit / nut trees	Grapes	Melon/Water Melon	Opium	Other	No crops	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	0	2	0	5	0	61	0	0	0	0	1	11,307
BADGHIS	0	0	0	0	0	67	33	0	0	0	0	378
BAGHLAN	15	1	0	12	1	50	4	0	0	0	0	10,922
BALKH	0	0	0	4	2	67	13	6	0	3	0	8,886
BAMYAN	0	0	0	8	0	80	0	0	0	0	0	3,400
DAYKUNDI	0	0	0	0	0	94	0	0	2	2	0	14,008
FARAH	0	0	0	10	0	31	23	0	0	23	0	5,031
FARYAB	1	0	1	4	0	16	45	0	2	0	1	25,409
GHAZNI	0	0	0	0	0	17	56	0	0	1	0	36,000
GHOR	0	0	0	0	0	92	0	0	0	0	0	1,512
HILMAND	0	0	0	0	0	67	26	0	0	4	0	5,832
HIRAT	0	0	0	4	1	15	77	0	0	0	0	10,644
JAWZJAN	0	0	0	27	0	0	73	0	0	0	0	661
KABUL	0	0	0	1	0	30	68	0	0	0	0	26,603
KANDAHAR	0	1	0	3	1	34	54	0	0	1	0	10,609
KAPISA	0	0	0	2	2	76	9	2	0	0	0	7,366
KHOST	0	0	0	0	0	56	0	0	0	0	0	2,286
KUNARHA	0	0	0	3	0	37	47	3	0	0	0	3,780
KUNDUZ	0	0	0	0	0	78	6	1	0	3	0	14,047
LAGHMAN												
LOGAR	0	0	0	8	0	54	39	0	0	0	0	3,302
NANGARHAR	0	0	0	0	0	50	50	0	0	0	0	258
NIMROZ	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	164
NURISTAN												
PAKTIKA	0	0	0	0	3	82	9	3	0	0	0	11,322
PAKTYA	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	738
PANJSHER	0	0	0	0	0	67	0	0	0	17	0	288
PARWAN	1	1	0	3	1	34	31	0	0	1	0	12,426
SAMANGAN	0	0	0	0	0	18	14	0	0	0	0	2,508
SAR-I-PUL	0	0	0	3	0	16	75	0	0	0	0	8,502
TAKHAR	1	0	0	1	0	53	12	0	1	7	0	13,320
URUZGAN	0	0	0	0	2	92	4	0	0	0	0	6,500
WARDAK	2	0	0	1	1	85	0	0	0	1	0	11,352
ZABUL	0	0	0	0	0	32	37	0	0	0	0	2,235
National	1	0	0	2	1	46	32	0	0	2	0	271,596



Table A 57: Most important crops (%) in garden plots by province, continued

Province	Wheat	Maize	Barley	Rice	Potatoes	Beans	Flax	Alfalfa/ clover/ other fodder	Millet	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	18	1	0	0	8	2	0	1	1	11,307
BADGHIS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	378
BAGHLAN	5	1	0	1	4	4	0	4	0	10,922
BALKH	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	8,886
BAMYAN	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	3,400
DAYKUNDI	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14,008
FARAH	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,031
FARYAB	13	2	1	0	12	1	0	3	0	25,409
GHAZNI	23	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	36,000
GHOR	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	1,512
HILMAND	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,832
HIRAT	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10,644
JAWZJAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	661
KABUL	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	26,603
KANDAHAR	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10,609
KAPISA	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,366
KHOST	33	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	2,286
KUNARHA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	3	3,780
KUNDUZ	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	14,047
LAGHMAN										
LOGAR	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,302
NANGARHAR	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	258
NIMROZ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	164
NURISTAN										
PAKTIKA	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11,322
PAKTYA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	738
PANJSHER	0	0	0	0	17	0	0	0	0	288
PARWAN	18	0	0	0	5	4	1	1	0	12,426
SAMANGAN	27	0	5	0	36	0	0	0	0	2,508
SAR-I-PUL	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8,502
TAKHAR	12	0	1	0	2	1	0	7	0	13,320
URUZGAN	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6,500
WARDAK	6	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	11,352
ZABUL	26	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,235
National	10	0	0	0	2	1	0	2	0	271,596



Table A 58: Households with access to irrigated land (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	46		46	29,560
BADGHIS	13		13	5,781
BAGHLAN	61	71	62	19,151
BALKH	66	69	67	59,782
BAMYAN	93		93	46,240
DAYKUNDI	91		91	58,092
FARAH	92		92	42,570
FARYAB	37	44	37	26,662
GHAZNI	85		85	98,000
GHOR	79		78	53,394
HILMAND	97		97	132,624
HIRAT	68	62	67	83,674
JAWZJAN	75	66	74	16,327
KABUL	52	50	51	22,338
KANDAHAR	45	100	46	17,757
KAPISA	96		96	31,496
KHOST	64		62	31,305
KUNARHA	88		88	46,368
KUNDUZ	85	84	85	58,972
LAGHMAN	93		93	11,830
LOGAR	84		84	16,383
NANGARHAR	96	100	96	104,389
NIMROZ	97		97	2,624
NURISTAN	97		97	15,420
PAKTIKA	96		96	73,149
PAKTYA	94		94	41,328
PANJSHER	94		94	6,960
PARWAN	62		62	19,038
SAMANGAN	43		43	9,462
SAR-I-PUL	18		17	8,151
TAKHAR	49	47	48	35,011
URUZGAN	70		69	12,333
WARDAK	83		83	53,793
ZABUL	84		85	21,718
National	74	65	74	1,311,682

Note: Kuchi average = 55%.



Table A 59: Management or ownership of irrigated land (%) by province

Province	Owned but not - cultivated/fallow	Owned & cultivate by self	Owned & employ labourers	Share-crop out	Share-crop in	Rent out	Rent in	Mortgaged-out	Mortgaged-in	Owned & used by others for free	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	11	77	5	6	1	1	1	0	0	0	27,145
BADGHIS	0	93	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5,529
BAGHLAN	2	78	4	10	3	1	1	1	0	0	18,008
BALKH	2	74	10	12	2	0	0	0	0	0	57,016
BAMYAN	4	88	0	4	3	1	0	0	0	0	43,112
DAYKUNDI	2	89	1	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	55,414
FARAH	8	75	5	6	5	1	0	1	0	0	40,506
FARYAB	8	75	6	4	4	0	0	0	1	1	24,646
GHAZNI	9	75	2	4	6	1	2	1	1	0	92,125
GHOR	6	79	3	3	4	1	1	2	0	0	51,252
HILMAND	4	80	4	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	129,816
HIRAT	6	72	1	7	12	0	0	0	0	1	80,814
JAWZJAN	15	69	1	11	2	1	1	0	0	1	15,839
KABUL	14	68	1	10	2	1	3	0	0	1	20,935
KANDAHAR	12	47	3	13	24	0	1	0	0	0	17,087
KAPISA	6	88	0	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	30,861
KHOST	3	88	1	4	2	0	0	1	0	0	27,051
KUNARHA	5	69	6	6	5	2	5	1	0	0	45,486
KUNDUZ	6	75	5	9	3	1	1	0	0	0	54,735
LAGHMAN	0	79	0	9	9	0	2	0	0	0	11,180
LOGAR	6	83	1	8	1	0	0	2	0	0	16,002
NANGARHAR	1	76	1	5	15	0	2	0	0	0	100,666
NIMROZ	11	81	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	2,624
NURISTAN	2	84	0	0	10	1	3	0	0	0	14,220
PAKTIKA	20	79	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56,388
PAKTYA	4	91	1	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	41,082
PANJSHER	1	84	4	2	6	1	1	0	0	0	6,720
PARWAN	7	87	3	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	16,986
SAMANGAN	8	77	4	5	4	3	0	0	0	0	8,778
SAR-I-PUL	12	82	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	7,311
TAKHAR	2	77	2	4	4	9	1	0	0	0	32,269
URUZGAN	0	89	4	0	6	1	0	0	0	0	11,958
WARDAK	36	55	2	3	3	0	1	0	0	0	50,310
ZABUL	84	14	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	19,962
National	8	76	3	6	5	1	1	0	0	0	1,233,833



Table A 60: Size of irrigated land (jeribs) by province

Province	Average size of irrigated land ownership/ households			Minimum size of irrigated land ownership/ households			Maximum size of irrigated land ownership/ households			No. weighted observations
	Rural	Urban	Average	Rural	Urban	Minimum	Rural	Urban	Maximum	
BADAKHSHAN	6.1		6.0	1		1	330		330	29,560
BADGHIS	4.0		4.0	1		1	20		20	5,781
BAGHLAN	11.4	16.0	11.5	1	10	1	133	40	133	19,151
BALKH	21.8	26.8	21.9	1	5	1	420	80	420	59,782
BAMYAN	2.6		2.6	1		1	24		24	46,240
DAYKUNDI	3.1		3.1	1		1	20		20	58,092
FARAH	10.5		10.5	1		1	350		350	42,570
FARYAB	11.9	15.4	12.2	1	2	1	513	80	513	26,662
GHAZNI	6.4		6.4	1		1	112		112	98,000
GHOR	5.2		5.2	1		1	95		95	53,394
HILMAND	13.3		13.3	1		1	200		200	132,624
HIRAT	7.1	4.7	7.1	1	1	1	104	28	104	83,674
JAWZJAN	20.4	10.6	19.9	1	1	1	180	60	180	16,449
KABUL	5.0	1.3	4.7	1	2	1	94	5	94	22,338
KANDAHAR	6.7	8.3	6.8	1	2	1	40	20	40	17,757
KAPISA	3.6		3.6	1		1	92		92	31,496
KHOST	6.4		6.4	1		1	400		400	31,305
KUNARHA	2.8		2.8	1		1	15		15	46,368
KUNDUZ	14.5	7.1	13.8	1	1	1	230	64	230	58,972
LAGHMAN	5.7		5.7	1		1	95		95	11,830
LOGAR	5.0		5.0	1		1	100		100	16,383
NANGARHAR	3.0	1.8	3.1	1	2	1	38	4	38	104,389
NIMROZ	4.5		4.5	2		2	15		15	2,624
NURISTAN	1.1		1.1	1		1	7		7	15,420
PAKTIKA	4.8		4.8	1		1	15		15	73,149
PAKTYA	3.6		3.6	1		1	92		92	41,328
PANJSHER	2.5		2.5	1		1	19		19	6,960
PARWAN	3.3		3.3	1		1	100		100	19,038
SAMANGAN	2.8		2.8	1		1	17		17	9,576
SAR-I-PUL	5.2		5.2	1		1	50		50	8,151
TAKHAR	8.9	4.4	8.6	1	2	1	100	25	100	35,011
URUZGAN	4.2		4.2	1		1	43		43	12,333
WARDAK	4.2		4.2	1		1	25		25	53,793
ZABUL	11.5		11.6	2		2	176		176	21,718
National	7.5	9.7	7.5	1	1	1	513	80	513	1,311,918

Note: Kuchi average = 10.5, minimum size = 1, maximum size = 70



Table A 61: Most important crops in irrigated land (%) by province

Province	First crop Production of irrigated land				Second crop production of irrigated land				Third crop Production of irrigation land			
	Wheat	Vegetables	Opium	No. weighted observations	Maize	Barley	Rice	Number of households	Potatoes	Alfalfa/ clover/ other fodder	Melon/Water Melon	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	81	1	2	24,329	21	39	9	22,281	20	0	1	11,674
BADGHIS	72	0	0	4,032	11	0	0	2,268	0	0	50	252
BAGHLAN	66	1	0	17,175	13	43	35	16,581	5	0	3	13,081
BALKH	73	0	20	51,964	13	17	1	46,628	0	0	30	41,673
BAMYAN	84	0	0	36,720	4	44	2	27,880	40	13	0	4,080
DAYKUNDI	98	0	0	52,118	67	22	0	45,320	2	17	0	17,716
FARAH	93	1	3	34,830	3	65	0	22,317	3	25	15	9,417
FARYAB	72	1	4	22,225	9	31	0	20,305	4	1	3	14,826
GHAZNI	94	0	0	81,875	4	35	0	69,625	14	58	0	46,000
GHOR	98	0	1	43,581	48	39	0	28,083	51	7	1	15,861
HILMAND	85	0	10	127,224	69	0	0	125,712	2	3	17	103,680
HIRAT	92	2	0	71,330	13	30	7	58,214	2	5	5	32,482
JAWZJAN	98	1	0	13,422	3	50	0	10,986	0	10	22	10,691
KABUL	87	4	0	16,278	39	6	2	11,478	19	8	0	4,729
KANDAHAR	64	2	10	14,273	13	1	0	10,923	14	20	14	3,955
KAPISA	99	0	0	29,337	93	6	0	29,083	1	3	0	27,432
KHOST	98	0	0	23,622	96	0	2	22,987	0	69	0	14,859
KUNARHA	99	0	0	43,596	73	0	4	43,848	0	66	0	28,728
KUNDUZ	90	1	0	51,892	11	1	57	48,249	1	4	22	29,799
LAGHMAN	99	0	0	11,050	4	0	96	10,920	0	0	0	910
LOGAR	95	1	0	13,970	85	0	0	12,446	23	44	0	8,382
NANGARHAR	92	3	5	95,653	85	0	6	94,012	1	13	0	38,048
NIMROZ	98	0	0	2,091	23	0	0	533	0	33	67	123
NURISTAN	72	0	0	13,740	45	0	0	10,920	0	2	0	8,700
PAKTIKA	99	0	0	66,822	42	57	0	66,822	0	71	0	36,519
PAKTYA	96	0	0	38,499	62	0	8	37,638	38	23	0	25,092
PANJSHER	96	0	0	6,432	78	5	0	6,288	18	0	0	4,560
PARWAN	94	0	0	15,504	71	4	2	12,768	11	0	0	7,524
SAMANGAN	37	2	6	5,814	7	27	0	3,420	19	4	0	3,078
SAR-I-PUL	61	7	0	6,471	23	8	0	5,751	0	18	0	5,391
TAKHAR	81	0	0	27,840	30	13	31	25,612	1	1	14	19,656
URUZGAN	87	0	7	11,708	77	1	0	11,583	0	0	0	8,958
WARDAK	78	0	0	30,831	8	44	3	27,864	28	51	0	20,382
ZABUL	99	0	0	17,130	80	0	0	5,365	5	0	0	2,360
National	89	1	3	1,123,378	44	19	7	994,710	7	20	8	620,618



Table A 62: Access to rainfed land (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	65		64	41,984
BADGHIS	94		94	42,120
BAGHLAN	75	14	74	24,201
BALKH	28	14	26	23,376
BAMYAN	58		58	27,200
DAYKUNDI	8		8	4,532
FARAH	6		6	2,709
FARYAB	81	57	79	59,052
GHAZNI	29		29	33,250
GHOR	68		68	45,285
HILMAND	5		5	6,696
HIRAT	43	28	42	51,850
JAWZJAN	30	38	31	6,838
KABUL	3	4	4	1,625
KANDAHAR	17	0	17	6,432
KAPISA	7		7	2,286
KHOST	41		44	20,984
KUNARHA	31		31	16,254
KUNDUZ	15	0	12	7,424
LAGHMAN	1		1	130
LOGAR	6		6	1,143
NANGARHAR	4	0	3	3,612
NIMROZ	0		0	0
NURISTAN	3		3	540
PAKTIKA	4		4	2,664
PAKTYA	30		30	12,669
PANJSHER	5		5	384
PARWAN	6		6	1,824
SAMANGAN	85		85	21,774
SAR-I-PUL	90		90	43,599
TAKHAR	65	51	65	45,554
URUZGAN	14		15	2,597
WARDAK	18		18	11,223
ZABUL	18		19	4,213
National	33	23	33	576,024

Note: Kuchi average = 38%.



Table A 63: Management or ownership of rainfed land (%) by province

Province	Owned but not - cultivated/fallow	Owned & cultivate by self	Owned & employ labourers	Share-crop out	Share-crop in	Rent out	Rent in	Mortgaged-out	Mortgaged-in	Owned & used by others for free	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	9	70	4	13	2	2	0	1	0	0	41,344
BADGHIS	5	90	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	42,120
BAGHLAN	8	73	7	6	1	2	1	0	1	1	23,566
BALKH	5	72	9	7	6	1	1	1	0	0	22,487
BAMYAN	27	66	1	4	2	0	0	1	0	0	25,568
DAYKUNDI	40	45	5	0	0	0	0	5	0	5	4,120
FARAH	5	65	5	20	5	0	0	0	0	0	2,580
FARYAB	6	77	3	5	7	1	1	0	0	0	58,613
GHAZNI	40	58	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	32,125
GHOR	17	66	5	4	5	1	1	2	0	0	44,781
HILMAND	70	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6,480
HIRAT	12	68	1	2	15	1	0	0	0	1	50,030
JAWZJAN	20	54	8	12	2	0	3	2	0	0	6,472
KABUL	77	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,625
KANDAHAR	31	60	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	4	6,432
KAPISA	50	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,286
KHOST	12	83	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	1	19,587
KUNARHA	30	49	1	2	2	11	2	3	0	0	15,498
KUNDUZ	10	66	0	8	2	14	0	0	0	0	6,400
LAGHMAN	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	130
LOGAR	78	11	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,143
NANGARHAR	52	41	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	3,483
NIMROZ											
NURISTAN	22	78	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	540
PAKTIKA	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,331
PAKTYA	3	91	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	12,177
PANJSHER	0	86	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	336
PARWAN	67	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,710
SAMANGAN	9	76	1	7	2	1	3	0	1	1	20,862
SAR-I-PUL	9	84	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	41,079
TAKHAR	8	56	5	18	7	4	0	3	0	0	43,734
URUZGAN	0	95	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	2,597
WARDAK	57	37	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	9,675
ZABUL	53	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3,519
National	16	69	3	6	4	1	1	1	0	0	555,430



Table A 64: Size of rainfed land (jeribs) by province

Province	Average size / households			Minimum size / households			Maximum size / households			No. weighted observations
	Rural	Urban	Average	Rural	Urban	Minimum	Rural	Urban	Maximum	
BADAKHSHAN	10		10	1		1	150		150	41,984
BADGHIS	11		11	1		1	168		168	42,120
BAGHLAN	39	0	38	1		1	440		440	24,201
BALKH	14	22	14	2	7	2	90	80	90	23,376
BAMYAN	4		4	1		1	25		25	27,200
DAIKINDI	2		2	1		1	10		10	4,532
FARAH	4		4	1		1	12		12	2,709
FARYAB	14	13	14	2	2	2	513	60	513	59,052
GHAZNI	4		4	1		1	25		25	33,250
GHOR	7		7	1		1	110		110	45,285
HILMAND	10		10	2		2	39		39	6,696
HIRAT	22	15	22	1	4	1	130	70	130	51,850
JAWZJAN	16	38	19	2	1	1	100	100	100	6,838
KABUL	6	19	8	1	19	1	15	19	19	1,625
KANDAHAR	7		7	2		2	30		30	6,432
KAPISA	4		4	1		1	20		20	2,286
KHOST	6		6	1		1	28		28	20,984
KUNARHA	2		2	1		1	15		15	16,254
KUNDUZ	26		26	5		5	170		170	7,424
LAGHMAN	5		5	5		5	5		5	130
LOGAR	4		4	9		9	20		20	1,143
NANGARHAR	4		4	1		1	25		25	3,612
NIMROZ										
NURISTAN	1		1	1		1	1		1	540
PAKTIKA	10		10	10		10	12		12	2,664
PAKTYA	5		5	1		1	26		26	12,669
PANJSHER	2		2	2		2	4		4	384
PARWAN	3		3	1		1	9		9	1,824
SAMANGAN	13		13	1		1	250		250	21,774
SAR-I-POUL	20		20	2		2	199		199	43,599
TAKHAR	19	32	20	1	4	1	200	150	200	45,554
URUZGAN	5		5	1		1	10		10	2,597
WARDAK	9		9	1		1	70		70	11,223
ZABUL	9		9	3		3	20		20	4,213
National	13	20	13	1	1	1	513	150	513	576,024

Note: Kuchi average = 10, minimum = 1, maximum = 40)



Table A 65: Most important crops in rainfed land (%) by province

Province	First main crop(s) from rainfed land				Second main crop(s) from rainfed land				Third main crop(s) from rainfed land			
	Wheat	Barley	Rapeseeds	No. weighted observations	Maize	Barley	Flax	No. weighted observations	Barley	Flax	Melon / Water Melon	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	86	7	0	36,608	17	51	4	26,752	33	21	9	12,416
BADGHIS	99	0	1	34,998	66	4	0	24,288	0	0	19	5,292
BAGHLAN	40	2	57	20,391	4	60	22	18,669	23	65	6	15,748
BALKH	98	0	0	20,072	5	44	16	11,813	10	33	42	7,620
BAMYAN	95	4	0	17,816	0	97	0	4,216				
DAYKUNDI	100	0	0	1,854	33	17	0	1,236	0	0	0	412
FARAH	100	0	0	2,064	20	0	0	645	0	0	0	258
FARYAB	97	0	1	50,453	5	57	15	40,637	3	13	5	14,935
GHAZNI	100	0	0	18,750	20	60	0	625	0	0	0	125
GHOR	99	0	0	30,195	58	30	0	7,152	17	0	0	2,268
HILMAND												
HIRAT	96	1	0	43,148	2	73	0	39,510	21	0	8	31,582
JAWZJAN	97	3	0	4,587	10	65	0	4,292	4	4	22	3,261
KABUL	100	0	0	133	100	0	0	133				
KANDAHAR	96	0	0	3,752	0	0	0	536	0	0	50	268
KAPISA	100	0	0	1,143								
KHOST	99	0	0	15,492	50	0	0	1,016	0	0	0	381
KUNARHA	98	0	0	11,592	43	36	0	1,764	0	0	0	882
KUNDUZ	98	0	0	5,120	3	0	45	3,712	0	20	40	640
LAGHMAN	100	0	0	130	0	0	0	130	0	0	0	130
LOGAR	100	0	0	127	100	0	0	127				
NANGARHAR	100	0	0	1,419								
NIMROZ												
NURISTAN	33	0	0	360	20	0	0	300				
PAKTIKA	100	0	0	666	0	100	0	666	0	0	0	666
PAKTYA	100	0	0	11,070	0	0	0	738	0	0	0	738
PANJSHER	100	0	0	48								
PARWAN	100	0	0	342								
SAMANGAN	94	0	0	13,110	49	41	4	8,322	12	59	0	1,938
SAR-I-PUL	97	0	0	37,008	11	69	9	22,737	24	61	1	9,960
TAKHAR	93	2	0	38,972	11	47	32	32,481	18	60	11	22,046
URUZGAN	81	0	0	1,986	0	0	21	1,750	0	0	0	1,250
WARDAK	94	0	6	2,193	33	0	0	387	0	0	0	129
ZABUL	100	0	0	826	0	0	0	236	0	0	0	118
National	93	1	3	426,425	17	50	11	254,870	17	28	10	133,063



Table A 66: Households (%) owning different types of livestock and poultry by province

Province	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations	%
BADAKSHAN	100	74		108,769	75
BADGHIS	99	83		84,201	85
BAGHLAN	64	70	18	75,533	60
BALKH	89	63	12	88,798	46
BAMYAN	0	93		52,360	93
DAYKUNDI	0	75		63,448	75
FARAH	91	67		66,288	70
FARYAB	98	76	41	111,335	74
GHAZNI	88	76		138,228	77
GHOR	94	67		84,132	69
HILMAND	97	76		158,097	76
HIRAT	95	56	10	143,776	46
JAWZJAN	98	55	15	37,260	49
KABUL	85	47	4	62,878	15
KANDAHAR	91	55	1	71,337	39
KAPISA	92	78		41,734	79
KHOST	100	85		78,737	86
KUNARHA	0	94		63,000	94
KUNDUZ	78	74	44	78,998	68
LAGHMAN	0	83		50,050	83
LOGAR	85	69		44,768	73
NANGARHAR	91	86	23	172,798	77
NIMROZ	92	45		8,756	53
NURISTAN	0	99		19,680	99
PAKTIKA	93	88		106,560	89
PAKTYA	100	92		68,223	92
PANJSHER	100	73		14,490	76
PARWAN	81	55		42,462	58
SAMANGAN	100	55		27,552	56
SAR-I-PUL	70	84		62,976	84
TAKHAR	69	74	34	100,568	69
URUZGAN	83	76		37,705	77
WARDAK	94	88		81,408	89
ZABUL	94	61		34,731	64
National	89	73	10	2,481,636	64

Note: Provincial figures for Kuchi are only indicative and have no statistical significance.



Table A 67: Households (%) owning livestock and poultry by province

Province	Kuchi		Rural		Urban		Cattle		Oxen	
	Cattle	Oxen	Cattle	Oxen	Cattle	Oxen	No. weighted observations	%	No. weighted observations	%
BADAKHSHAN	100	21	68	27	0	0	100,193	69	38,870	27
BADGHIS	6	3	31	26	0	0	27,378	28	23,013	23
BAGHLAN	61	3	56	23	13	1	61,475	48	21,827	17
BALKH	86	46	56	21	8	2	78,235	40	28,722	15
BAMYAN	0	0	55	36	0	0	31,144	55	20,264	36
DAIKINDI	0	0	46	28	0	0	38,728	46	23,896	28
FARAH	54	5	43	9	0	0	42,537	45	8,295	9
FARYAB	58	14	47	29	31	15	69,845	47	39,085	26
GHAZNI	28	0	57	10	0	0	99,178	55	17,375	10
GHOR	36	2	31	29	0	0	38,862	32	32,604	27
HILMAND	6	0	57	6	0	0	116,430	56	11,880	6
HIRAT	18	0	29	17	4	1	71,387	23	39,244	12
JAWZJAN	47	8	33	8	11	1	22,009	29	4,695	6
KABUL	55	0	39	1	0	0	40,716	10	1,415	0
KANDAHAR	15	0	29	8	1	1	36,647	20	10,364	6
KAPISA	67	0	68	32	0	0	35,940	68	16,510	31
KHOST	96	0	80	6	0	0	74,054	81	5,207	6
KUNARHA	0	0	88	50	0	0	59,472	88	33,894	50
KUNDUZ	33	14	61	32	40	7	64,290	55	30,462	26
LAGHMAN	0	0	82	13	0	0	49,270	82	7,800	13
LOGAR	42	1	62	6	0	0	34,727	57	2,778	5
NANGARHAR	81	6	72	4	0	0	139,999	62	8,535	4
NIMROZ	0	0	13	0	0	0	1,845	11	0	0
NURISTAN	0	0	93	15	0	0	18,480	93	3,000	15
PAKTIKA	80	16	84	31	0	0	101,232	84	36,741	31
PAKTYA	25	33	64	19	0	0	46,299	63	14,295	19
PANJSHER	82	0	55	21	0	0	11,166	59	3,552	19
PARWAN	72	3	36	18	0	0	29,484	40	11,850	16
SAMANGAN	92	75	38	16	0	0	19,461	40	8,637	18
SAR-I-POUL	43	35	50	39	0	0	37,830	50	29,088	39
TAKHAR	47	19	47	28	26	2	64,641	44	35,857	25
URUZGAN	56	33	72	41	0	0	34,595	71	19,707	40
WARDAK	35	4	51	14	0	0	45,492	50	11,943	13
ZABUL	50	2	41	5	0	0	22,606	42	2,471	5
National	48	8	53	19	5	1	1,765,647	45	603,876	15



Table A 68: Households (%) owning livestock and poultry by province, continued

Province	Kuchi		Rural		Urban		Horses		Donkeys	
	Horses	Donkey	Horses	Donkey	Horses	Donkey	No. Weighted observations	%	No. Weighted observations	%
BADAKHSHAN	0	94	9	63	0	0	12,288	8	93,588	64
BADGHIS	2	78	3	71	0	0	2,490	3	71,190	72
BAGHLAN	15	60	8	50	0	7	8,531	7	54,285	43
BALKH	49	63	11	41	1	4	15,867	8	56,328	29
BAMYAN	0	0	5	79	0	0	2,584	5	44,744	79
DAIKINDI	0	0	1	40	0	0	618	1	34,196	40
FARAH	4	66	0	26	0	0	573	1	29,181	31
FARYAB	28	96	10	70	2	16	16,511	11	99,587	66
GHAZNI	2	59	1	38	0	0	1,722	1	69,939	39
GHOR	51	84	4	59	0	0	9,198	8	74,550	61
HILMAND	0	88	2	21	0	0	3,888	2	44,796	22
HIRAT	7	65	1	38	0	2	3,115	1	94,090	30
JAWZJAN	15	92	5	33	1	2	3,675	5	23,051	30
KABUL	0	45	0	10	0	0	919	0	14,851	4
KANDAHAR	15	76	1	18	0	0	1,627	1	24,349	13
KAPISA	0	75	1	16	0	0	508	1	9,127	17
KHOST	0	33	1	41	0	0	1,016	1	37,591	41
KUNARHA	0	0	1	34	0	0	630	1	23,058	34
KUNDUZ	14	56	15	37	6	9	14,802	13	36,854	32
LAGHMAN	0	0	0	12	0	0	130	0	7,020	12
LOGAR	8	60	0	24	0	0	1,348	2	20,468	33
NANGARHAR	23	40	1	22	0	0	4,911	2	44,226	20
NIMROZ	0	54	0	10	0	0	0	0	2,878	17
NURISTAN	0	0	7	88	0	0	1,320	7	17,580	88
PAKTIKA	7	71	1	49	0	0	1,665	1	59,829	50
PAKTYA	8	100	7	40	0	0	4,896	7	31,446	42
PANJSHER	18	82	1	21	0	0	636	3	5,502	29
PARWAN	4	53	2	19	0	0	1,359	2	16,416	22
SAMANGAN	8	92	5	48	0	0	2,505	5	23,907	49
SAR-I-POUL	17	70	11	74	0	0	8,364	11	55,416	74
TAKHAR	31	47	6	60	1	14	9,906	7	78,149	54
URUZGAN	17	44	10	36	0	0	5,166	11	18,151	37
WARDAK	6	78	0	35	0	0	702	1	35,037	38
ZABUL	31	83	5	31	0	0	4,261	8	19,780	37
National	13	67	4	40	1	2	147,731	4	1,371,160	35



Table A 69: Households (%) owning livestock and poultry by province, continued

Province	Kuchi		Rural		Urban		Camels		Goats	
	Camel	Goats	Camel	Goats	Camels	Goats	No. Weighted observations	%	No. Weighted observations	%
BADAKHSHAN	0	100	2	47	0	0	2,688	2	70,881	49
BADGHIS	52	98	3	65	0	0	9,114	9	68,466	69
BAGHLAN	1	54	1	40	0	2	1,254	1	42,601	34
BALKH	23	71	4	31	1	4	6,613	3	43,072	22
BAMYAN	0	0	1	36	0	0	408	1	20,128	36
DAIKINDI	0	0	4	50	0	0	3,708	4	42,024	50
FARAH	56	83	2	42	0	0	7,284	8	44,484	47
FARYAB	76	92	8	51	1	22	18,645	12	77,392	52
GHAZNI	64	61	0	45	0	0	6,383	4	82,661	46
GHOR	67	90	1	39	0	0	7,350	6	52,551	43
HILMAND	31	97	0	45	0	0	1,326	1	93,945	45
HIRAT	37	85	2	30	0	3	8,825	3	79,679	25
JAWZJAN	53	77	9	24	0	3	7,944	10	17,774	23
KABUL	12	34	0	7	0	0	2,268	1	11,442	3
KANDAHAR	48	73	1	27	0	1	3,384	2	36,501	20
KAPISA	42	42	0	23	0	0	555	1	12,620	24
KHOST	17	42	9	35	0	0	8,699	9	32,606	35
KUNARHA	0	0	1	63	0	0	378	1	42,714	63
KUNDUZ	8	61	3	18	1	5	3,299	3	19,514	17
LAGHMAN	0	0	0	37	0	0	130	0	22,230	37
LOGAR	51	57	0	15	0	0	8,103	13	15,833	26
NANGARHAR	23	31	1	26	0	0	3,363	1	50,562	23
NIMROZ	63	71	1	27	0	0	1,870	11	5,700	34
NURISTAN	0	0	1	93	0	0	240	1	18,540	93
PAKTIKA	62	71	1	45	0	0	4,440	4	55,167	46
PAKTYA	58	13	6	41	0	0	6,105	8	29,238	40
PANJSHER	77	68	0	48	0	0	1,935	10	9,681	51
PARWAN	44	56	1	22	0	0	4,008	5	19,146	26
SAMANGAN	100	100	0	28	0	0	1,446	3	14,670	30
SAR-I-POUL	43	65	5	48	0	0	4,470	6	36,585	49
TAKHAR	17	34	2	29	1	6	3,578	2	39,216	27
URUZGAN	39	56	3	45	0	0	2,804	6	22,595	46
WARDAK	21	94	2	65	0	0	3,102	3	62,058	68
ZABUL	83	88	6	40	0	0	7,508	14	24,250	45
National	42	68	2	38	0	2	153,227	4	1,316,526	34



Table A 70: Households (%) owning livestock and poultry by province, continued

Province	Kuchi		Rural		Urban		Sheep		Poultry	
	Sheep	Poultry	Sheep	Poultry	Sheep	Poultry	No. Weighted observations	%	No. Weighted observations	%
BADAKHSHAN	100	72	50	41	0	0	74,977	52	61,118	42
BADGHIS	95	63	50	55	0	0	55,281	56	55,554	56
BAGHLAN	64	22	43	48	9	7	47,947	38	49,383	39
BALKH	83	63	33	35	4	8	46,957	24	51,167	26
BAMYAN	0	0	42	52	0	0	23,664	42	29,240	52
DAIKINDI	0	0	42	39	0	0	36,050	42	32,960	39
FARAH	75	42	31	42	0	0	34,437	36	40,044	42
FARYAB	92	68	46	34	32	18	72,102	48	52,594	35
GHAZNI	86	53	60	55	0	0	110,256	61	98,509	55
GHOR	84	14	30	43	0	0	41,790	34	49,968	41
HILMAND	94	91	57	71	0	0	119,106	58	147,075	71
HIRAT	81	25	24	24	3	6	63,897	20	61,224	19
JAWZJAN	77	47	17	25	6	8	15,070	20	17,149	22
KABUL	55	55	14	30	0	3	20,626	5	43,164	11
KANDAHAR	76	73	35	51	1	1	45,969	25	65,958	36
KAPISA	42	83	28	72	0	0	15,287	29	38,575	73
KHOST	29	100	16	82	0	0	15,128	16	75,943	83
KUNARHA	0	0	51	92	0	0	34,272	51	62,118	92
KUNDUZ	67	39	48	56	24	33	50,233	43	58,978	51
LAGHMAN	0	0	6	66	0	0	3,510	6	39,650	66
LOGAR	79	52	30	51	0	0	26,370	43	31,439	51
NANGARHAR	42	82	9	75	0	22	21,064	9	151,839	68
NIMROZ	71	88	19	36	0	0	4,593	28	7,333	44
NURISTAN	0	0	8	98	0	0	1,560	8	19,500	98
PAKTIKA	89	80	74	72	0	0	89,355	74	86,580	72
PAKTYA	100	100	69	89	0	0	51,618	70	66,132	89
PANJSHER	95	95	27	39	0	0	6,795	36	8,763	46
PARWAN	76	53	34	40	0	0	28,107	38	30,438	41
SAMANGAN	100	58	24	25	0	0	12,618	26	12,633	26
SAR-I-POUL	65	30	37	38	0	0	28,545	38	28,497	38
TAKHAR	52	22	22	29	8	12	30,930	21	38,747	27
URUZGAN	67	64	60	65	0	0	29,539	60	31,928	65
WARDAK	90	32	61	80	0	0	57,855	63	69,780	76
ZABUL	90	54	43	25	0	0	25,895	48	14,922	28
National	76	54	38	52	3	7	1,341,403	34	1,728,902	44



Table A 71: Livestock and poultry ownership (*10,000) by province

Province	Cattle				Oxen/yak			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	32,412	185,600	.	218,012	1,221	65,152	.	66,373
BADGHIS	666	34,146	.	34,812	555	33,138	.	33,693
BAGHLAN	11,766	110,998	5,751	128,515	555	33,147	213	33,915
BALKH	15,318	171,097	13,932	200,347	4,551	51,816	3,096	59,463
BAMYAN	.	37,944	.	37,944	.	23,120	.	23,120
DAYKUNDI	.	62,830	.	62,830	.	24,926	.	24,926
FARAH	15,429	62,178	.	77,607	888	9,288	.	10,176
FARYAB	16,428	85,235	10,976	112,639	2,553	57,656	5,292	65,501
GHAZNI	4,995	217,875	.	222,870	0	21,875	.	21,875
GHOR	5,550	43,218	.	48,768	222	40,194	.	40,416
HILMAND	222	219,456	.	219,678	0	17,064	.	17,064
HIRAT	4,440	95,680	4,480	104,600	0	56,550	1,152	57,702
JAWZJAN	9,768	33,672	3,304	46,744	888	6,222	295	7,405
KABUL	19,536	54,610	1,596	75,742	0	1,524	665	2,189
KANDAHAR	1,665	47,436	471	49,572	0	14,204	314	14,518
KAPISA	2,442	68,072	.	70,514	0	18,923	.	18,923
KHOST	10,767	216,535	.	227,302	0	9,017	.	9,017
KUNARHA	.	163,800	.	163,800	.	60,732	.	60,732
KUNDUZ	2,997	119,680	15,600	138,277	999	47,104	3,375	51,478
LAGHMAN	.	112,710	.	112,710	.	10,920	.	10,920
LOGAR	15,318	61,595	.	76,913	222	4,572	.	4,794
NANGARHAR	22,755	264,837	94	287,686	1,221	12,126	0	13,347
NIMROZ	0	4,059	.	4,059	0	0	.	0
NURISTAN	.	37,620	.	37,620	.	4,380	.	4,380
PAKTIKA	6,993	161,838	.	168,831	1,110	50,949	.	52,059
PAKTYA	777	87,945	.	88,722	888	16,359	.	17,247
PANJSHER	2,553	12,912	.	15,465	0	4,176	.	4,176
PARWAN	13,986	31,920	.	45,906	666	15,504	.	16,170
SAMANGAN	2,886	32,718	.	35,604	1,665	12,198	.	13,863
SAR-I-PUL	1,998	52,680	.	54,678	1,665	45,600	.	47,265
TAKHAR	5,550	96,288	5,928	107,766	1,998	59,160	832	61,990
URUZGAN	6,660	99,000	.	105,660	2,664	38,625	.	41,289
WARDAK	8,547	58,308	.	66,855	333	14,706	.	15,039
ZABUL	4,662	28,792	.	33,454	111	3,540	.	3,651
National	247,086	3,173,284	62,132	3,482,502	24,975	884,467	15234	924,676

Note: Provincial figures for Kuchi are only indicative and have no statistical significance.



Table A 72: Livestock and poultry ownership (*10,000) by province, continued

Province	Horses				Donkeys			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	0	13,952	.	13,952	9,990	137,472	.	147,462
BADGHIS	222	3,276	.	3,498	17,760	100,800	.	118,560
BAGHLAN	1,776	12,827	71	14,674	12,099	65,532	2,414	80,045
BALKH	3,774	19,304	903	23,981	6,771	75,188	3,483	85,442
BAMYAN	.	3,400	.	3,400	.	52,632	.	52,632
DAYKUNDI	.	618	.	618	.	38,728	.	38,728
FARAH	555	129	.	684	14,430	28,767	.	43,197
FARYAB	6,216	16,348	441	23,005	24,864	124,056	33,173	182,093
GHAZNI	222	2,750	.	2,972	17,094	79,625	.	96,719
GHOR	4,995	4,662	.	9,657	16,095	84,420	.	100,515
HILMAND	0	8,856	.	8,856	9,879	47,736	.	57,615
HIRAT	888	3,510	128	4,526	12,654	122,850	1,536	137,040
JAWZJAN	999	5,124	354	6,477	10,878	22,814	531	34,223
KABUL	0	1,016	2,527	3,543	15,429	8,636	0	24,065
KANDAHAR	888	2,814	0	3,702	8,325	24,254	0	32,579
KAPISA	0	1,270	.	1,270	1,554	10,033	.	11,587
KHOST	0	7,112	.	7,112	1,221	63,246	.	64,467
KUNARHA	.	6,174	.	6,174	.	38,682	.	38,682
KUNDUZ	666	15,744	2,625	19,035	3,663	42,752	2,475	48,890
LAGHMAN	.	1,300	.	1,300	.	9,880	.	9,880
LOGAR	9,324	889	.	10,213	39,960	14,351	.	54,311
NANGARHAR	5,550	21,930	0	27,480	83,250	60,243	0	143,493
NIMROZ	0	0	.	0	4,107	1,968	.	6,075
NURISTAN	.	1,620	.	1,620	.	18,240	.	18,240
PAKTIKA	888	6,660	.	7,548	11,100	68,598	.	79,698
PAKTYA	1,221	12,792	.	14,013	3,552	30,258	.	33,810
PANJSHER	444	432	.	876	3,108	3,696	.	6,804
PARWAN	333	3,192	.	3,525	10,434	13,794	.	24,228
SAMANGAN	111	15,960	.	16,071	7,326	44,916	.	52,242
SAR-I-PUL	444	8,520	.	8,964	3,108	78,360	.	81,468
TAKHAR	2,997	15,096	624	18,717	6,771	115,464	3,276	125,511
URUZGAN	1,221	13,125	.	14,346	3,219	24,250	.	27,469
WARDAK	444	1,806	.	2,250	12,543	34,830	.	47,373
ZABUL	10,323	5,428	.	15,751	43,623	26,904	.	70,527
National	54,501	237,636	7,673	299,810	414,807	1,713,975	46,888	2,175,670

Note: Provincial figures for Kuchi are only indicative and have no statistical significance.



Table A 73: Livestock and poultry ownership (*10,000) by province, continued

Province	Camels				Goats			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	0	3,584	.	3,584	129,315	962,688	.	1,092,003
BADGHIS	13,431	3,780	.	17,211	183,705	682,668	.	866,373
BAGHLAN	111	1,905	0	2,016	199,911	391,160	1,775	592,846
BALKH	3,108	9,906	1,419	14,433	88,467	626,118	58,308	772,893
BAMYAN	.	544	.	544	.	76,160	.	76,160
DAYKUNDI	.	4,326	.	4,326	.	197,142	.	197,142
FARAH	19,758	1,935	.	21,693	338,661	419,895	.	758,556
FARYAB	25,974	18,217	294	44,485	569,097	1,284,190	46,844	1,900,131
GHAZNI	26,862	875	.	27,737	185,592	354,125	.	539,717
GHOR	17,094	1,386	.	18,480	352,647	254,646	.	607,293
HILMAND	5,550	216	.	5,766	133,866	943,488	.	1,077,354
HIRAT	11,322	6,500	0	17,822	319,680	855,790	20,608	1,196,078
JAWZJAN	13,653	8,540	0	22,193	79,143	198,372	10,266	287,781
KABUL	5,217	381	0	5,598	51,171	31,877	1,064	84,112
KANDAHAR	6,105	3,082	0	9,187	30,969	119,394	5,181	155,544
KAPISA	666	0	.	666	9,546	37,211	.	46,757
KHOST	777	10,160	.	10,937	15,429	755,650	.	771,079
KUNARHA	.	630	.	630	.	524,034	.	524,034
KUNDUZ	888	4,608	150	5,646	21,867	109,568	5,400	136,835
LAGHMAN	.	130	.	130	.	378,820	.	378,820
LOGAR	33,078	0	.	33,078	444,444	29,972	.	474,416
NANGARHAR	9,213	1,677	0	10,890	452,214	348,429	0	800,643
NIMROZ	7,659	287	.	7,946	45,510	30,545	.	76,055
NURISTAN	.	360	.	360	.	311,520	.	311,520
PAKTIKA	12,099	2,331	.	14,430	107,670	513,153	.	620,823
PAKTYA	6,660	5,535	.	12,195	2,331	189,543	.	191,874
PANJSHER	2,997	48	.	3,045	39,738	62,256	.	101,994
PARWAN	12,654	570	.	13,224	102,231	42,522	.	144,753
SAMANGAN	7,104	342	.	7,446	142,968	183,654	.	326,622
SAR-I-PUL	2,109	6,000	.	8,109	17,982	381,600	.	399,582
TAKHAR	3,885	3,808	260	7,953	56,943	306,272	5,356	368,571
URUZGAN	3,885	2,750	.	6,635	23,643	157,750	.	181,393
WARDAK	6,438	2,064	.	8,502	210,123	255,033	.	465,156
ZABUL	23,976	5,900	.	29,876	104,562	141,482	.	246,044
National	282,273	112,377	2,123	396,773	4,459,425	12,156,727	154,802	16,770,954

Note: Provincial figures for Kuchi are only indicative and have no statistical significance.



Table A 74: Livestock and poultry ownership (*10,000) by province, continued

Province	Sheep				Poultry			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	155,511	1080,192	.	1,235,703	28,971	380,288	.	409,259
BADGHIS	98,457	372,204	.	470,661	39,072	233,730	.	272,802
BAGHLAN	631,590	346,456	12,141	990,187	19,980	548,513	9,088	577,581
BALKH	175,491	899,458	76,368	1,151,317	47,286	495,584	41,796	584,666
BAMYAN	.	210,800	.	210,800	.	119,816	.	119,816
DAYKUNDI	.	187,048	.	187,048	.	138,432	.	138,432
FARAH	520,923	274,512	.	795,435	38,517	313,470	.	351,987
FARYAB	1,015,761	1,701,110	134,701	2,851,572	77,811	368,211	52,087	498,109
GHAZNI	1,148,739	705,625	.	1,854,364	28,860	751,625	.	780,485
GHOR	265,512	225,666	.	491,178	6,993	225,036	.	232,029
HILMAND	110,445	1,114,344	.	1,224,789	29,637	1,793,232	.	1,822,869
HIRAT	272,172	748,670	14,336	1,035,178	15,429	317,850	20,480	353,759
JAWZJAN	259,629	131,516	16,638	407,783	38,295	100,040	10,266	148,601
KABUL	264,846	65,278	1,463	331,587	66,156	180,975	80,465	327,596
KANDAHAR	47,064	175,138	5,338	227,540	19,536	445,952	3,454	468,942
KAPISA	7,992	38,227	.	46,219	5,106	232,791	.	237,897
KHOST	25,863	166,624	.	192,487	30,192	1,340,358	.	1,370,550
KUNARHA	.	184,968	.	184,968	.	760,410	.	760,410
KUNDUZ	119,547	631,168	23,625	774,340	12,654	500,608	82,950	596,212
LAGHMAN	.	36,010	.	36,010	.	431,210	.	431,210
LOGAR	854,034	53,848	.	907,882	88,356	161,798	.	250,154
NANGARHAR	436,452	205,497	752	642,701	89,355	1,471,374	61,758	1,622,487
NIMROZ	33,855	18,573	.	52,428	13,875	33,825	.	47,700
NURISTAN	.	10,740	.	10,740	.	138,120	.	138,120
PAKTIKA	95,349	510,156	.	605,505	26,307	499,167	.	525,474
PAKTYA	68,043	363,465	.	431,508	23,643	821,763	.	845,406
PANJSHER	90,798	19,056	.	109,854	20,424	41,184	.	61,608
PARWAN	238,650	61,218	.	299,868	32,523	167,808	.	200,331
SAMANGAN	101,121	356,706	.	457,827	6,549	54,264	.	60,813
SAR-I-PUL	41,625	441,720	.	483,345	6,105	147,000	.	153,105
TAKHAR	247,086	453,288	22,464	722,838	14,763	355,232	16,692	386,687
URUZGAN	37,629	277,625	.	315,254	23,865	312,125	.	335,990
WARDAK	259,629	343,914	.	603,543	28,638	468,528	.	497,166
ZABUL	232,878	188,564	.	421,442	24,087	132,278	.	156,365
National	7,856,691	12,599,384	307,826	20,763,901	902,985	14,482,597	379,036	15,764,618

Note: Provincial figures for Kuchi are only indicative and have no statistical significance.



Table A 75: Average herd or flock size (No.) by province

Province	Cattle				Oxen			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average
BADAKHSHAN	6.2	2.0	.	2.2	1.1	1.7	.	1.7
BADGHIS	1.0	1.3	.	1.3	1.7	1.5	.	1.5
BAGHLAN	2.4	2.1	1.8	2.1	2.5	1.5	1.5	1.6
BALKH	4.6	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.0	2.2	2.1
BAMYAN	.	1.2	.	1.2	.	1.1	.	1.1
DAYKUNDI	.	1.6	.	1.6	.	1.0	.	1.0
FARAH	2.7	1.7	.	1.8	1.6	1.2	.	1.2
FARYAB	2.4	1.5	2.3	1.6	1.5	1.6	2.3	1.7
GHAZNI	2.0	2.3	.	2.2	.	1.3	.	1.3
GHOR	1.7	1.2	.	1.3	1.0	1.2	.	1.2
HILMAND	1.0	1.9	.	1.9	.	1.4	.	1.4
HIRAT	2.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	.	1.5	1.1	1.5
JAWZJAN	3.1	2.0	1.6	2.1	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.6
KABUL	2.3	1.8	1.3	1.9	.	1.5	1.7	1.5
KANDAHAR	3.0	1.3	1.5	1.4	.	1.4	1.0	1.4
KAPISA	2.8	1.9	.	2.0	.	1.1	.	1.1
KHOST	4.2	3.0	.	3.1	.	1.7	.	1.7
KUNARHA	.	2.8	.	2.8	.	1.8	.	1.8
KUNDUZ	2.3	2.3	1.5	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.7
LAGHMAN	.	2.3	.	2.3	.	1.4	.	1.4
LOGAR	2.3	2.2	.	2.2	2.0	1.7	.	1.7
NANGARHAR	2.7	2.0	1.0	2.1	1.8	1.5	.	1.6
NIMROZ	.	2.2	.	2.2
NURISTAN	.	2.0	.	2.0	.	1.5	.	1.5
PAKTIKA	1.8	1.7	.	1.7	1.4	1.4	.	1.4
PAKTYA	1.2	1.9	.	1.9	1.0	1.2	.	1.2
PANJSHER	1.3	1.4	.	1.4	.	1.2	.	1.2
PARWAN	2.4	1.3	.	1.6	3.0	1.3	.	1.4
SAMANGAN	2.4	1.8	.	1.8	1.7	1.6	.	1.6
SAR-I-PUL	1.8	1.4	.	1.4	1.9	1.6	.	1.6
TAKHAR	1.9	1.7	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.3	1.7
URUZGAN	3.0	3.1	.	3.1	2.0	2.1	.	2.1
WARDAK	3.2	1.4	.	1.5	1.0	1.3	.	1.3
ZABUL	1.8	1.4	.	1.5	1.0	1.5	.	1.5
National	2.7	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.5



Table A 76: Average herd or flock size (No.) by province, continued

Province	Horses				Donkey			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average
BADAKHSHAN	.	1.1	.	1.1	2.0	1.5	.	1.6
BADGHIS	1.0	1.4	.	1.4	1.9	1.6	.	1.7
BAGHLAN	1.5	1.8	1.0	1.7	2.5	1.4	1.5	1.5
BALKH	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.5	2.8	1.5	1.5	1.5
BAMYAN	.	1.3	.	1.3	.	1.2	.	1.2
DAYKUNDI	.	1.0	.	1.0	.	1.1	.	1.1
FARAH	1.3	1.0	.	1.2	2.1	1.3	.	1.5
FARYAB	1.9	1.3	1.1	1.4	2.2	1.4	13.0	1.8
GHAZNI	1.0	1.8	.	1.7	3.1	1.2	.	1.4
GHOR	1.1	1.0	.	1.0	2.1	1.3	.	1.3
HILMAND	.	2.3	.	2.3	3.2	1.1	.	1.3
HIRAT	1.1	1.6	1.0	1.5	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.5
JAWZJAN	1.0	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.5
KABUL	.	4.0	3.8	3.9	2.2	1.1	.	1.6
KANDAHAR	1.6	2.6	.	2.3	3.0	1.1	.	1.3
KAPISA	.	2.5	.	2.5	1.6	1.2	.	1.3
KHOST	.	7.0	.	7.0	1.4	1.7	.	1.7
KUNARHA	.	9.8	.	9.8	.	1.7	.	1.7
KUNDUZ	1.2	1.2	1.7	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.1	1.3
LAGHMAN	.	10.0	.	10.0	.	1.4	.	1.4
LOGAR	7.6	7.0	.	7.6	4.2	1.3	.	2.7
NANGARHAR	2.4	8.5	.	5.6	20.3	1.5	.	3.2
NIMROZ					2.8	1.4	.	2.1
NURISTAN	.	1.2	.	1.2	.	1.0	.	1.0
PAKTIKA	2.7	5.0	.	4.5	3.1	1.2	.	1.3
PAKTYA	5.5	2.7	.	2.9	1.3	1.1	.	1.1
PANJSHER	1.0	2.3	.	1.4	1.6	1.1	.	1.2
PARWAN	1.0	3.1	.	2.6	2.5	1.1	.	1.5
SAMANGAN	1.0	6.7	.	6.4	6.0	2.0	.	2.2
SAR-I-PUL	1.0	1.1	.	1.1	1.8	1.5	.	1.5
TAKHAR	1.5	1.9	4.0	1.9	2.3	1.6	1.4	1.6
URUZGAN	1.8	2.9	.	2.8	1.8	1.5	.	1.5
WARDAK	1.0	7.0	.	3.2	2.1	1.2	.	1.4
ZABUL	6.2	2.1	.	3.7	9.8	1.8	.	3.6
National	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0	3.2	1.4	3.6	1.6



Table A 77: Average herd or flock size (No.) by province, continued

Province	Camel				Goat			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average
BADAKHSHAN	.	1.3	.	1.3	24.8	14.7	.	15.4
BADGHIS	2.2	1.3	.	1.9	15.6	12.0	.	12.7
BAGHLAN	1.0	1.7	.	1.6	46.2	10.3	4.2	13.9
BALKH	3.5	2.0	2.2	2.2	31.9	16.5	25.1	17.9
BAMYAN	.	1.3	.	1.3	.	3.8	.	3.8
DAYKUNDI	.	1.2	.	1.2	.	4.7	.	4.7
FARAH	3.3	1.5	.	3.0	38.1	11.8	.	17.1
FARYAB	2.9	1.9	1.5	2.4	52.3	20.4	13.3	24.6
GHAZNI	4.6	1.8	.	4.3	32.8	4.6	.	6.5
GHOR	2.8	1.2	.	2.5	42.4	5.8	.	11.6
HILMAND	5.0	1.0	.	4.3	38.9	10.4	.	11.5
HIRAT	2.9	1.3	.	2.0	35.6	12.5	10.1	15.0
JAWZJAN	3.8	1.9	.	2.8	15.5	16.4	17.4	16.2
KABUL	2.8	1.0	.	2.5	9.6	5.6	2.7	7.4
KANDAHAR	3.4	1.9	.	2.7	11.6	3.6	11.0	4.3
KAPISA	1.2	.	.	1.2	17.2	3.1	.	3.7
KHOST	1.8	1.2	.	1.3	13.9	24.0	.	23.6
KUNARHA	.	1.7	.	1.7	.	12.3	.	12.3
KUNDUZ	2.7	1.6	1.0	1.7	9.0	6.9	4.5	7.0
LAGHMAN	.	1.0	.	1.0	.	17.0	.	17.0
LOGAR	4.1	.	.	4.1	48.8	4.5	.	30.0
NANGARHAR	4.0	1.6	.	3.2	140.5	7.4	.	15.8
NIMROZ	4.6	1.4	.	4.2	24.1	8.0	.	13.3
NURISTAN	.	1.5	.	1.5	.	16.8	.	16.8
PAKTIKA	3.9	1.8	.	3.3	30.3	9.9	.	11.3
PAKTYA	4.3	1.2	.	2.0	7.0	6.6	.	6.6
PANJSHER	1.6	1.0	.	1.6	23.9	7.8	.	10.5
PARWAN	3.6	1.3	.	3.3	23.0	2.9	.	7.6
SAMANGAN	5.3	3.0	.	5.1	107.3	13.8	.	22.3
SAR-I-PUL	1.9	1.8	.	1.8	10.8	10.9	.	10.9
TAKHAR	3.5	1.6	1.7	2.2	25.7	8.5	4.9	9.4
URUZGAN	2.5	2.2	.	2.4	10.7	7.7	.	8.0
WARDAK	4.1	1.3	.	2.7	29.6	4.6	.	7.5
ZABUL	5.4	1.9	.	4.0	22.4	7.2	.	10.1
National	3.5	1.6	1.9	2.6	34.1	10.4	12.8	12.7



Table A 78: Average herd or flock size (No.) by province, continued

Province	Sheep				Poultry			
	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average	Kuchi	Rural	Urban	Average
BADAKHSHAN	29.8	15.5	.	16.5	7.7	6.6	.	6.7
BADGHIS	8.6	8.5	.	8.5	5.2	4.9	.	4.9
BAGHLAN	123.7	8.5	5.5	20.7	11.3	11.9	5.6	11.7
BALKH	54.5	21.8	31.2	24.5	19.4	11.4	8.1	11.4
BAMYAN	.	8.9	.	8.9	.	4.1	.	4.1
DAYKUNDI	.	5.2	.	5.2	.	4.2	.	4.2
FARAH	65.2	10.4	.	23.1	8.7	8.8	.	8.8
FARYAB	93.4	30.3	26.7	39.5	9.6	8.8	18.6	9.5
GHAZNI	145.8	6.9	.	16.8	5.9	8.0	.	7.9
GHOR	34.2	6.6	.	11.8	5.3	4.6	.	4.6
HILMAND	33.2	9.6	.	10.3	9.2	12.5	.	12.4
HIRAT	31.8	14.0	7.5	16.2	5.8	5.9	4.6	5.8
JAWZJAN	50.8	15.0	14.1	27.1	12.3	8.0	7.0	8.7
KABUL	30.6	5.8	2.2	16.1	7.5	7.7	7.5	7.6
KANDAHAR	17.0	4.1	17.0	4.9	7.3	7.1	11.0	7.1
KAPISA	14.4	2.6	.	3.0	4.6	6.2	.	6.2
KHOST	33.3	11.6	.	12.7	11.3	18.3	.	18.0
KUNARHA	.	5.4	.	5.4	.	12.2	.	12.2
KUNDUZ	44.9	15.3	3.8	15.4	8.1	10.2	9.9	10.1
LAGHMAN	.	10.3	.	10.3	.	10.9	.	10.9
LOGAR	67.5	3.9	.	34.4	10.6	7.0	.	8.0
NANGARHAR	100.8	12.3	8.0	30.5	10.6	10.8	8.8	10.7
NIMROZ	17.9	6.9	.	11.4	6.0	6.8	.	6.5
NURISTAN	.	6.9	.	6.9	.	7.1	.	7.1
PAKTIKA	21.5	6.0	.	6.8	6.6	6.0	.	6.1
PAKTYA	25.5	7.4	.	8.4	8.9	12.9	.	12.8
PANJSHER	39.0	4.3	.	16.2	8.8	6.4	.	7.0
PARWAN	39.1	2.8	.	10.7	7.7	6.4	.	6.6
SAMANGAN	75.9	31.6	.	36.3	8.4	4.6	.	4.8
SAR-I-PUL	25.0	16.4	.	16.9	7.9	5.3	.	5.4
TAKHAR	74.2	17.3	16.6	23.4	10.2	10.1	8.0	10.0
URUZGAN	14.1	10.3	.	10.7	9.3	10.6	.	10.5
WARDAK	38.3	6.7	.	10.4	11.7	7.0	.	7.1
ZABUL	48.8	8.9	.	16.3	8.3	11.0	.	10.5
National	53.5	10.7	14.4	15.5	8.7	9.2	8.6	9.1



Table A 79: Fertiliser use (% and kg/household) in fields and gardens

	Rural			Urban			National					
	Field %	Garden %	Both %	Field %	Garden %	Both %	Field		Garden		Both	
							No. weighted observations	%	No. weighted observations	%	No. weighted observations	%
Human Fertilizer												
No	66	5	9	1	0	0	774,666	68	59,396	5	100,355	9
Yes	14	2	2	0	0	0	167,322	15	17,774	2	27,796	2
Total	80	6	11	1	0	0	941,988	82	77,170	7	128,151	11
Animal Fertilizer												
No	44	4	5	1	0	0	518,993	45	47,717	4	60,602	5
Yes	36	2	6	0	0	0	422,995	37	29,453	3	67,549	6
Total	80	6	11	1	0	0	941,988	82	77,170	7	128,151	11
UREA Fertilizer												
No	15	2	2	0	0	0	178,724	16	22,462	2	24,564	2
Yes	65	5	9	1	0	0	763,917	67	54,708	5	103,587	9
Total	80	6	11	1	0	0	942,641	82	77,170	7	128,151	11
Kg per household	221	163	280	484	122	457		226		165		285
DAP Fertilizer												
No	26	2	3	0	0	0	301,593	26	28,172	3	36,648	3
Yes	54	4	8	1	0	0	640,776	56	48,998	4	91,503	8
Total	80	6	11	1	0	0	942,369	82	77,170	7	128,151	11
Kg per household	166	157	209	379	113	228		171		157		210

Note: The Kuchi that apply fertilizer average 376, 231 and 541 kg of urea per household for field, garden or both, respectively; and average 285, 175 and 282 kg DAP per household for field, garden or both.



Table A 80: Type of fertiliser used by households (%) by province

Province	Human		Animal		Total	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No. weighted observations	Average
BADAKHSHAN	90	10	64	36	35,832	3
BADGHIS	100	0	99	1	11,718	1
BAGHLAN	88	12	71	29	20,563	2
BALKH	79	21	66	35	47,275	4
BAMYAN	98	2	54	47	36,584	3
DAYKUNDI	98	2	73	28	55,414	5
FARAH	89	11	83	17	40,617	3
FARYAB	70	30	57	44	11,593	1
GHAZNI	84	16	46	54	85,500	7
GHOR	99	1	72	28	20,271	2
HILMAND	69	31	54	46	126,360	10
HIRAT	88	12	67	33	62,358	5
JAWZJAN	100	0	24	76	3,522	0
KABUL	80	20	80	20	38,015	3
KANDAHAR	53	47	52	48	29,281	2
KAPISA	96	4	52	48	31,877	3
KHOST	98	2	28	72	39,415	3
KUNARHA	84	16	34	66	44,478	4
KUNDUZ	77	23	80	20	61,514	5
LAGHMAN	90	10	23	77	12,090	1
LOGAR	44	56	48	53	17,907	2
NANGARHAR	86	14	62	38	100,830	8
NIMROZ	26	74	26	74	2,214	0
NURISTAN	37	63	1	99	15,540	1
PAKTIKA	60	40	16	84	74,148	6
PAKTYA	99	1	18	82	41,451	3
PANJSHER	85	16	61	39	7,104	1
PARWAN	91	9	90	10	24,510	2
SAMANGAN	95	6	86	14	8,322	1
SAR-I-PUL	87	13	35	65	2,751	0
TAKHAR	98	2	72	28	24,684	2
URUZGAN	84	16	71	29	15,680	1
WARDAK	57	43	41	59	41,796	3
ZABUL	80	20	18	82	22,808	2
National	81	19	54	46	1,214,022	100



Table A 81: Type of fertiliser used by households (%) by province, continued

Province	UREA			DAP		
	No %	Yes %	Average (yes) Kg / household	No %	Yes %	Average (yes) Kg / household
BADAKHSHAN	44	56	86.8	54	46	69.8
BADGHIS	46	54	134.9	62	38	158.6
BAGHLAN	23	77	175.2	35	65	293.2
BALKH	44	56	448.1	50	50	488.4
BAMYAN	12	88	198.0	61	39	139.4
DAYKUNDI	24	76	139.6	55	45	107.6
FARAH	14	86	214.5	32	68	163.6
FARYAB	62	39	124.8	86	14	111.6
GHAZNI	20	80	199.1	31	69	161.4
GHOR	33	67	89.2	58	42	84.4
HILMAND	7	93	466.3	14	86	268.4
HIRAT	20	80	227.5	36	64	219.2
JAWZJAN	74	26	216.2	79	21	155.4
KABUL	17	83	172.2	20	80	190.0
KANDAHAR	19	81	234.0	35	65	128.4
KAPISA	9	91	133.8	9	91	119.0
KHOST	22	78	143.5	23	77	137.1
KUNARHA	29	71	119.8	45	56	74.5
KUNDUZ	11	89	638.7	18	82	394.4
LAGHMAN	4	96	140.0	3	97	133.1
LOGAR	14	87	219.0	17	83	220.9
NANGARHAR	8	92	188.2	22	78	115.3
NIMROZ	54	46	88.9	61	39	85.4
NURISTAN	17	83	31.1	71	29	9.5
PAKTIKA	4	96	79.7	5	95	50.0
PAKTYA	10	90	83.6	10	90	84.2
PANJSHER	26	74	69.8	62	39	57.7
PARWAN	19	81	134.3	35	65	74.7
SAMANGAN	90	10	54.1	90	10	61.1
SAR-I-PUL	83	17	58.6	91	9	84.2
TAKHAR	57	44	207.9	52	48	119.3
URUZGAN	33	67	252.8	59	41	128.7
WARDAK	46	54	115.5	55	45	135.9
ZABUL	25	75	171.3	33	67	152.7
National	21	79	230.5	33	67	174.8



Table A 82: Use of fertiliser in fields, gardens and both (%) by province

Province	Field %	Garden %	Both %	Total No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	88	4	9	35,448
BADGHIS	100	0	0	10,332
BAGHLAN	76	6	18	20,182
BALKH	84	8	8	43,973
BAMYAN	97	0	3	34,816
DAYKUNDI	79	1	20	54,796
FARAH	96	1	4	39,972
FARYAB	35	32	33	11,154
GHAZNI	69	8	24	80,625
GHOR	99	0	1	18,633
HILMAND	95	1	4	123,336
HIRAT	91	2	7	59,892
JAWZJAN	97	2	2	3,888
KABUL	29	60	11	37,015
KANDAHAR	38	48	15	29,013
KAPISA	79	4	17	30,734
KHOST	91	1	8	37,812
KUNARHA	95	1	4	46,998
KUNDUZ	76	1	23	59,113
LAGHMAN	100	0	0	11,830
LOGAR	70	14	16	16,764
NANGARHAR	99	0	0	98,233
NIMROZ	94	0	6	2,091
NURISTAN	99	1	0	15,000
PAKTIKA	87	4	9	71,151
PAKTYA	99	0	1	38,745
PANJSHER	97	2	2	6,480
PARWAN	53	11	36	22,914
SAMANGAN	58	12	30	6,840
SAR-I-PUL	78	0	23	2,631
TAKHAR	86	10	5	22,679
URUZGAN	21	15	64	14,305
WARDAK	65	15	20	36,894
ZABUL	76	9	15	20,802
National	82	7	11	1,165,091



Table A 83: Use pesticides or herbicide in field crops, garden plots, and both (%) by province

Province	No	Yes-field crops only	Yes, garden plot only	Yes - both	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	82	15	2	1	64,325
BADGHIS	89	11	1	0	45,774
BAGHLAN	56	41	2	1	29,072
BALKH	81	16	2	1	84,928
BAMYAN	93	6	0	1	43,792
DAYKUNDI	87	11	2	0	61,594
FARAH	95	5	0	1	45,132
FARYAB	55	38	3	4	72,484
GHAZNI	67	20	10	3	112,625
GHOR	96	4	0	0	66,267
HILMAND	81	13	0	6	133,815
HIRAT	67	31	1	1	125,357
JAWZJAN	90	9	1	1	22,115
KABUL	46	14	34	5	45,042
KANDAHAR	85	5	8	3	38,393
KAPISA	74	19	2	6	32,258
KHOST	58	39	0	2	47,765
KUNARHA	86	14	0	1	52,416
KUNDUZ	52	35	8	5	64,743
LAGHMAN	20	80	0	0	12,610
LOGAR	80	16	3	0	18,796
NANGARHAR	65	35	0	0	103,651
NIMROZ	97	0	0	3	2,665
NURISTAN	99	0	0	0	15,600
PAKTIKA	62	38	0	0	75,147
PAKTYA	70	30	0	1	43,050
PANJSHER	96	4	0	0	7,008
PARWAN	85	7	5	3	28,158
SAMANGAN	69	24	4	3	18,468
SAR-I-PUL	93	7	0	1	48,999
TAKHAR	83	14	2	2	69,893
URUZGAN	95	0	3	2	17,541
WARDAK	78	6	7	10	61,662
ZABUL	87	9	3	1	24,328
National	75	20	3	2	1,735,473



Table A 84: Households experiencing shocks by province (%).

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	56		57	83,331
BADGHIS	62		60	59,649
BAGHLAN	41	8	32	40,945
BALKH	17	5	12	23,799
BAMYAN	72		72	40,528
DAYKUNDI	58		58	49,646
FARAH	46		49	47,118
FARYAB	54	53	55	83,194
GHAZNI	57		57	102,259
GHOR	59		60	73,470
HILMAND	39		40	82,059
HIRAT	46	10	38	118,099
JAWZJAN	66	21	55	41,954
KABUL	22	15	16	66,386
KANDAHAR	55	32	48	86,410
KAPISA	64		65	34,495
KHOST	65		65	60,100
KUNARHA	69		69	46,494
KUNDUZ	27	33	28	33,212
LAGHMAN	84		84	50,700
LOGAR	25		30	18,407
NANGARHAR	66	46	63	142,307
NIMROZ	43		52	8,691
NURISTAN	97		97	19,380
PAKTIKA	53		53	63,936
PAKTYA	74		74	54,678
PANJSHER	55		59	11,118
PARWAN	33		34	24,882
SAMANGAN	49		47	23,253
SAR-I-PUL	52		52	39,243
TAKHAR	49	17	45	65,373
URUZGAN	30		30	14,596
WARDAK	37		38	34,881
ZABUL	47		49	26,659
National	51	18	45	1,771,252

Note: Kuchi average = 52%.



Table A 85: Drinking water shocks (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	6		5	4,352
BADGHIS	72		74	44,322
BAGHLAN	10	54	12	5,002
BALKH	36	17	34	8,009
BAMYAN	8		8	3,128
DAYKUNDI	5		5	2,678
FARAH	6		6	2,655
FARYAB	44	62	43	35,849
GHAZNI	20		21	21,193
GHOR	9		9	6,633
HILMAND	27		27	21,951
HIRAT	25	13	23	27,744
JAWZJAN	33	30	35	14,735
KABUL	12	19	18	11,809
KANDAHAR	41	6	34	29,281
KAPISA	11		12	4,222
KHOST	7		6	3,810
KUNARHA	16		16	7,434
KUNDUZ	44	28	39	12,879
LAGHMAN	53		53	26,650
LOGAR	15		13	2,317
NANGARHAR	6	25	9	13,182
NIMROZ	4		30	2,577
NURISTAN	5		5	900
PAKTIKA	35		36	23,088
PAKTYA	35		35	19,029
PANJSHER	1		1	96
PARWAN	29		32	8,046
SAMANGAN	3		3	798
SAR-I-PUL	31		31	12,324
TAKHAR	37	31	36	23,437
URUZGAN	36		34	4,972
WARDAK	36		37	12,888
ZABUL	84		83	22,224
National	25	23	25	440,214

Note: Kuchi average = 30%.



Table A 86: Agricultural shocks (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	23		26	21,327
BADGHIS	75		75	45,027
BAGHLAN	16	4	16	6,421
BALKH	63	0	55	13,081
BAMYAN	16		16	6,392
DAYKUNDI	28		28	13,802
FARAH	34		44	20,706
FARYAB	58	54	59	48,890
GHAZNI	57		58	59,593
GHOR	35		38	28,128
HILMAND	86		83	68,496
HIRAT	50	12	49	57,780
JAWZJAN	59	3	55	23,234
KABUL	22	4	11	7,486
KANDAHAR	33	3	27	23,404
KAPISA	27		27	9,255
KHOST	43		45	27,207
KUNARHA	74		74	34,398
KUNDUZ	26	7	21	6,949
LAGHMAN	37		37	18,980
LOGAR	16		22	4,109
NANGARHAR	74	19	68	97,394
NIMROZ	49		63	5,505
NURISTAN	63		63	12,180
PAKTIKA	96		96	61,494
PAKTYA	41		42	23,226
PANJSHER	16		31	3,486
PARWAN	37		37	9,312
SAMANGAN	5		5	1,251
SAR-I-PUL	44		44	17,457
TAKHAR	24	10	24	15,702
URUZGAN	37		35	5,111
WARDAK	45		50	17,484
ZABUL	76		71	19,011
National	48	10	47	833,278

Note: Kuchi average = 68%.



Table A 87: Natural disaster shocks (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	94		94	78,339
BADGHIS	41		39	23,049
BAGHLAN	83	7	79	32,495
BALKH	23	21	23	5,471
BAMYAN	86		86	34,952
DAYKUNDI	64		64	31,724
FARAH	35		32	15,303
FARYAB	63	41	64	53,323
GHAZNI	52		52	53,178
GHOR	85		83	61,200
HILMAND	24		25	20,463
HIRAT	46	10	43	51,142
JAWZJAN	42	4	39	16,438
KABUL	70	53	55	36,525
KANDAHAR	40	30	38	32,716
KAPISA	69		69	23,669
KHOST	82		80	48,243
KUNARHA	36		36	16,884
KUNDUZ	60	41	53	17,605
LAGHMAN	56		56	28,470
LOGAR	28		26	4,840
NANGARHAR	38	2	33	47,577
NIMROZ	3		2	164
NURISTAN	53		53	10,320
PAKTIKA	9		10	6,327
PAKTYA	69		67	36,888
PANJSHER	84		69	7,680
PARWAN	80		72	17,883
SAMANGAN	90		90	20,859
SAR-I-PUL	79		78	30,537
TAKHAR	72	74	71	46,680
URUZGAN	80		80	11,749
WARDAK	44		39	13,674
ZABUL	8		8	2,110
National	55	36	53	938,477

Note: Kuchi average = 40%.



Table A 88: Insecurity shocks (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	3		3	2,560
BADGHIS	1		1	504
BAGHLAN	9	61	12	4,763
BALKH	1	13	3	641
BAMYAN	0		0	136
DAYKUNDI	19		19	9,476
FARAH	2		2	903
FARYAB	1	5	1	1,134
GHAZNI	14		14	14,083
GHOR	1		1	852
HILMAND	22		21	17,508
HIRAT	2	0	1	1,671
JAWZJAN	3	0	3	1,098
KABUL	4	3	3	1,959
KANDAHAR	23	29	24	20,993
KAPISA	0		0	0
KHOST	3		3	2,016
KUNARHA	23		23	10,836
KUNDUZ	0	10	2	825
LAGHMAN	37		37	18,720
LOGAR	0		0	0
NANGARHAR	0	4	1	1,266
NIMROZ	9		10	866
NURISTAN	4		4	840
PAKTIKA	40		40	25,752
PAKTYA	21		22	11,871
PANJSHER	2		1	144
PARWAN	0		0	0
SAMANGAN	0		0	114
SAR-I-PUL	0		0	120
TAKHAR	15	10	15	9,671
URUZGAN	83		84	12,235
WARDAK	5		6	2,010
ZABUL	88		87	23,168
National	12	9	11	198,735

Note: Kuchi average = 9%.



Table A 89: Financial shocks (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	5		5	4,096
BADGHIS	21		20	11,895
BAGHLAN	6	0	6	2,413
BALKH	13	8	13	3,052
BAMYAN	15		15	5,984
DAYKUNDI	25		25	12,360
FARAH	17		14	6,801
FARYAB	17	16	15	12,774
GHAZNI	34		34	35,234
GHOR	13		12	8,664
HILMAND	3		3	2,271
HIRAT	22	42	23	26,673
JAWZJAN	6	19	7	3,063
KABUL	33	42	38	25,133
KANDAHAR	14	14	14	12,294
KAPISA	35		34	11,668
KHOST	3		3	1,651
KUNARHA	27		27	12,474
KUNDUZ	28	31	28	9,264
LAGHMAN	66		66	33,670
LOGAR	24		22	3,999
NANGARHAR	23	5	21	30,427
NIMROZ	57		49	4,221
NURISTAN	60		60	11,580
PAKTIKA	0		0	0
PAKTYA	38		37	20,382
PANJSHER	39		32	3,600
PARWAN	48		43	10,707
SAMANGAN	6		6	1,482
SAR-I-PUL	8		8	3,111
TAKHAR	9	3	9	5,988
URUZGAN	2		2	250
WARDAK	6		6	1,935
ZABUL	1		1	236
National	19	27	19	339,352

Note: Kuchi average = 9%.



Table A 90: Health shocks or epidemics (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	2		2	1,792
BADGHIS	5		5	2,883
BAGHLAN	5	11	6	2,356
BALKH	0	0	0	0
BAMYAN	2		2	952
DAYKUNDI	1		1	412
FARAH	0		0	0
FARYAB	2	2	2	1,366
GHAZNI	31		31	31,235
GHOR	11		10	7,182
HILMAND	3		3	2,160
HIRAT	15	17	15	17,175
JAWZJAN	5	1	5	1,989
KABUL	17	15	14	9,571
KANDAHAR	17	3	14	11,861
KAPISA	28		28	9,826
KHOST	40		42	25,461
KUNARHA	9		9	4,284
KUNDUZ	2	4	2	759
LAGHMAN	1		1	520
LOGAR	2		6	1,031
NANGARHAR	11	5	11	15,646
NIMROZ	1		1	82
NURISTAN	23		23	4,380
PAKTIKA	2		2	1,110
PAKTYA	0		0	246
PANJSHER	9		8	864
PARWAN	1		1	228
SAMANGAN	1		1	228
SAR-I-PUL	16		18	7,008
TAKHAR	4	10	4	2,599
URUZGAN	3		3	375
WARDAK	1		1	387
ZABUL	2		2	472
National	10	9	9	166,440

Note: Kuchi average = 8%.



Table A 91: Idiosyncratic shocks (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	11		10	8,576
BADGHIS	2		2	993
BAGHLAN	15	18	15	6,197
BALKH	3	29	6	1,538
BAMYAN	12		12	5,032
DAYKUNDI	22		22	10,918
FARAH	33		33	15,324
FARYAB	19	14	17	13,965
GHAZNI	16		15	15,805
GHOR	7		7	5,136
HILMAND	3		3	2,487
HIRAT	16	12	16	18,830
JAWZJAN	21	45	24	10,078
KABUL	5	27	24	15,722
KANDAHAR	12	16	13	11,134
KAPISA	3		3	1,016
KHOST	4		4	2,159
KUNARHA	5		5	2,520
KUNDUZ	10	29	16	5,462
LAGHMAN	4		4	1,950
LOGAR	30		42	7,758
NANGARHAR	13	46	17	23,634
NIMROZ	21		15	1,271
NURISTAN	2		2	300
PAKTIKA	0		0	0
PAKTYA	4		4	2,337
PANJSHER	9		8	864
PARWAN	6		5	1,368
SAMANGAN	2		2	456
SAR-I-PUL	2		2	720
TAKHAR	6	19	7	4,713
URUZGAN	1		1	125
WARDAK	7		8	2,748
ZABUL	0		0	0
National	10	26	11	201,136

Note: Kuchi average = 15%.



Table A 92: Household groups of income diversification by province

Province	1	2	3	4	5	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	No. weighted observations	%
BADAKHSHAN	46	46	7	1	0	141,733	100
BADGHIS	69	19	10	2	0	99,321	100
BAGHLAN	56	36	7	0	0	117,897	100
BALKH	54	37	9	1	0	187,167	100
BAMYAN	24	63	13	0	1	55,352	100
DAYKUNDI	62	29	9	0	0	81,370	100
FARAH	65	34	2	0	0	91,668	100
FARYAB	43	47	9	1	0	147,472	100
GHAZNI	36	38	25	2	0	172,811	100
GHOR	71	27	2	0	0	118,893	100
HILMAND	33	46	21	0	0	204,216	100
HIRAT	67	26	7	0	0	309,703	100
JAWZJAN	39	51	9	1	0	76,052	100
KABUL	81	17	2	0	0	372,411	100
KANDAHAR	80	18	2	0	0	178,271	100
KAPISA	36	43	18	3	0	51,370	100
KHOST	39	40	19	2	0	86,738	100
KUNARHA	14	62	23	1	0	65,016	100
KUNDUZ	54	40	6	0	0	114,422	100
LAGHMAN	66	32	2	0	0	59,020	100
LOGAR	52	43	5	0	0	60,069	100
NANGARHAR	50	42	9	0	0	215,470	100
NIMROZ	90	9	1	0	0	16,440	100
NURISTAN	7	76	17	0	0	19,620	100
PAKTIKA	47	25	25	3	0	118,437	100
PAKTYA	22	41	36	1	0	73,143	100
PANJSHER	44	49	7	0	0	18,714	100
PARWAN	57	35	7	1	0	67,389	100
SAMANGAN	72	26	2	0	0	43,650	100
SAR-I-PUL	38	53	9	0	0	74,553	100
TAKHAR	50	44	6	0	0	141,346	100
URUZGAN	75	21	3	0	0	48,871	100
WARDAK	46	46	8	0	0	90,624	100
ZABUL	69	29	2	0	0	53,840	100
National	55	35	10	1	0	3,773,069	100

Note: The groups reflect increasing number of sources of income from any of the 8 groups in section 3.7 (livestock, agriculture, opium, trade and services, manufacture, remittance, other and non-farm labour).



Table A 93: Recovery from shocks in the last 12 months (%) by province

Province	Recovery from shocks in the last 12 months			
	Not recovered at all	Partially recovered	Completely recovered	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	83	16	1	100
BADGHIS	74	25	1	100
BAGHLAN	77	21	3	100
BALKH	73	25	2	100
BAMYAN	79	21	0	100
DAYKUNDI	71	28	2	100
FARAH	59	37	4	100
FARYAB	78	22	0	100
GHAZNI	40	57	4	100
GHOR	59	40	1	100
HILMAND	37	61	2	100
HIRAT	84	15	1	100
JAWZJAN	41	52	7	100
KABUL	47	49	4	100
KANDAHAR	63	35	2	100
KAPISA	43	41	17	100
KHOST	43	51	6	100
KUNARHA	55	41	4	100
KUNDUZ	71	22	6	100
LAGHMAN	77	23	0	100
LOGAR	76	19	5	100
NANGARHAR	47	52	1	100
NIMROZ	52	46	2	100
NURISTAN	41	59	0	100
PAKTIKA	20	80	1	100
PAKTYA	57	39	4	100
PANJSHER	89	8	4	100
PARWAN	73	26	1	100
SAMANGAN	67	26	6	100
SAR-I-PUL	76	22	2	100
TAKHAR	77	22	1	100
URUZGAN	26	73	1	100
WARDAK	66	33	1	100
ZABUL	88	12	1	100
National	61	37	2	100



Table A 94: Comparison of the overall economic situation (%) of the household with respect to that of one year ago by province

Province	Comparison of economic situation					No. weighted observations
	Much Worse	Slightly Worse	Same	Slightly better	Much better	
BADAKHSHAN	19	36	24	20	1	100
BADGHIS	15	28	42	15	0	100
BAGHLAN	5	45	33	14	3	100
BALKH	8	24	42	24	3	100
BAMYAN	13	53	28	6	1	100
DAYKUNDI	12	26	32	29	0	100
FARAH	9	20	44	26	1	100
FARYAB	4	31	44	21	0	100
GHAZNI	14	21	31	31	3	100
GHOR	19	17	26	36	2	100
HILMAND	7	16	34	35	9	100
HIRAT	17	29	38	15	2	100
JAWZJAN	24	16	14	40	6	100
KABUL	6	15	48	28	3	100
KANDAHAR	14	26	41	18	1	100
KAPISA	8	33	30	23	5	100
KHOST	6	23	46	21	4	100
KUNARHA	5	31	41	21	2	100
KUNDUZ	5	12	36	38	10	100
LAGHMAN	5	46	25	22	1	100
LOGAR	18	19	32	28	3	100
NANGARHAR	12	49	30	7	1	100
NIMROZ	4	21	50	24	1	100
NURISTAN	15	29	45	11	0	100
PAKTIKA	0	6	8	85	0	100
PAKTYA	12	45	27	15	1	100
PANJSHER	10	34	49	8	0	100
PARWAN	13	40	33	13	0	100
SAMANGAN	13	37	38	11	2	100
SAR-I-PUL	16	35	35	13	1	100
TAKHAR	13	28	38	22	1	100
URUZGAN	7	21	24	41	7	100
WARDAK	7	18	54	21	0	100
ZABUL	11	22	63	3	1	100
National	11	27	36	24	3	100



Table A 95: Problems satisfying the food needs of the household during the last year (%) by province

Province	Problems satisfying the food needs					No. weighted observations
	Never	Rarely (1-3 times)	Sometimes (3-6 times)	Often (few times a month)	Mostly (happens a lot)	
BADAKHSHAN	10	27	48	9	6	100
BADGHIS	14	36	32	7	11	100
BAGHLAN	28	20	48	2	1	100
BALKH	52	22	24	2	1	100
BAMYAN	15	37	30	15	3	100
DAYKUNDI	4	47	40	6	4	100
FARAH	34	27	29	6	4	100
FARYAB	47	34	15	1	2	100
GHAZNI	23	32	35	7	4	100
GHOR	4	20	41	13	21	100
HILMAND	39	31	25	5	1	100
HIRAT	23	27	35	6	9	100
JAWZJAN	26	26	38	7	2	100
KABUL	57	20	20	2	1	100
KANDAHAR	38	22	33	4	3	100
KAPISA	33	30	29	5	3	100
KHOST	22	15	44	13	7	100
KUNARHA	22	43	29	6	0	100
KUNDUZ	49	19	17	1	14	100
LAGHMAN	6	13	76	1	4	100
LOGAR	40	23	22	2	13	100
NANGARHAR	17	34	35	9	5	100
NIMROZ	15	22	34	9	19	100
NURISTAN	0	12	87	0	1	100
PAKTIKA	3	10	84	2	0	100
PAKTYA	22	24	50	3	1	100
PANJSHER	24	42	25	5	4	100
PARWAN	18	43	29	5	4	100
SAMANGAN	23	29	32	6	11	100
SAR-I-PUL	9	19	49	14	9	100
TAKHAR	23	24	41	6	6	100
URUZGAN	21	45	30	2	3	100
WARDAK	46	33	12	7	2	100
ZABUL	14	61	17	3	5	100
National	28	27	34	5	5	100



Table A 96: Participation in cash-for-work programmes (%) by province

Province	Men only	Women only	Children only	Adults only	Men & children	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	89	4	7	3	0	9,344
BADGHIS	91	6	3	0	4	8,679
BAGHLAN	95	5	0	0	10	5,222
BALKH	69	19	12	12	0	2,034
BAMYAN	93	2	7	0	0	7,344
DAYKUNDI	91	0	9	0	0	4,738
FARAH	92	2	6	2	0	6,321
FARYAB	75	5	4	15	0	8,062
GHAZNI	98	0	0	0	2	6,125
GHOR	90	1	6	3	3	9,954
HILMAND	90	0	10	0	0	2,160
HIRAT	84	4	4	7	3	9,874
JAWZJAN	93	0	0	0	0	1,671
KABUL	89	2	2	0	16	12,910
KANDAHAR	89	6	0	6	0	2,435
KAPISA	88	12	0	0	8	7,493
KHOST	92	6	4	0	2	6,477
KUNARHA	88	0	0	13	0	6,048
KUNDUZ	100	0	0	0	0	1,143
LAGHMAN	100	0	0	0	0	520
LOGAR	100	0	0	0	0	587
NANGARHAR	92	0	3	1	4	13,171
NIMROZ	100	0	0	0	0	439
NURISTAN	100	0	0	0	0	420
PAKTYA	100	0	0	0	0	1,353
PANJSHER	86	0	0	0	24	1,392
PARWAN	45	23	18	0	9	2,499
SAMANGAN	83	8	0	0	8	2,736
SAR-I-PUL	100	0	14	0	0	840
TAKHAR	89	0	13	0	0	3,558
URUZGAN	100	0	0	0	0	625
WARDAK	100	0	0	0	0	4,902
ZABUL	100	0	0	0	0	236
National	89	3	4	2	3	151,312



Table A 97: Perceived benefit of cash-for-work programmes (%) by province

Province	No benefit	Bought more food	Paid for education	Paid medical expenses	Paid house rent	Paid off debts	Invested in productive assets	Improved literacy/education	Income generating skills acquired	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	8	79	3	3	0	6	0	2	0	0	8,576
BADGHIS	20	71	0	2	0	5	2	0	0	2	7,671
BAGHLAN	29	65	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	4,333
BALKH	0	87	0	7	0	0	0	0	7	0	1,907
BAMYAN	0	60	0	7	0	31	0	0	0	2	6,120
DAYKUNDI	19	76	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,326
FARAH	2	92	0	4	0	0	2	0	0	0	6,063
FARYAB	6	82	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	12	7,022
GHAZNI	0	66	0	9	0	16	0	0	0	9	5,500
GHOR	6	61	0	0	0	15	1	0	0	17	9,072
HILMAND	0	50	0	0	0	40	0	0	0	10	2,160
HIRAT	4	76	2	2	0	11	0	0	0	6	7,016
JAWZJAN	62	31	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	1,549
KABUL	0	85	2	2	2	2	0	1	0	5	11,054
KANDAHAR	0	51	0	19	0	6	6	0	6	12	2,167
KAPISA	2	66	2	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,366
KHOST	6	92	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,572
KUNARHA	2	77	2	6	0	8	0	0	0	4	6,048
KUNDUZ	0	37	0	0	0	18	0	0	0	45	1,143
LAGHMAN	0	75	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	520
LOGAR	0	73	0	0	0	27	0	0	0	0	476
NANGARHAR	14	60	0	18	0	2	0	0	2	4	12,467
NIMROZ	0	91	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	439
NURISTAN	0	71	0	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	420
PAKTYA	20	70	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	1,230
PANJSHER	0	92	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	4	1,152
PARWAN	0	92	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	1,479
SAMANGAN	0	64	9	14	0	0	0	0	0	14	2,508
SAR-I-PUL	14	86	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	840
TAKHAR	0	71	9	5	0	0	0	5	5	5	2,656
URUZGAN	0	0	0	25	0	0	25	0	50	0	500
WARDAK	10	50	7	30	0	3	0	0	0	0	3,870
ZABUL	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	236
National	7	71	1	7	0	7	1	0	1	5	132,458



Table A 98: Perceived benefits of infrastructure created by cash-for-work programmes (%) by province

Province	No benefit	Improved access to health facilities	Improved access to education	Improved access to markets	Improved access to electricity	Improved access to employment opportunities	Improved access to safe drinking water	Improved access to irrigation water	Increased agricultural/horticultural production	Other environmental improvements	Other	No. weighted observations
BADAKHSHAN	0	33	36	34	1	27	15	10	1	4	3	9,344
BADGHIS	19	19	3	33	0	28	22	0	0	16	7	8,679
BAGHLAN	6	22	7	15	0	6	0	1	4	10	2	5,222
BALKH	0	13	0	6	12	25	31	0	0	19	19	2,034
BAMYAN	7	0	0	7	2	6	26	13	2	4	20	7,344
DAYKUNDI	9	70	17	74	0	48	0	0	0	9	9	4,738
FARAH	0	69	10	73	4	20	12	0	0	2	8	6,321
FARYAB	13	43	51	63	1	42	6	2	0	13	20	8,062
GHAZNI	2	29	16	18	0	73	20	59	24	4	2	6,125
GHOR	8	6	3	28	1	3	1	11	0	27	11	9,954
HILMAND	20	10	0	10	0	30	0	50	40	20	0	2,160
HIRAT	16	20	18	17	0	13	3	8	4	12	17	9,874
JAWZJAN	60	0	7	7	0	7	7	0	0	7	14	1,671
KABUL	8	48	19	29	11	10	21	4	4	20	13	12,910
KANDAHAR	28	0	6	22	22	6	33	6	6	6	0	2,435
KAPISA	3	53	58	78	0	3	8	10	3	2	2	7,493
KHOST	4	0	8	4	12	2	53	6	0	0	0	6,477
KUNARHA	13	29	2	38	29	4	8	10	0	0	27	6,048
KUNDUZ	0	44	11	60	0	37	63	0	7	34	22	1,143
LAGHMAN	0	50	0	75	0	0	25	0	0	50	25	520
LOGAR	19	22	0	22	22	22	0	19	0	19	19	587
NANGARHAR	11	19	6	14	1	58	7	35	9	11	32	13,171
NIMROZ	0	0	0	0	28	53	0	0	0	0	19	439
NURISTAN	0	29	14	29	0	29	0	0	0	57	57	420
PAKTYA	18	73	73	82	0	0	9	0	0	9	9	1,353
PANJSHER	0	7	3	10	41	3	3	3	3	21	3	1,392
PARWAN	0	5	5	18	18	18	5	5	0	0	5	2,499
SAMANGAN	67	29	4	63	0	25	4	0	0	0	38	2,736
SAR-I-PUL	43	14	0	14	14	14	29	43	14	0	14	840
TAKHAR	0	70	34	31	0	41	8	0	0	4	10	3,558
URUZGAN	0	80	40	20	0	20	40	0	0	0	0	625
WARDAK	5	42	26	50	8	18	5	3	5	13	5	4,902
ZABUL	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	236
National	10	29	17	33	5	23	13	11	4	10	13	151,312



Table A 99: Food consumption classification (%) for all households by province

Province	Low dietary diversity / Very Poor Food consumption	Low dietary diversity / Poor Food consumption	Better dietary diversity / Slightly Better Food consumption	Better dietary diversity / Better Food consumption
BADAKHSHAN	24	49	17	10
BADGHIS	28	39	23	7
BAGHLAN	14	35	30	26
BALKH	8	43	32	19
BAMYAN	53	24	5	5
DAYKUNDI	77	13	0	5
FARAH	9	29	13	49
FARYAB	9	49	31	13
GHAZNI	30	49	11	11
GHOR	57	34	2	6
HILMAND	20	44	34	2
HIRAT	25	33	6	30
JAWZJAN	14	29	44	19
KABUL	15	47	23	36
KANDAHAR	26	47	20	17
KAPISA	7	28	38	27
KHOST	20	21	18	42
KUNARHA	9	29	20	42
KUNDUZ	6	34	41	19
LAGHMAN	33	48	18	2
LOGAR	9	36	32	23
NANGARHAR	23	33	19	25
NIMROZ	41	43	10	3
NURISTAN	50	39	1	2
PAKTIKA	21	52	22	6
PAKTYA	19	57	7	17
PANJSHER	14	20	33	31
PARWAN	5	11	18	68
SAMANGAN	16	20	45	18
SAR-I-PUL	13	45	25	17
TAKHAR	19	41	28	16
URUZGAN	45	35	11	5
WARDAK	31	41	17	9
ZABUL	43	50	1	2
National	24	37	20	19

Note: Kuchi average 38% for low dietary diversity and very poor food consumption, 30% for low dietary diversity with poor food consumption, 18% for better dietary diversity and slightly better food consumption, and 13% for better dietary diversity and better food consumption.



Table A 100: Food consumption classification for rural households (%) by province

Rural	Low dietary diversity / Very Poor Food consumption	Low dietary diversity / Poor Food consumption	Better dietary diversity / Slightly Better Food consumption	Better dietary diversity / Better Food consumption
BADAKHSHAN	25	48	19	8
BADGHIS	30	40	25	6
BAGHLAN	16	29	31	24
BALKH	10	39	34	18
BAMYAN	69	22	7	3
DAYKUNDI	85	11	2	3
FARAH	10	27	15	47
FARYAB	10	46	33	11
GHAZNI	31	47	12	9
GHOR	59	32	4	5
HILMAND	21	43	35	1
HIRAT	27	37	8	28
JAWZJAN	16	21	46	18
KABUL	17	24	24	35
KANDAHAR	28	36	22	15
KAPISA	9	26	40	25
KHOST	21	19	19	40
KUNARHA	11	27	22	40
KUNDUZ	8	31	43	18
LAGHMAN	34	46	19	0
LOGAR	11	34	33	22
NANGARHAR	24	31	21	24
NIMROZ	43	45	11	1
NURISTAN	61	37	2	
PAKTIKA	23	50	23	4
PAKTYA	21	55	9	15
PANJSHER	16	20	35	29
PARWAN	7	7	20	67
SAMANGAN	18	19	47	17
SAR-I-PUL	14	43	27	15
TAKHAR	21	36	29	14
URUZGAN	50	34	13	3
WARDAK	33	41	18	7
ZABUL	50	47	2	1
National	26	35	22	18



Table A 101: Rural and urban population under the minimum daily caloric intake adjusted by age and gender (%) by province

Province	Rural	Urban	Average
BADAKHSHAN	41		40
BADGHIS	40		40
BAGHLAN	30	32	30
BALKH	17	53	30
BAMYAN	25		25
DAYKUNDI	52		52
FARAH	19		17
FARYAB	29	31	27
GHAZNI	25		25
GHOR	22		23
HILMAND	49		49
HIRAT	36	22	33
JAWZJAN	16	27	19
KABUL	12	29	24
KANDAHAR	26	37	29
KAPISA	12		12
KHOST	29		28
KUNARHA	9		9
KUNDUZ	23	34	26
LAGHMAN	42		42
LOGAR	27		27
NANGARHAR	25	7	22
NIMROZ	71		66
NURISTAN	40		40
PAKTIKA	42		42
PAKTYA	17		17
PANJSHER	5		11
PARWAN	9		9
SAMANGAN	12		12
SAR-I-PUL	47		46
TAKHAR	27	29	26
URUZGAN	39		38
WARDAK	39		41
ZABUL	39		38
National	30	31	30

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