

Seasonal Food Security Assessment (SFSA) 2020 Report



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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Even in the face of challenging conditions due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the 2020 Seasonal Food Security Assessment (SFSA) was able to survey 21,863 households across Afghanistan's 34 provinces. The SFSA provides humanitarian and development actors with the required information to estimate the characteristics of food insecure households and guide response planning as well as resilience programming in food and agriculture sectors. This is the tenth assessment of this kind since the Food Security & Agriculture Cluster (FSAC) began conducting this annual survey in 2011. The points below summarise the key findings from the SFSA analysis.

Health shocks worsen food insecurity during the IPC projection period (Nov 2020-March 2021)

Although favourable precipitation in 2020 continued to build on good conditions experienced during the 2019 agricultural production year - and allowed for surplus wheat production in several provinces, these gains were blunted by the socio-economic impacts of the on-going COVID-19 pandemic. This crisis has magnified existing vulnerabilities and has since caused a significant deterioration in the food security situation of the Afghan population. The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) workshop in September 2020, which relies in large part on the SFSA data for outcome indicators and other available data, shows that since the start of the COVID-19 crisis there has been a 4% jump in the national population experiencing acute food insecurity. As of the projection analysis, which covers the months of November 2020 – March 2021, 42% of the population in Afghanistan are in IPC Phases 3 and 4, compared to 38% of the population during the previous projection. The severity of food insecurity is also on the rise with 14% of the population now in IPC Phase 4 (emergency food insecurity) compared to 9.2% in 2019. Also worrying is the corresponding decrease of the most food secure households. The percentage of the national population in IPC Phase 2 and Phase 3 has remained consistent over the past four years but in 2020 there was a significant decrease in the percentage of people in the most stable food security category, IPC Phase 1. This shows the cumulative impact of multiple years of conflict and steady erosion of coping mechanisms. In 2020, there are 17 analytical domains with 50% or more of the assessed people facing food insecurity. While the overall number of people food insecure was previously anticipated to decrease due to favourable precipitation and good spring and fall cultivation conditions - the full COVID-19 impacts were not yet apparent during the time of the last analysis in April 2020. These recent impacts include decreased purchasing power for the most vulnerable, reduced accessibility to food commodities as prices continue to be higher for staple goods along with livelihoods disruptions for the poorest Afghan households. Many households in Afghanistan are struggling to meet their basic food needs with 40% of Afghan households consuming a diet of low nutrient and caloric value, a proportion twice that seen a year ago.

High unemployment rates, loss of income and high prices hinder food accessibility

While prices for most staple goods have stabilised, they remain higher than pre-COVID-19 levels and the impact of even temporary price increases and market disruptions has had far-reaching impacts on the diet diversity and purchasing power of vulnerable households. This is particularly apparent in the situation of displaced people who reported through the Whole of Afghanistan assessment loss of income (87%) and limited access to food (72%) as their most significant shocks. SFSA 2020 data shows that for the host community, income reduction and loss of employment along with sickness or death of breadwinner due to COVID-19 are the major shocks that have reduced the accessibility of food for the poorest people. The impacts of lack of access to a nutritionally diverse diet will have future negative impacts for Afghan families over the coming lean season with an anticipated increase in negative coping strategies to fill food consumption gaps. The SFSA 2020 reduced Coping Strategies

Index (rCSI) shows a 12% increase of negative coping strategies associated with food consumption along with a rise of 15% in Emergency Livelihood Coping Strategies (LCS). The reduction in livelihood opportunities will also have long term impact on savings and drive up debt levels ahead of the winter lean season.

Food insecurity continues to deepen in areas with limited livelihood opportunities

The food insecurity situation as measured through the results of the primary food outcome indicators is continuing to worsen in the areas with fragile livelihoods and remote access issues. This includes the central highlands, including the provinces of Ghor, Daykundi, Uruzgan, the highlands in the northeast, such as Badakhshan and the remote eastern province of Nuristan. The upcoming winter/lean season is expected to further exacerbate the situation in these provinces as food stocks and household savings are further depleted. Livelihoods may additionally deteriorate with important impacts on smallholder farmers with the anticipated La Niña impacts causing drier than usual condition and reduced precipitation over the winter of 2020-21.

Increased debt and economic pressures on Afghan households

The COVID-19 shock has exacerbated the dire economic situation for the most vulnerable Afghan families. Of those reporting severe sickness or death of a breadwinner, 60% attributed it to COVID-19, representing 6 million people spread across 696,000 households. This has immediate and ongoing impacts on household income levels which in turn increases debt levels as families increase borrowing in order to maintain access to basic food needs. Over 76% of respondents identified going into debt to meet their food expenditures with market disruptions and border closures causing spikes in the prices of essential food items of over 30% during the height of the COVID-19 crisis. Continued economic slowdowns in neighbouring countries and deportations/voluntary departures of seasonal Afghan migrants have also contributed to decreases in purchasing power for households relying on remittances.¹

Impacts of the crisis on rural populations

Agriculture is a key driver of the Afghan economy, representing over 25% of the GDP. Within the agricultural sector cereals comprise most of the production, although most farmers do not have enough access to seeds on a yearly basis. During this crisis smallholder farmers faced challenges in accessing seasonal agricultural inputs and markets. While constrained access to seeds and fertilizers is especially concerning with more than 90% farmers reported no access to certified / quality seeds and inputs. Constrained access to markets was especially true for horticultural products that faced export restrictions due to intermittent border closures during the early phase of the crisis. While flooding and locust infestations' impacts were below levels seen in previous years, over 80% of respondents in rural areas indicated that crop pests and diseases affected their overall yields. In addition, restrictions on movement also affected the seasonal movement of pastoralists, limiting in turn access of livestock to summer pasturelands. Accordingly, over 70% of livestock owners indicated difficulties with raising animals in 2020. COVID-19 also had an important impact on women producers who faced an increase in homecare demands due to the health crisis in addition to shrinking external work opportunities.

¹ Remittances in Afghanistan serve as a buffer against income shocks. Overall, although a relatively small share of families benefits from remittances, they provide a vital source of income, averaging USD 1,680 annually (more than half of their income), and are usually consumed through basic needs. (World Bank reporting 2018)

Food insecurity in urban areas

This is the second year that the SFSA collects data that identifies the different needs facing rural and urban populations. In 2020, both populations faced challenges regarding food access due to market disruptions, border closures and significant price spikes for staple goods. These created significant pressures on poor urban and peri-urban dwellers who are net-dependent on market purchases and fragile livelihood sources. In 2020 an increased food security need has been noted amongst the urban and peri-urban poor throughout the country. Food insecurity was assessed as particularly high in cities featuring a high number of displaced people and returnees including Maimana, Herat and Kandahar.

Vulnerable groups continue to suffer disproportionately

The SFSA 2020 highlights that households who are net-dependent on market purchases for food and have low access to land or animals are most likely to be food insecure. Female headed households are 1.6 times more likely to be food insecure and more dependent on purchasing food on credit and have 2 times less access to land or animals than male headed households. Households with at least one person with a disability (PWD) are 1.2 times more likely to be severely food-insecure and households with pregnant and lactating women (PLW) are associated with a higher level of emergency and crisis coping strategies. Forty six percent of households without access to land feature high levels of poor food consumption. The assessment also identified that higher levels of education are associated with lower exposure to shocks and improved food consumption along with lower levels of negative coping strategies.

Recommendations

Given the critical and escalating levels of food insecurity this report provides the following recommendations:

1. Prioritize responses to meet immediate lifesaving needs and safeguard livelihoods particularly for the 42% of the national population in IPC Phases 3 and 4;
2. Focus on and off farm livelihood interventions on the most vulnerable households such as IDPs, female-headed households, marginal / women farmers, and landless producers;
3. Build comprehensive linkages that complement food assistance and emergency livelihoods support as well as phases support from emergency food assistance to durable livelihood solutions and provide appropriate market linkages;
4. Scale up support for projects that build communal assets that develop overall community resilience and improve soil and water management practices;
5. Increase ongoing support to vulnerable households with simple, replicable interventions that can improve diversity of food sources and nutritional intake;
6. Enhance response and early recovery programming focusing on strengthening access to markets and quality inputs of smallholder farmers, herders and poultry keepers.

Section 1: Background & Objectives

Background

Afghanistan has shown important gains since 2002 with increases in GDP per capita, increases in primary school enrolment, increased access to improved water sources and improvements in maternal health and life expectancy. Despite these growth indicators the development of the Afghan economy remains fragile with persistent underemployment, mounting poverty levels and low labour participation rates. As per the mid-year 2020 HRP review 93% of the population is estimated to be living below the international poverty line of USD 2 dollars per day. About one-third of this group will be assisted by humanitarian organizations but the rest are outside the scope of the HRP and require broader responses through development assistance. Failing to assist this wider population threatens to reverse development gains and increasing future humanitarian response needs.

Agriculture is a mainstay of the economy representing over 25% of the GDP with 44% of the workforce directly involved in agriculture activities with 80% of the workforce indirectly dependent on agricultural products and activities². However, despite the potential for increased production, Afghan productivity is one of the lowest in the central Asian region with low levels of mechanization, high levels of post-harvest wastage and low levels of crop and livelihood diversity.

COVID-19 is expected to continue to have significant impacts on Afghanistan's highly food insecure population with limited coping capacity and low dietary diversity with 70% food intake primarily dependent on cereals. The nation's institutional capacity is also estimated to experience serious impacts with UNDP estimating a 75% regress in current Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) achievements.

The results of the IPC analysis demonstrate that more people than ever are now falling into emergency food insecurity situation (IPC Phase 4). The provinces of Faryab urban and rural, Ghor, Uruzgan, Badakhshan, Helmand urban, Jawzjan both rural and urban, Nangarhar urban, Nuristan and Samangan have the highest percentage of population in phase 3 and 4, with half or more of their population in food insecurity. In terms of population numbers, the analytical domains of Kabul urban, Nangarhar, Hilmand, Faryab, Badakhshan and Herat have the highest number of people in phase 3 and 4, respectively, where more than half a million people classified in these phases.

The multiple shocks directly experienced by households between March and August 2020 halted the improvements in the acute food insecurity situation that began last year after recovery from the severe drought that hit the country in 2018. The Seasonal Food Security Assessment (SFSA 2020) shows the combined effects of recent shocks (COVID-19 on the national food security situation including reduced employment opportunities, reduced income, huge increase in food prices, loss of employment, death or illness of family member due to COVID-19 or non-COVID diseases, conflict, natural disaster mainly drought/dry spell and floods/heavy rains, crop pest and livestock disease outbreak) and as well as low households' resilience have contributed to an overall deterioration of food security situation. Compared to 2019, there is an increase in the proportion of households with poor food consumption (+5%), and worryingly for the nutritional health of the population an increase in the proportion of households consuming less than 5 different food groups (+15%). In the meantime, the proportion of households with a moderate to severe level of hunger has increased (+11%), as well as increased number of households allocating more than 75% of their monthly expenditure to food (+12%).

² FAO Special Report – 18 years in Afghanistan, <http://www.fao.org/3/CA1433EN/ca1433en.pdf>

This serious food insecurity situation is anticipated to worsen over the projection period of the IPC which goes until March 2021. There will be an update to the IPC analysis in March 2021.

This report begins with an overview of the distribution and location of food insecure people (section 2) in order to guide the efforts of the humanitarian community. In the following sections the report identifies the characteristics of food insecure households. The final section explains why these households have become increasingly food insecure in 2020 and concludes with recommendations for programmatic interventions in the upcoming year. Data tables are provided in the annex.

Purpose

The key objectives of the seasonal food security assessment (SFSA) 2020 are to:

- I. Assess the food security situation across Afghanistan's 34 provinces and estimate the number, location and characteristics of food insecure households during the post-harvest season;
- II. Identify the nature of food insecurity (acute vs. chronic), its underlying causes including shocks, and consequences in terms of household coping mechanisms; and,
- III. Provide key data to IPC 2020 process to inform Afghanistan's Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO), Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP), and FSAC response plan (SRP) for 2020 and 2021. The results of the SFSA 2020 will be used for planning purposes by a range of Government ministries (e.g. MAIL), donors, UN agencies and FSAC partners.

Section 2: Food security situation

Situation overview

In Afghanistan; the multiple events/shocks directly experienced by households between March and August 2020 halted the improvement in the acute food insecurity situation that began last year after the crisis induced by the severe drought that hit the country in 2018. This is a consistent finding across all food security indicators as shown in Table 1.

In August and September 2020; the interaction and combined effects of these shocks (reduced employment opportunities, reduced income, huge increase in food prices, loss of employment, death or illness of family member due to COVID-19 or non-COVID diseases, conflict, natural disaster mainly drought/dry spell and floods/heavy rains, crop pest and livestock disease outbreak) and as well as low households' resilience have contributed significantly to a deterioration of the diet for a greater proportion of households. Compared to 2019, it led to an increase in the proportion of households with poor food consumption (+5%) as well as in the proportion of households consuming less than 5 different food groups (+15%) - mainly bread, oil and sugar. In the meantime, the proportion of households with a moderate to severe level of hunger has increased (+11%), as well as the proportion of households allocating more than 75% of their monthly expenditure to food (+12%).

These various increases were probably contained by an increase (by +11%) of the percentage of households adopting food-based high coping mechanisms as well as application of more severe livelihood-based coping strategies (with an increase by +11% of the proportion of household adopting emergency coping strategies that compromise their short/medium term recovery).

Compared to their 2018 level (year in which acute food insecurity peaked in Afghanistan in the past 7 years), all food security indicators (HDDS, HHS, rCSI, LCS and FES) are deteriorating (between 3% and 8%) - except the FCS (which showed a minor improvement of +4%).

Table 1: Trends in Afghanistan food security 2015-2020

Theme	Indicator	Category	2020	2019	2018	2017	2016	2015
Household food consumption and dietary diversity	Food consumption (FCS)	Poor	40%	19%	28%	7%	15%	12%
		Borderline	35%	40%	36%	25%	37%	25%
		Acceptable	24%	41%	36%	69%	48%	63%
	Household dietary diversity (HDDS)	0-2 Food Groups	10%	3%	6%	-	-	-
		3-4 Food Groups	22%	14%	18%	-	-	-
		5-12 Food Groups	68%	83%	76%	-	-	-
Coping strategies	Application of food-based coping strategies (rCSI)	High Coping	20%	8%	12%	14%	16%	-
		Medium	60%	59%	63%	27%	25%	-
		No or Low	20%	33%	25%	59%	59%	-
Hunger and food stress	Application of livelihood-based coping strategies (LCS)	Emergency strategies	36%	21%	33%	12%	12%	20%
		Crisis strategies	25%	27%	33%	11%	15%	29%
		Stress strategies	22%	30%	12%	13%	23%	9%
		Sustainable or no strategies	17%	22%	22%	64%	50%	42%
	Levels of hunger over the previous 30 days (HHS)	Very severe	1%	1%	1%	-	0%	-
		Severe	2%	1%	2%	-	3%	-
		Moderate	32%	22%	29%	-	13%	-
	Slight	13%	10%	17%	-	10%	-	
	None	52%	66%	51%	-	74%	-	
Monthly Food Expenditures Share (FES)	FES ≥ 75%	21%	9%	21%	24%	25%	20%	

	FES > 65% & FES ≤ 75%	18%	11%	12%	27%	16%	17%
	FES > 50% & FES ≤ 65%	27%	26%	24%	30%	33%	28%
	FES ≤ 50%	34%	55%	43%	19%	26%	35%
IPC Acute Food insecurity (AFI) Post-harvest season (Aug.-Oct)	Phase 5 – Famine	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Phase 4 - Emergency	12%	9%	13%	7%	3%	0%
	Phase 3 - Crisis	24%	28%	34%	20%	13%	8%
	Phase 2 - Stressed	36%	31%	30%	34%	33%	29%
	Phase 1 - Minimal	28%	32%	23%	39%	51%	63%
% of the population	Severely Acutely food insecure (IPC Phase 3 and above)	38%	37%	47%	27%	16%	8%
	Acutely food insecure (IPC Phase 2 and above)	73%	68%	77%	61%	49%	37%

Population of food insecure

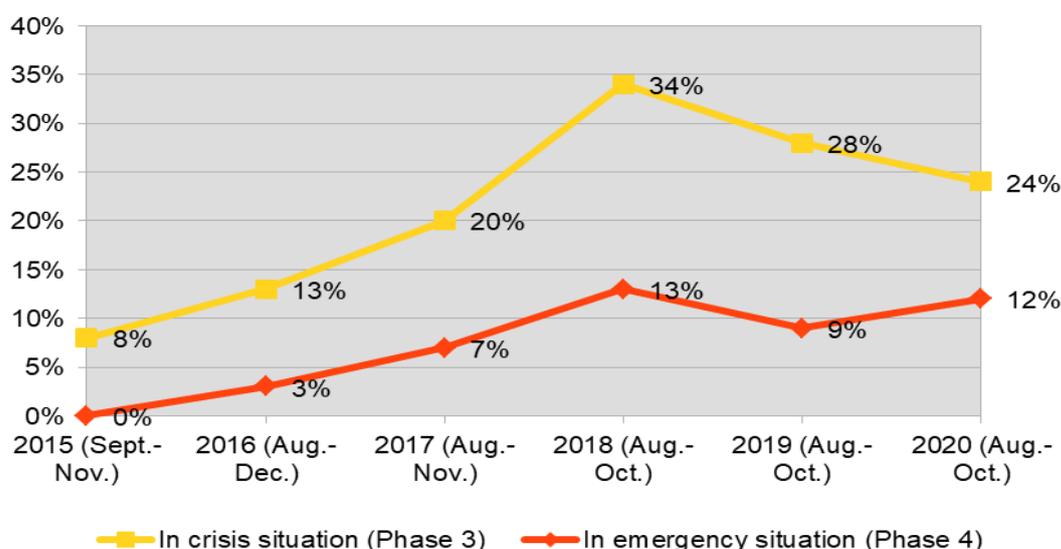
The **Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC)** is a set of tools and procedures to classify the severity of acute food insecurity at national and sub-national levels. The IPC uses international standards that allow comparability of food security situations across countries and over time. The main data source of the Afghanistan IPC conducted in September 2020 was the SFSA, which collected all key food security indicators and covered all 34 of Afghanistan’s provinces. The final figures are based on consensus through a joint process between key stakeholders.

The IPC estimates that, between a reference period of August and October 2020, a total of 14.5 million people (36% of the total population) are in severe acute food insecurity and require urgent humanitarian action. These include around 9.8 million people in a crisis situation (IPC Phase 3) and 4.7 million people in an emergency situation (IPC Phase 4).

This represents deterioration in food security over the past year, mainly in terms of its severity. Compared to the same reference period in 2019 (Chart 1)³: the share of food insecure in emergency situation (IPC Phase 4) has increased by 3 percentage points from 9% due to a similar proportion of people in crisis last year likely having fallen into an emergency situation in 2020; while, in the meantime, 4% of minimally food-insecure people likely have become moderately acutely food-insecure (IPC Phase 2).

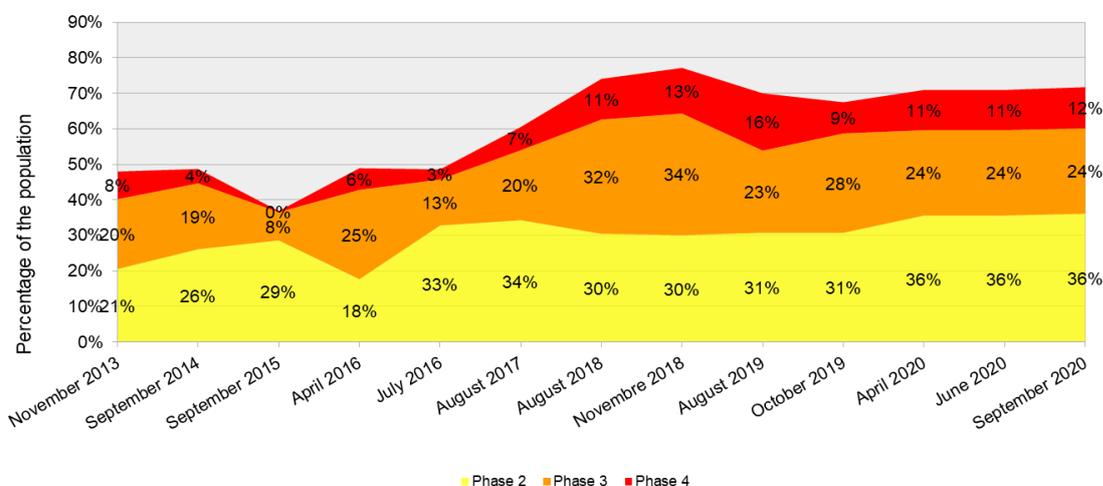
³ It should be noted that the 2018 analysis only took into account rural population of the country, whereas the 2019 and 2020 analysis includes the total population of Afghanistan.

Chart 1: Share of Afghanistan's population in IPC Phase 3 and 4 (2015 - 2020)



As shown by the Chart 2, over the past 5 years, the food security situation in Afghanistan has steadily deteriorated: the percentage of acutely food insecure people has almost doubled (from 37% in Sept.-Nov. 2015 to 72% in Aug.-Oct. 2020), while the proportion of severely acute food-insecure has more than four-fold increased (from 8% to 36% over the same period).

Chart 2: Afghanistan's IPC Acute food insecurity Trends (from November 2013 to November 2020)



This long and persistent deterioration of the situation is likely to induce a crystallization of the country acute food insecurity: transforming it into chronic food insecurity affecting on average three fifths of Afghans (with half of them being chronically in a crisis or in emergency situation).

Food insecurity by province

Food insecurity is not spread evenly across Afghanistan. Map One below highlights that four provinces - Badakhshan, Daykundi, Ghor and Urozgan as well as urban area of Faryab province - are classified in IPC Phase 4, signaling a high prevalence of households facing severe food insecurity. Looking at Chart Three, other most highly food insecure provinces include Faryab and Jawzjan (all with the share of population in IPC phase 3 or 4 equal or above 50 percent).

Compared to the (Nov. 2019 - March 2020) projected situation of the acute food insecurity (AFI) resulting from IPC analyses carried out a year ago at the same period; the multiple shocks/events occurred in the past 6 months (March-August 2020) - including COVID-19 impacts - have eroded further the already precarious situation of households living there. That led to a deterioration of the AFI situation mainly in terms of its magnitude, in 15 provinces⁴ with an increase of the percentage of population severely food-insecure.

Map 1: IPC classifications by province in 2020 and comparative overview of the evolution of this classification's evolution since 2018

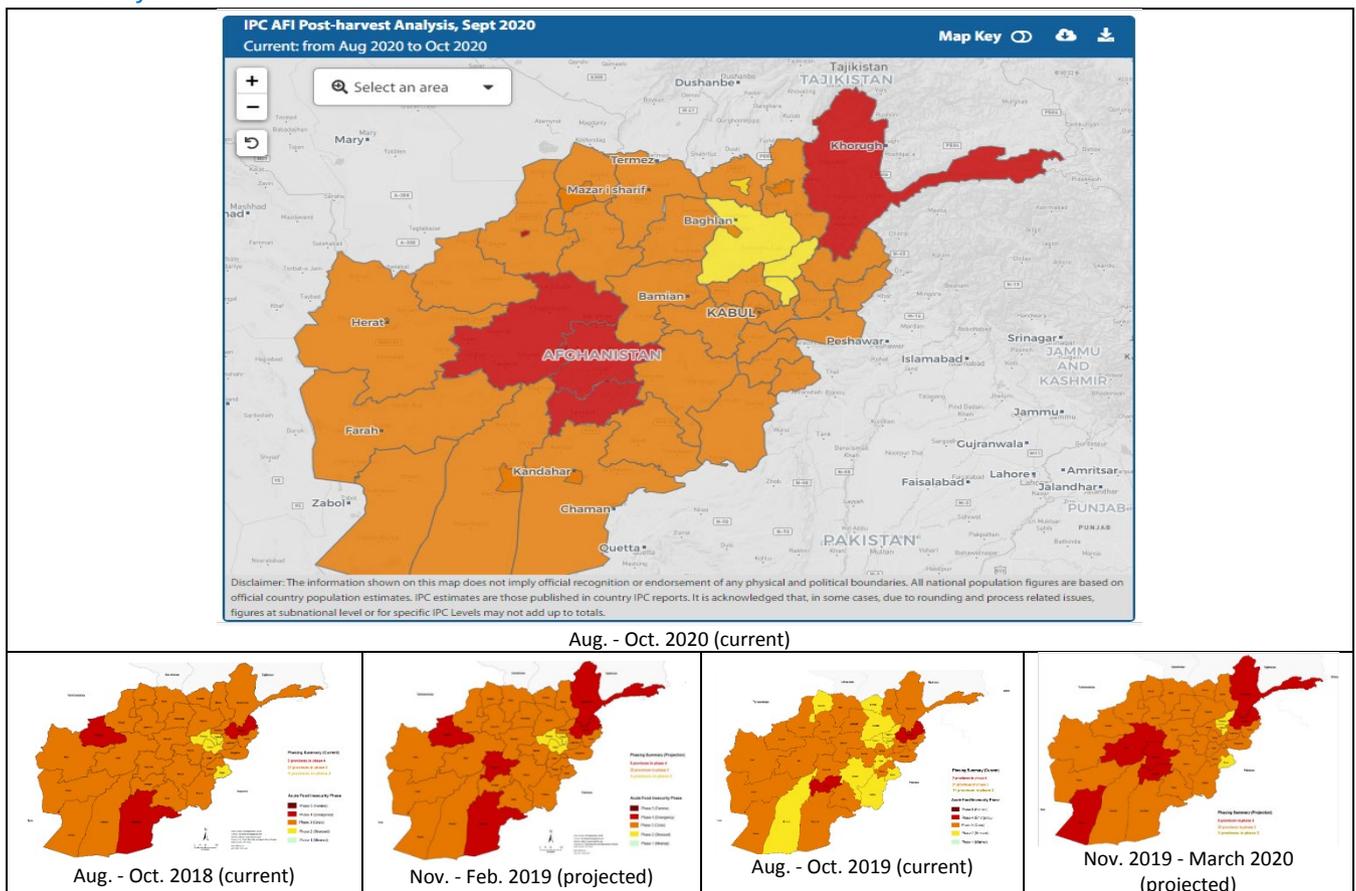
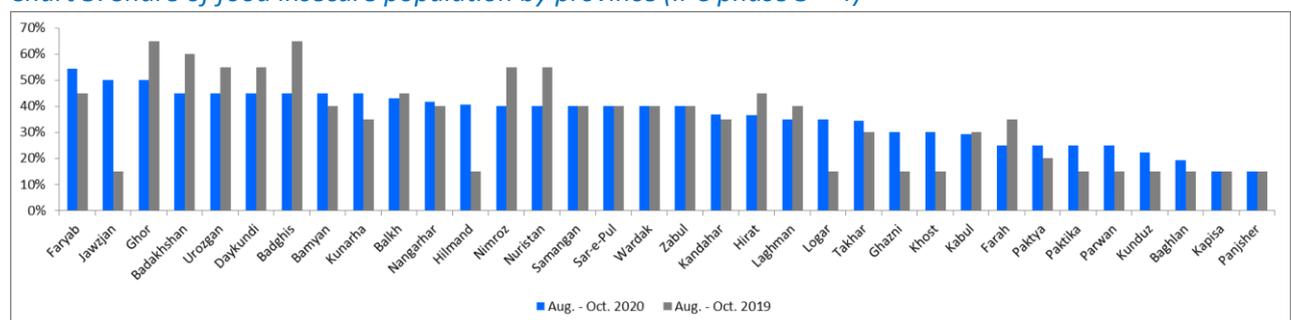


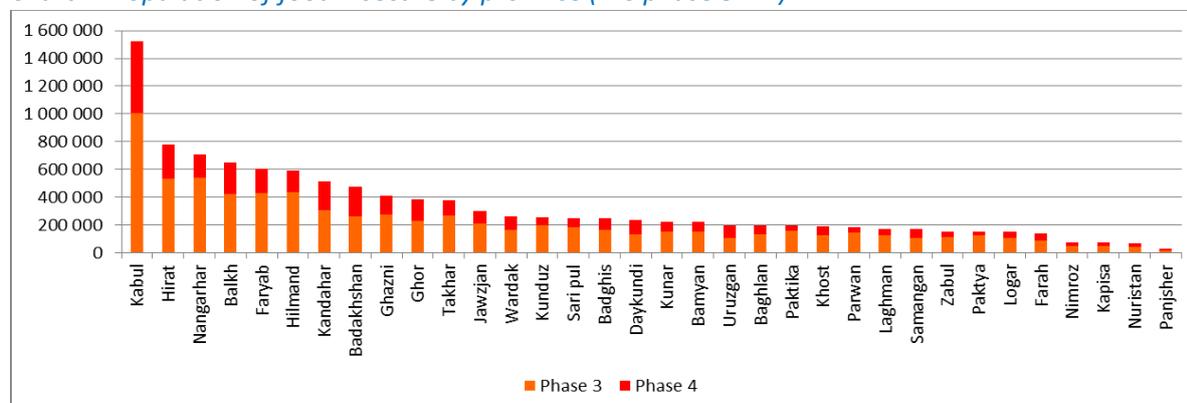
Chart 3: Share of food insecure population by province (IPC phase 3 + 4)



⁴ Jawzjan (30%), Logar (15%), Khost (11%), Hilmand (11%), Ghazni (10%), Kunarha (10%), Faryab (9%), Zabul (5%), Paktika (5%), Parwan (5%), Bamyan (5%), Takhar (4%), Kunduz (2%), Kandahar (2%) and Nangarhar (2%).

However, Chart 4 below provides a clearer overview of *where* Afghanistan’s food insecure population is. It shows that Kabul province alone accounts for 14% of the food insecure population in the country. Other provinces with high absolute numbers of food insecure include Herat (7%), Nangarhar (6%), Balkh (6%), Faryab (5%), Hilmand (5%), Kandahar (5%) and Badakhshan (4%).

Chart 4: Population of food insecure by province (IPC phase 3 + 4)



Dimensions of food security

The SFSA surveyed five key indicators related to household food security: Food consumption score (FCS), livelihood coping strategies (LCS), reduced coping strategy index (rCSI), household hunger scale (HHS) and household dietary diversity score (HDDS). Analyses of these indicators are given in the sections below, while Table Two gives an overview of indicators by province.

Table two indicates that provinces in the central and south-east regions have better levels of food security, particularly Parwan, Kapisa, Panjsher and Ghazni. These provinces appear to be more resilient considering also that they were the least-affected by the 2018 drought as well as the overall magnitude of the shocks (in terms of percentage of people affected) was lower in the past 6 months compared to other regions.

The provinces in north region are those where food security indicators have deteriorated significantly, in connection with the stronger impact of localised natural disasters (drought/dry spell or floods/heavy rains) and conflicts on the smallholder farmers and breeders living there.

In addition; many provinces throughout the rest of the country show alarmingly high figures across the five food security indicators measured by SFSA, particularly those who experienced a significant erosion of their resilience following the 2018 drought and did not yet recovered such as Ghor, Badghis (West region), Nimroz, Urozgan (South-West region), Daykundi (Central highlands) and Badakhshan, Nooristan (North-East).

Table 2: Indicators of household food security by province

Region	Province	Households with poor food consumption (%)	Households engaging in emergency coping strategies (%)	Households engaging in high consumption-based coping strategies (%)	Households experiencing severe hunger (%)	Households with low dietary diversity (4 food groups or less) (%)
Central	Kabul	29%	29%	23%	6%	25%
	Kapisa	15%	15%	3%	1%	9%
	Parwan	6%	20%	1%	0%	8%
	Maidan Wardak	30%	33%	17%	0%	20%
	Logar	18%	28%	11%	1%	7%

	Panjsher	13%	7%	4%	2%	21%
	Ghazni	26%	10%	5%	0%	21%
Central Highland	Bamyan	47%	21%	7%	1%	21%
	Daykundi	79%	29%	24%	8%	77%
South-East	Paktika	8%	27%	8%	0%	19%
	Paktya	11%	52%	8%	1%	15%
	Khost	15%	30%	23%	1%	9%
South-West	Urozgan	55%	60%	46%	5%	54%
	Zabul	46%	14%	13%	0%	11%
	Kandahar	21%	53%	18%	6%	24%
	Helmand	29%	58%	29%	0%	27%
	Nimroz	77%	29%	21%	2%	71%
West	Ghor	62%	51%	40%	2%	54%
	Badghis	39%	52%	38%	3%	47%
	Herat	46%	38%	26%	7%	39%
	Farah	16%	25%	12%	1%	19%
North	Samangan	85%	42%	20%	3%	81%
	Balkh	83%	30%	26%	3%	68%
	Sar-e-Pul	86%	48%	21%	15%	57%
	Jawzjan	80%	46%	18%	3%	70%
	Faryab	98%	51%	6%	0%	50%
North-East	Baghlan	27%	7%	14%	0%	22%
	Badakhshan	66%	35%	13%	2%	53%
	Takhar	64%	25%	9%	1%	37%
	Kunduz	38%	20%	17%	3%	32%
East	Nangarhar	24%	41%	24%	1%	14%
	Kunarha	18%	44%	19%	1%	25%
	Laghman	1%	51%	29%	2%	6%
	Nooristan	33%	35%	6%	2%	19%
National		40%	35%	20%	3%	32%

Note: The cell shading indicates the lowest 5 (green) and highest 10 (red) figures for each indicator.

Food consumption and dietary diversity

The **Food Consumption Score (FCS)** is a composite indicator based on dietary diversity, food frequency, and the relative nutritional importance of the different food groups consumed over a seven-day recall period. Higher FCS is associated with higher energy intake and nutritional adequacy⁵. **Household Diet Diversity Score (HDDS)** is a proxy indicator for household nutrient intake based on a 24-hour recall period across 12 food groups⁶.

Many households in Afghanistan are struggling to meet their basic food needs. Two out of five households (40%) consume a poor diet of low nutrient and caloric value, a proportion twice that a year ago.

⁵ Reference FCS validation here

⁶ Cite FAO 2010 guidelines

The share of households with poor food consumption reaches more than 75% overall [(Faryab (98%), Sar-e-Pul (86%), Samangan (85%), Balkh (83%), Jawzjan (80%), Daykundi (79%) and Nimroz (77%)].

Map 2: Share of households with poor food consumption, by province

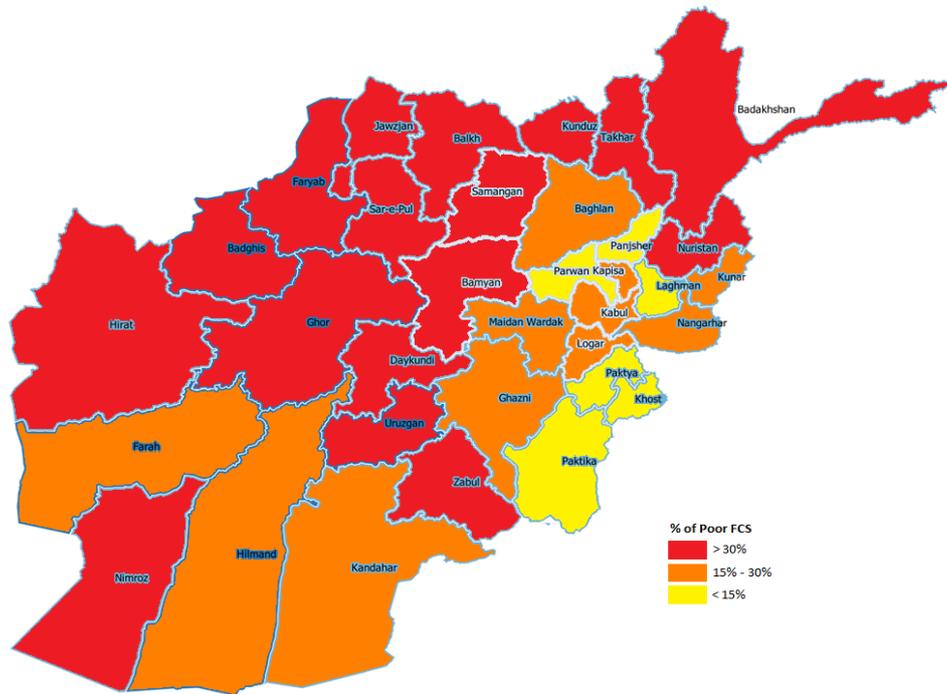


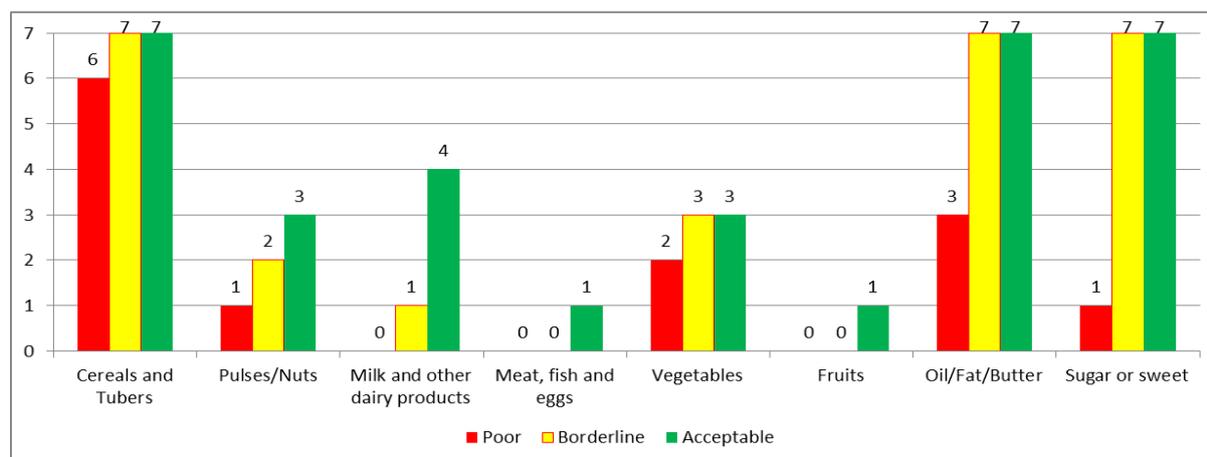
Chart 5 shows that households in Afghanistan with poor food consumption typically eat a low-varied diet of cereals 6 days a week, oil 3 days a week, vegetables twice a week, sugar and pulses each once a week. Even households with “acceptable” diets have low consumption of foods like fruits, meat, eggs and flesh foods, which are consumed an average of just once per week.

Compared to last year at the same period, changes in food diet are the following:

- For households having a poor food consumption:
 - A decrease (by one day) in the median number of days of cereals/tubers’ consumption per week;
 - Dairy products and fruits are no longer consumed at all (vs. one day each per week a year ago);
 - For households having a borderline food consumption: meat, eggs and flesh foods as well as fruits are no longer consumed at all (vs. one day each per week a year ago); at the same time, sugar is now consumed every day of the week (vs. six days per week a year ago);
 - For households having an “acceptable” food consumption: an increase (by one day) in the median number of days of pulse/nuts’ consumption per week.

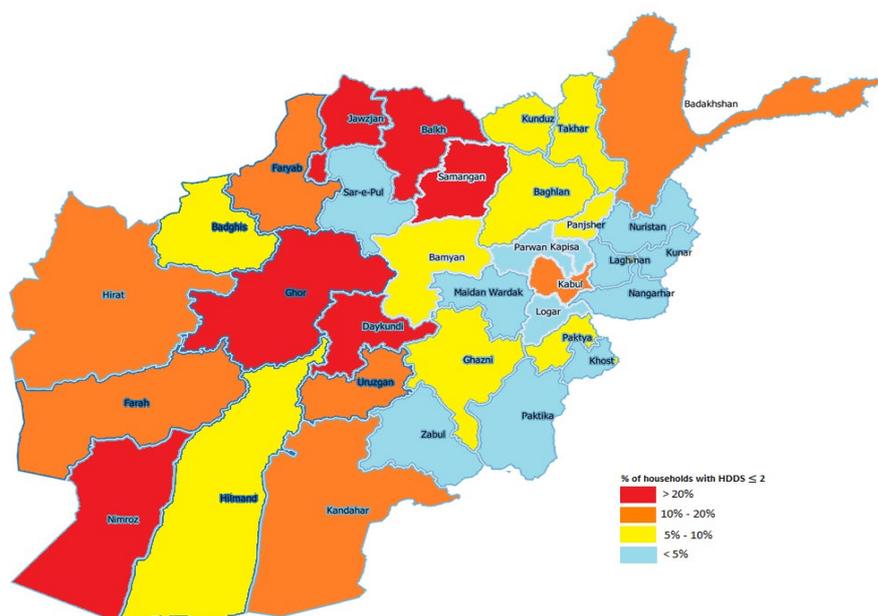
These drops (in median days of consumption) reflect a decline of the households' access to the food groups concerned over the past 12 months.

Chart 5: Median days of consumption per week



In terms of HDDS, the number of food groups eaten the day before the survey was less than five for 36% of households (including the 16% that have eaten 0 to 2 food groups). As shown by the Map Three, it is mainly in Samangan (41%), Nimroz (30%), Balkh (26%), Ghor (24%), Daykundi (24%) and Jawzjan (22%) provinces where this situation is more acute with more than one fifth of households having a low/poor nutrient intake based on a 24-hour recall period across 12 food groups. In addition to the 6 provinces mentioned above; Sar-e-Pul (57%), Uruzgan (54%), Badakhshan (53%), Faryab (50%) and Badghis (47%) have also high proportions of households having eaten not more than 4 food groups. In Samangan, Daykundi and Nimroz, the median value of the HDDS is 3 (vs. 4 for the others provinces mentioned above - except Badghis where it is 5).

Map 3: Share of households with poor/low HDDS nutrient intake, by province



Livelihood Coping Strategies (LCS)

Households in Afghanistan are still struggling to cope with poor or reduced food access, and to face with the impact of multiple shocks experienced: impact amplified by their low resilience capacity. Three-fifths (61%) of Afghan households are relying on either crisis or emergency livelihood coping strategies in order to meet their basic food needs. This is the 2nd highest seen in the last 5 years - after the 66% observed during the previous drought of 2018 (see Table One above).

Table 3 below gives an overview of the different coping strategies adopted by households in order to meet their basic food needs. Almost two-thirds of households said they had to borrow food or money for food during the previous 30 days: this proportion is twice less in Panjsher and Parwan. Two-fifths of households said they were forced to decrease expenditure on investments like health, education and agricultural inputs: this situation is more acute in the provinces of Kunarha, Maidan Wardak, Nangarhar, Nooristan and Uruzgan where more than two-thirds of households have adopted this strategy. In provinces like Uruzgan, Hilmand, Badghis, Faryab, Kandahar and Kunarha, 34% to 44% of households said they had resorted to begging and/or charity.

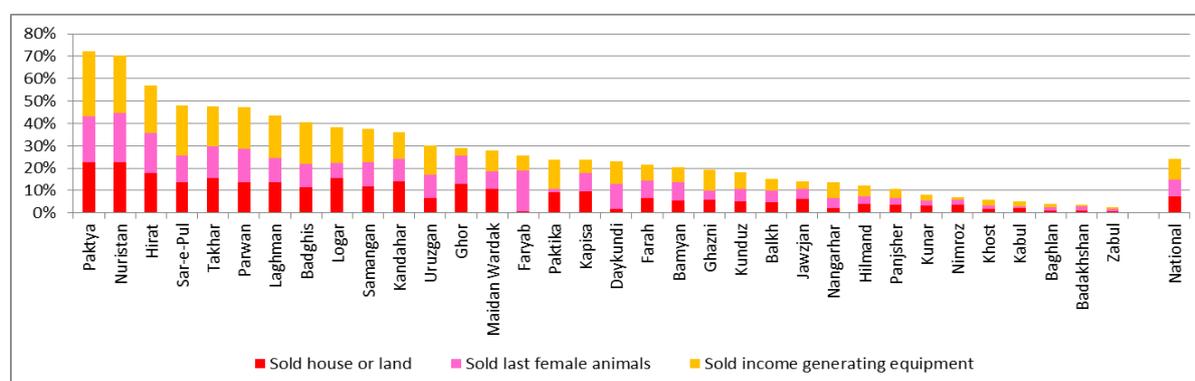
Over the past 12 months, the proportion of households adopting the different livelihoods-based strategies has increased by 7 percentage points on average: suggesting a significant increase in the magnitude of the impact of shocks that have occurred during this period.

Table 3: Livelihood coping strategies adopted in the previous 30 days

Severity	Coping strategy	Prevalence	
		2020	2019
Stress	Borrow food or money for food	65%	51%
	Spent savings	46%	43%
	Sold more animals than usual or earlier than usual	26%	19%
	Sold household assets (appliances, furniture, doors, windows, roof beams)	17%	11%
Crisis	Decreased expenditures on health, education, etc.	37%	22%
	Decreased expenditure on fertilizer, pesticide, fodder, animal feed, veterinary care, etc.	23%	19%
	Sold income generating equipment	18%	12%
Emergency	Begging/Rely on Charity	19%	7%
	Sold last female animals	13%	6%
	Sold house or land	8%	4%

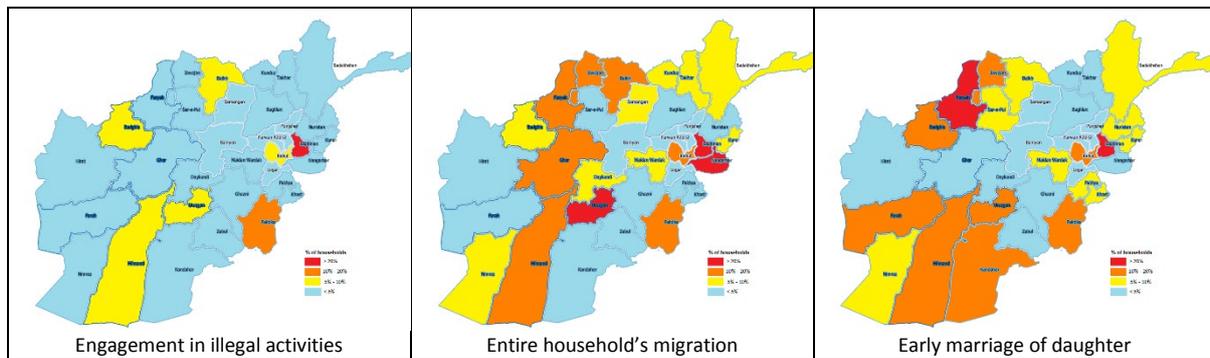
One seventh of households have already exhausted some of their most extreme livelihood coping strategies like sold their house or land, sold last female animals and/or sold income generating equipment in order to buy food: including the 3% that already exhausted all of them. Paktya, Nooristan and Herat are the provinces with the highest proportion of households having exhausted these extreme livelihoods coping strategies (18% to 29%).

Chart 6: Cumulative percentage of households who have already exhausted their most extreme livelihood coping strategies



Such desperation in fragile contexts can have disastrous consequences like households member's engagement in illegal activities, households forced to marry off their daughter at a young age and/or entire household's migration in order to improve their access to food. As shown by the maps below, Laghman is the only province where each of these consequences has affected more than 30% of households.

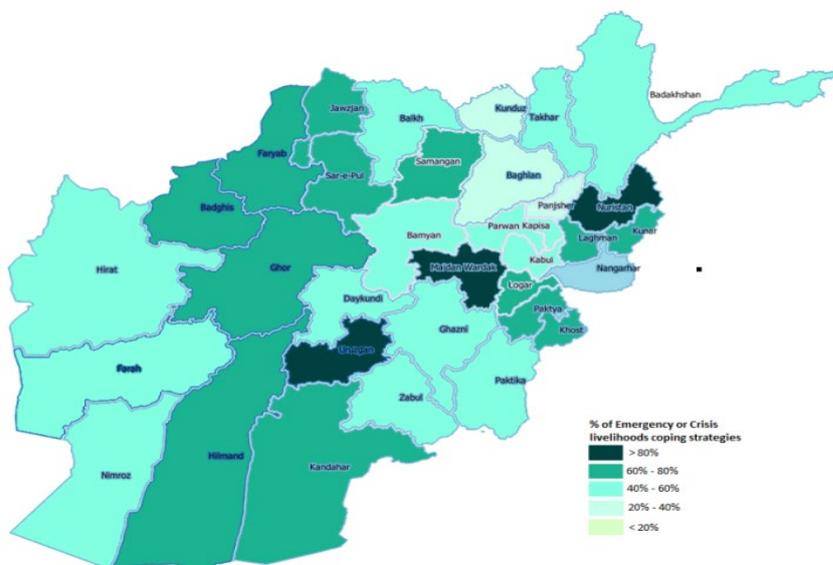
Map 4: Share of households engaged in illegal activities, entirely migrating and forced to marry off their daughter at a young age, by province



Food shortages are also driving Afghan households into debt. More than three quarters of households said they had borrowed money or in-kind items in the past 3 months (+10 percentage points more than last year), most of whom said their primary reason was to buy for food (76%, +11 percentage points compared to a year ago), or to cover other needs like health costs (19%, +6 percentage points compared to a year ago) or ceremonies (5%, one percentage point less than last year). These households generally have poorer food consumption, lower dietary diversity, higher levels of coping strategies and higher food stress.

A small number of respondents (3%, three percentage points less than a year ago) said their primary purpose was to invest in agricultural inputs (2.4%) or business (0.6%). These households generally have much better food security across all indicators.

Map 5: Share of households resorting to emergency or crisis coping strategies

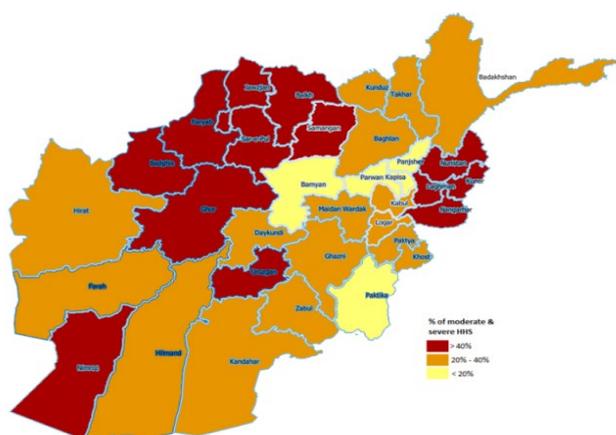


Household hunger and food stress

The **Household Hunger Scale (HHS)** is a perception-based method of assessing food insecurity. It is a household level indicator and involves three occurrence questions over a 4-week recall period that focuses on the food quantity dimension of food access and does not measure dietary quality. The **Reduced Coping Strategy Index (rCSI)** is a proxy indicator for household food stress. Households are asked if they applied any of five food-based coping strategies when they did not have enough food or money to buy food.

Overall, 48% of the households in Afghanistan had experienced some sort of hunger in the 30 days prior to the survey, and of them 3% experienced severe hunger. Compared to last year, this represents respectively an increase of +14 and +1 percentage points. Levels of severe hunger were particularly high in Sar-e-Pul (15%), Kandahar (6%), Herat (7%), Kabul (6%) and Daykundi (8%). The map below indicates the provinces where households are faced with immediate food stress.

Map 6: Share of households experiencing moderate or severe hunger, by province



One-fifth of Afghan households have adopted high food-based coping strategies in order to meet their basic food needs (+12 percentage points compared to last year): mainly relying on less preferred/expensive food (2 days per week), borrowing food or relying on friends/relatives' help (2 days per week) and limiting portion size at mealtimes (1 day per week) - numbers of days representing the median values. Uruzgan, Ghor, Badghis, Hilmand and Laghman are provinces where more than a quarter of households have engaged in high food-based coping strategies.

Map 7: Share of households engaging in high consumption-based coping strategies, by province

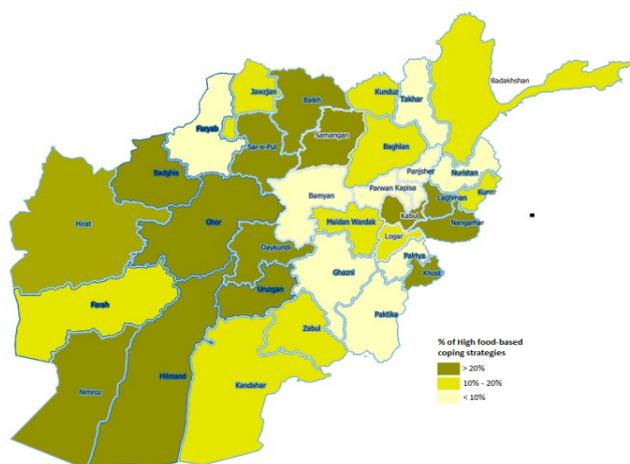


Table 4: Overall households distribution across IPC food security 1st level outcomes indicators

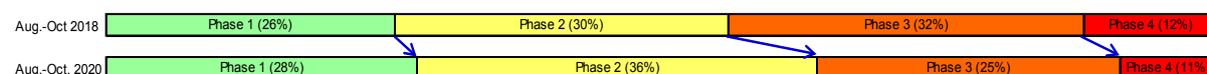
Food Consumption Score (FCS)	Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)	Household Hunger Scale (HHS)	Livelihoods Coping Strategies (LCS)											TOTAL	
			HH not adopting coping strategies			Stress coping strategies			Crisis coping strategies			Emergencies coping strategies			
			Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI) Groups												
		No or low coping	Medium coping	High coping	No or low coping	Medium coping	High coping	No or low coping	Medium coping	High coping	No or low coping	Medium coping	High coping		
Acceptable	5-12 Food groups	None	4.7%	1.0%	0.1%	1.9%	1.9%	0.1%	0.9%	2.1%	0.5%	2.1%	1.4%	0.5%	15.6%
		Slight	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.1%	0.0%	0.6%	0.1%	2.0%
		Moderate	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.8%	0.4%	0.0%	1.3%	0.8%	4.2%
		Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%
	3-4 Food groups	Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
		None	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.9%
		Slight	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%
		Moderate	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.4%
	0-2 Food groups	Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		None	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%
		Slight	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
Borderline	5-12 Food groups	Moderate	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
		Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%
		Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%
		None	2.6%	0.8%	0.0%	1.5%	2.4%	0.2%	0.7%	3.0%	0.5%	0.6%	3.5%	0.7%	16.4%
	3-4 Food groups	Slight	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.6%	0.1%	0.1%	1.0%	0.4%	0.1%	1.3%	0.3%	4.1%
		Moderate	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.3%	0.1%	1.6%	0.7%	0.0%	2.8%	1.5%	8.0%
		Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%
		Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	0-2 Food groups	None	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	0.4%	0.0%	0.1%	0.4%	0.0%	0.2%	0.3%	0.1%	2.2%
		Slight	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.8%
		Moderate	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.3%	0.3%	0.0%	0.5%	0.4%	2.0%
		Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
Poor	5-12 Food groups	Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		None	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.7%
		Slight	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%
		Moderate	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.5%
	3-4 Food groups	Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		None	0.7%	0.7%	0.0%	0.5%	1.6%	0.1%	0.3%	1.4%	0.4%	0.2%	1.4%	0.2%	7.5%
		Slight	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.4%	0.1%	0.0%	0.6%	0.1%	0.1%	0.6%	0.2%	2.4%
	0-2 Food groups	Moderate	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.3%	0.1%	1.0%	0.7%	0.1%	2.1%	0.9%	6.3%
		Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%
		Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%
		None	0.4%	0.3%	0.0%	0.4%	1.2%	0.1%	0.2%	0.8%	0.2%	0.2%	0.9%	0.3%	5.1%
TOTAL	5-12 Food groups	Slight	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%	0.0%	0.8%	0.4%	2.5%
		Moderate	0.2%	0.3%	0.1%	0.0%	1.1%	0.5%	0.1%	1.2%	0.6%	0.0%	2.2%	1.2%	7.4%
		Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.2%	0.6%
		Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.2%
3-4 Food groups	None	0.2%	0.4%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.5%	0.1%	2.3%	
	Slight	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%	1.1%	
	Moderate	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.5%	0.3%	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	1.1%	0.7%	3.8%	
	Severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%	
0-2 Food groups	Very severe	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.4%	
	None	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	Slight	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	Moderate	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	

The table 4 provides an overview of the households’ distribution across IPC food security 1st level outcomes indicators (FCS, HDDS, HHS, LCS and rCSI). It shows that:

- ➔ A tenth (11%) of households have a poor/borderline food consumption combined with (i) the adoption of crisis or emergencies livelihoods-based coping strategies, (ii) high food-based coping, (iii-a) an inadequate HDDS nutrient intake (0-4 food groups) OR (iii-b) experienced a moderate to very severe hunger stress. These households are probably those in emergency situation: experiencing large food consumption gaps and trying to mitigate it through emergency livelihoods strategies and asset liquidation;
- ➔ Almost 5% of households have an acceptable diet as well as an adequate HDDS nutrient intake (≥ 5 food groups), without resorting on any food/livelihoods-based coping nor experiencing any sort of hunger stress.

How has Afghanistan recovered since the 2018-19 drought?

In terms of magnitude, the overall current situation of food insecurity in rural areas is still better compared to 2018 one⁷: the number of rural people severely acutely food insecure (8.6 million) being 13% lower than 2018 figures (9.9 million) - meaning that globally and despite the COVID-19, the food security situation in Afghanistan rural areas has improved - with a 8 percent point of decrease in the share of rural people severely acutely food insecure over the past two years.

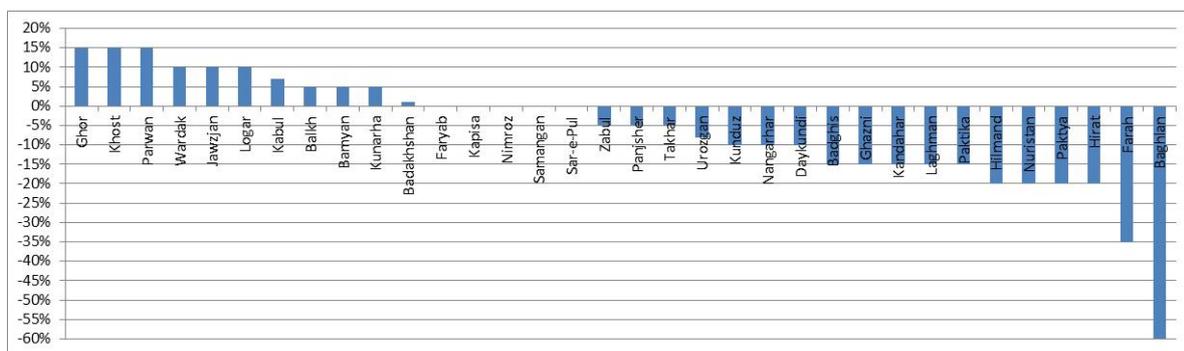


⁷ The 2018 IPC acute analysis only covered rural Afghanistan. Therefore, comparisons made on this section focus only to the rural of the 2020 current IPC acute analysis.

In terms of severity, the number of provinces in emergency situation (IPC Phase 4) increased from 3 (in Aug.-Oct. 2018) to 4 (in Aug.-Oct. 2020). More specifically, 4 provinces (Badakhshan, Daykundi, Ghor and Uruzgan) slipped from IPC phase 3 (Crisis) to IPC phase 4 (Emergency) while it was the reverse for three other provinces (Badghis, Nooristan and Kandahar). The prevalence of food insecurity actually rose in 12 provinces between 2018 and 2020, and in 4 provinces food insecurity levels remained unchanged⁸. As a result, 11 out of Afghanistan’s 34 provinces have experienced an increase in the total number of severely food insecure since 2018 (chart 7). These include some of the worst-hit provinces from the 2018 drought, such as Badakhshan and Ghor, which are still experiencing rising of severe food insecurity. Other highly drought-affected provinces, like Badghis, Nooristan and Daykundi, have improved, with the number of severely food insecure falling by at least 10 percent over the past two years.

Parwan, Wardak and Kabul - provinces which are historically relatively food secure - are also experiencing increases in the number of severely food insecure. Baghlan and Farah have also seen a particularly large decrease in severe food insecurity over the two past years (respectively -60% and -35%).

Chart 7: 2018-2020 percent change in population of severely food insecure Afghans (IPC phase 3+), by province (rural only)



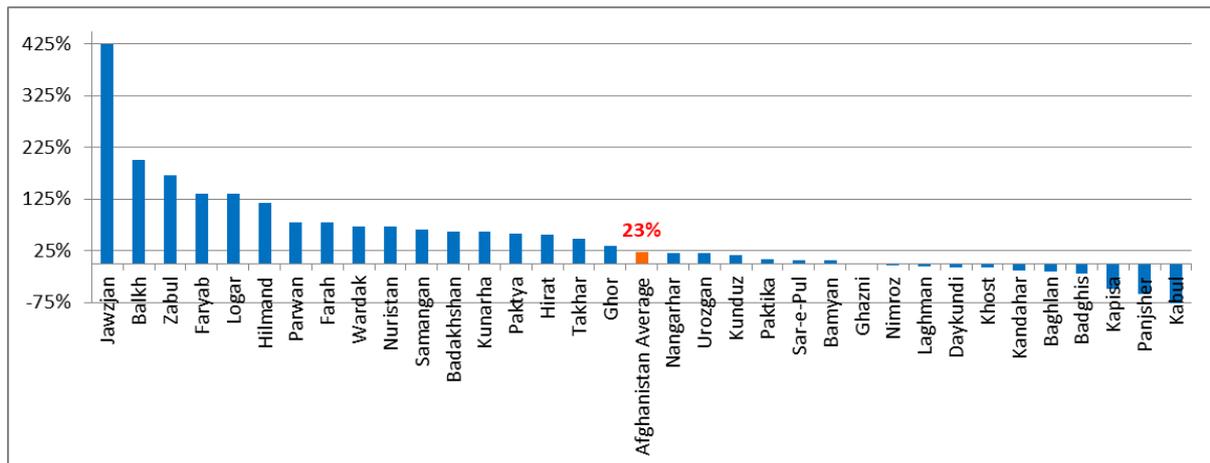
How does the current situation compare to pre-drought levels?

Afghanistan’s food security situation has not returned to pre-drought levels. Compared to 2017, there are an additional 1.6 million severely food insecure people living in rural areas of Afghanistan, an increase of 23 percent. In provinces like Zabul (2.7x), Faryab (2.3%), Logar (2.3%) and Hilmand (2.2x), the number of severely food insecure people has more than doubled since 2017 (Chart 8) and even tripled in Balkh (3.0x) and quintupled Jawzjan (5.2x), indicating the persistence of a very low resilience of households as well as the fact that they did not recover from shocks since 2018 nor returned to the 2018 pre-drought levels of food insecurity.

Only Kabul (-77%), Panjsher (-60%) and Kapisa (-50%), also least affected by the 2018 drought, have seen a large reduction in severe food insecurity since 2017: their number of severely food insecure people has decreased by more than half.

⁸ Parwan (35%), Kabul (25%), Kunduz (10%), Panjsher (10%), Samangan (10%), Faryab (10%), Logar (10%), Balkh (5%), Khost (5%), Nimroz (5%), Jawzjan (5%) and Sar-e-Pul (5%); while remaining unchanged in Ghor, Kapisa, Takhar and Wardak.

Chart 8: 2017-2020 percentage change in total number of severely food insecure Afghans (IPC phase 3+)



Households & Communities main priorities

Households and communities' main priorities to address shocks impacts, food access, WASH issues (used as proxy for food utilization) as well as issues with access to rural areas by road are (by order of importance):

- ➔ Food and/or Cash to increase access to food and address households essential needs (58% of households);
- ➔ Assistance/Support to agriculture/livestock livelihoods (49% of households; 65% of communities);
- ➔ To look for employment opportunities (47% of households; 38% of communities);
- ➔ Increase access to improved drinking water quality/quantity (32% of households; 41% of communities);
- ➔ To improve access to health facilities (28% of households; 36% of communities) - in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic;
- ➔ Construction/Repairing of rural roads to improve access rural areas (25% of households, 41% of communities);
- ➔ Improvement to education facilities in the area (14% of households; 22% of communities);
- ➔ Improvement in the housing in the community (9% of households; 7% of communities).

Chart 9: Overview of the households' main priorities at national level

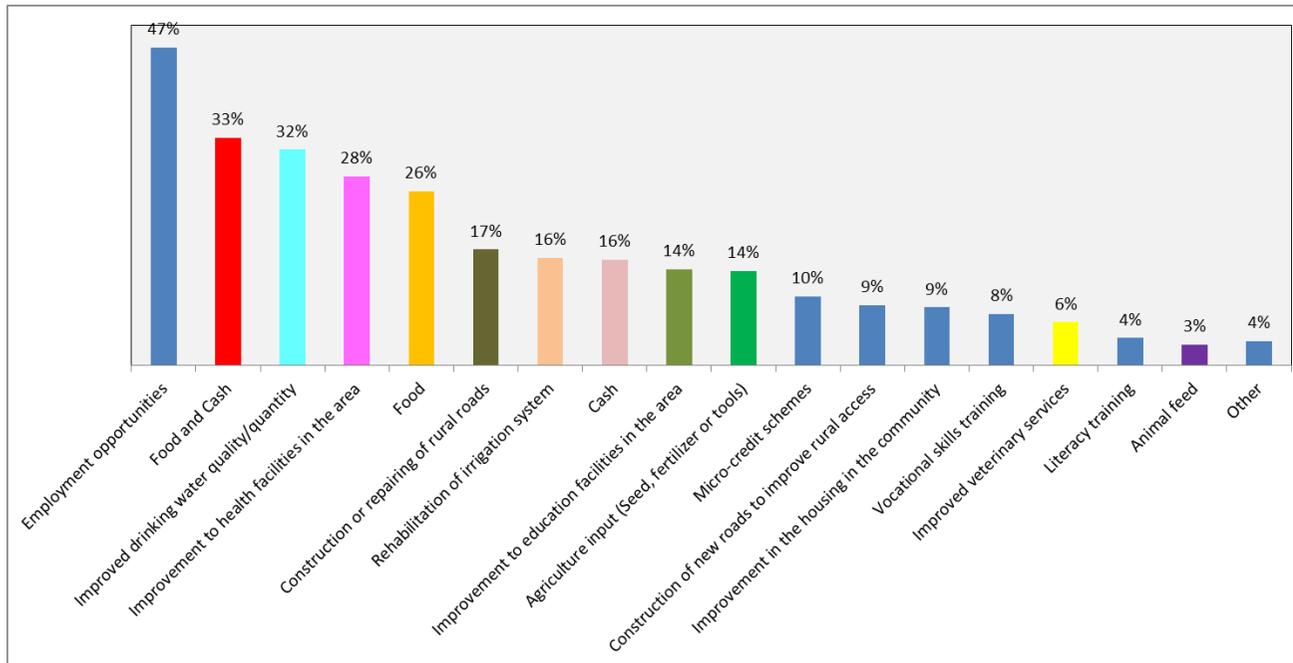


Chart 10: Overview of the communities' main priorities at national level

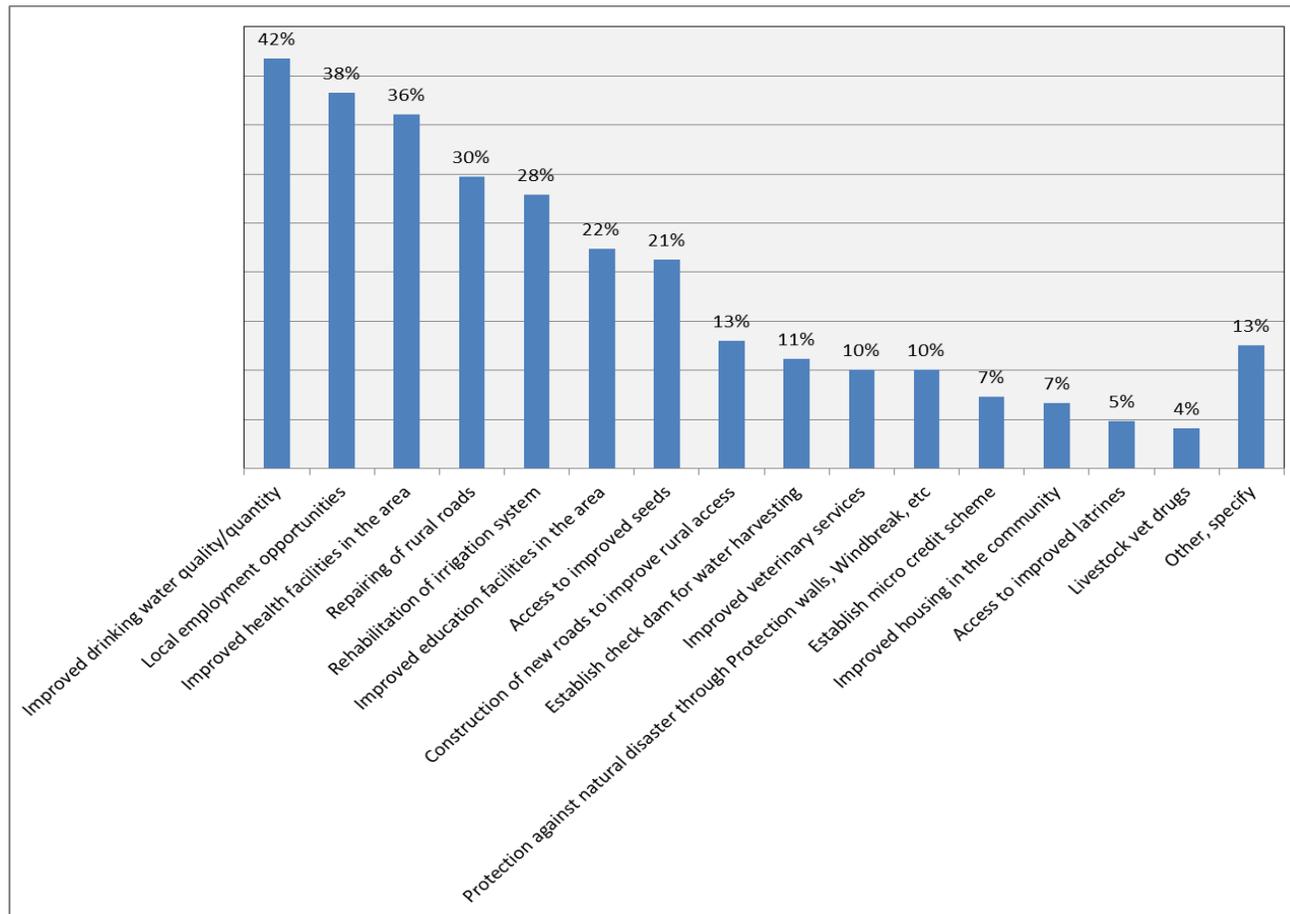


Table 5: Overview of households & communities main priorities considering shocks faced, agricultural and livestock difficulties + WASH issues encountered

Aggregation level	Major events/shocks directly experienced by households in the last 6 months	Land cultivation difficulties faced by households/farmers this cultivation season	Problems with raising animals faced by households/breeders in the past 6 months	WASH problems/issues
National	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reduced income (40%) ▪ Huge increase in food prices (40%) ▪ Loss of employment (38%) ▪ Severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19 (20%) ▪ Severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner due to non-COVID (13%) ▪ Crop pest outbreak (7%) ▪ Floods / Heavy rains (7%) ▪ Conflict induced displacement (6%) ▪ Drought / Dry spell (5%) ▪ Livestock disease outbreak (4%) ▪ Road blocks (4%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Crop pests and diseases (31%) ▪ Unable to obtain agriculture inputs such as seed, fertilizer or tools (30%) ▪ Damaged irrigation systems (11%) ▪ Irrigation/precipitation water shortage - not caused by damaged irrigation systems (9%) ▪ Natural disaster such as landslide, floods, etc. (8%) ▪ Unable to obtain the required tools (5%) ▪ Difficulty accessing markets (4%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of pasture and fodder (17%) ▪ Lack of access to veterinary services (15%) ▪ High price of fodder and concentrates (15%) ▪ Unusual Animal diseases (13%) ▪ Livestock deaths (10%) ▪ Lack of water (8%) ▪ Lack of access to training services (4%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Access to unimproved toilet facilities (54%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⬇ No facility - open field, bush (17%) ⬇ Community / Public latrine (13%) ⬇ Family pit latrine - without slab / open (22%) ⬇ Family flush toilet to open drain (2%) ▪ Access to unimproved source of drinking water (39%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⬇ Open well (15%) ⬇ River/Canal/Stream (10%) ⬇ Open spring (7%) ⬇ Water tanker (2%) ⬇ Open dam/kanda (2%) ⬇ Open kariz (2%) ⬇ Other (1%) ▪ Distance to drinking water source <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⬇ 30-60 minutes (7%) ⬇ > 60 minutes (3%)
Households priorities for the next 6-12 months			Communities priorities to reduce the impact of shocks in the longer term	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Employment opportunities (47%) ▪ Food and Cash (34%) ▪ Improved drinking water quality/quantity (32%) ▪ Improvement to health facilities in the area (28%) ▪ Food (26%) ▪ Construction or repairing of rural roads (17%) ▪ Rehabilitation of irrigation system (16%) ▪ Cash (16%) ▪ Improvement to education facilities in the area (14%) ▪ Agriculture input such as seed, fertilizer or tools (14%) ▪ Micro-credit schemes (10%) ▪ Construction of new roads to improve rural access (9%) ▪ Improvement in the housing in the community (9%) ▪ Vocational skills training (8%) ▪ Improved veterinary services (6%) ▪ Literacy training (4%) 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Improved drinking water quality/quantity (41%) ▪ Local employment opportunities (55%) ▪ Improved health facilities in the area (36%) ▪ Repairing of rural roads (30%) ▪ Rehabilitation of irrigation system (28%) ▪ Improved education facilities in the area (22%) ▪ Access to improved seeds (6%) ▪ Construction of new roads to improve rural access (13%) ▪ Establish check dam for water harvesting (11%) ▪ Improved veterinary services (10%) ▪ Protection against natural disaster through protection walls, windbreak, etc. (10%) ▪ Establish micro credit scheme (9%) ▪ Improved housing in the community (7%) ▪ Access to improved latrines (8%) ▪ Livestock vet drugs (4%) 	

Rural households and communities' main priorities to address shocks impacts, food access, WASH issues (used as proxy for food utilization) as well as issues with access to rural areas by road are (by order of importance):

- ➔ Food and/or Cash to increase access to food and address households essential needs (58% of households);
- ➔ Assistance/Support to agriculture/livestock livelihoods (54% of households; 35% of communities);
- ➔ To look for employment opportunities (42% of households; 38% of communities);
- ➔ Increase access to improved drinking water quality/quantity (31% of households; 49% of communities);
- ➔ Construction/Repairing of rural roads to improve access rural areas (29% of households, 40% of communities);
- ➔ To improve access to health facilities (26% of households; 41% of communities) - in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic;
- ➔ Improvement to education facilities in the area (13% of households; 26% of communities);
- ➔ Improvement in the housing in the community (7% of households; 12% of communities).

Table 6: Overview of households & communities main priorities considering shocks faced, agricultural and livestock difficulties + WASH issues encountered in rural areas

Aggregation level	Major events/shocks directly experienced by households in the last 6 months	Land cultivation difficulties faced by households/farmers this cultivation season	Problems with raising animals faced by households/breeders in the past 6 months	WASH problems/issues
National - Rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Huge increase in food prices (44%) ▪ Reduced income (43%) ▪ Loss of employment (40%) ▪ Severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19 (18%) ▪ Severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner due to non-COVID (15%) ▪ Crop pest outbreak (9%) ▪ Floods / Heavy rains (8%) ▪ Conflict induced displacement (7%) ▪ Drought / Dry spell (6%) ▪ Livestock disease outbreak (5%) ▪ Road blocks (5%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Crop pests and diseases (39%) ▪ Unable to obtain agriculture inputs such as seed, fertilizer or tools (38%) ▪ Damaged irrigation systems (14%) ▪ Irrigation/precipitation water shortage - not caused by damaged irrigation systems (11%) ▪ Natural disaster such as landslide, floods, etc. (11%) ▪ Difficulty accessing markets (5%) ▪ Inability to access land for security reasons (4%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of pasture and fodder (21%) ▪ Lack of access to veterinary services (19%) ▪ High price of fodder and concentrates (19%) ▪ Unusual Animal diseases (17%) ▪ Livestock deaths (13%) ▪ Lack of water (10%) ▪ Lack of access to training services (5%) ▪ Lack of access to animal and dairy product processing technology (4%) ▪ Lack of market to sell animals/products (4%) ▪ Lack of breeding services (4%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Access to unimproved toilet facilities (59%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✚ No facility - open field, bush (21%) ✚ Community / Public latrine (12%) ✚ Family pit latrine - without slab / open (25%) ✚ Family flush toilet to open drain (1%) ▪ Access to unimproved source of drinking water (46%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✚ Open well (18%) ✚ River/Canal/Stream (13%) ✚ Open spring (8%) ✚ Open dam/kanda (3%) ✚ Open kariz (2%) ✚ Water tanker (1%) ✚ Other (1%) ▪ Distance to drinking water source <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✚ 30-60 minutes (9%) ✚ > 60 minutes (3%)
	Households priorities for the next 6-12 months <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Employment opportunities (42%) ▪ Food and Cash (33%) ▪ Improved drinking water quality/quantity (31%) ▪ Food (27%) 		Communities priorities to reduce the impact of shocks in the longer term <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Improved drinking water quality/quantity (49%) ▪ Local employment opportunities (38%) ▪ Improved health facilities in the area (41%) ▪ Repairing of rural roads (31%) 	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Improvement to health facilities in the area (26%) ▪ Construction or repairing of rural roads (20%) ▪ Rehabilitation of irrigation system (19%) ▪ Agriculture input such as seed, fertilizer or tools (18%) ▪ Cash (16%) ▪ Improvement to education facilities in the area (13%) ▪ Micro-credit schemes (11%) ▪ Construction of new roads to improve rural access (11%) ▪ Improved veterinary services (8%) ▪ Improvement in the housing in the community (7%) ▪ Vocational skills training (7%) ▪ Literacy training (4%) ▪ Animals feed (4%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rehabilitation of irrigation system (15%) ▪ Improved education facilities in the area (26%) ▪ Access to improved seeds (21%) ▪ Construction of new roads to improve rural access (10%) ▪ Establish check dam for water harvesting (4%) ▪ Improved veterinary services (3%) ▪ Protection against natural disaster through protection walls, windbreak, etc. (5%) ▪ Establish micro credit scheme (7%) ▪ Improved housing in the community (12%) ▪ Access to improved latrines (5%) ▪ Livestock vet drugs (1%)
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Urban households and communities' main priorities to address shocks impacts, food access, WASH issues (used as proxy for food utilization) as well as issues with access to rural areas by road are employment opportunities, food and/or cash and improved access to basic social services (such as health facilities, WASH, education).

More specifically, these priorities are breakdown as follow (by order of importance):

- ➔ To look for employment opportunities (63% of households; 32% of communities);
- ➔ Food and/or Cash to increase access to food and address households essential needs (57% of households);
- ➔ To improve access to health facilities (35% of households; 34% of communities) - in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic;
- ➔ Increase access to improved drinking water quality/quantity (33% of households; 39% of communities);
- ➔ Assistance/Support to agriculture/livestock livelihoods (31% of households; 75% of communities);
- ➔ Improvement to education facilities in the area (20% of households; 21% of communities);
- ➔ Improvement in the housing in the community (16% of households; 5% of communities);
- ➔ Construction/Repairing of rural roads to improve access rural areas (11% of households, 42% of communities).

Table 7: Overview of households & communities main priorities considering shocks faced, agricultural and livestock difficulties + WASH issues encountered in urban settlements

Aggregation level	Major events/shocks directly experienced by households in the last 6 months	Land cultivation difficulties faced by households/farmers this cultivation season	Problems with raising animals faced by households/breeders in the past 6 months	WASH problems/issues
National - Urban	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reduced income (31%) ▪ Loss of employment (30%) ▪ Severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19 (25%) ▪ Huge increase in food prices (23%) ▪ Severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner due to non-COVID (9%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Not really a concern in urban area 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Not really a concern in urban area 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Access to unimproved toilet facilities (39%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✚ No facility - open field, bush (4%) ✚ Community / Public latrine (16%) ✚ Family pit latrine - without slab / open (12%) ✚ Family flush toilet to open drain (7%) ▪ Access to unimproved source of drinking water (14%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✚ Water tanker (6%) ✚ Open well (5%) ✚ River/Canal/Stream (1%) ✚ Other (2%) ▪ Distance to drinking water source <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✚ 30-60 minutes (3%) ✚ > 60 minutes (1%)
Households priorities for the next 6-12 months			Communities priorities to reduce the impact of shocks in the longer term	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Employment opportunities (63%) ▪ Food and Cash (35%) ▪ Improvement to health facilities in the area (35%) ▪ Improved drinking water quality/quantity (33%) ▪ Food (21%) ▪ Improvement to education facilities in the area (20%) ▪ Cash (16%) ▪ Improvement in the housing in the community (16%) ▪ Vocational skills training (11%) ▪ Micro-credit schemes (8%) ▪ Construction or repairing of rural roads (8%) ▪ Rehabilitation of irrigation system (8%) ▪ Literacy training (4%) 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Improved drinking water quality/quantity (39%) ▪ Improved health facilities in the area (34%) ▪ Rehabilitation of irrigation system (33%) ▪ Local employment opportunities (32%) ▪ Repairing of rural roads (29%) ▪ Access to improved seeds (27%) ▪ Improved education facilities in the area (21%) ▪ Construction of new roads to improve rural access (14%) ▪ Establish check dam for water harvesting (14%) ▪ Improved veterinary services (13%) ▪ Protection against natural disaster through protection walls, windbreak, etc. (12%) ▪ Establish micro credit scheme (7%) ▪ Improved housing in the community (5%) ▪ Livestock vet drugs (5%) ▪ Access to improved latrines (4%) 	

Section 4: Livelihoods & Sources of income

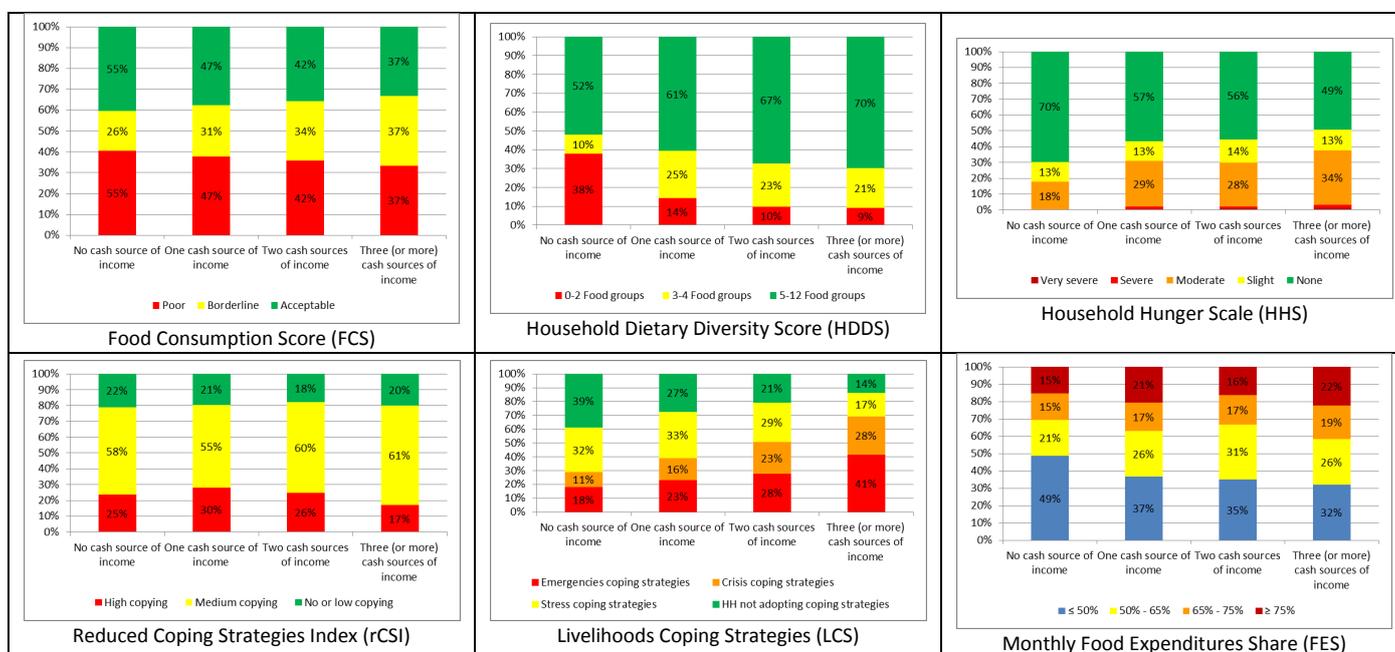
Number of income's sources

In Afghanistan, more than three-fifths (63%) of households have 3 or more cash sources of income. This percentage is almost one-fifth (18%) for those having one or two cash sources of income. Less than 1% of households did not report any cash sources of income.

In an environment with high levels of lack of employment opportunities and reduced income, the diversification of income's sources by Afghan households could be seen as a coping strategy to access to food. As shown in the Chart 11 below, the increase in the number of income's sources (usually small jobs/business) contributes to the improvement of the household diet but, at the same time, it is more associated with households adopting also food-based medium/high coping and/or crisis/emergency livelihood-based strategies.

In terms of food sources, households with diversified sources of cash income (i.e. two or more cash income's sources) rely mainly on market (around 56% for purchase on cash and 23% for purchase on credit) as well as on own production (17%), while those with one or no cash source of income mainly on market (77% for purchase on cash and 14% for purchase on credit): own production accounting only for 6%.

Chart 11: Food security and number of income's sources



Types of livelihoods and/or sources of income

As per the SFSA 2020 responses almost two third (65%) of households rely directly on farming and/or livestock on which 29% are smallholder farmers and 16% are smallholder breeders. In rural area, 79% of households rely on agriculture and livestock livelihoods while this proportion is 12% in urban area.

As shown in tables 8 & 9, farmers, herders as well as households relying primary on wage labour (agricultural or not), humanitarian and/or social assistance are more likely to be food-insecure. Further detailed analyses also show that livestock and/or poultry keepers who experienced multiple shocks are likely to experienced moderate hunger: they are significantly relying on food-based high coping and two crisis/emergency livelihoods coping strategies that temporary help them to ensure a relative non poor diet).

Table 8: Food consumption (FCS, HDDS) Hunger scale (HHS) and livelihoods / sources of income

Livelihoods types - Rural area		Food Consumption Score (FCS)			Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)			Household Hunger Scale (HHS)				
		Acceptable	Borderline	Poor	5-12 Group	3-4 Group	0-2 Group	None	Slight	Moderate	Severe	Very severe
Mixed farmers	Non smallholder	37%	34%	29%	76%	18%	6%	57%	12%	30%	1%	0%
	Smallholder - Irrigated land	30%	44%	26%	77%	18%	5%	58%	13%	28%	1%	0%
	Smallholder - Rainfed land	26%	40%	34%	65%	28%	7%	45%	15%	38%	1%	1%
	Smallholder – All types of land	30%	43%	27%	76%	19%	5%	57%	13%	29%	1%	0%
	Overall	32%	40%	28%	76%	18%	5%	57%	13%	29%	1%	0%
Farmers	Non smallholder	15%	28%	57%	54%	31%	15%	43%	17%	39%	1%	1%
	Smallholder	14%	32%	54%	59%	26%	15%	49%	14%	34%	1%	2%
	Overall	14%	31%	54%	58%	28%	15%	47%	15%	36%	1%	1%
Livestock & Poultry keepers	Non smallholder	36%	39%	25%	82%	14%	4%	53%	11%	35%	0%	0%
	Smallholder	25%	45%	30%	73%	20%	7%	46%	16%	37%	1%	0%
	Overall	25%	45%	30%	73%	20%	7%	46%	16%	37%	1%	0%
Livestock keepers	Non smallholder	27%	35%	39%	67%	24%	9%	52%	12%	34%	1%	1%
	Smallholder	23%	33%	44%	62%	27%	11%	51%	15%	32%	1%	0%
	Overall	24%	34%	42%	64%	26%	10%	51%	14%	33%	1%	1%
Poultry keepers	Non smallholder	43%	29%	28%	62%	31%	7%	65%	27%	7%	0%	0%
	Smallholder	16%	37%	47%	68%	25%	7%	50%	14%	34%	1%	1%
	Overall	16%	37%	46%	68%	25%	7%	51%	14%	34%	1%	1%
Herders	Non smallholder	5%	19%	75%	52%	33%	15%	36%	10%	51%	2%	1%
	Smallholder	8%	25%	67%	53%	39%	7%	42%	18%	38%	2%	0%
	Overall	6%	20%	74%	52%	34%	14%	37%	11%	49%	2%	1%
ALL smallholder farmers		20%	34%	45%	66%	24%	10%	48%	13%	36%	1%	1%
ALL smallholder breeders		24%	36%	40%	69%	22%	9%	52%	13%	33%	1%	1%
Other livelihoods types		21%	39%	40%	68%	24%	8%	48%	15%	35%	1%	0%
1st Households' source of income												
Gifts/Charity		13%	18%	70%	37%	35%	28%	22%	12%	46%	12%	8%
Begging		19%	31%	50%	53%	21%	27%	26%	8%	49%	5%	12%
Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc.		18%	45%	37%	66%	26%	8%	41%	8%	42%	5%	5%
Remittances		24%	29%	48%	62%	27%	11%	62%	11%	25%	1%	0%
Shepherding wage labour		8%	22%	71%	52%	32%	16%	41%	15%	42%	2%	0%
Agricultural wage labour		15%	34%	51%	59%	30%	11%	44%	15%	39%	1%	1%
Non-Agriculture wage labour		14%	34%	51%	60%	27%	13%	41%	14%	42%	2%	2%
Wage labour in Poppy field		24%	44%	32%	65%	24%	11%	43%	12%	44%	1%	0%
Production & sale of field crops		32%	37%	31%	77%	16%	7%	56%	14%	27%	1%	1%
Production & sale of cash crops		34%	37%	29%	72%	21%	6%	52%	11%	37%	0%	0%
Production & sale of orchard products		25%	36%	40%	65%	21%	14%	51%	14%	31%	3%	0%
Production & sale of Poppy		43%	43%	14%	75%	17%	8%	55%	19%	24%	1%	1%
Production & sales of livestock and livestock products		35%	35%	30%	76%	18%	6%	58%	13%	27%	1%	1%
Small business/Petty trade		32%	45%	23%	75%	17%	8%	69%	10%	16%	1%	3%
Skilled labour		24%	40%	36%	74%	19%	8%	55%	12%	30%	2%	0%
Salary work		45%	35%	20%	82%	12%	6%	73%	9%	17%	1%	0%
Transport		25%	42%	32%	68%	24%	8%	52%	15%	30%	1%	3%
Production and Manufacturing		37%	26%	38%	65%	22%	13%	56%	17%	24%	3%	0%
Other		13%	34%	53%	57%	29%	14%	45%	17%	36%	2%	1%
National		24%	36%	40%	68%	22%	10%	52%	13%	32%	2%	1%

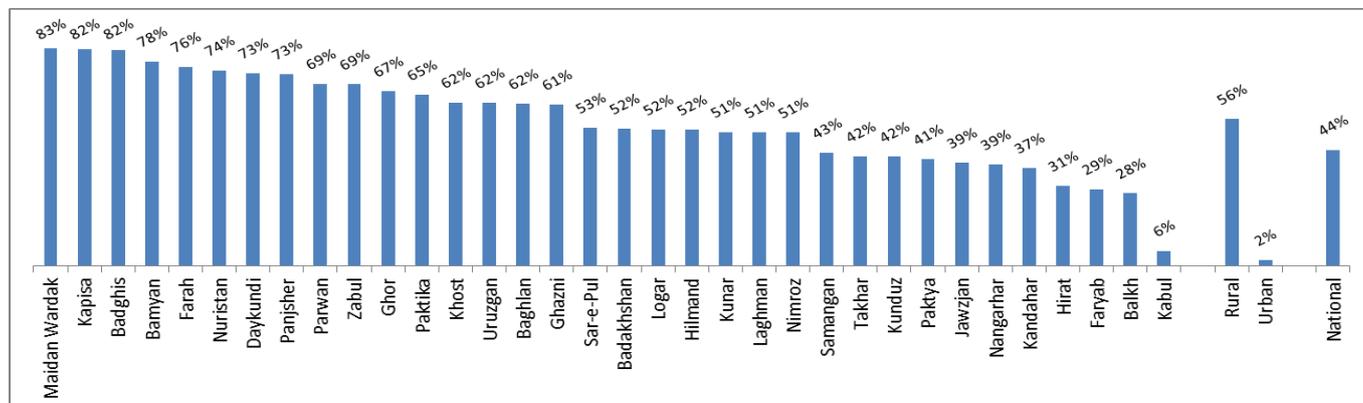
Table 9: Coping strategies (rCSI, LCS) and livelihoods / sources of income

Livelihoods types - Rural area		Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI)			Livelihoods Coping Strategies (LCS)				Monthly Food Expenditures Share (FES)			
		No or low copying	Medium copying	High copying	HH not adopting coping strategies	Stress coping strategies	Crisis coping strategies	Emergency coping strategies	≤ 50%	50% - 65%	65% - 75%	≥ 75%
Mixed farmers	Non smallholder	23%	63%	14%	19%	20%	29%	32%	38%	31%	16%	15%
	Smallholder - Irrigated land	19%	63%	18%	17%	18%	30%	36%	30%	28%	22%	21%
	Smallholder - Rainfed land	17%	61%	22%	12%	16%	31%	41%	35%	25%	19%	21%
	Smallholder - All types of land	19%	63%	18%	16%	18%	29%	36%	30%	27%	21%	21%
	Overall	20%	63%	17%	17%	19%	29%	35%	32%	28%	20%	20%
Farmers	Non smallholder	13%	60%	27%	15%	19%	27%	39%	29%	33%	20%	19%
	Smallholder	15%	67%	19%	15%	22%	24%	39%	25%	30%	21%	24%
	Overall	14%	65%	21%	15%	21%	25%	39%	26%	31%	21%	23%
Livestock & Poultry keepers	Non smallholder	24%	60%	17%	25%	21%	13%	41%	20%	45%	21%	14%
	Smallholder	15%	64%	21%	10%	24%	21%	45%	29%	28%	21%	23%
	Overall	15%	64%	20%	11%	23%	21%	45%	28%	28%	21%	22%
Livestock keepers	Non smallholder	13%	74%	13%	13%	29%	21%	37%	33%	28%	15%	24%
	Smallholder	17%	61%	22%	14%	21%	26%	39%	23%	27%	22%	28%
	Overall	16%	66%	19%	14%	23%	24%	38%	26%	28%	20%	27%
Poultry keepers	Non smallholder	30%	64%	6%	28%	24%	16%	32%	27%	34%	23%	16%
	Smallholder	17%	63%	20%	17%	29%	20%	33%	33%	24%	19%	23%
	Overall	17%	63%	20%	17%	29%	20%	33%	33%	24%	19%	23%
Herders	Non smallholder	8%	61%	31%	8%	21%	23%	47%	29%	28%	18%	25%
	Smallholder	10%	65%	24%	6%	25%	13%	56%	29%	24%	19%	28%
	Overall	9%	61%	30%	8%	22%	22%	48%	29%	28%	18%	25%
ALL smallholder farmers		16%	64%	20%	15%	24%	24%	37%	31%	27%	19%	23%
ALL smallholder breeders		17%	64%	19%	16%	21%	27%	36%	31%	28%	20%	22%
Other livelihoods types		16%	63%	21%	13%	25%	22%	40%	29%	26%	21%	24%
1st Households source of income												
Gifts/Charity		4%	46%	49%	8%	17%	9%	66%	44%	23%	9%	23%
Begging		4%	70%	26%	11%	13%	10%	67%	46%	21%	15%	19%
Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc.		14%	67%	19%	14%	9%	30%	47%	34%	30%	15%	21%
Remittances		21%	67%	12%	23%	24%	19%	34%	43%	27%	17%	13%
Shepherding wage labour		12%	67%	22%	8%	20%	16%	56%	30%	29%	17%	25%
Agricultural wage labour		10%	62%	28%	8%	21%	28%	43%	26%	26%	21%	26%
Non-Agriculture wage labour		12%	64%	24%	13%	23%	24%	39%	31%	27%	20%	21%
Wage labour in Poppy field		7%	68%	25%	5%	24%	15%	56%	22%	20%	28%	31%
Production & sale of field crops		21%	60%	19%	18%	19%	29%	33%	31%	29%	19%	21%
Production & sale of cash crops		15%	67%	18%	19%	20%	31%	30%	31%	26%	22%	21%
Production & sale of orchard products		24%	55%	21%	18%	13%	30%	39%	30%	27%	20%	24%
Production & sale of Poppy		20%	58%	22%	20%	4%	23%	53%	25%	25%	21%	29%
Production & sales of livestock and livestock products		20%	68%	12%	15%	20%	30%	35%	29%	27%	19%	24%
Small business/Petty trade		33%	54%	12%	28%	27%	22%	22%	41%	28%	15%	15%
Skilled labour		25%	59%	16%	17%	27%	22%	34%	37%	26%	18%	19%
Salary work		48%	45%	8%	32%	24%	23%	20%	42%	29%	14%	15%
Transport		33%	46%	20%	30%	23%	21%	26%	41%	27%	16%	16%
Production and Manufacturing		25%	61%	14%	30%	15%	20%	35%	46%	23%	20%	11%
Other		15%	64%	21%	17%	32%	25%	26%	35%	29%	16%	20%
National		20%	60%	20%	17%	22%	25%	36%	34%	27%	18%	21%

Agriculture land access or ownership

In rural Afghanistan, 44% of households do not own or have access to agriculture land (+6 percentage point's increase compared to last year). In urban area, this proportion of households not having ownership or access to agriculture land is 98%.

Chart 12: Share of households owning or having access to agriculture land by province



These households without access to land generally have poor diets and higher levels of food stress. 78% have medium or high levels of consumption-based coping strategies (+11 percentage point's increase over the past 12 months) and 46% have poor food consumption (i.e. a doubling of this proportion in one year). However, those having access to land are more likely to rely on crisis or emergency coping strategies compared to households that do not have it (65% vs. 58%).

Having access to land is likely to reduce by 31% the chance to be severely food-insecure and by 11% the chance to be food-insecure as it can increase household food access through own production.

However, these households with land access are more exposed to (natural shocks/disasters such as drought, floods, landslide, etc.).

While landowners generally earn their income through the sale of agricultural outputs (61%), those who do not have access to land support themselves through non-Agriculture wage labour (24%), skilled labour (14%), salary work (12%) or agricultural wage labour (12%) - Chart 14.

In terms of food sources, households with access to agricultural land rely mainly on market (47% for purchase on cash and 23% for purchase on credit) as well as on own production (28%), while those without access rely mainly on market (71% for purchase on cash and 20% for purchase on credit): own production accounting only for 5% and gifts/charity for 3%.

In rural areas, 76% of households with access to agricultural land also own animals (a 6% decrease over the past 12 months), compared to 20% who do not have access (a 14% decrease compared to last year).

In addition, with median total monthly expenditures estimated at 21,926 AFN (around 292 USD): households with access to agricultural land are likely to have an economic capacity 21% more than household without access to land (17,390 AFN).

Chart 13: Agricultural land ownership or access of respondent or his/her household and food security

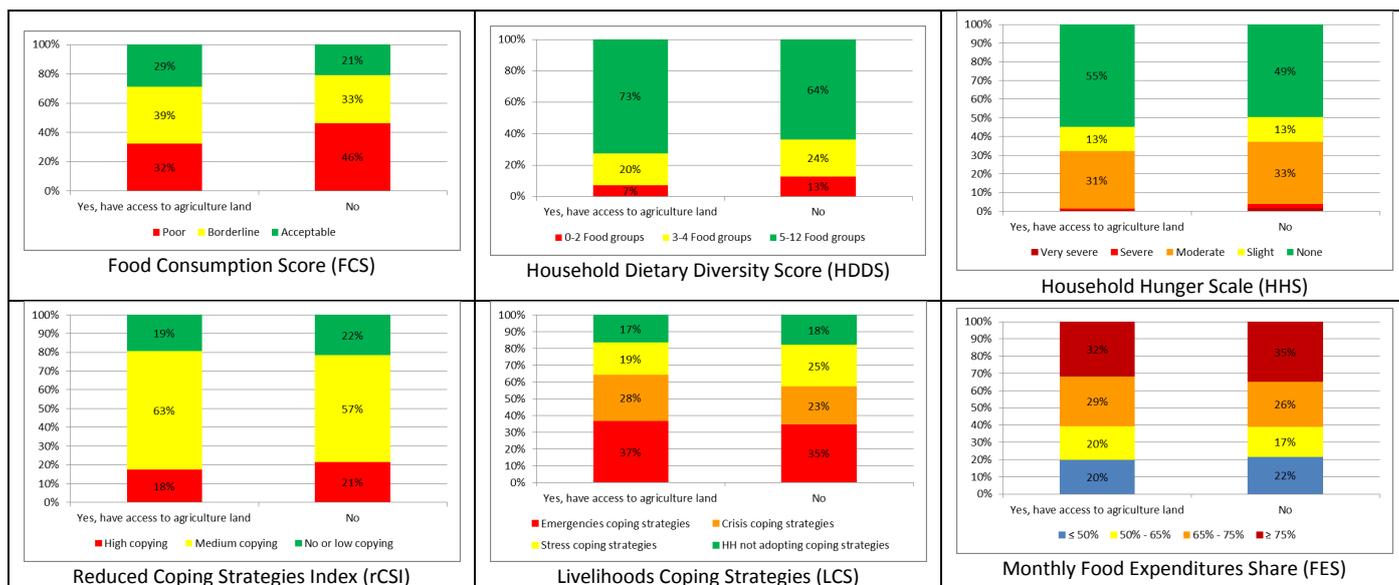
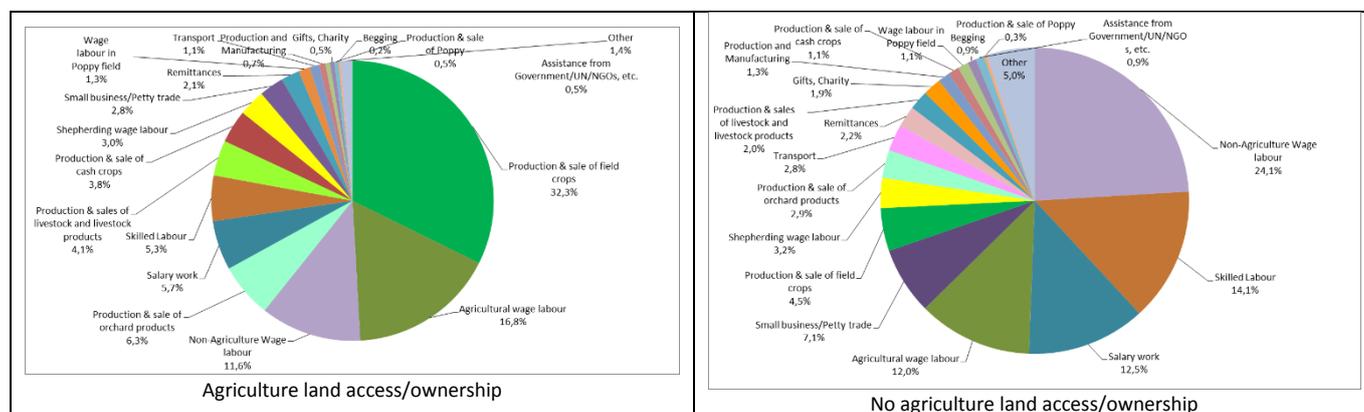


Chart 14: Primary income source for owner's vs. non-owners of agricultural land



Raising animals and/or poultry ownership

In rural Afghanistan, 56% of households raise animals and 46% own poultry. In urban areas, the proportion of households raising animals or owning poultry is 3% and 5% respectively.

Households without access to animals/poultry generally have poor diets as it is likely to be translated in low access to animals' proteins. There seems to be no difference in medium/high/severe coping strategies (either food-based or livelihoods based between these 4 groups (Chart 15). This can be linked with the fact that 72% to 81% of households raising animals and/or poultry experienced shocks/problems like access to livestock inputs/services, unusual animal diseases and/or livestock deaths (vs. 59% for household not raising animals or owning poultry). These households with animals or poultry are more exposed to related shocks/problems.

Raising animals and/or owning poultry is likely to reduce by 10% (for poultry or livestock) to 80% (for both poultry and livestock) the chance to be severely food-insecure and by 10%-20% the chance to be food-insecure.

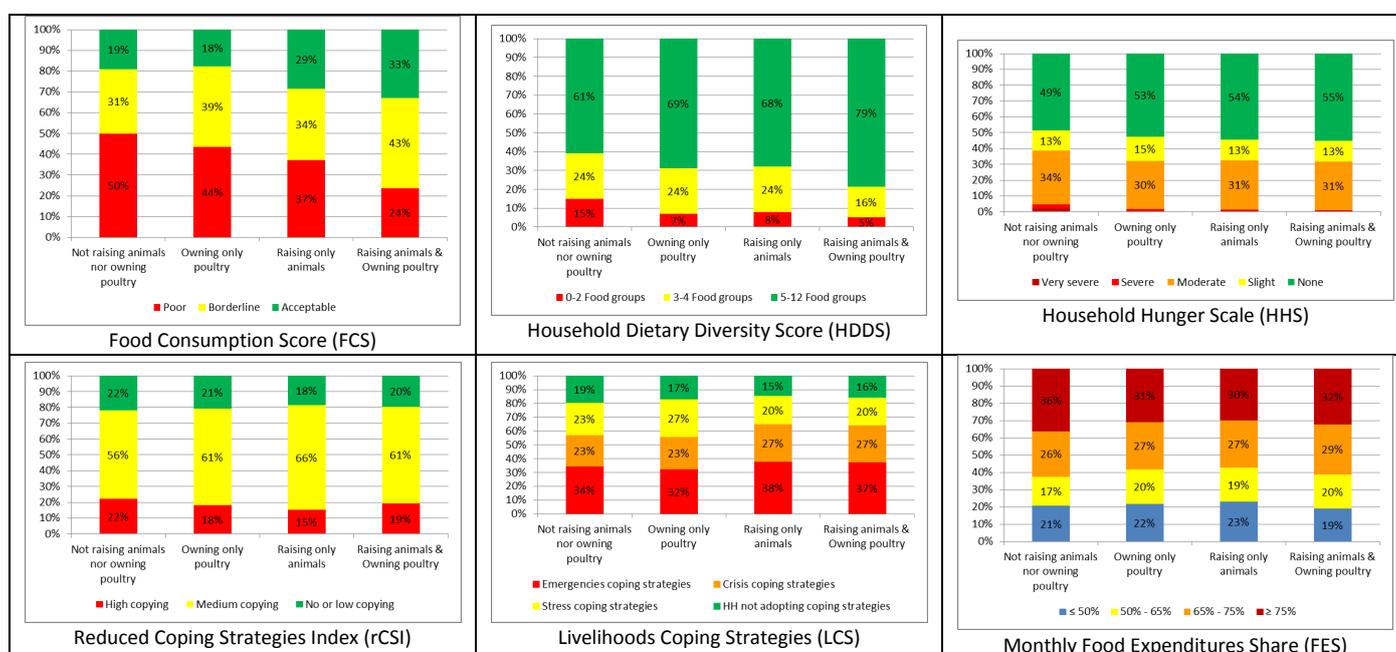
While breeders generally earn their income through production & sale of field crops (25%), agricultural wage labour (16%), non-Agriculture wage labour (15%), skilled labour (7%), salary work (7%), production & sale of orchard products (6%) and production & sales of livestock and livestock products (5%); those without animals/poultry support themselves through non-Agriculture Wage labour (21%), agricultural wage labour (13%), production & sale of field crops (12%), skilled labour (12%) and salary work (11%).

In terms of food sources, households raising animals or owning poultry rely mainly on market (around 50% for purchase on cash and 20%-22% for purchase on credit) as well as on own production (24%-27%), while those without animals/poultry rely mainly on market (63%-69% for purchase on cash and 20% for purchase on credit): own production accounting only for 6%-11% and gifts/charity for 2%-3%.

75% of households raising animals also have access to agricultural land, compared to 20% who do not raise animals: these figures are respectively 75% and 31% for rural area and, 35% and 2% for urban area. 68% of households raising animals also have access to agricultural land, compared to 30% who do not raise animals: these figures are respectively 69% and 45% for rural area and, 17% and 2% for urban area.

In addition, with median total monthly expenditures estimated at around 15,500 AFN (207 USD): households raising animals or owning poultry are likely to have an economic capacity 13% more than household without animals/poultry (around 13,500 AFN).

Chart 15: Raising animals or poultry ownership and food security



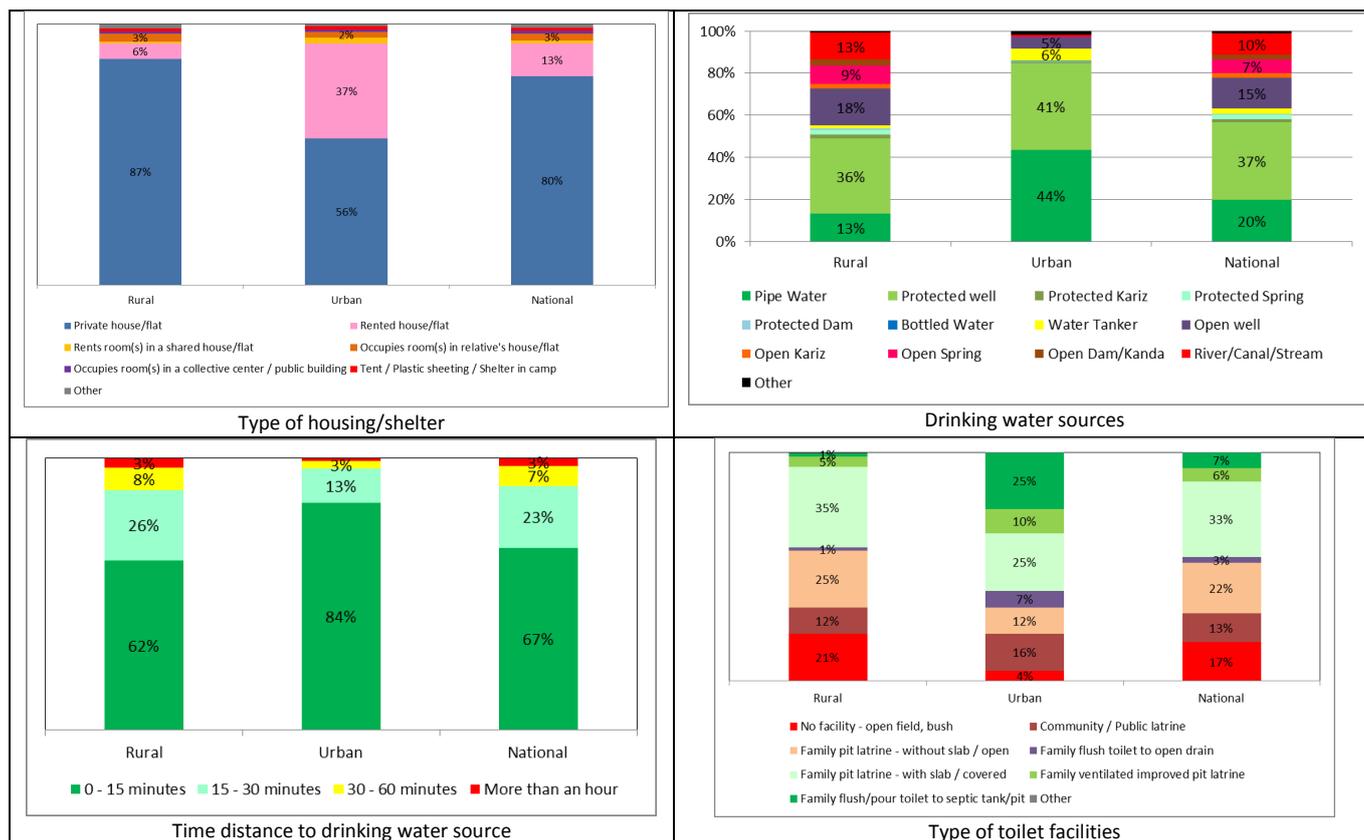
Living conditions

As shown by chart 16, in terms of living condition, at national level:

- 80% of households live in private house/flat, 18% in rents/occupies room(s) and 1% in tent/plastic sheeting/shelter in camp.
- 61% of households have access to improved drinking water sources.
- 46% of households have access to improved toilet facilities.

The living conditions are harder in rural areas compared to urban settlements.

Chart 16: Living conditions by rural/urban area



As shown by charts 17 and 18, households with poor living conditions are more likely to be food-insecure.

Chart 17: Food security by shelter and toilet facilities types

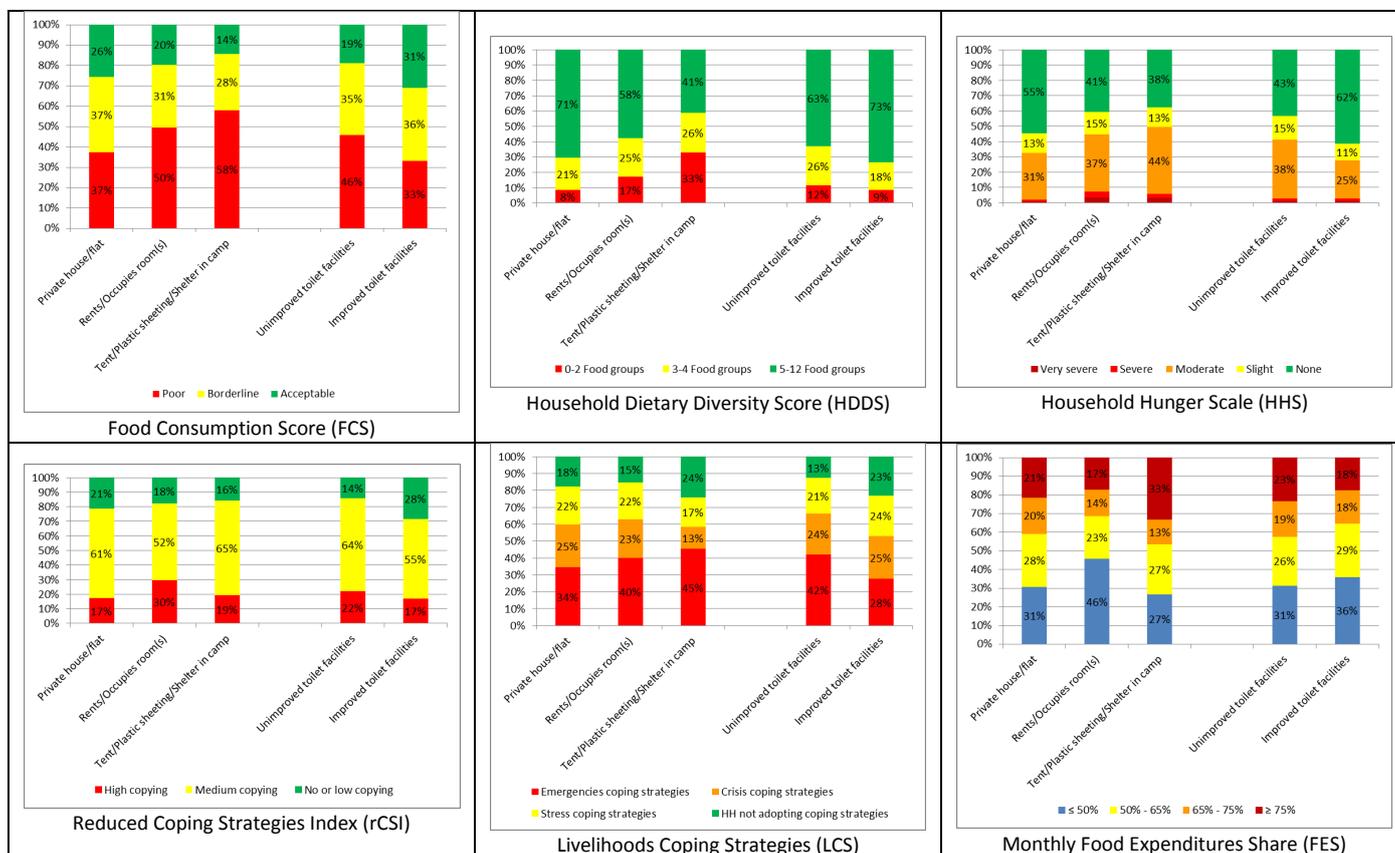
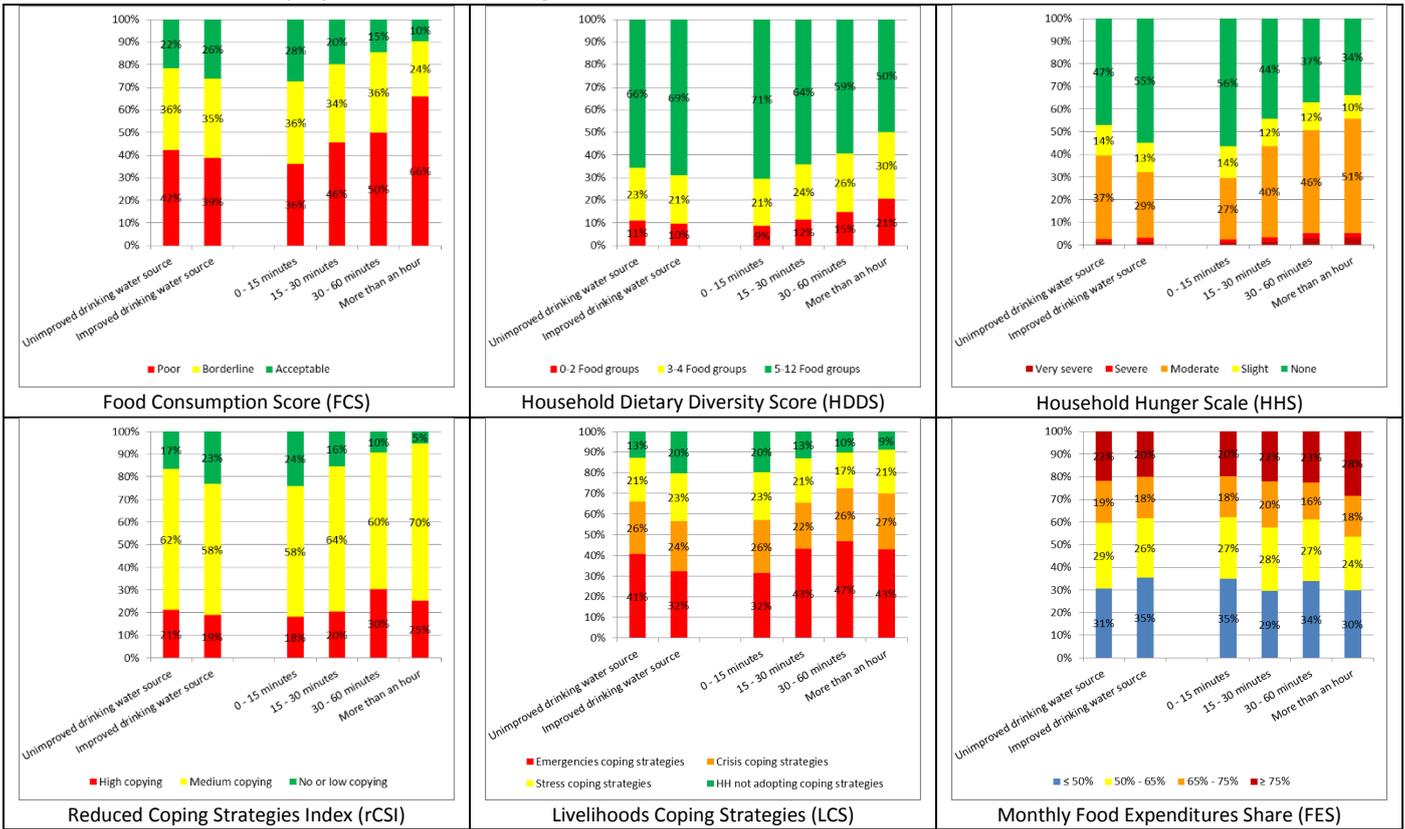


Chart 18: Food security by access to drinking water source



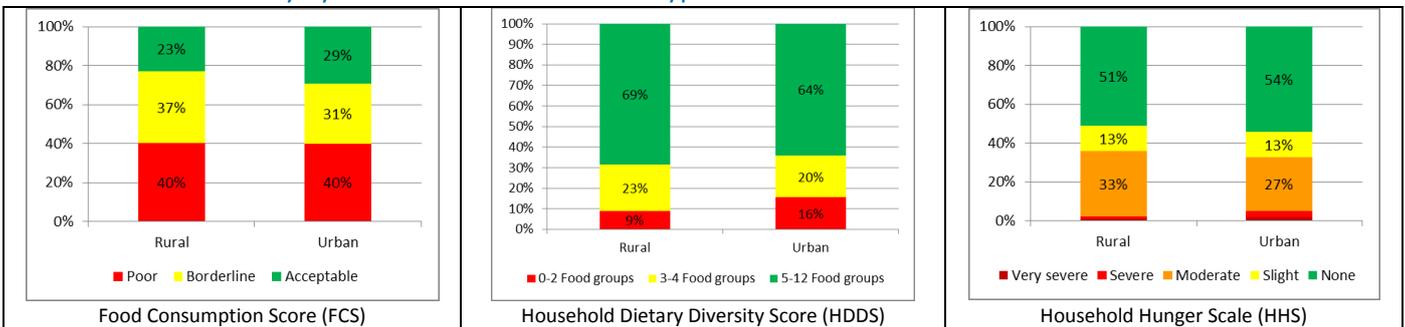
Place of residence

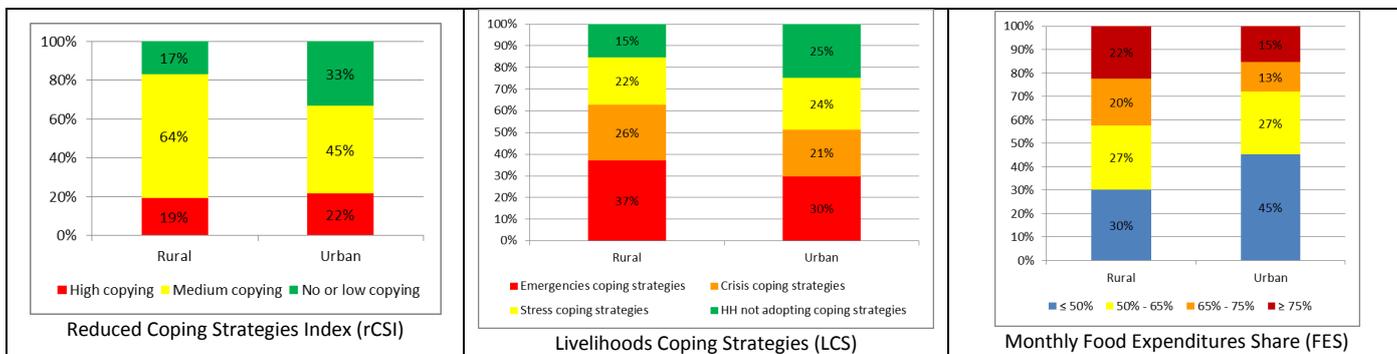
Household living rural area have 10% more chance to be food-insecure and even 40% more chance to be severely food-insecure compared to those living in a city.

In terms of economic capacity, 73% of rural households were not able to spend daily more than one USD per capita (vs. 60% for urban households).

In terms of food sources, rural households rely on mainly on market (55% for purchase on cash and 23% for purchase on credit) as well as on own production (19%), while those living in a city rely mainly on market (78% for purchase on cash and 16% for purchase on credit): own production accounting only for 2%

Chart 19: Food security by shelter and toilet facilities types





Section 5: Characteristics of food insecure

Resident status: Residents, IDPs and returnees⁹

The results of the SFSA show 3.7% of households are returnees and 4.9% are IDPs. Compared to permanent residents, IDPs and returnees are more likely to live in cities, less likely to own their own property, and more likely to live in a rented house/flat or to occupy room(s) in relative's house/flat.

Using the WFP's Consolidated Approach to Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI) as a proxy, IDPs have 3.5 times less chance to be food-secure and 1.6 times more chance to be severely food-insecure compared to residents. These probabilities are 3 to 6 times higher for IDPs living in cities and twice lower for those in rural areas. This is a significant development as last year it was IDPs living in rural areas that were more likely to be more food-insecure compared to those in urban areas.

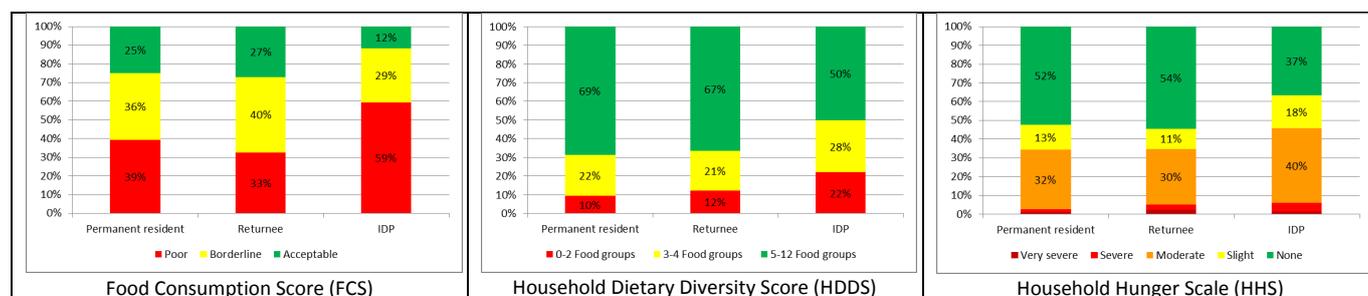
Returnees have 1.1 times more chance to be food-secure and 1.6 times less chance to be severely food-insecure compared to resident: it was the opposite situation last year.

Residents and returnees living in rural areas are more likely to be severely food-insecure than those living in rural areas (respectively 1.8 and 2.9 times more chance).

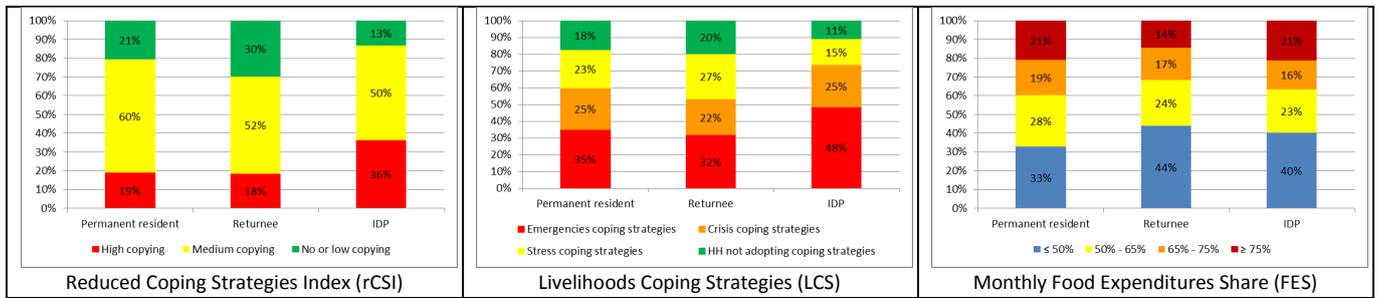
Food sources are probably significantly contributing to this situation:

- IDPs relying more on market to acquire their food (54% for purchase on cash, 34% for purchase on credit) and less to own production (5%) due to low access to land (only 13% of IDPs) as well as limited ownership of animals (16%) or poultry (20%). They also have a highest contribution share for gifts/charity (5%);
- Returnees have a balanced diversification of food sources (56% for purchase on cash, 22% for purchase on credit, 17% for own production and 3% for gifts/charity);
- Residents have a similar food sources patterns like returnees except their slightly more high dependence to market (60% for purchase on cash, 20% for purchase on credit, 16% for own production and 2% for gifts/charity).

Chart 20: Food consumption score, dietary diversity, hunger scale and coping strategies by residency type



⁹ Under the SFSA 2020, those IDPs and Returnee households captured in the assessment are the result of their residence with settled people and their households being randomly selected. So, figures/finding related are indicative (rather than representative).



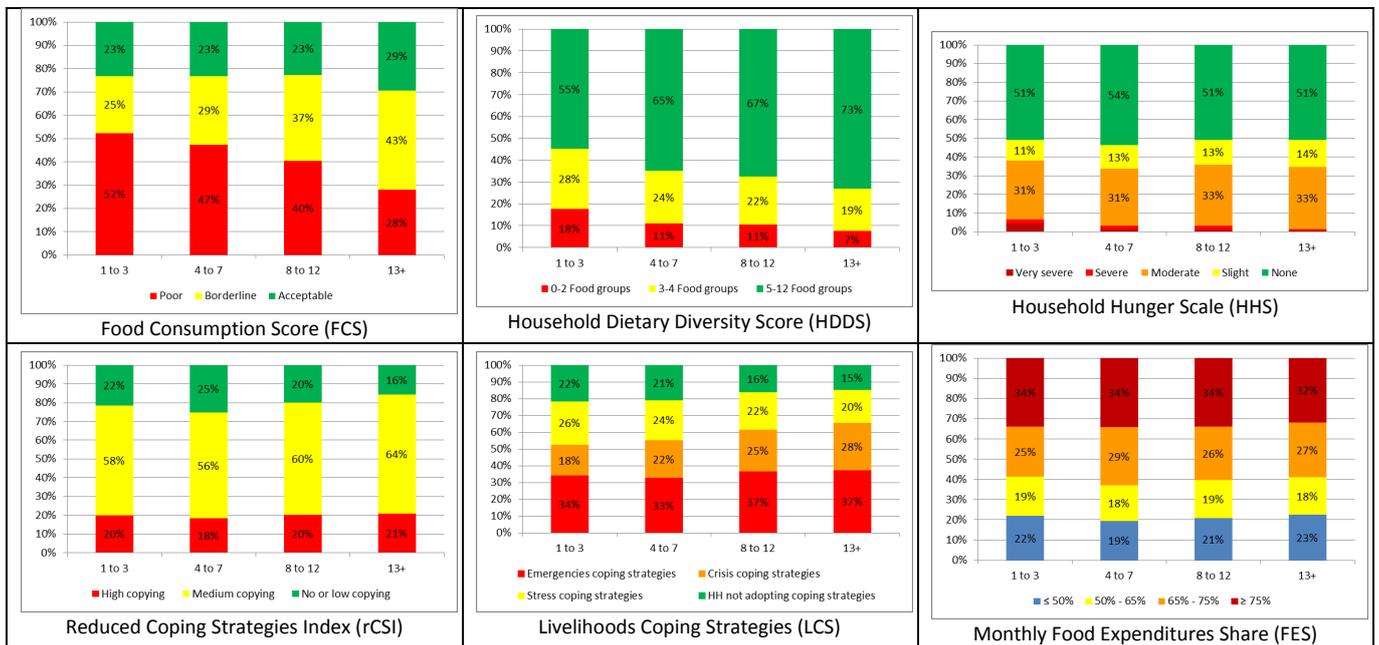
Household composition

Larger households are progressively associated with better levels of food consumption (chart 21). However, larger households also report higher levels of coping strategies - both livelihood-based and food consumption-based.

The result is due to larger household having a greater domestic workforce and increased capacity to engage in coping strategies and other means of ensuring a consistently better level of food consumption. The chance to access to a land, raise animals or own poultry is progressively increasing (from 1.3 to 2) between households with 1-3 members and those with 13+ members. Same also for the households' economic capacity which is progressively increase from 1.5 to 2.8 between households with 1-3 members and those with 13+ (using median total monthly expenditures as proxy - 21,183 AFN or around 282 USD for 13+ households vs. 7,667 AFN for households with 1-3 members).

Dependency on market and gifts/charity is increasing as household size is decreasing (respectively from 79% and 8% for households with 1-3 members to 71% and 1% for 13+ households) while for own production it is increasing with the household size increase (from 12% to 18%).

Chart 21: Food security and household size



Characteristics of household members

Sex of household head

According to the SFSA, 5% of households are headed by women, who tend to have poorer food security than male-headed households: female-headed households have 1.6 times less chance to be food-secure compared to male-headed households.

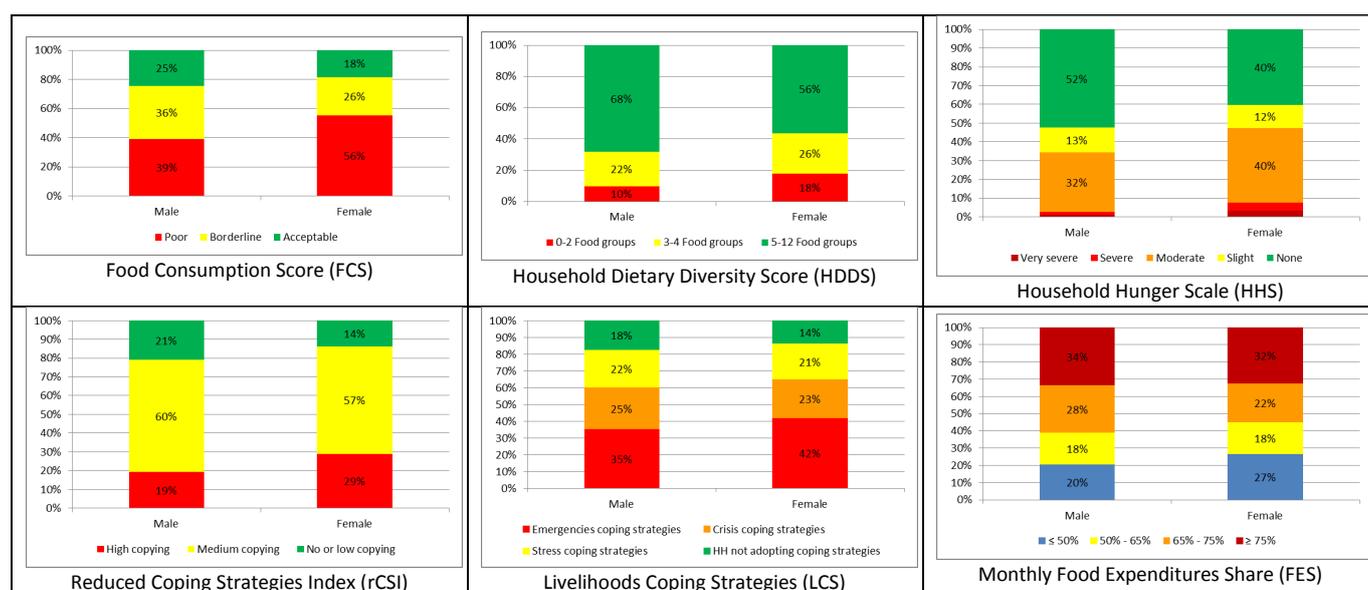
Male-headed households living in urban area are more likely to be food-secure compared to those in rural area. While this observation remains the same for female-headed households, the difference is smaller (in terms of the chances to be food-insecure) between those living in urban vs. rural.

In terms of food sources, female-headed households rely more on market: 58% for purchase on cash, 26% for purchase on credit (vs. respectively 60% and 20% for male-headed households). The contribution of own production is 10% and 5% for gifts/charity (vs. respectively 16% and 2% for male-headed households). That can be linked with the fact that female-headed households 2 times less likely to access to land, raise animals or own poultry when compared to male-headed households (78% for female-headed households vs. 55% for male headed households).

In addition, with median total monthly expenditures estimated at 11,850 AFN (around 158 USD): female-headed household have 18% less purchasing power/expenditures than male-headed household (14,442 AFN). One third of female-headed households rely on non-agricultural wage (21%), production/sales or orchard products (8%) and begging/charity (5%) as main/first source of cash income, versus 14%, 4% and 1% respectively for male-headed households. Due to reduced employment opportunities (54%), conflict (17%), natural disaster (11%) and death/illness of family member (9%); female-headed household income has decreased for 55% of female-headed households (vs. 49% for male-headed households).

The above-mentioned indicators show a severely deterioration in severe and catastrophic food access for female-headed households (23% and 36% for female-headed households vs. 14% and 31% for male-headed households).

Chart 22: Food security by sex of household head



Disability

According to the SFSA, almost one-fifth (18%) of households are headed by a disabled person and almost one third (31%) have a person living with disabilities (PLWD) as household's member.

Households that are PLWD-headed have 1.2 times more chance to be severely food-insecure compared to households not headed by a PLWD.

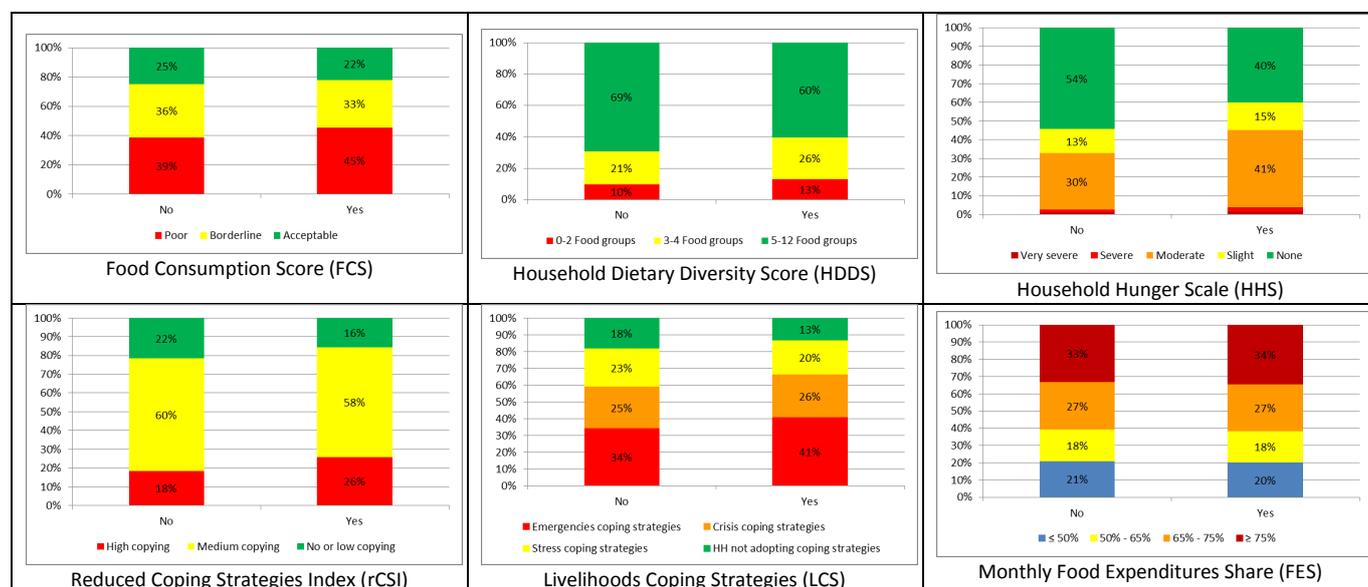
PLWD-headed households are also more likely to have experienced a shock in the previous six months (75%) compared to households headed by a non-disabled person (68%).

The chances of access to land are almost similar between the 2 groups despite a very slight disadvantage to households headed by disabled people. This disadvantage is a little more accentuated with regard to animals' ownership: PLWD-headed households having 1.1 times less chance to raise animals or own poultry.

The two groups have a similar profile in terms of food sources regardless a very slight disadvantage to households headed by disabled people ($\pm 1\%$ to 2%).

In addition, with median total monthly expenditures estimated at 15,208 AFN (around 203 USD): PLwD-headed household are likely to have an economic capacity 8% more than household not headed by a disable person (14,085 AFN) probably because they are more likely to be part of a household with a larger size (8 or more household's members).

Chart 23: Food security by disability of household head



Pregnant and lactating women

According to the SFSA, 65% of households have pregnant or lactating women. Households with PLW have 1.2 times more chance to be food-secure compared to households without PLW and in urban area they have 2.1 times less chance to be food-insecure compared to non PLW's households.

Households with more PLW are also more likely to have experienced a shock in the previous six months (74%) compared to non-PLW households (60%).

In terms of food sources, non-PLW households rely more on market: 65% for purchase on cash, 19% for purchase on credit (vs. respectively 60% and 20% for households with more PLW). The contribution of own production is 12% and 2% for gifts/charity (vs. respectively 17% and 1% for households with more PLW).

Households with PLW have 1.6 times more chance to access to a land, raise animals or own poultry compared to households with no PLW. This can be linked with the fact that households with PLW are likely to be those with larger size (8 or more household's members).

In addition, with median total monthly expenditures estimated at 19,074 AFN (around 254 USD): households with more PLW are likely to have an economic capacity 45% more than household with no PLW (13,167 AFN).

SFSA data showed also that the presence of pregnant or lactating women in the household was associated with higher use of emergency and crisis coping strategies in order to meet the dietary needs. These households also used reduced coping strategies at higher rates than the households without pregnant or lactating women, indicating heightened needs and levels of vulnerability.

Chart 24: Food security and PLW



Education

Higher levels of education progressively associate with lower exposure to shocks, lower reliance on negative coping strategies, and better food consumption and food security.

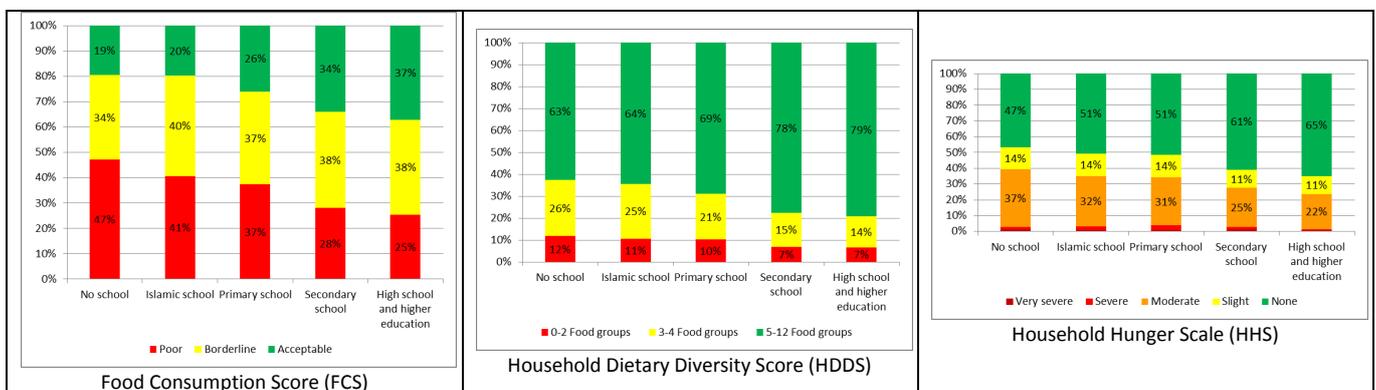
Households headed by more educated people have 1.3 to 2.0 times more chance to be food-secure compared to households headed by people with a lower level of formal education.

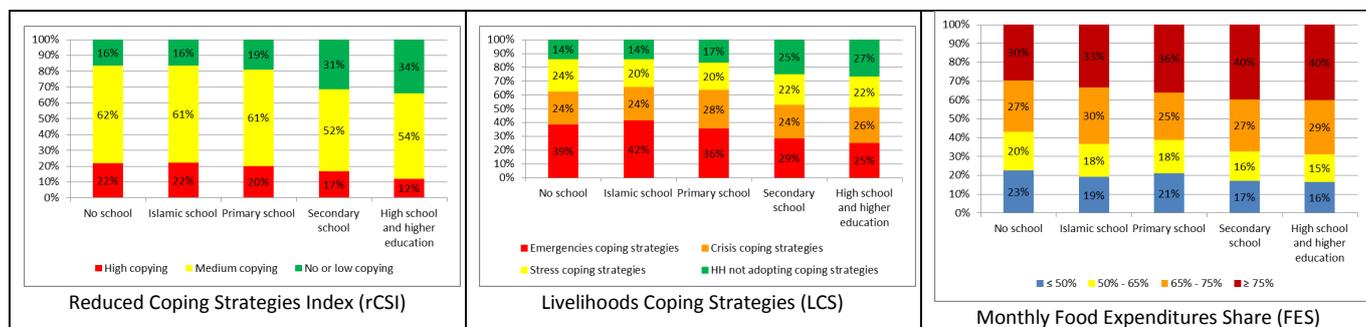
In terms of food sources, the dependency on cash purchase increase progressively with the head of household's education level: from 49% for Islamic to 72% for higher education. It decreases for purchase on credit, own production, gifts/charity and bartering (respectively from 25%, 20%, 3.6% and 1.5% for Islamic to 15%, 12%, 0.6% and 0.3% for higher education).

Compared to households headed by more educated people (secondary or high school / higher education); the percentage of households having access to agriculture land, raising animals and/or owning poultry are higher for Islamic educated household as well as for other households headed by less educated. This can be linked with the fact that households headed by less educated people are likely to rely more on agriculture/livestock livelihoods (from 47% to 55%) compared to those headed by more educated people (from 29% to 35%).

In addition, with median total monthly expenditures estimated at 19,110 AFN (around 255 USD) for higher education and 16,825 AFN for secondary school: households headed by more educated people are likely to have an improved economic capacity from 11% to 33% more than household headed by different educational levels or no education (13,751 AFN for Islamic; 12,809 AFN for no school and 14,903 AFN for primary school).

Chart 25: Food security by household head education





Conclusions and implications for targeting

From the correlation analysis of the food security indicators and above-mentioned characteristics, all the reported correlations were significantly associated with one or more food security indicators: providing a first overview of the households' food insecurity profile in Afghanistan.

Table 10: Initial overview of the households' food insecurity profile

Criteria/Variables	Likely to be food-insecure
Households socio-demographic characteristics	
Sex of the head of the household	▪ Female-headed household
Level of education of the head of household	▪ No or less educated No school, Islamic or primary school
Residence status	▪ IDPs
Disabilities	▪ PLWD-headed household or presence of PLWD in the household ▪ Presence of PLW
Livelihoods characteristics	
Agriculture land access	▪ No access to agriculture land
Livestock/Poultry ownership	▪ No livestock/poultry own/raised
Livelihoods / Primary source of income	▪ Farmers ▪ Herders ▪ Households relying primary on: → Wage labour (agricultural or not) → Humanitarian and/or social assistance
Place of residence	▪ Rural
Provincial location	▪ In terms of severity and magnitude: Faryab, Sar-e-Pul, Samangan, Balkh, Daykundi and Ghor ▪ In terms of severity: Jawzjan, Badakhshan and Herat ▪ In terms of magnitude: Uruzgan and Nimroz
Other influencing characteristics	
Demography	Household size: low or average (≤ 7) vs. larger (≥ 8)
Shocks	Multiple shocks experienced (two or more)
Food sources	Dependency level to market (cash vs. credit purchase) as well as contribution of the own production
Number of income sources	Diversified sources of income (two or more)
Living conditions	Poor living conditions ▪ No or limited access to improved sanitation facilities and/or to improved drinking water source ▪ Living in rents/occupies rooms or tent/plastic sheeting/shelter in camp

However, the above analysis was not enough to highlight what are the key combinations or overlap of characteristics that could identify the most food insecure households. To identify these characteristics a multivariate Generalized Linear Model (GLM) regression analysis was conducted.

The multivariate GLM regression analysis showed that:

- ➔ Food consumption score are strongly correlated - by order of importance - with:
 - 1) The sex of the household head,
 - 2) The provincial location of the household,
 - 3) The primary source of income,
 - 4) The livestock ownership,

- 5) The household's residence status,
- 6) The housing type,
- 7) The distance to a drinking source of water,
- 8) The access to an agriculture land,
- 9) The education level of the head of the household,
- 10) The livelihoods type.

The 15 criteria that are influencing the food consumption score can explain/predict together the FCS values obtained by 89.2% of household (value of the R-Square¹⁰ or coefficient of determination).

Table 11: Criteria increasing the likelihoods to have a poor or “acceptable” food consumption

Criteria increasing the likelihood to have a poor food consumption and that can support households targeting inclusion	Criteria increasing the likelihood to have an “acceptable” food consumption and that can support households targeting exclusion
A household : ... Of 1-3 people... or 8-12 people... ... Headed by a woman... and/or a disabled person... ... Living in rural area... ... In Jawzjan, Samangan, Kunduz, Takhar, Sar-e-Pul, kandahar, Kunarha, Nuristan, Balkh, Ghor, Bamyan, Faryab, Badakhshan, Hirat, Baghlan, Nangarhar and Hilmand... ... Relying primary on gifts/charity or herder livelihoods... ... Without access to improved toilet facilities ... With diversified sources of income.	A household: ... Headed by a man... more educated (secondary school or higher education)... ... Living in Laghman, Badghis, Paktya, Logar, Kapisa or Kabul... ... Returnees... or Permanent resident... ... In a private house/flat ... Relying primary on production & sale of Poppy, salary work, small business/petty trade, production & sales of livestock and livestock products, transport, production & sale of cash crops and production & sale of field crops... ... Receiving assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc... ... Raising animals (livestock ownership)... ... Being returnees or permanent resident... ... Receiving assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc... ... Having a drinking water source at less than 30 minutes (including time to reach the water point, collect water and come back by walking)... ... Having access to agriculture land... ... Owning poultry.

➔ Household dietary diversity score are strongly correlated - by order of importance - with:

- 1) The sex of the household head,
- 2) The housing type,
- 3) The primary source of income,
- 4) The provincial location of the household,
- 5) The shocks occurrence
- 6) The household socio-demographic vulnerabilities.

All these criteria that are influencing the household dietary diversity score can explain/predict together the HDDS values obtained by 88.7% of household (value of the R-Square).

Table 12: Criteria increasing the likelihoods to consume less or more than 4 food groups

Criteria increasing the likelihood to consume less than 4 food groups	Criteria increasing the likelihood to consume more than 4 food groups
A household : ... Headed by a woman... ... With additional PLwD... Without PLW... ... Living in Kunduz, Sar-e-Pul, Takhar, Kandahar, Balkh, Kunarha, Ghor, Samangan, Badakhshan, Jawzjan, Nuristan, Hirat, Hilmand, Faryab and Baghlan ... Which did not experienced multiple shocks ... Relying primary on social assistance (begging, gifts/charity), production & sale of orchard products or herder livelihoods ... Without access to improved toilet facilities.	A household: ... Of 4-12 people... ... Headed by a man... and/or a PLwD... more educated (secondary school or higher education)... ... Permanent resident... or returnees... ... Living in a private house/flat... or renting/occupying room(s) ... In Laghman, Badghis, Zabul, Parwan, Kapisa, Kabul, Logar and Paktika... ... Relying primary on production & sale of Poppy, salary work, shepherding wage labour, production & sale of cash crops, skilled labour, production & sales of livestock and livestock products, production & sale of field crops, remittances, transport, small business/petty trade ... Having a drinking water source at less than 60 minutes (including time to reach the water point, collect water and come back by walking)... ... Raising animals (livestock ownership)... ... Owning poultry... ... Having access to agriculture land.

➔ Household hunger scale are strongly correlated - by order of importance - with:

- 1) The sex of the household head,
- 2) The provincial location of the household,

¹⁰ The R-Square is a multiple correlation coefficient measuring strength of the relationship between the model and the dependent variable. It is the linear correlation between the observed and model-predicted values of the dependent variable. Its large value indicates a strong relationship.

- 3) The primary source of income (and type of livelihoods),
- 4) The housing type,
- 5) The living conditions
- 6) The household socio-demographic vulnerabilities.

All these criteria that are influencing the household hunger scale can explain/predict together the HHS values obtained by 55.6% of household (value of the R-Square).

Table 13: Criteria increasing the likelihoods to suffer or not severe hunger

Criteria increasing the likelihood to suffer severe hunger	Criteria increasing the likelihood to do not suffer severe hunger
A household : ... Headed by a woman... ... Living in Samangan, Jawzjan, Takhar, Kunduz, Badghis, Kandahar, Nuristan, Kunarha, Paktika, Balkh, Laghman, Hilmand, Ghor or Nangarhar ... Relying primary on social assistance (begging, gifts/charity), Non-Agriculture wage labour or on herder, livestock & poultry keepers' livelihoods... ... Renting or occupying room(s)... ... With no access to improved toilet facilities... ... With no access to improved drinking water source.	A household: ... Headed by a man... ... Without PLW ... and/or with additional PLWD... ... Living in Baghlan, Ghazni, Kapisa, Parwan or Bamyan... ... in rural area Relying on production & sales of livestock and livestock products, small business/petty trade, shepherding wage labour, salary work, production and manufacturing, remittances ... Having a drinking water source at less than 30 minutes (including time to reach the water point, collect water and come back by walking)... ... Which did not experienced multiple shocks.

➔ Reduced coping strategies index are strongly correlated - by order of importance - with:

- 1) The sex of the household head,
- 2) The provincial location of the household,
- 3) The primary source of income (and type of livelihoods),
- 4) The housing type,
- 5) The shocks occurrence,
- 6) The household socio-demographic vulnerabilities,
- 7) The living conditions.

All these criteria that are influencing the household food-based coping strategies can explain/predict together the rCSI values obtained by 70.6% of household (value of the R-Square).

Table 14: Criteria increasing the likelihoods to have a high or low food-based coping strategies

Criteria increasing the likelihood to have a high food-based coping strategies	Criteria increasing the likelihood to have a low food-based coping strategies
A household : ... Headed by a woman... ... With PLW... ... Living in Balkh, Faryab, Ghor, Takhar, Hilmand, Maidan Wardak, Zabul, Hirat, Laghman, Nangarhar, Samangan, Kabul, Sar-e-Pul, Kunarha... ... In rural area... ... Relying on social assistance (begging, gifts/charity), herder, farmer's livelihood... ... Living in rents/occupies room(s)... ... With no access to improved toilet facilities... ... Owning poultry.	A household: ... Headed by a man... with at least a primary school education or more (secondary school or higher education)... ... With less than 12 people... ... Without PLW With additional PLWD... ... Living in Badakhshan, Parwan, Bamyan, Kapisa, Ghazni or Badghis Permanent resident... or returnees... ... Relying primary salary work, production & sale of Poppy, production and manufacturing, production & sales of livestock and livestock products, small business/petty trade, remittances, skilled labour, shepherding wage labour, transport, production & sale of cash crops, Production & sale of orchard products, production & sale of field crops... ... Receiving assistance from Government/UN/NGOs etc. ... Which did not experienced multiple shocks. ... Having a drinking water source at less than 30 minutes (including time to reach the water point, collect water and come back by walking).

➔ Livelihoods coping strategies index are strongly correlated - by order of importance - with:

- 1) The sex of the household head,
- 2) The provincial location of the household,
- 3) The primary source of income (and type of livelihoods),
- 4) The Shocks occurrence,
- 5) The housing type,
- 6) The education level of the household head,
- 7) The residence status,
- 8) The household socio-demographic vulnerabilities.

All these criteria that are influencing the household livelihoods-based coping strategies can explain/predict together the LCS category values obtained by 90.0% of household (value of the R-Square).

Table 15: Criteria increasing the likelihoods to have or not sustainable livelihood-based coping strategies

Criteria increasing the likelihood to have unsustainable food-based coping strategies	Criteria increasing the likelihood to have sustainable livelihood-based coping strategies
A household : ... Headed by a woman... ... Living in rents/occupies room(s)... or private house/flat... ... Relying on social assistance (gifts/charity, begging), agricultural wage labour... ... Living in rural area... ... With diversified sources of income... ... With no access to improved toilet facilities... ... With no access to improved drinking water source.	A household: ... Headed by a man... more educated (secondary school or higher education)... ... Without PLW... ... With additional PLWD... ... Relying on skilled labour, production and manufacturing, salary work, transport, small business/petty trade, production & sale of cash crops... ... Owning poultry... ... Having a drinking water source at less than 15 minutes (including time to reach the water point, collect water and come back by walking)... ... Which did not experienced multiple shocks... ... Permanent resident... or Returnees ... Living in Badakhshan, Baghlan, Ghazni, Kapisa, Badghis, Bamyán, Parwan, Nuristan, Sar-e-Pul, Kunarha, Takhar, Logar, Kunduz, Paktya, Zabol, Kandahar, Faryab, Hilmand, Balkh, Laghman, Maidan Wardak, Hirat, Paktika, Kabul, Samangan, Nangarhar, Ghor, Jawzjan

As part of a simplified example of ground-truthing, if a 3-multiple targeting criteria focusing on the sex of household (female vs. male), its education level (only Islamic school vs. secondary school) and their place of residence (rural vs. urban), according to the results of the multivariate GLM regression analysis above-mentioned related to targeting, it is expected that household headed by women with Islamic school as level of education and living in rural are likely to be more food-insecure compared to households headed by men with secondary school as level of education and living in urban are. The Chart 26 below shows a consistent alignment between field data and food insecurity likelihood predicted by this modeling. And it will be the same if the multiple targeting criteria complexity is increased by adding for example 2 sources of income (see Table 16).

Chart 26: Overview of the food security results deriving from the application of a multiple targeting criteria (sex of the household head x Education level of the household head x place of residence)

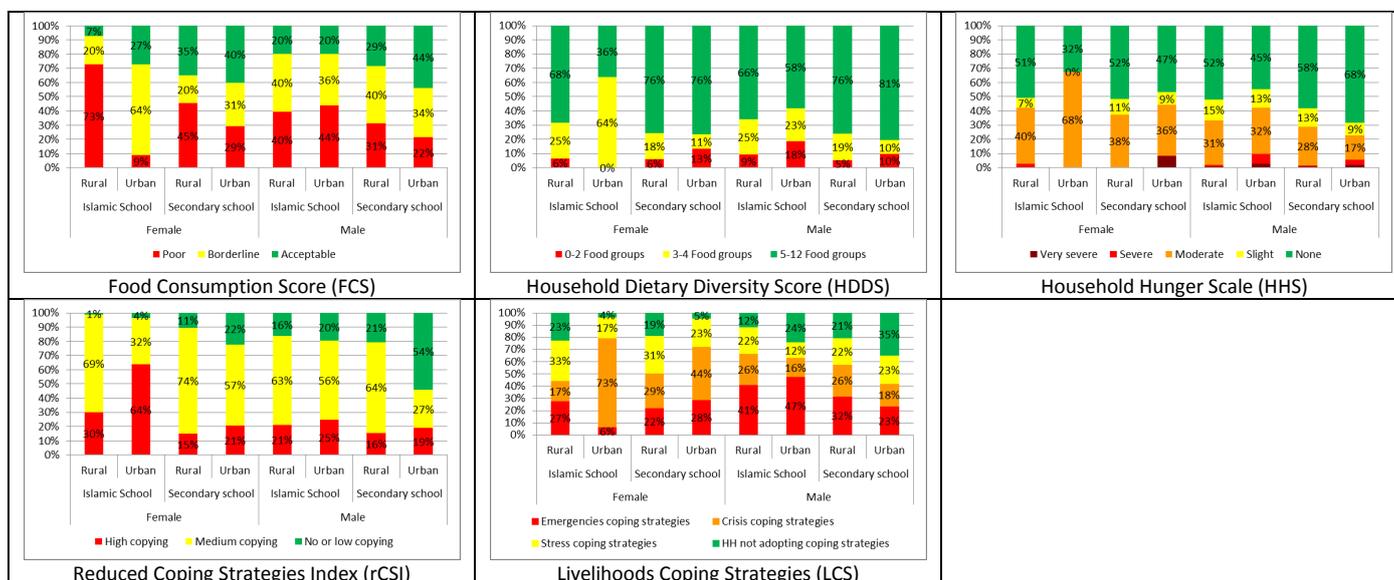


Table 16: Overview of the food security results deriving from the application of a multiple targeting criteria (sex of the household head x Education level of the household head x place of residence x Primary source of income)

Sex of HH head	Education level of HH head	Residence Place	Primary source of income	FCS			HDDS			HHS					rCSI			LCS			
				Acceptable	Borderline	Poor	5-12 Food groups	3-4 Food groups	0-2 Food groups	None	Slight	Moderate	Severe	Very severe	Ne or low copying	Medium copying	High copying	HH not adopting coping strategies	Stress coping strategies	Crisis coping strategies	Emergencies coping strategies
Female	Islamic School	Rural	Production & sale of field crops	10%	23%	67%	79%	21%	0%	55%	3%	42%	0%	0%	0%	66%	34%	9%	50%	14%	26%
Male	Islamic School	Rural	Production & sale of field crops	27%	37%	36%	73%	17%	11%	51%	15%	31%	2%	1%	19%	51%	30%	13%	22%	27%	38%
Female	Islamic School	Rural	Agricultural wage labour	0%	0%	100%	41%	59%	0%	41%	0%	59%	0%	0%	0%	48%	52%	0%	0%	41%	59%
Male	Islamic School	Rural	Agricultural wage labour	15%	36%	49%	62%	31%	7%	46%	15%	37%	2%	0%	8%	72%	20%	8%	21%	27%	44%
Female	Islamic School	Rural	Non-Agriculture wage labour	3%	0%	97%	57%	29%	15%	63%	0%	29%	8%	0%	0%	60%	40%	43%	45%	3%	8%
Male	Islamic School	Rural	Non-Agriculture wage labour	14%	30%	56%	59%	28%	13%	41%	13%	46%	0%	1%	7%	69%	23%	5%	23%	32%	41%
Female	Secondary school	Rural	Production & sale of field crops	55%	18%	26%	74%	22%	5%	43%	4%	53%	0%	0%	12%	52%	36%	46%	19%	34%	0%
Male	Secondary school	Rural	Production & sale of field crops	39%	35%	26%	81%	16%	3%	59%	16%	24%	0%	0%	23%	65%	11%	25%	19%	32%	24%
Female	Secondary school	Rural	Agricultural wage labour	0%	0%	100%	54%	0%	46%	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	54%	0%	46%
Male	Secondary school	Rural	Agricultural wage labour	17%	35%	48%	61%	32%	7%	51%	12%	35%	1%	1%	20%	51%	29%	11%	21%	35%	33%
Female	Secondary school	Rural	Non-Agriculture wage labour	0%	24%	76%	66%	16%	18%	16%	41%	42%	0%	0%	24%	76%	0%	0%	41%	41%	18%
Male	Secondary school	Rural	Non-Agriculture wage labour	17%	39%	45%	72%	22%	5%	47%	14%	38%	1%	1%	9%	68%	23%	11%	29%	21%	38%
Female	Secondary school	Urban	Production & sale of field crops	0%	0%	100%	0%	50%	50%	0%	0%	50%	0%	50%	0%	50%	50%	0%	0%	50%	50%
Male	Secondary school	Urban	Production & sale of field crops	61%	13%	26%	73%	27%	0%	74%	1%	1%	24%	0%	64%	12%	25%	63%	7%	28%	2%
Female	Secondary school	Urban	Non-Agriculture wage labour	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%
Male	Secondary school	Urban	Non-Agriculture wage labour	15%	34%	51%	61%	23%	16%	34%	17%	34%	14%	0%	12%	42%	46%	19%	15%	13%	53%
Female	Secondary school	Urban	Gifts, Charity	0%	7%	93%	7%	7%	86%	0%	7%	86%	7%	0%	0%	14%	86%	7%	0%	0%	93%
Male	Secondary school	Urban	Gifts, Charity	5%	54%	41%	94%	6%	0%	38%	22%	41%	0%	0%	0%	77%	23%	0%	0%	9%	91%

Special focus: Urban food insecurity

Key findings:

Nearly **one in four** food-insecure Afghans are living in **urban areas**

Households living in **cities are generally no better off** than household living in rural areas in terms of indicators related to food security

There is **considerable regional variation**, whereby there is a clear urban advantage in some provinces but a clear urban disadvantage in others.

Out of the 11.6 million food insecure people in Afghanistan, 3.1 million live in urban areas¹¹. This indicates that urban dwellers are not more food-secure than those in rural areas - people living in urban areas represent 28 percent of the country, and 26 percent of the country's food insecure population.

Charts 27 and 28 below show high level of variation between cities in terms of food security. For example, the share of urban households with poor food consumption ranges from as high as 95 percent in Mazar-e-Sharif to just 19 percent in Jalalabad. Similarly, the share of households engaged in emergency coping strategies is 51 percent in Kandahar compared to 4 percent in Kunduz city.

11 The SFSA surveyed households in urban areas across 11 provinces. These provinces were Baghlan, Balkh, Faryab, Helmand, Herat, Jawzjan, Kabul, Kandahar, Kunduz, Nangarhar, Takhar. Together, these provinces hold 93% of Afghanistan's total urban population.

Chart 27: Food consumption score across 11 largest urban centres in Afghanistan

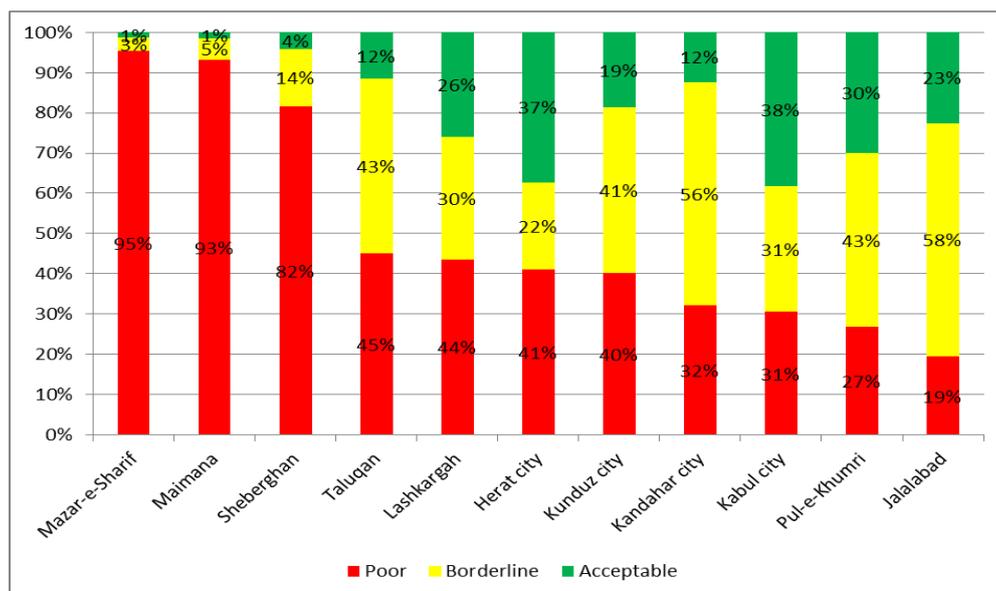
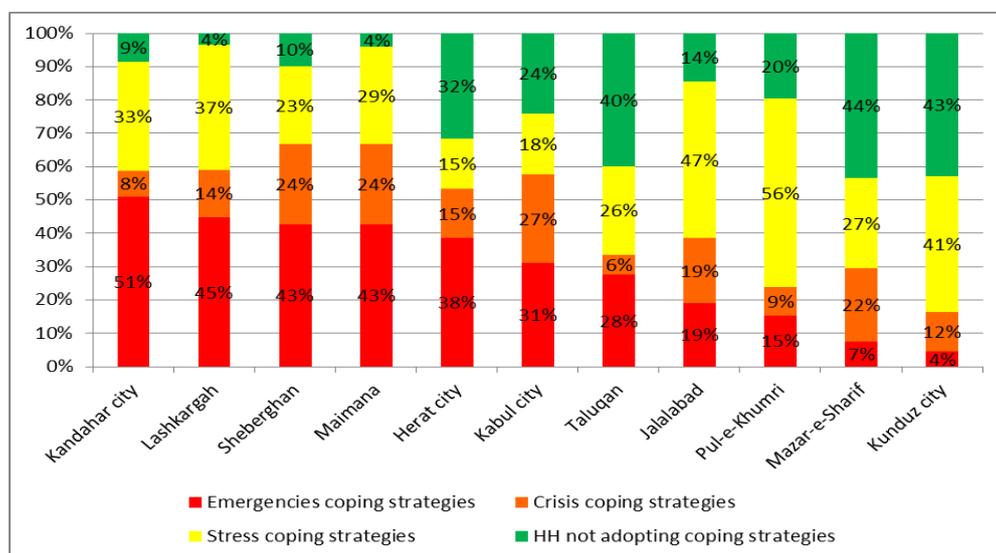


Chart 28: Livelihood coping strategies across 11 largest urban centres in Afghanistan



At a national level, table 17 below shows that urban and rural households have similar levels of poor food consumption and food stress. However, the percentage of households having “acceptable” food consumption is 6 point higher in urban cities compared to rural area, although rural household rely more on livelihood coping strategies. However, looking at the national level masks significant provincial-level variation, whereby some provinces do exhibit large differences.

For example, out of the 11 provinces in which both rural and urban households were surveyed, both Nangarhar and Herat showed rural households generally have worse food security than urban households; but in Kabul the opposite is true, whereby urban areas fared worse in terms of food security outcomes.

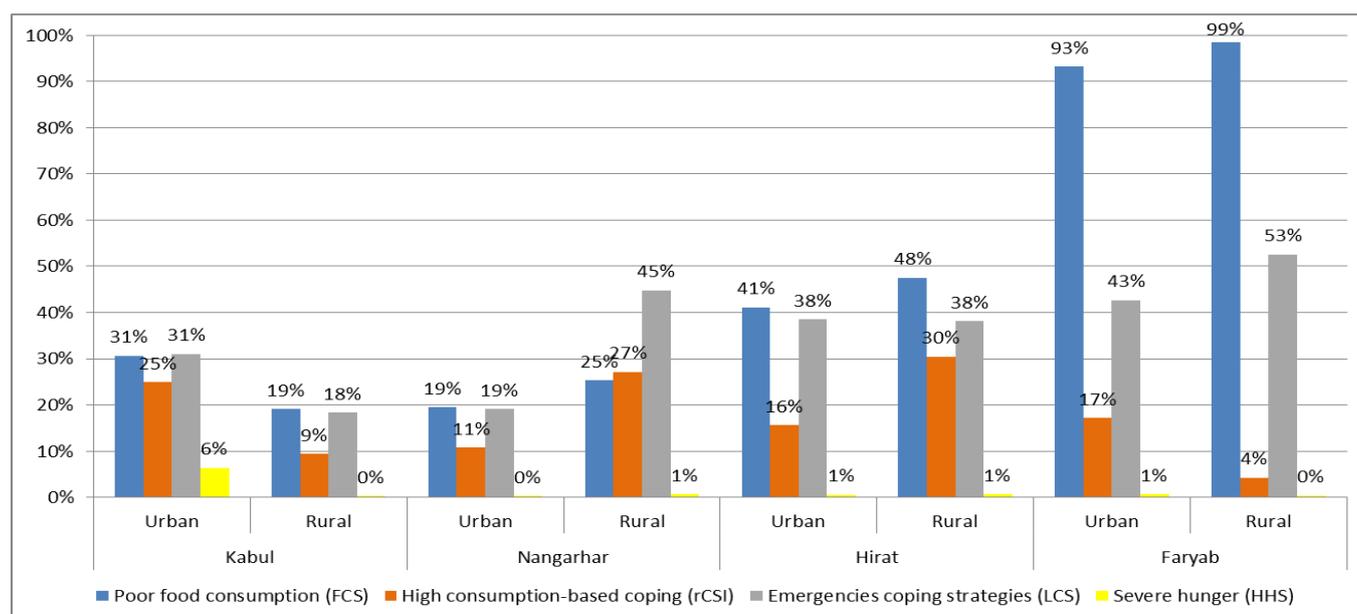
This is illustrated in Chart 29 below, which compares rural and urban food insecurity in Kabul, Nangarhar, Herat and Maimana. One possible explanation for high levels of food insecurity in Maimana are the high numbers of returnees (17 percent) and IDPs (10 percent). The sites of the dwellings of urban poor in Maymana are also likely to be included in the urban sample, while the rural sample for Kabul may be considered peri-urban locations, that are easier for poor urban migrants to settle in rather than in the expensive centre of the capital.

In general, urban areas tend to have more transient populations - 16 percent of urban households are either IDPs or returnees, which is almost twice that of rural areas (7 percent): these proportions have increased over the past 12 months (+4 percentage points for cities vs. +1 percentage point in rural area). Transient populations are much more likely to live in rented accommodation (65% for IDPs and 26% for Returnees vs. 9% for permanent resident), or in occupies room(s) in relative’s house/flat (12% for IDPs and 8% for Returnees vs. 2% for permanent resident).

Table 17: Indicators of urban and rural food security

Indicator	Urban	Rural	
Food consumption (FCS)	Poor	40%	40%
	Borderline	31%	37%
	Acceptable	29%	23%
Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)	0-2 Food groups	16%	9%
	3-4 Food groups	20%	23%
	5-12 Food groups	64%	68%
Application of food-based coping strategies (rCSI)	High copying	22%	19%
	Medium copying	45%	64%
	No or low copying	33%	17%
Application of livelihood-based coping strategies (LCS)	Emergency strategies	30%	37%
	Crisis strategies	21%	26%
	Stress strategies	24%	22%
	Sustainable strategies	25%	15%
Levels of hunger over the previous 30 days (HHS)	None	54%	51%
	Slight	13%	13%
	Moderate	27%	33%
	Severe	3%	1%
	Very severe	2%	1%

Chart 29: Example of rural versus urban food security - Kabul, Nangarhar, Herat and Faryab



Section 6: Underlying factors of food insecurity

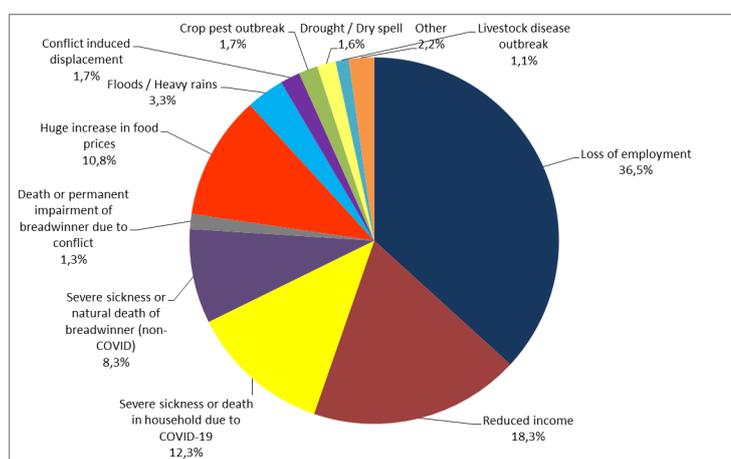
Exposure to shocks

Nearly three quarters of households (70%) said they had experienced some kind of shock in the past six months, up from 60% seen in 2019 (vs. 46% in 2017). As shown by Chart 30, the most common primary shocks are:

- ➔ Loss of employment (37%, an increase by 8 percentage points compared to last year),
- ➔ Sickness or death of breadwinner (22%, an increase by 10 percentage points compared to last year), with the share attributed to COVID-19 representing 56% of this total vs. 38 for non COVID and 6% due conflict),
- ➔ Reduced income (18%, a decrease by 7 percentage points over the past 12 months),
- ➔ Huge increase in food prices (11%), and,
- ➔ Floods (3%, a decrease by 7 percentage points compared to last year).

In total, 81% of the households reported that their income has decreased compared to last year, of which around 54 percent reported reduced employment opportunities as the main reason for their income reduction followed by conflict (17%) and natural disaster (14%). The proportion of households reporting an income decrease has increased by 34 percentage points compared to last year, which can be linked with the multiple shocks increase combined with the continuous erosion of the households' resilience that has been significantly weakened during the last 2018 severe drought.

Chart 30: Primary household shocks



When faced with a shock, households generally respond by increasing their reliance on negative coping strategies (Chart 31). Two out of five of COVID-19 affected-household (44%) have engaged in emergency coping strategies and nearly one quarter (23%) in food-based high coping strategies, that have probably contributed in part to limit the deterioration of their diet. Conflict induced displacement and death or permanent impairment of breadwinner due to conflict are shocks with the greatest impact on household: inducing poor food consumption for nearly three-fifths of affected households despite nearly half of them engaging in high or unsustainable coping strategies. Compare to other type of shocks; households affected by the loss of employment, the main first shock in terms of its magnitude, tends to resort more on high food-based copying.

At a provincial level, Map 8 below shows that Nuristan, Maidan Wardak, Uruzgan, Laghman, Baghlan, Kandahar, Sar-e-Pul, Paktya, Kunduz, Ghazni, Zabul, Hilmand and Bamyān faced highest level of shocks, respectively, where more than 80 percent of household are affected. This number of province (13) with at least 80% of shock affected-household has almost doubled in one year. In Faryab province, only 39% of households reported experiencing a shock, half less than last year. Chart 28 shows that it is not only the most shock-exposed provinces that also have the highest levels of crisis and emergency coping strategies. More than 73% of household were affected by shocks in Panjsher, Kunduz and Baghlan; but only 18% to 37% resorted to crisis or emergency coping strategies. It is the opposite in Faryab where only 29% of households were shock-affected but the proportion of household adopting crisis or emergency livelihood-based coping strategies is 70%.

Chart 31: Food consumption, food stress and coping strategies, by shock exposure

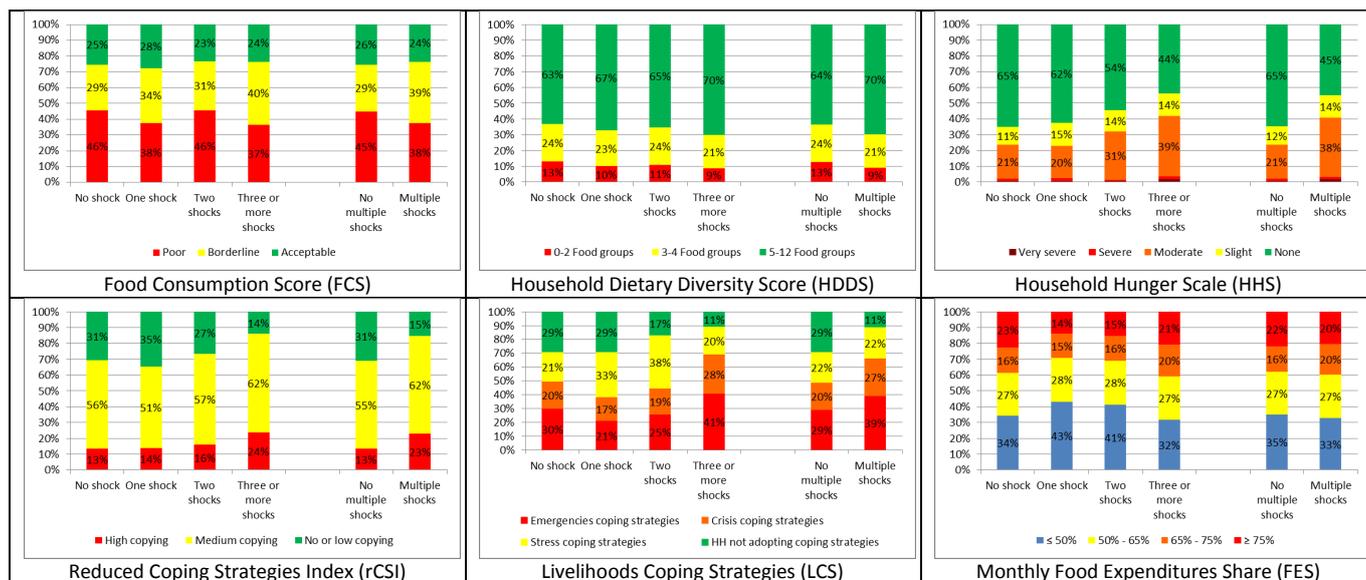


Table 18: Primary shock experienced in the previous 6 months

Category	Shock type	Share of population affected (as primary shock) (%)	Households engaging in emergency coping strategies (%)	Households engaging in food-based high coping strategies (%)	Households with poor food consumption (%)
Economic	Loss of employment	37%	38%	29%	41%
	Reduced income	18%	36%	17%	36%
	Severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19	12%	44%	23%	35%
	Huge increase in food prices	11%	38%	18%	41%
	Severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner (non-COVID)	8%	32%	21%	34%
Natural hazard	Floods/ Heavy rains	3%	28%	15%	30%
	Crop pest outbreak	2%	42%	12%	22%
	drought / dry spell	2%	42%	20%	31%
	Livestock disease outbreak	1%	41%	14%	45%
	Snow / late frost	0.2%	22%	15%	46%
	Earthquake	0.2%	33%	16%	20%
	Avalanche / landslide	0.1%	38%	8%	42%
Conflict and crime	Conflict induced displacement	2%	45%	23%	53%
	Death or permanent impairment of breadwinner due to conflict	1%	50%	28%	59%
	Road Blocks from armed factions	0.7%	21%	12%	44%
	Theft/looting	0.2%	49%	21%	9%
Other	Other (specify)	1.3%	57%	30%	27%
	Return from Pakistan, Iran, etc.	0.1%	48%	17%	35%
No shock experienced in past 6 months		31%	30%	13%	46%

Map 8: Share of households experiencing a shock in the previous 6 months, by province

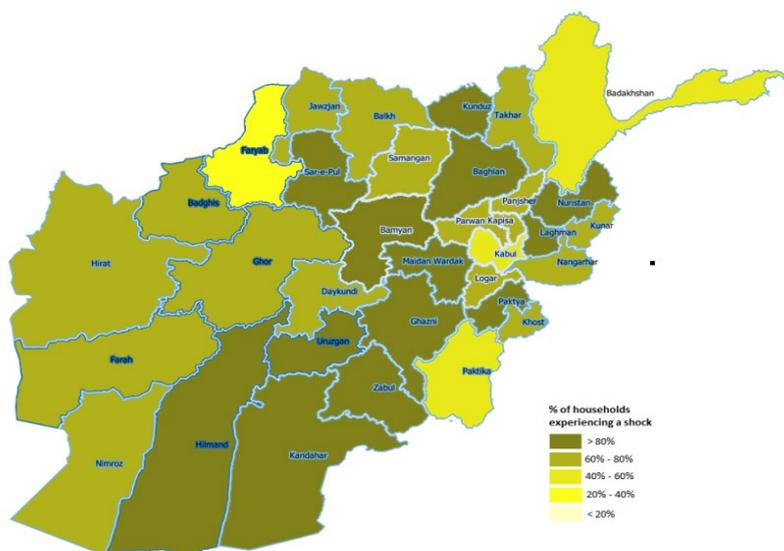


Chart 32: Household shocks and coping strategies, by province

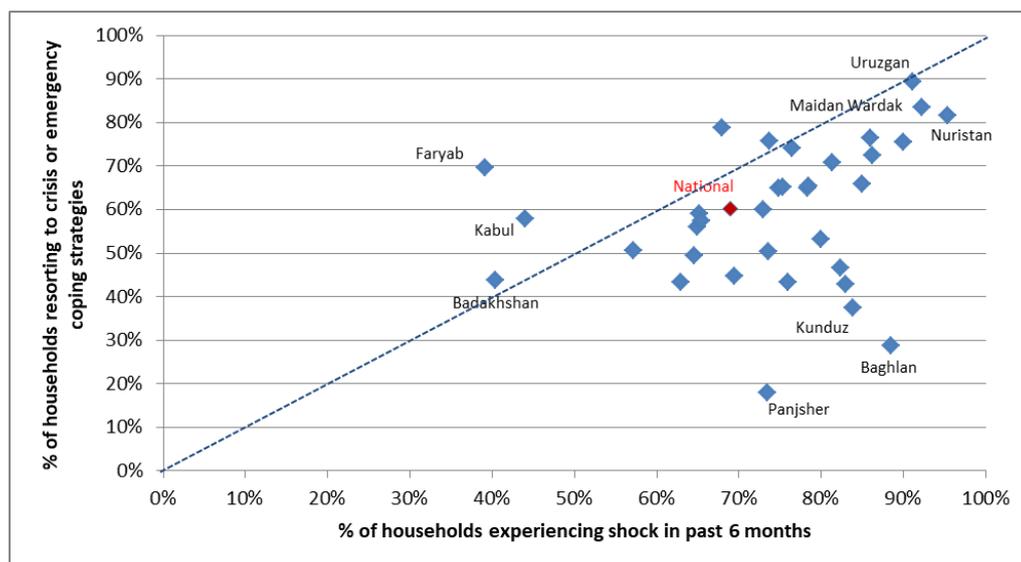
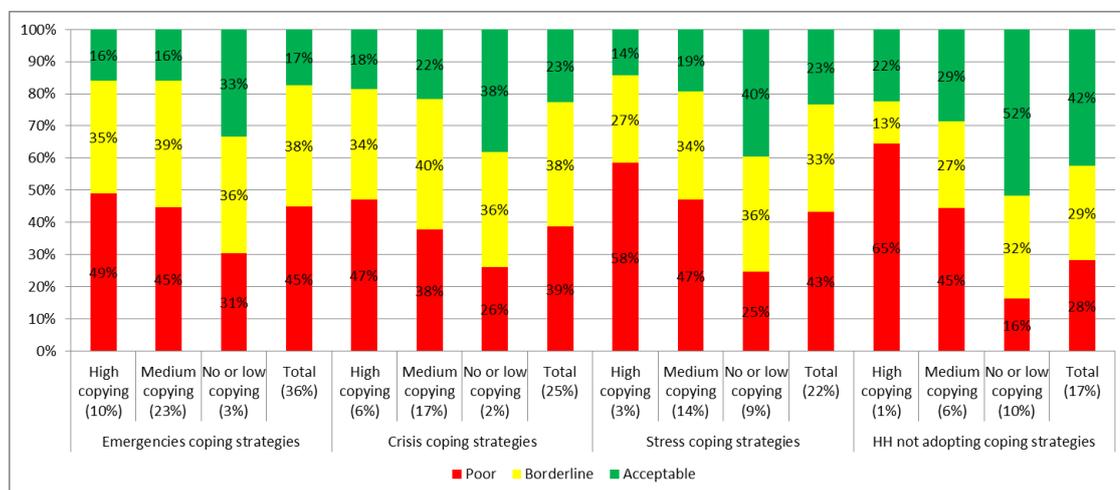


Chart 33: Coping strategies (LCS x rCSI) and food consumption



How do households respond? Urban and rural shocks and coping

Urban households are less exposed to shocks than rural households – around 50 percent experienced a shock in the previous 6 months (+13 percentage points over the last 12 months), compared to 74 percent for rural households(+6 percentage points over the last 12 months). Urban households are more affected by the loss of employment (44%), severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19 (22%), reduced income (19%) and severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner due non-COVID (6%). While it is the loss of employment (35%), reduced income (19%), severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner due to non-COVID (9%), severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19 (10%) and huge increase in food prices (12%) for rural households.

When rural households face shocks they have specific agriculture-related livelihood coping strategies to rely on, such as increased livestock sales, decreased agricultural/livestock inputs and, in very severe cases, the sale of land.

When urban households face shocks, they rely more on borrowing food, spending savings, decreasing expenditures on essential basic needs, selling household's assets or begging. In addition to these coping strategies, rural households resort also to specific agriculture-related livelihood coping strategies to rely on, such as increased livestock sales, decreased agricultural/livestock inputs, consuming seed stocks, sold income generating equipment and, in very severe cases, the sale of land (Table 19).

Essentially, rural households respond to shocks with slightly more diversified coping strategies: in median, three livelihoods-based coping strategies vs. 2 for urban households.

Table 19: Livelihoods-based coping strategies adopted by households who had experienced a shock in the previous 6 months, rural and urban

Severity	Coping strategy	Urban	Rural
Stress	Borrow food or money for food	53%	70%
	Spent savings	45%	47%
	Sold household assets (appliances, furniture, doors, roof beams)	21%	16%
	Sold more animals than usual or earlier than usual	9%	30%
Crisis	Decreased expenditures on health, education, etc.	34%	39%
	Sold income generating equipment	12%	19%
	Decreased expenditure on fertilizer, pesticide, fodder, animal feed, etc.	8%	28%
	Consume seed stock	8%	20%
Emergency	Begging/Rely on Charity	21%	19%
	Sold house or land	7%	9%
	Sold last female animals	6%	15%
	Early marriage of daughter	8%	8%
	Entire household migrated	7%	9%
	Engaged in illegal activities	5%	3%

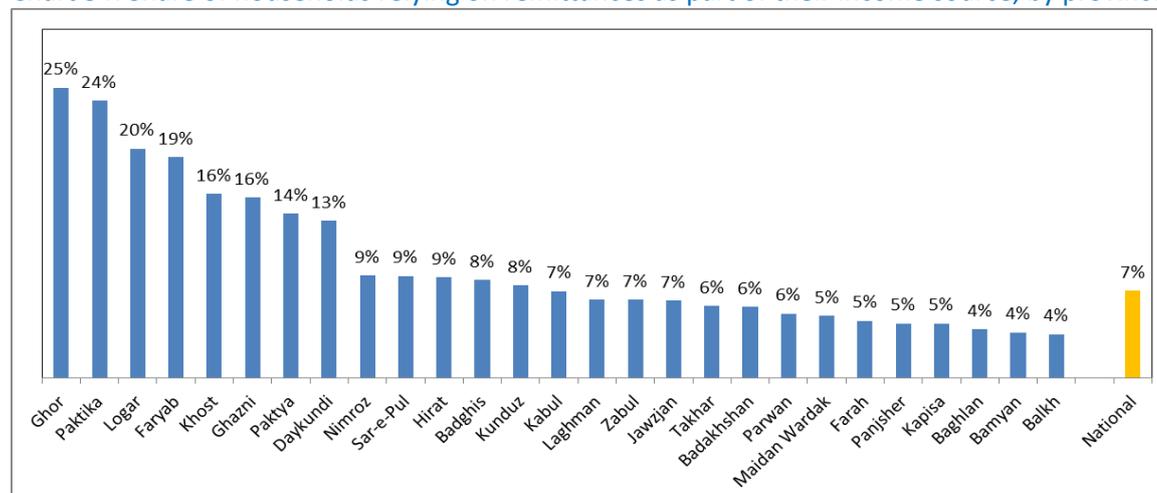
Livelihoods and income sources

Agriculture is the main livelihood source for nearly half (45 percent) of households in Afghanistan, a lot of which is still subsistence farming. A similar proportion of are depending non-agriculture wage labour (19%), on skilled labour (10%), salary work (10%), small business/petty trade (5%), remittances (2%), transport (2%) and social assistance such as gifts/charity or begging (2%) as first source of income, regarded as sustainable sources of income. Globally, overall wage labour (agricultural or not) is also important as 37% of households rely on it.

Rural households relying on seasonal agriculture often send household members to find work elsewhere during the winter months. In 2020, Ghor, Paktika, Logar, Faryabn Khost, Ghazni, Paktya and Daykundi are the provinces were remittances are part of the household income source for at least 10% of them (Chart 34).

Over the past two/three years, this importance of the remittances remains consistent for Paktika, Logar, Khost, Paktya and Daykundi. The economic slowdown in neighbouring Iran and Pakistan, which has meant remittances fallen since 2018 - with dramatic reductions seen in provinces like Sar-e-Pul, Badakhshan, Takhar, and Samangan - is continuing to affect these north and north-east provinces of the country, which rely heavily on rainfed agriculture.

Chart 34: Share of households relying on remittances as part of their income source, by province*



*Selected provinces shown in Chart 34 had at least 4 percent of households relying on remittances as part of their income in 2020: what excluded Nangarhar (1.9%), Kandahar (1.8%), Samangan (1.3%), Uruzgan (0.8%), Kunarha (0.4%), Nuristan (0.4%) and Hilmand (0.3%).

Urban and rural livelihoods

As expected, people living in urban areas generally have little livelihood connection with agricultural activity. As per the SFSa results, only 2.4% of households in urban areas have access to or own agricultural land, and 3% raise animals while 5% own poultry. Therefore, urban food security is a matter of access to food, rather than availability. Most of the food consumed needs to be sourced from markets and therefore, food security is closely linked to one's ability to earn money.

Table 20: Main source of income, rural and urban

1st source of income in rural area and % of HH relying on it			1st source of income in urban and % of HH relying on it		
1	Production & sale of field crops	21%	1	Salary work	20%
2	Non-Agriculture wage labour	18%	2	Non-Agriculture wage labour	20%
3	Agricultural wage labour	17%	3	Skilled labour	18%
4	Skilled labour	8%	4	Small business/Petty trade	9%
5	Salary work	6%	5	Production & sale of orchard products	5%
6	Production & sale of orchard products	4%	6	Transport	4%
7	Small business/Petty trade	4%	7	Production & sale of field crops	3%
8	Shepherding wage labour	4%	8	Agricultural wage labour	3%
9	Production & sales of livestock and livestock products	4%	9	Gifts, Charity	2%
10	Production & sale of cash crops	3%	10	Remittances	1%
11	Remittances	2%	11	Production and Manufacturing	1%
12	Transport	2%	12	Begging	1%
13	Wage labour in Poppy field	2%	13	Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc.	1%
14	Gifts, Charity	1%	14	Shepherding wage labour	1%
15	Production and Manufacturing	1%	15	Production & sale of cash crops	1%
16	Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc.	1%	16	Production & sales of livestock and livestock products	1%
17	Begging	0.5%	17	Wage labour in Poppy field	0.2%
18	Production & sale of Poppy	0.5%	18	Production & sale of Poppy	0.1%
19	Other	2%	19	Other	8%

Livelihoods and shock exposure

At a national level, certain income sources are associated with greater exposure to shocks and higher levels of food insecurity. Those working in agriculture tend to be the most shock-exposed and rely most on emergency coping strategies, while those earning from salary work or small business tend to have lower shock-exposure and better food security (table 21). These income sources also generally correlate with higher household expenditure (chart 35).

Livelihoods more common in urban areas are also associated with a lower exposure to shocks – salary work, skilled labour, small trade and non-agricultural wage labour all have relatively low shock exposure compared to other livelihoods.

Households relying on wage labour are also globally more exposed to shocks that oblige from two to three-fifths of them to engage in emergency coping strategies and lead the poor food consumption for almost half to them.

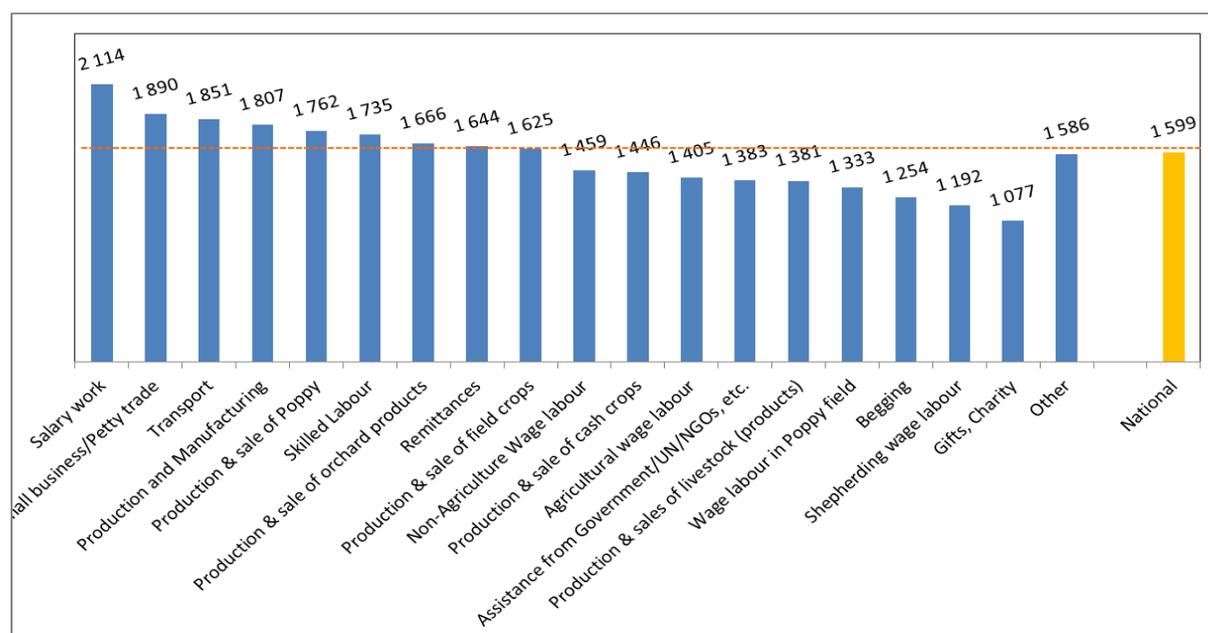
With respectively 20%, 17% and 9% of severe hunger scale; households relying on social assistance - gifts/charity and begging - as well as on humanitarian assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc. are those who experienced the most food hunger stress over the past 30 days before their interview.

Table 21: Shock exposure and food security by livelihood

Livelihood	Households experiencing a shock in the past 6 months (%)	Households engaging in emergency coping strategies (%)	Households with poor food consumption (%)
Wage labour in Poppy field	81%	56%	32%
Agricultural wage labour	77%	43%	51%
Production & sales of livestock and livestock products	77%	35%	30%
Production & sale of field crops	75%	33%	31%
Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc.	75%	47%	37%
Begging	71%	67%	50%
Production & sale of cash crops	71%	30%	29%
Gifts, Charity	71%	66%	70%
Non-Agriculture wage labour	69%	39%	51%
Small business/Petty trade	67%	22%	23%
Production & sale of Poppy	66%	53%	14%
Transport	65%	26%	32%
Production & sale of orchard products	62%	39%	40%
Skilled labour	61%	34%	36%
Remittances	60%	34%	48%
Shepherding wage labour	60%	56%	71%
Production and Manufacturing	59%	35%	38%
Salary work	59%	20%	20%

Chart 35 below displays the main livelihood categories and their approximate wealth-generating potential, using the median per-capita monthly expenditure in Afghani. Salaried workers and people relying on trade, transport, manufacturing production and production/sales of Poppy have over-average earning potentials, while non-agricultural and agricultural daily wage laborers are most affected by low incomes. Over the past 12 months, the national median per capita monthly expenditures has increased by 30%.

Chart 35: Median per capita monthly expenditure (Afs), by primary income source



Livelihoods and coping strategies

Table 22 shows the association of some main livelihoods with different coping strategies. Globally, they follow the same patterns: resorting to indebtedness, spending savings, selling income generating equipment or other assets, decreasing expenditures on basic/essential needs.

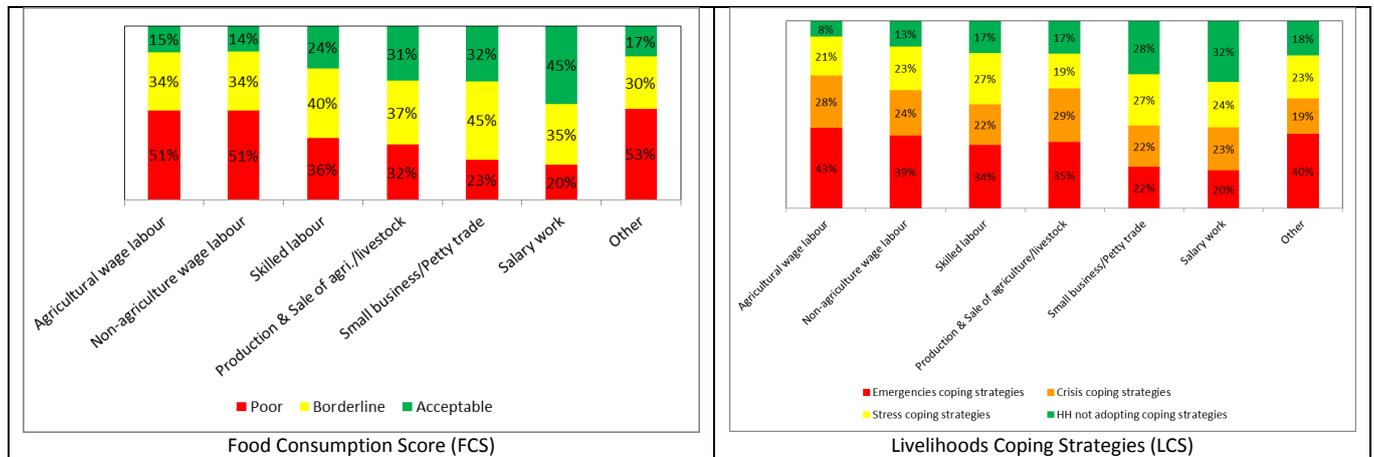
Table 22: Livelihoods and coping strategies

Severity	Coping Strategy	Production & Sale of Agr/livestock	Agricultural Wage Labor	Non-agriculture wage labour	Skilled labour	Salary work	Small businesses/petty trade
Stress	Borrow food or money for food	64%	81%	74%	65%	44%	54%
	Spent savings	45%	53%	43%	51%	46%	41%
	Sold more animals than usual or earlier than usual	35%	34%	24%	18%	12%	13%
	Sold household assets (appliances, furniture, doors, etc.)	19%	23%	9%	7%	3%	4%
Crisis	Decreased expenditures on health, education, etc.	39%	46%	42%	38%	29%	25%
	Decreased expenditure on fertilizer, animal feed, veterinary care, etc.	36%	30%	19%	15%	10%	11%
	Consumed seed stock	27%	22%	14%	13%	7%	8%
	Sold income generating equipment	23%	23%	16%	16%	8%	11%
Emergency	Sold last female animals	18%	18%	11%	10%	6%	7%
	Begging/Rely on Charity	17%	24%	24%	20%	6%	11%
	Sold house or land	11%	11%	6%	9%	4%	4%
	Early marriage of daughter	10%	9%	8%	5%	2%	3%
	Entire household migrated	10%	9%	9%	10%	4%	3%
	Engaged in illegal activities	7%	4%	2%	2%	1%	1%

Livelihoods and household consumption

In direct correlation with the levels of shock exposure, households relying on daily wage labour have poorer diets, while those relying on more predictable incomes like salary work or small business tend to have better food consumption.

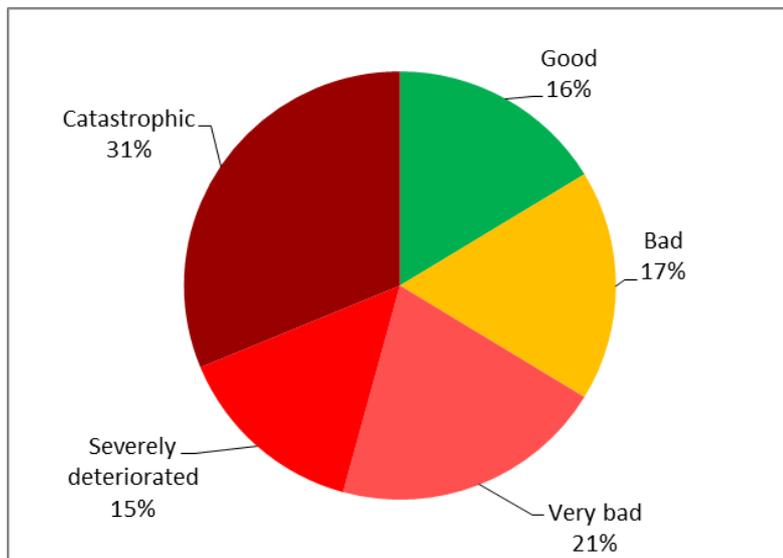
Chart 36: Food consumption and Livelihoods coping strategies by income sources at national level



Household food access

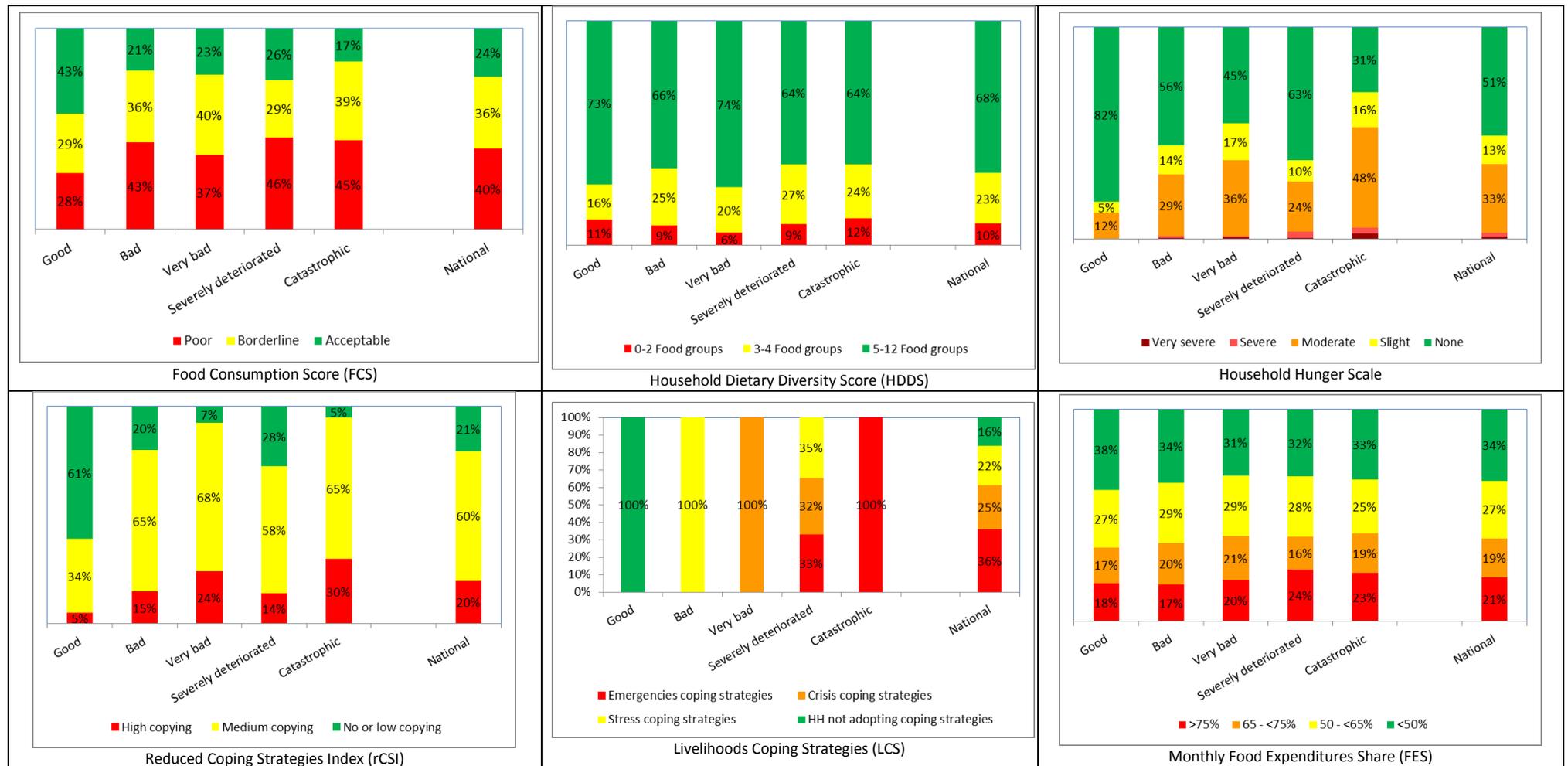
The Chart 37 below shows the distribution of these 5 food access groups, at national level.

Chart 37: Household food access groups distribution at national level



The charts 38 and table 23 below provide a summary description of the five food access categories.

Chart 38: Food security indicators by food access categories at national level



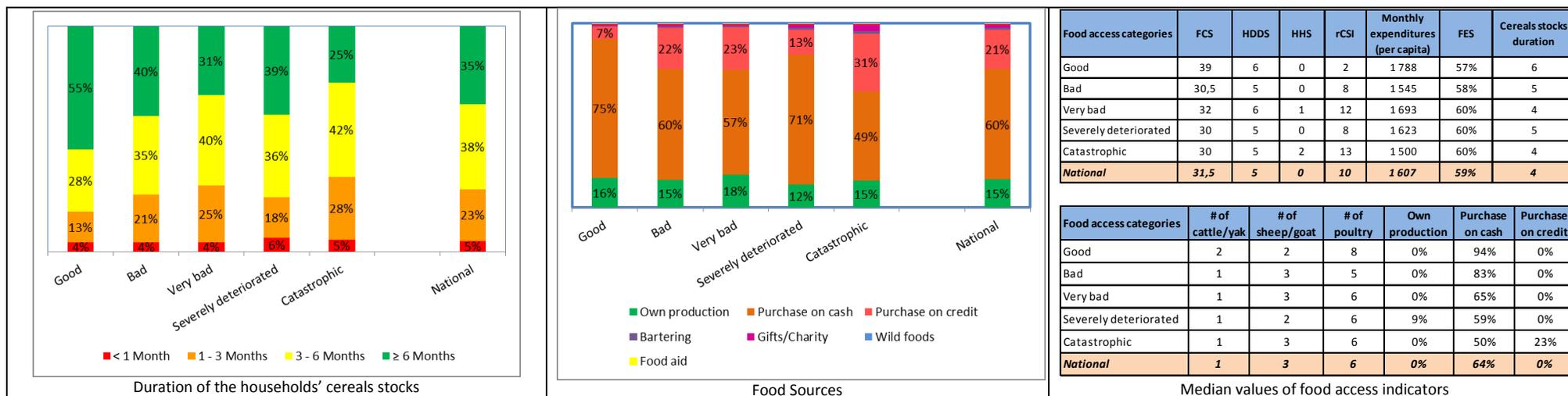


Table 23: Summary description of the food access categories

Good food access	Bad food access	Very bad food access	Deteriorated food access	Catastrophic food access
Households in this category are likely:	Households in this category are likely:	Households in this category are likely:	Households in this category are likely:	Households in this category are likely:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➔ To have a relatively good and diversified food consumption ➔ To do not experience food hunger stress ➔ To have enough cereals stocks (6+ months duration) ➔ To have 2 cattle/yak, 2 sheep/goat and 8 poultry (median size) ➔ To rely more on market (mainly purchase on cash) to access to food ➔ To do not engage unsustainable food-based coping strategies ➔ To do not adopt livelihoods-based coping strategies ➔ To be moderately indebted (48% of HH) or affected by shocks (48%) ➔ To have around 1,800 AFs as monthly expenditures per capita 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➔ To have a poor food consumption ➔ To experience food hunger stress ➔ To have a decreased cereals stocks duration (5 months) ➔ To have 1 cattle/yak, 3 sheep/goat and 5 poultry (median size) ➔ To rely more on market (including a significant part for purchase on credit) to access to food ➔ To engage in medium food-based coping strategies ➔ To adopt stressed livelihoods-based coping strategies ➔ To be indebted (100% of HH) and affected by shocks (75%) ➔ To have around 1,500 AFs as monthly expenditures per capita 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➔ To have a poor food consumption ➔ To experience high food hunger stress ➔ To have a decreased cereals stocks duration (4 months) ➔ To have 1 cattle/yak, 3 sheep/goat and 6 poultry (median size) ➔ To rely more on market (including a significant part for purchase on credit) to access to food ➔ To engage in high food-based coping strategies ➔ To adopt crisis livelihoods-based coping strategies ➔ To be indebted (100% of HH) and affected by shocks (81%) ➔ To have around 1,700 AFs as monthly expenditures per capita 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➔ To have a poor food consumption ➔ To experience food hunger stress ➔ To have a decreased cereals stocks duration (5 months) ➔ To have 1 cattle/yak, 2 sheep/goat and 6 poultry (median size) ➔ To rely more on market (mainly purchase on cash) to access to food ➔ To engage in medium food-based coping strategies ➔ To adopt stressed, crisis as well as emergencies livelihoods-based coping strategies ➔ To not have access to credit (100% of HH, strategy probably exhausted) ➔ To be moderately affected by shocks (52%) ➔ To have around 1,600 AFs as monthly expenditures per capita 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➔ To have a poor food consumption ➔ To experience high food hunger stress ➔ To have a decreased cereals stocks duration (4 months) ➔ To have 1 cattle/yak, 3 sheep/goat and 6 poultry (median size) ➔ To rely more on market (including a more significant part for purchase on credit) to access to food ➔ To engage high food-based coping strategies ➔ To adopt emergencies livelihoods-based coping strategies ➔ To be indebted (100% of HH) and affected by shocks (77%) ➔ To have around 1,500 AFs as monthly expenditures per capita

As shown by tables 32, 33, 34 and 35 in Annex 4:

- ❖ The severe deterioration in food access is more related to:
 - ➔ Households living in urban area and/or in Faryab (33%), Kabul (30%), Sar-e-Pul (29%), Hirat (24%) and Parwan (23%);
 - ➔ Impacts of severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19 (17%), livestock disease outbreak (15%), avalanche/landslide (15%), reduced income (12%) and return from Pakistan, Iran, etc. (11%); as the first main shock experienced;
 - ➔ Households relying on production & sale of orchard products (25%) and salary work (21%) - as first main source of cash income.

- ❖ A catastrophic food access is more related to:
 - ➔ Households living in rural area and/or in Uruzgan (60%), Hilmand (54%), Kandahar (51%), Badghis (50%), Paktya (49%), Ghor (48%), Laghman (47%), Kunar (43%), Faryab (42%), Sar-e-Pul (41%), Jawzjan (38%) and Nangarhar (37%);
 - ➔ The impacts of death or permanent impairment of breadwinner due to conflict (54%), conflict induced displacement (49%), earthquake (44%), road blocks (41%), return from Pakistan, Iran, etc. (39%), huge increase in food prices (38%), loss of employment (37%) and livestock disease outbreak (36%); as the first main shock experienced;
 - ➔ Households relying on begging (62%), gifts/charity (57%), shepherding wage labour (48%), wage labour in Poppy field (48%), assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc. (42%), production & sale of Poppy (40%) and agricultural wage labour (39%) - as first main source of cash income.

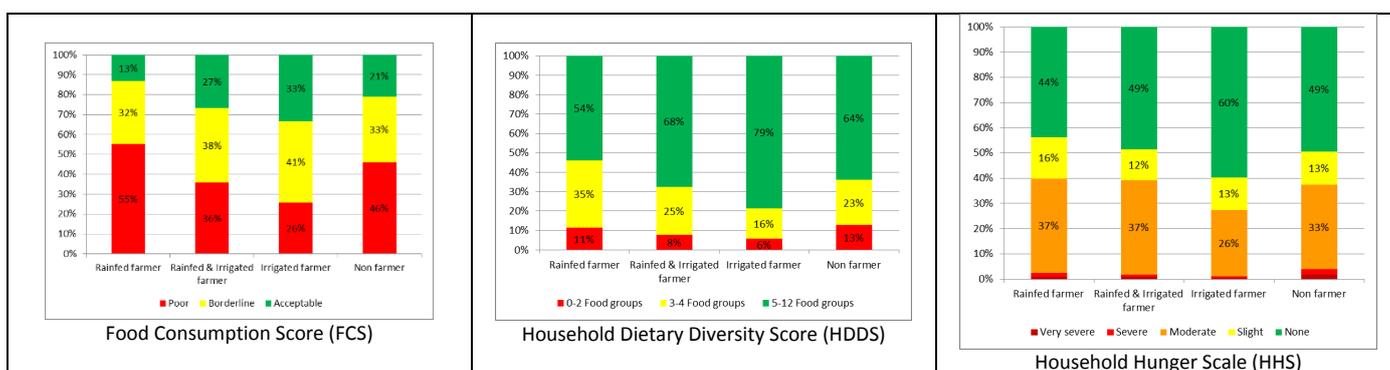
Land cultivation & Agriculture types

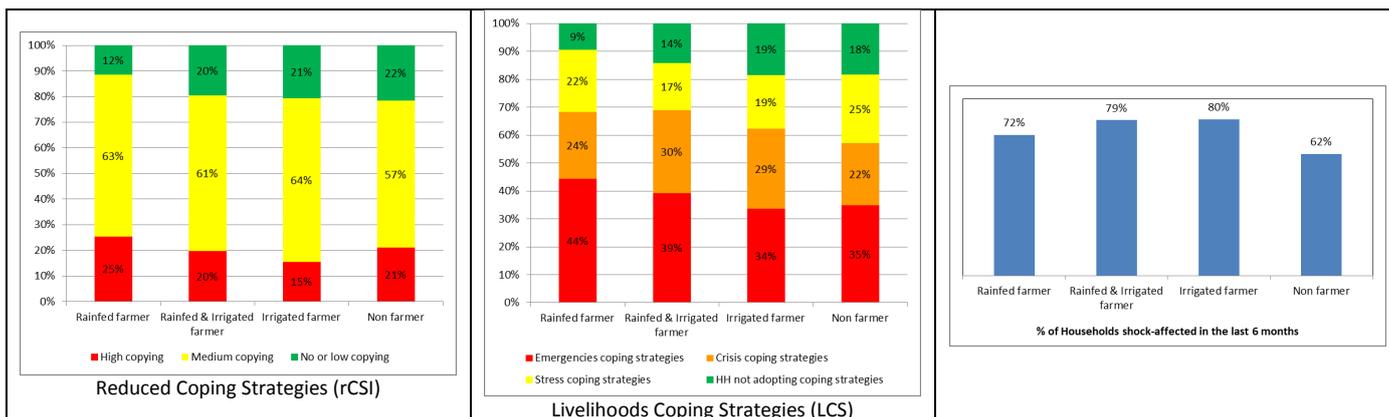
Households that rely more heavily on rain-fed agriculture also have poorer food consumption and greater reliance on emergency coping strategies (Chart 39); However, irrigated farmers are more likely to have experienced a shock in the past six months compared to others farmers or non-farmers.

Crop pests and diseases are the main first land cultivation difficulties encountered by farmers (57% for rainfed-farmers and 67% for irrigated-farmers), follow by difficulties to obtain agricultural inputs like seed and/or fertilizer (13%-16%). Rainfed-farmers are also facing with drought/dry spell (15% for rainfed-farmers and 6% for irrigated-farmers) while damaged irrigation systems for all farmers (17% for rainfed-farmers and 11% for irrigated-farmers).

Provinces where households are heavily reliant on rainfed agriculture like Badghis, Samangan, Faryab, Sar-e-Pul, Ghor and Badakhshan - where more than 60 percent of cultivated land is rain-fed – are also more food insecure.

Chart 39: Food security indicators by rainfed and/or irrigated farmers, and non-farmers



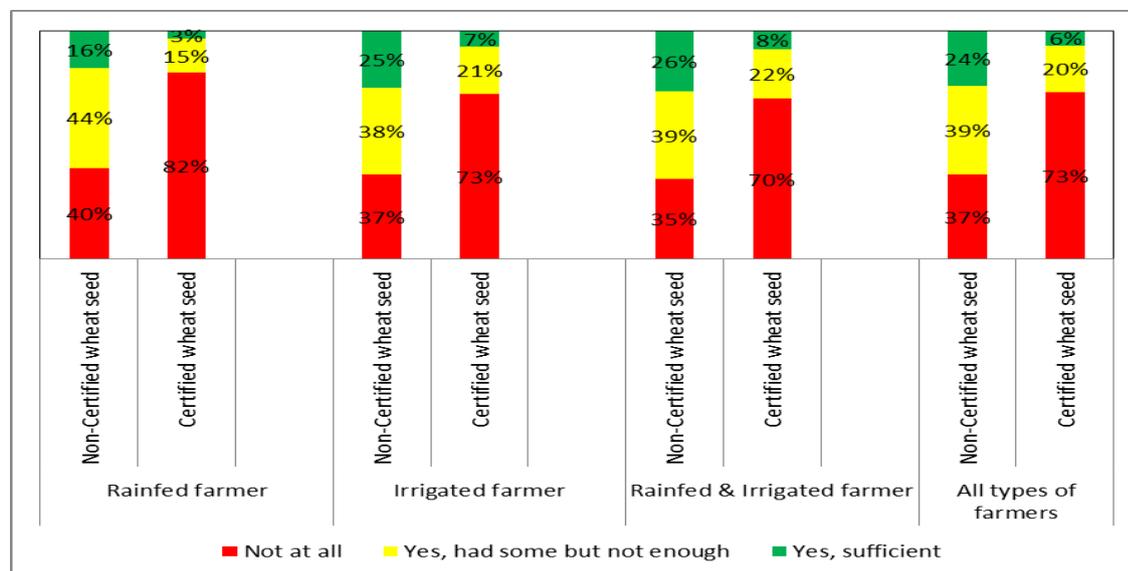


Agricultural inputs

Wheat seed access continues to remain a major problem for farmers this year: 40% of them did not have at all access to even non-certified wheat seed for this season, considering that it is more challenging to access to certified wheat seed (Chart 40). This issue is more acute for rainfed-farmers compares to others.

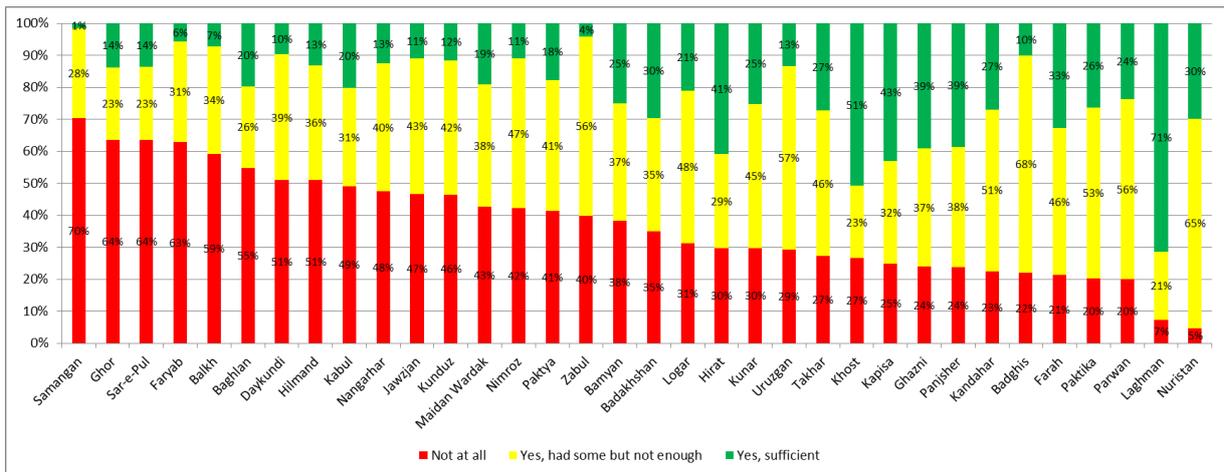
Almost two-third of farmers does not have enough non-certified seed for the next wheat cultivation season: this proportion being nine out of ten for certified seed. For non-certified seed, 49% also said they have no way of accessing wheat seeds from elsewhere, 40% said they may have but it will not be enough while the remaining 11% will be able to sort out this issue (vs. respectively 66%, 24% and 10% for certified seed).

Chart 40: Access to wheat seed by rainfed and/or irrigated farmers



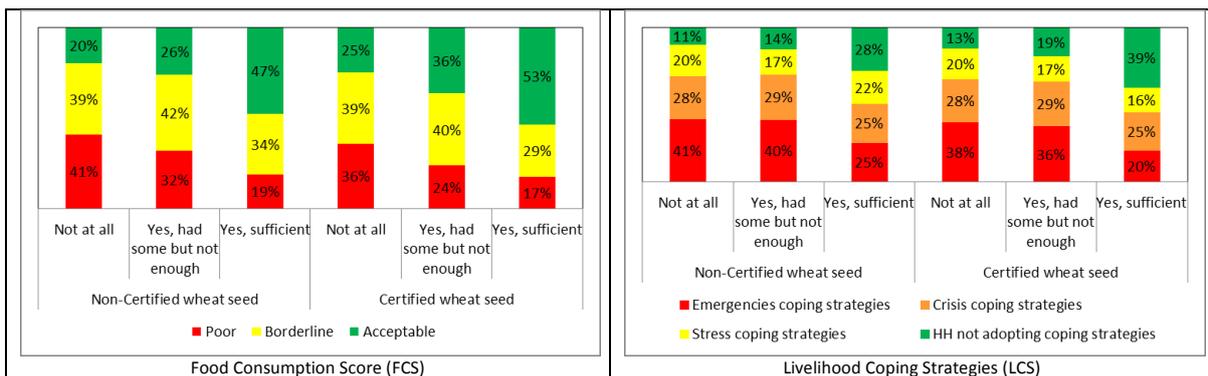
The access issue to non-certified wheat seed is more acute in Samangan, Ghor, Sar-e-Pul, Faryab, Balkh, Baghlan, Daykundi and Hilmand where more than half of farmers did not all access this seed. In 8 provinces, more than nine percent of farmers have accessed to sufficient certified wheat seed: Kapisa (20%), Ghazni (20%), Panjsher (19%), Parwan (19%), Baghlan (15%), Logar (13%), Bamyan (9%) and Takhar (9%).

Chart 41: Access to non-certified wheat seed by province



Having access to enough seed contributes significantly to food security of farmers and even more with certified seed (Chart 42).

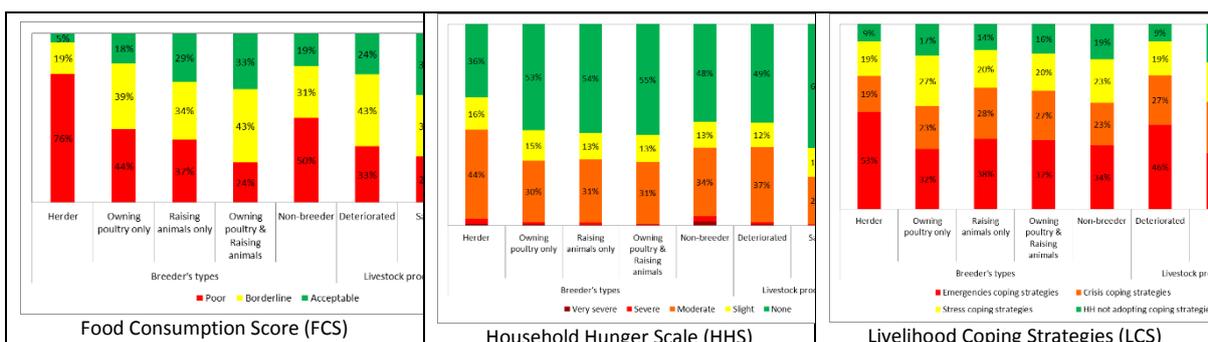
Chart 42: Access to wheat seeds and food security



Livestock

Households relying on herders livelihoods are more likely to be more food insecure as well as household experiencing a deterioration of their livestock productivity. However, a significant proportion of household with an improvement of this productivity are still relying on crisis/emergency strategies.

Chart 43: Food security by livestock productivity change and breeders' types



Gender based violence

Almost one-third of household (32%) reported the workload increase of women in their household due to any reason in the last 6 months and during the same period, this incidence of violence against women was due to COVID-19 in one out of five households.

Shocks as well as stress or difficulties in accessing agricultural and/or livestock inputs (like seed) are also linked to increased GBV incidences.

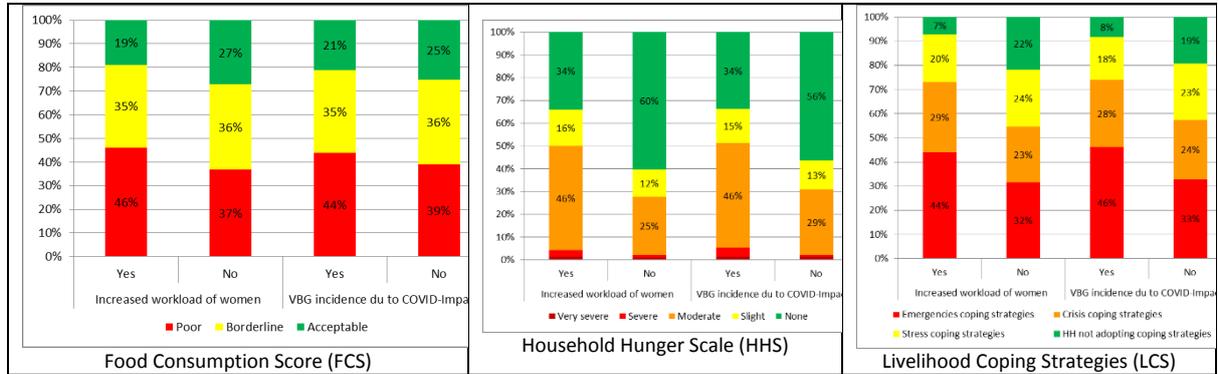
Table 24: Distribution of smallholders reporting increase in women's workload and VBG incidence by multiple shocks and challenges faced in accessing agricultural/livestock inputs

Type of farmers/breeders		No shock		One shock		Two shocks		Three or more shocks		Multiple shocks		Overall	
		A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
		A = Increased women workload						B = Incidence of violence against women					
Smallholder Mixed farmers (Irrigated land)	Male	23%	16%	26%	15%	30%	13%	42%	26%	41%	26%	37%	24%
	Female	26%	25%	0%	0%	53%	40%	52%	27%	52%	28%	46%	27%
	Total	23%	16%	26%	15%	31%	14%	42%	27%	41%	26%	38%	24%
Smallholder Mixed farmers (Rainfed land)		31%	13%	13%	0%	38%	28%	49%	30%	49%	30%	45%	26%
Smallholder farmers		27%	15%	29%	6%	19%	10%	44%	24%	42%	23%	38%	20%
Smallholder livestock & poultry keepers		17%	12%	15%	7%	23%	9%	40%	31%	38%	29%	33%	24%
Smallholder livestock keepers		18%	17%	19%	12%	21%	16%	32%	19%	31%	19%	26%	18%
Smallholder poultry keepers		19%	13%	34%	5%	37%	14%	41%	28%	40%	26%	34%	22%
Smallholder herders		15%	5%	39%	0%	0%	0%	55%	49%	55%	49%	40%	32%
ALL smallholder farmers		25%	15%	25%	12%	29%	14%	42%	26%	41%	25%	37%	23%
ALL smallholder breeders		18%	13%	25%	7%	29%	13%	39%	29%	38%	27%	32%	22%
National		21%	14%	19%	9%	27%	12%	40%	26%	38%	24%	32%	21%

Type of farmers/breeders		No shock		NOT facing challenges in accessing inputs		Facing challenges in accessing inputs		Multiple shocks		Multiple shocks and/or Facing challenges in accessing inputs	
		A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
		A = Increased women workload						B = Incidence of violence against women			
Smallholder Mixed farmers (Irrigated land)	Male	23%	16%	28%	16%	39%	25%	41%	26%	42%	26%
	Female	26%	25%	23%	26%	49%	27%	52%	28%	53%	27%
	Total	23%	16%	27%	16%	39%	25%	41%	26%	42%	26%
Smallholder Mixed farmers (Rainfed land)		31%	13%	34%	18%	47%	27%	49%	30%	50%	31%
Smallholder farmers		27%	15%	33%	20%	40%	20%	42%	23%	43%	22%
Smallholder livestock & poultry keepers		17%	12%	20%	14%	38%	29%	38%	29%	42%	33%
Smallholder livestock keepers		18%	17%	19%	14%	34%	22%	31%	19%	36%	22%
Smallholder poultry keepers		19%	13%	34%	22%	34%	28%	40%	26%	24%	24%
Smallholder herders		15%	5%	29%	9%	43%	38%	55%	49%	56%	51%
ALL smallholder farmers		25%	15%	29%	17%	39%	24%	41%	25%	42%	26%
ALL smallholder breeders		18%	13%	29%	19%	37%	28%	38%	27%	41%	31%
National		21%	14%	28%	18%	38%	25%	38%	24%	42%	27%

GBV contributes to a deterioration of the household food security: household with VBG being likely to be more food insecure, have a poor diet, high hunger food stress and adopt more unsustainable coping strategies (Chart 44).

Chart 44: Food security by VBG incidence due to COVID-impacts or increased women workload in the household



Section 7: Conclusions and recommendations

The multiple shocks directly experienced by households between March and August 2020 halted the improvements and in fact eroded the recent gains achieved in the acute food insecurity situation that began last year after recovery from the severe drought that hit the country in 2018. The Seasonal Food Security Assessment (SFSA 2020) shows the cumulative impacts of recent shocks particularly of COVID-19 on the national food security situation. These include reduced employment opportunities, reduced income, huge increase in food prices, loss of employment, constrained access to markets and productive inputs, death or illness of family member due to COVID-19 or other diseases, conflict, natural disaster mainly drought/dry spell and floods/heavy rains, crop pest and livestock disease outbreak. These impacted the already low resilience levels of households and contributed to an overall deterioration of the food security situation. Compared to 2019, there is an increase in the proportion of households with poor food consumption (+5%) as well as in the proportion of households consuming less than 5 different food groups (+15%) - mainly bread, oil and sugar. In the meantime, the proportion of households with a moderate to severe level of hunger has increased (+11%), as well as the proportion of households allocating more than 75% of their monthly expenditure to food (+12%).

The results of the SFSA 2020 show that around seven households out of ten reported that they have experienced some shocks. The provinces of Nuristan, Wardak, Uruzgan, Kandahar, and Laghman faced the highest level of shocks, respectively, where more than 90% of households are affected. Loss of employment (36%), reduced income (18%), severe sickness or death of breadwinner due to COVID-19 (12%), huge increase in food prices (11%) are the major primary shocks that households experienced. 81% of the households reported that their income has decreased compared to last year, of which around 54% reported reduced employment opportunities as the main reason for their income reduction followed by conflict (17%).

The IPC workshop, based on the data of this assessment, shows that as of September 2020, 36% of the population or 14.5 million people are estimated to be in Food Crisis and Emergency (IPC Phase 3 and Phase 4). An estimated 4.7 million people are classified in IPC Phase 4 and another 9.8 million people are classified in IPC Phase 3. These require urgent action to reduce food consumption gaps and to protect/save livelihoods and reduce acute malnutrition. The current IPC 3 and 4 estimates correspond to 3 percentage increase (from 33% to 36%) compared to the same period last year (2019). When comparing to the same period last year the number of people in IPC Phase 4 increased from 3 million to 4.7 million while the number of people in IPC Phase 3 increased slightly from 9.5 million to 9.8 million. This means that a greater number of people moved into IPC Phase 4 and IPC Phase 3 during the last year due primarily to COVID-19 impacts including loss of employment, reduction in income and food prices increases. These impacts are magnified by prolonged conflict and absence of any major social-support mechanism for population in IPC Phases 3 and 4.

This assessment highlights a continuous rise in chronic food insecurity, erosion of livelihoods and poverty in the country. The absence of safety nets leads to widespread continuous negative coping strategies, reduced quality of diets, high rates of acute and chronic malnutrition, and erosion of agriculture livelihoods and productive assets.

The findings presented in this report are a clear call for increased action that focuses not only on humanitarian assistance but also on linking response more systematically to recovery and resilience building at household as well as overall community level. The current assessment shows that Afghanistan is among the countries that consistently have high and recurrent levels of food insecurity. To address Afghanistan's critical food security situation, this report provides the following recommendations:

Address immediate needs to reverse the most harmful negative coping mechanisms

- Integrated and coordinated actions are required to contain high rates of asset depletion and food consumption gaps through phased and coherent food and livelihoods assistance for the population who are moderately and severely food insecure. Rural farmers, in particular smallholders, will not be able to secure sustainable labour opportunities or be able to cultivate their agriculture lands for winter and spring planting seasons due to lack of access to certified wheat seeds and fertilizers. Timely provision of quality inputs will help farmers to cultivate higher yields and improve household consumption.

Expand communal resilience initiatives

- Livelihood protection and asset creation programmes should be implemented by constructing and rehabilitating livelihood infrastructures for agriculture and livestock such as pipe-scheme, irrigation channels, water reservoirs, karizes, water channels for better water conservation and management. Crop pest and disease monitoring and control measures should continue to avoid crop losses. Livestock support (animal feed, veterinary services, and stable renovation), poultry and kitchen gardening are potential activities to enhance food security, nutrition and income of vulnerable communities.

Increase the focus on vulnerable groups in IPC Phase 3 and 4 areas especially urban and peri-urban areas

- Lifesaving food assistance should be prioritized in areas with high concentrations of people with limited food stocks and relying on daily wage labour along with unsustainable and poorly diversified sources of income. Best practices in mitigating the risk of COVID-19 should be continued and expanded upon in the upcoming year.

Implement a comprehensive multi-sectoral disaster risk reduction approach

- Considering the regular occurrence of environmental shocks, stakeholders should also focus their attention and funding on programs to build resilience to disasters and reduce risks. Floods in Afghanistan are causing more and more damage to life and livelihoods of the population living in vulnerable areas. To break the continued cycle of food insecurity, integrated programs with nutrition, health and WASH clusters need to be designed and implemented. The complex context of Afghanistan including ethnically diverse people, rugged terrain and unrelenting civil unrest, is to be considered when developing strategies for food security and livelihood programming. Lastly, the response and early recovery programming needs to be enhanced while focusing on strengthening access to markets and quality inputs of smallholder farmers, herders and poultry keepers

Annex 1: Methodology

Sampling

The Sampling design of the SFSA 2020 was developed to produce results that are statistically reliable at national and provincial levels. The sample was also representative for rural level of all provinces and urban level for 11 provinces (Kabul, Nangarhar, Baghlan, Takhar, Kunduz, Balkh, Jawzjan, Kandahar, Herat, Faryab and Helmand). The sample design developed for the SFSA was a Stratified, two-stage cluster approach. NSIA latest updated sampling frame was used as the sampling frame.

Sample Size

Based on standard parameters a sample size of 22,050 households with a cluster size of ten households would produce sufficiently reliable estimates, five percent reserve sample was also considered.

Stratification

The Sample was stratified into 45 analytical domains with equal allocation, as the sample was designed to produce results that are also statistically reliable for all provinces at rural level and 11 provinces at urban level. 11 provinces were stratified into rural and urban; the rural of the remaining provinces received a representative sample size from their total Sample size.

Cluster Size and number of clusters

The cluster size in SFSA was maintained at ten households, the cluster size of ten, in combination with 45 strata and total sample size of 22,050 households, implies 49 clusters per domain.

Sampling Stages and Selection process

Within each of the 34 provinces, Enumeration Areas (EAs) were selected as primary sampling units (PSUs) in the first sampling stage, based on the probability proportional to size (PPS) of the EA. In the second stage a cluster of ten households was selected from the updated household listing based on a systematic random sampling. Non-response within a cluster was addressed by drawing required number of additional households from the household listing in the EA, which could replace households not present or refusing or not able to accommodate an interview. Thus, the EAs selected were 2,205 which included more than one village in most of the provinces and the sample size was set at 22,050 HHs. However, security and access challenges in some areas impeded the attainment of the desired sample size as the number of interviewed HHs at the end of survey was 21,886 which indicates a mere 164 households gap which was later adjusted by assigning household weights to the data to further strengthen rigorous data analysis.

Assessment tools

SFSA 2020 survey included 3 questionnaires-household, community and trader (see annex 2). The questionnaire design was led by FSAC's Afghanistan Food Security Assessment Technical Working Group, using SFSA 2019 questionnaire as the base and keeping comparability and built on that. Due to the need to reduce the questionnaire length due to COVID-19 considerations the overall length of all questionnaires were reduced by removing some nutrition and household asset indicators. All relevant stakeholders involved in the design. The final version of the questionnaire reflects the suggestions of all relevant stakeholders.

The household questionnaire consisted of 13 sections-mainly shelter and Wash, sources of income, household expenditure, debts, agriculture, livestock, food consumption, coping strategies, household shocks etc.

Training and field work

MAIL's provincial and district extension and MIS staff and FSAC's I/NGOs partners carried out the data collection of the SFSA 2020. Prior to data collection, a 3-days training was arranged to the enumerators in 6 regions. The training sessions included trainings regarding questionnaires, mobile-based data collection and usage of GPS devices. Approximately, 400 plus enumerators (male and female) of MAIL and NGOs participated in the training sessions across the country.

In each enumeration area, 10 household questionnaires and one community questionnaire were used while across the whole district, only one trader questionnaire was filled in rural areas, while in urban cities more than one trader questionnaire was administrated.

The modalities used for data collection were paper and smartphones. Approximately, 48 percent of the data was collected via smartphones using Kobo Collect application. An XLS-form was designed and uploaded to the Kobo Server and downloaded to the Kobo Collect Application. The relevant enumerators were provided with a special training session regarding *how to collect data via smartphones*. In order to ensure transparency and avoid field errors, GPS coordinates were captured using GPS devices provided by NSIA. In addition to this, in order to simplify positioning of the enumeration areas, NSIA produced maps were also distributed among the enumerators.

Enumerators were sent to the fields in a group of two people – where female enumerators were available - while expecting the data collection to finish in less than 3 weeks.

MAIL's provincial MIS officers oversaw the assessment administration in their provinces and they also had some supervisory role. Meanwhile NSIA staff were independently conducting supervision of the assessment. The enumerators collected the data in 3 weeks and 99 percent of the data collection completed given the access challenges. The data, which was constantly uploaded to the Kobo server in the field, was consistently checked and prompt feedbacks were provided to the enumerators so that the data quality is ensured, and subsequently rigorous analysis is performed. For the paper data collection, first the supervisor of each team checks the data and the second level check was carried out by provincial MIS Officers.

Data Punching

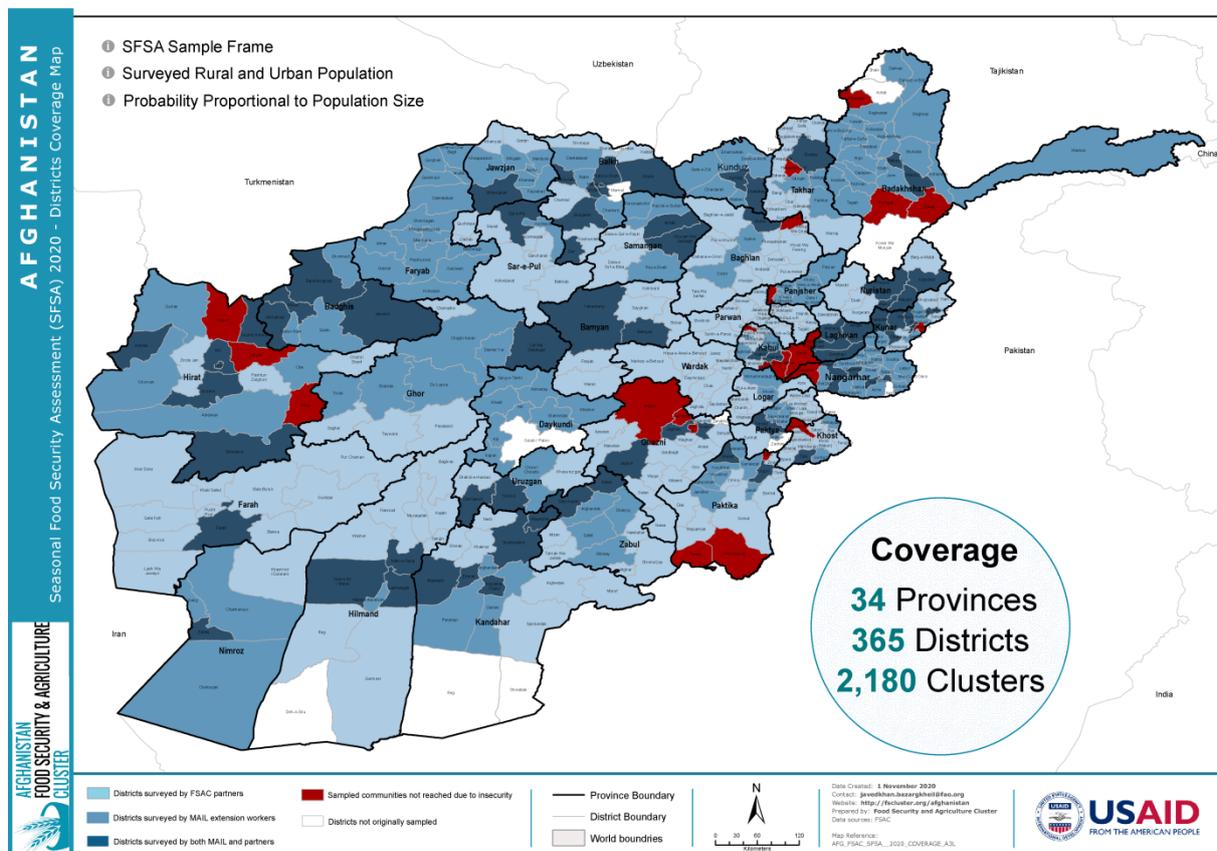
The data collected via smartphones did not require any punching as they were already uploaded directly to the server by enumerators in the field. The filled paper forms were mostly sent through UNHAS while some others were sent using land transports. An offline KoBo database was designed by WFP and iMMAP to conduct the data entry once the forms were received from the fields. The data punching was led by 2 supervisors and 30 data-entry clerks. The process was completed in 2 weeks. After completion of the data punching, the two datasets were merged, and weights were assigned as per the guidance of NSIA.

Limitations

Due to ongoing conflicts and access issues, some EAs (clusters) were not interviewed which represented a minor percentage of the total households interviewed in a province. Moreover, in some parts of the country, usage of GPS devices was a big challenge and was deemed as a potential threat to the lives of the enumerators. Therefore, the GPS coordinates were not captured in those areas.

Most of the sampled EAs across the country includes more than one village. As such, it was not easy for enumerators to prepare household lists for running household random selection. Unmatching of maps with the actual field location in few locations of the country caused deviation from original sampled communities.

Map 9: District coverage



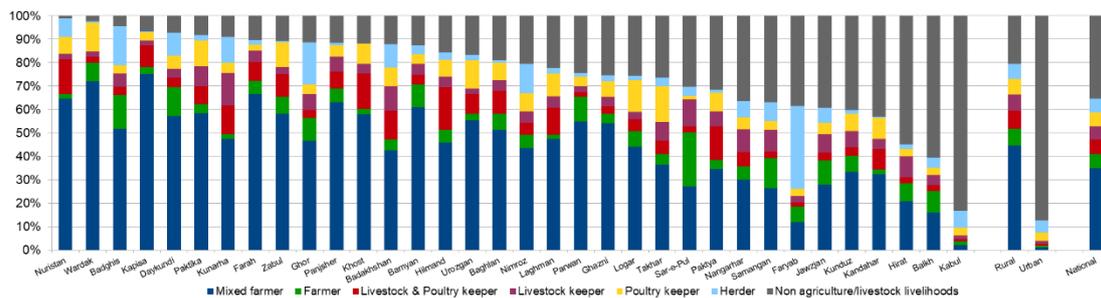
Annex 2: Agricultural & Livestock Chapter

Land cultivation & Agriculture types

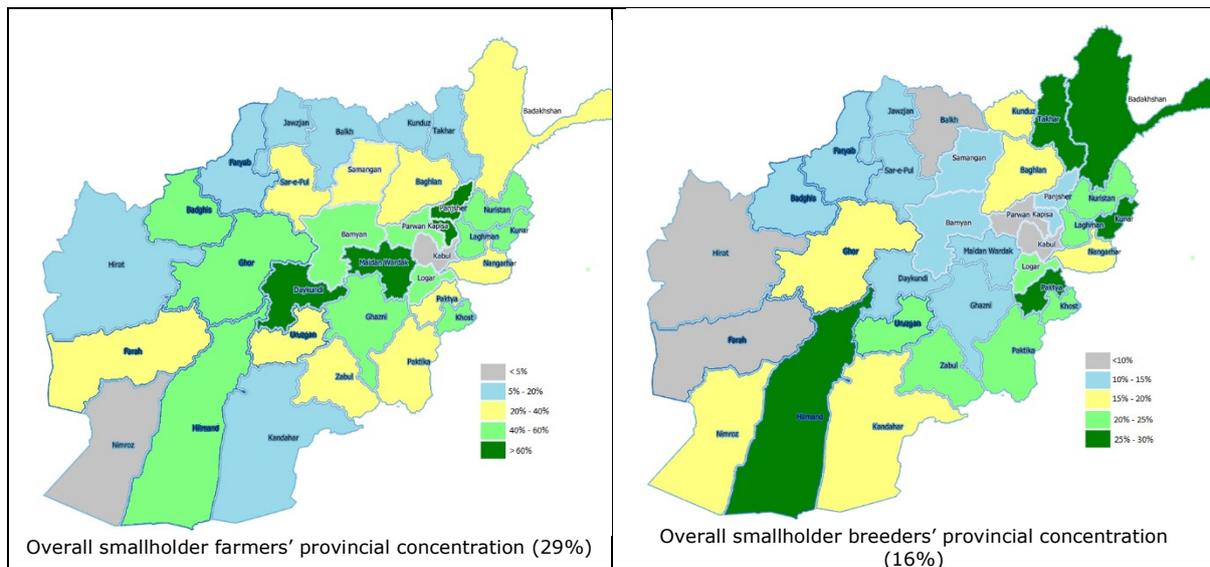
At national level 45% of households depend on agriculture as their primary source of income while almost two third (65%) of households rely on farming and/or livestock (as one of their income source).

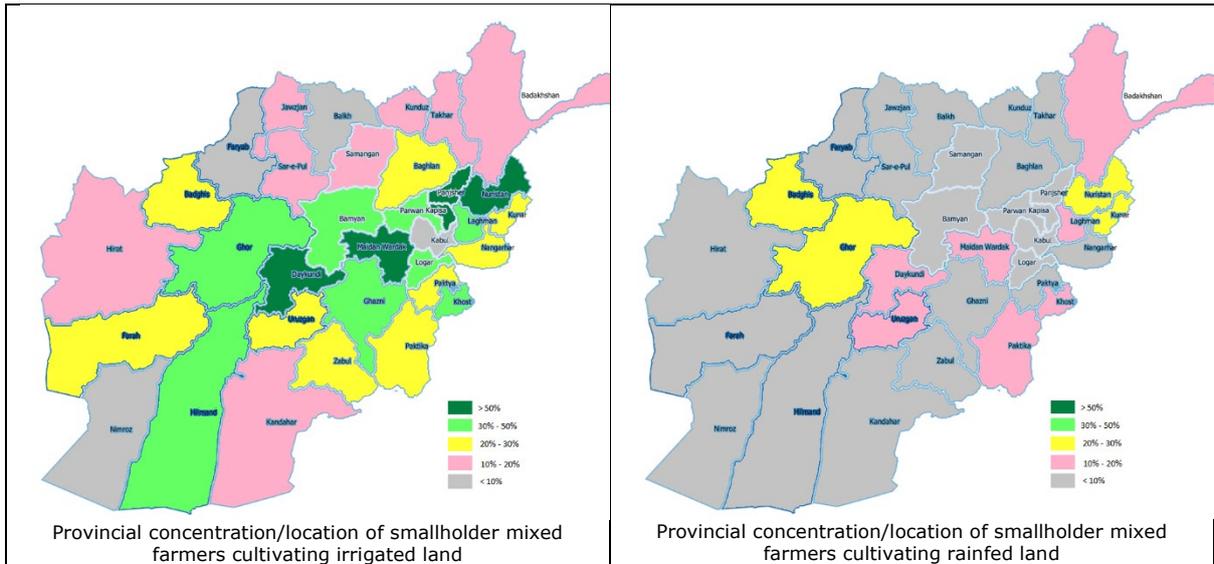
As per SFSA 2020, 42% of respondents have cultivated rainfed land only (6%), irrigated land only (27%) or both (9%). These households are divided in two groups: mixed-farmers (36%) and farmers (6%), with nearly 70% of them being smallholders.

Chart 45: Main types of agriculture and livestock livelihoods by province



Map 10: Smallholder farmers and breeders distribution by province





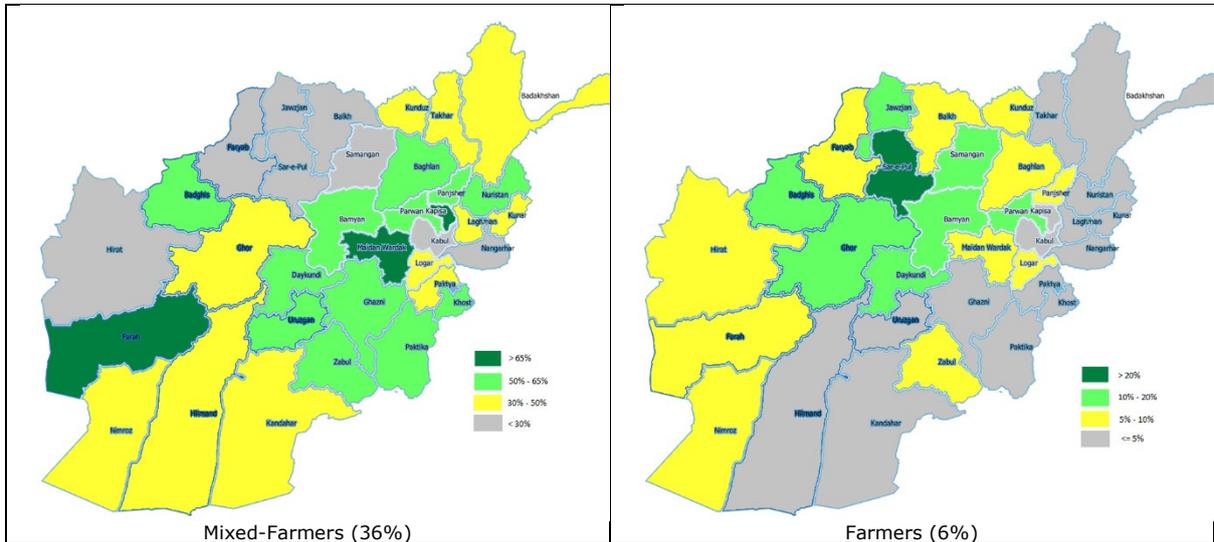
The median size of the land cultivated is:

- ➔ 5 jeribs for rainfed-farmers,
- ➔ 2 jeribs for irrigated-farmers,
- ➔ 2 jeribs of irrigated land and 3 jeribs of rainfed land for rainfed & irrigated farmers.

Compared to last year, the rainfed land size has increased for 13% of rainfed-farmer while decreasing for 21% of them. Irrigated land size has increased 3%.

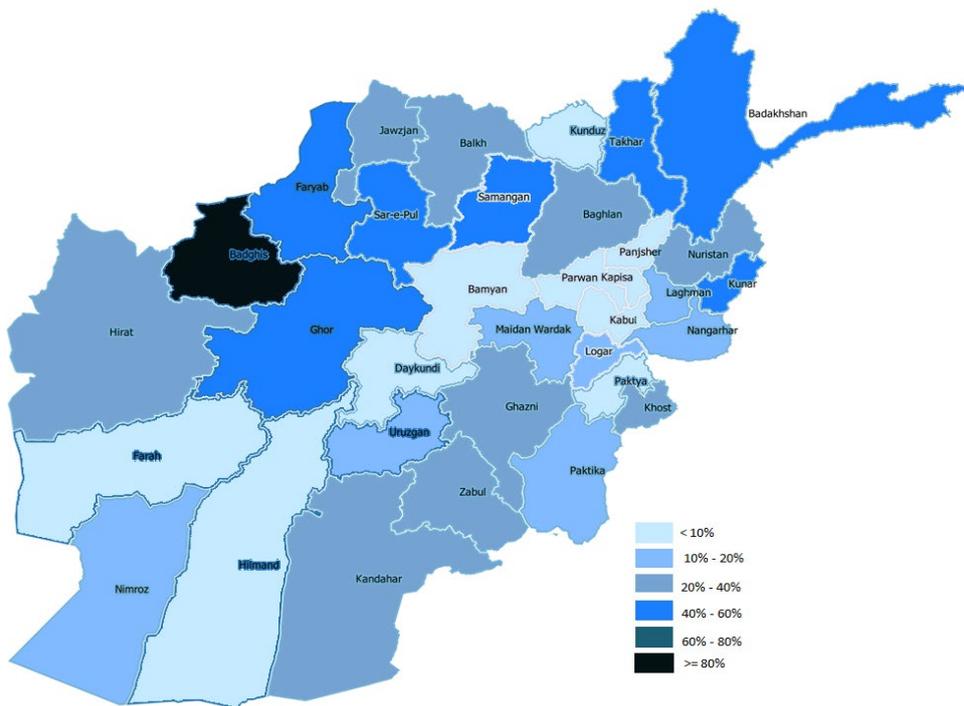
Concerning rainfed & irrigated farmers: the increase includes 15% for irrigated land and 22% for rainfed land, while 19% and 29% of respondents report a respective decrease of irrigated and rainfed land.

Map 11: Provincial location of mixed-farmers and farmers households



Almost three-quarters of households cultivating only rainfed land are located in 8 provinces: Badghis (17%), Badakhshan (14%), Takhar (10%), Kunarha (9%), Hirat (6%), Faryab (6%), Ghor (5%) and Samangan (5%).

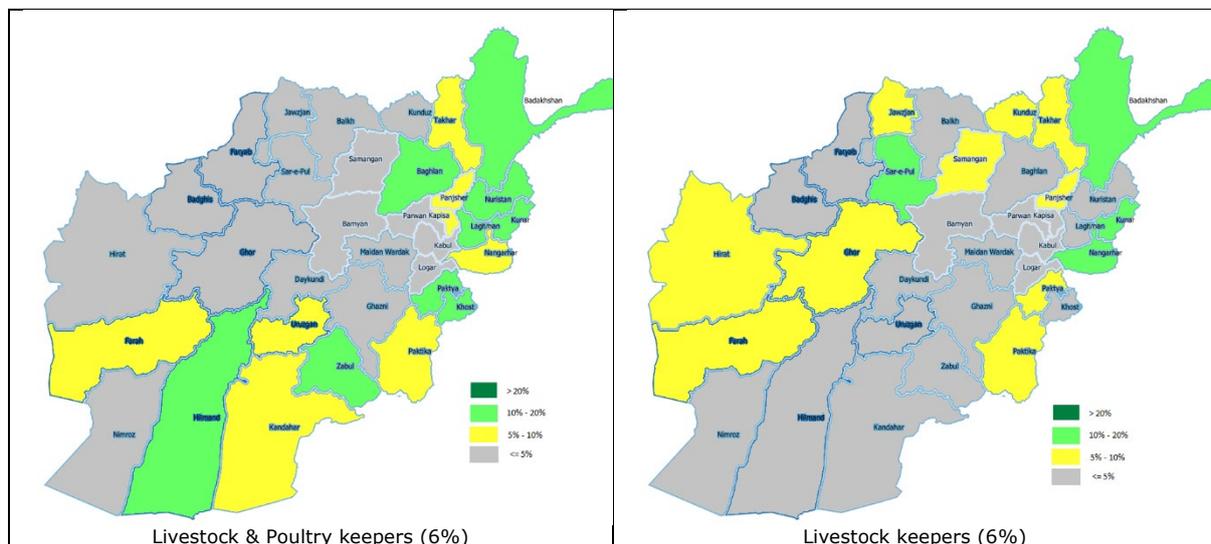
Map 12: Share of cultivated land that is rainfed, by province

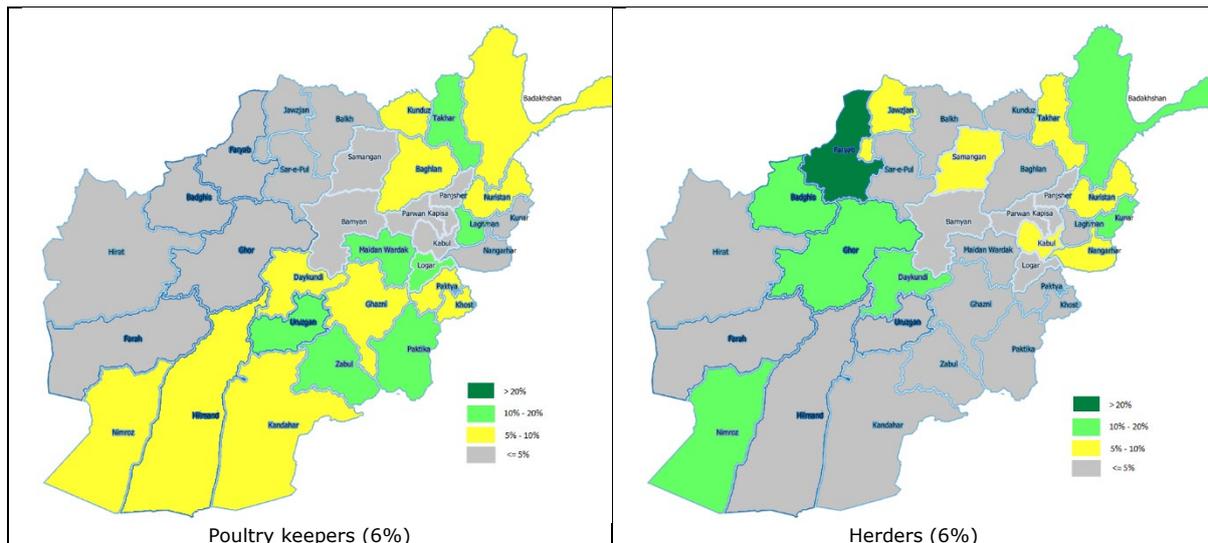


Livestock

55% of households are either owning poultry only (10%), raising animals only (18%) or both raising/owning animals/poultry (27%). Some of them are mixed-farmers (35%), poultry keepers (6%), livestock keepers (6%), livestock & poultry keepers (6%) or herders having livestock (2% out of 6%).

Map 13: Provincial location of poultry keepers, livestock keepers and livestock & poultry keepers





- ➔ 68% of breeders¹² are smallholders (representing 16% of households). These figures are:
- 96% for livestock & poultry keepers (representing 6.0% of households);
 - 64% for livestock keepers (representing 3.6% of households);
 - 98% for poultry keepers (representing 5.9% of households); and,
 - 37% for herders having livestock (representing 0.6% of households).

The median herd profile of breeders is as follow:

- ➔ 5 poultry for households owning poultry only,
- ➔ 1 cattle/yak and 2 sheep/goat for households raising animals only,
- ➔ 2 cattle/yak, 3 sheep/goat and 6 poultry for household raising/owning animals and poultry.

Breeders owning poultry are more exposed and affected by shocks (around 80%) compared to those only raising animals (72%) and non-breeders (59%).

The primary difficulties faced by breeders in raising animals are:

- ➔ Lack of pasture and fodder (31%), more acute in Samangan;
- ➔ Lack of water (18%), more experienced in the western part of the country;
- ➔ High price of fodder and concentrates (18%), more acute in Paktya;
- ➔ Unusual Animal diseases (12%), more experienced in Nuristan, Kunarha, Ghazni, Hilmand and Kandahar;
- ➔ Livestock deaths (8%), more experienced in Ghazni, Hilmand and Kandahar;
- ➔ And, lack of access to veterinary services (7%), more acute in Parwan and Nuristan.

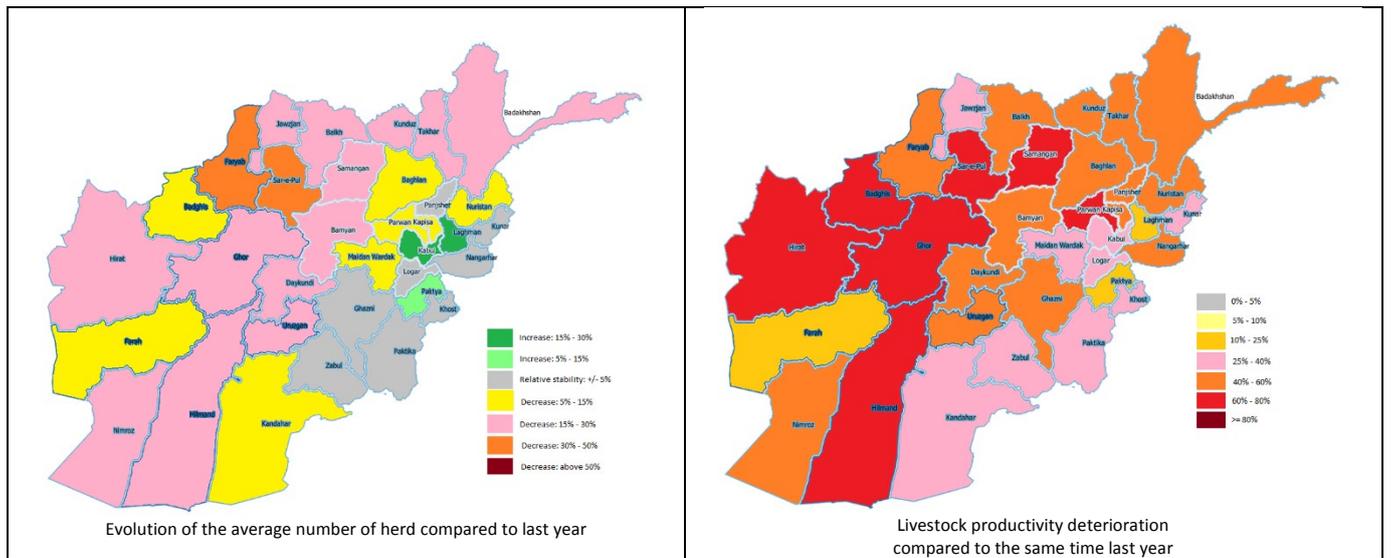
Lack of water and livestock death are issues most concerning for herders.

As a consequence, over the past 12 months:

- ➔ The overall size of the herd owned has decreased by 14% (due to 16% sheep/goat decrease, 14% buffalo decrease and 4% cattle/yak decrease). The Map 14 provides an overview of the change in herd size at provincial level and shows that Faryab and Sar-e-Pul are the two provinces most affected with more than 30% of herd size decrease.
- ➔ A deterioration of the livestock productivity for 48% of breeders compared to the same period last year. In the meantime, it remained unchanged for 38% while increasing for 14% (Map 14).

¹² Considering that mixed farmers were not included as already presented in the previous section (Land cultivation)

Map 14: Provincial overview of the evolution of the average herd size and the magnitude of the livestock productivity deterioration over the past 12 months

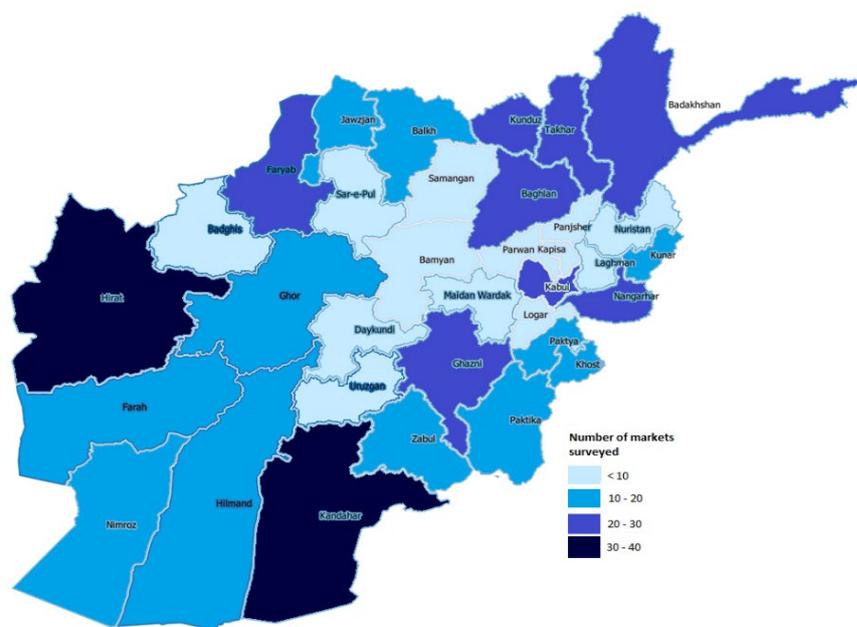


Annex 3: Markets information and functionality

Sampling overview

The analysis is based on data collected in 515 markets across the country.

Map 15: Overview of the market sampling distribution



Consumers

Most of the households/consumers (93%) shop in markets located in their district while 6% are going to other neighboring district or province (1%).

Traders reporting that most of their consumers live in other provinces are located in Logar (14%), Nimroz (10%), Ghor (8%), Takhar (5%), Kabul (4%) and Kandahar (3%). While at least 10 percent of trader located in Khost (20%), Sar-e-Pul (17%), Kunar (14%), Farah (14%), Badghis (13%), Paktika (12%), Parwan (11%), Nimroz (10%) and Jawzjan (10%) said they come from neighboring district.

General market information

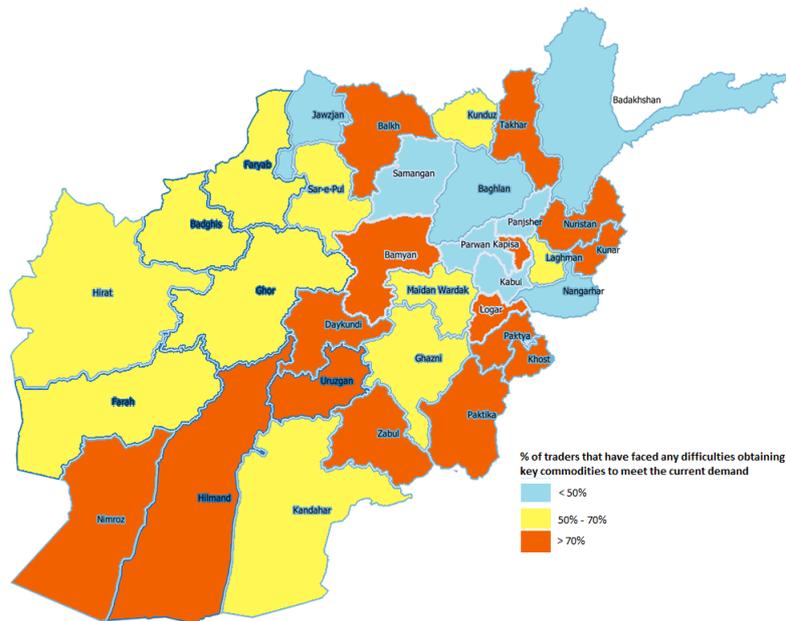
Almost nine traders (out of ten) - 89% - can expect to receive their products within a week after they have placed an order. These proportions are lowest in Badghis (50%), Uruzgan (50%), Khost (53%), Ghor (58%), Zabul (64%), Daykundi (67%), Hilmand (69%) and Nimroz (70%).

If demand increased by 20% in the next month, almost three-quarters (73%) of traders will be able to increase their stock to meet this demand. These proportions are lowest in Laghman (25%), Hilmand (38%), Ghazni (46%), Badghis (50%), Paktika (53%), Kandahar (53%) and Logar (57%).

Three-fifth of traders (60%) has faced difficulties obtaining key commodities to meet the current demand. Kabul (29%), Parwan (33%) and Nangarhar (33%) are the province with the lowest proportion

of traders facing these difficulties; unlike those of Uruzgan (100%), Nimroz (90%), Daykundi (89%) and Nuristan (88%).

Map 16: Share of traders that have faced any difficulties in obtaining key commodities to meet the current demand by province



These difficulties are mainly related to:

- ➔ The restrictions or impacts of COVID-19 (32%), Especially in Hilmand (69%), Samangan (67%), Kapisa (60%), Logar (60%), Maidan Wardak (60%), Kabul (50%), Laghman (50%), Panjsher (50%), Nimroz (44%), Paktya (44%), Hirat (43%), Paktika (42%) and Ghor (40%).
- ➔ The insufficient number of shops (20%), Especially in Jawzjan (50%), Farah (45%), Badghis (40%), Baghlan (40%), Faryab (33%), Paktika (33%), Kunduz (31%), Bamyan (29%) and Khost (27%).
- ➔ The limited shops' quantity of supply (20%), Especially in Nuristan (57%), Panjsher (50%), Sar-e-Pul (50%), Nimroz (44%), Ghor (40%), Kunar (40%), Maidan Wardak (40%), Faryab (33%), Parwan (33%), Samangan (33%), Ghazni (29%), Bamyan (29%) and Khost (27%).
- ➔ The significant increase in demand (8%), Especially in Laghman (50%), Parwan (33%), Zabul (33%), Takhar (31%) and Kabul (25%).
- ➔ Shops that do not supply the types of goods that people buy – reduced variety (8%); Especially in Daykundi (38%), Parwan (33%), Jawzjan (25%), Nangarhar (22%), Badghis (20%) and Kandahar (17%).
- ➔ Other reasons (reported by 13% of traders). Especially in Uruzgan (67%), Badakhshan (44%), Balkh (40%), Jawzjan (25%), Sar-e-Pul (25%), Ghazni (24%), Paktya (22%) and Kapisa (20%).

Traders' supplier mainly buy their stock from:

- ➔ Within their province (49%),
Especially in Kabul (89%), Hirat (87%), Balkh (86%), Kunduz (80%), Nuristan (75%), Farah (71%), Zabul (70%), Kandahar (69%), Khost (60%) and Faryab (59%).
- ➔ Another province (31%),
Especially in Kapisa (86%), Samangan (86%), Logar (83%), Sar-e-Pul (83%), Jawzjan (80%), Panjsher (80%), Uruzgan (67%), Baghlan (65%), Badakhshan (62%), Maidan Wardak (56%), Ghor (55%), Badghis (50%), Kunar (50%), Paktika (50%), Bamyan (44%), Daykundi (44%), Parwan (44%) and Takhar (42%).
- ➔ Another country (16%),
Especially in Nimroz (70%), Daykundi (56%), Nangarhar (36%), Bamyan (33%), Khost (27%), Laghman (25%) and Paktya (25%).

93% of traders reported that anyone who wants to operate in this market could do so: these proportions being lowest in Bamyan (78%) and Logar (71%).

The prices of food commodities on market are set based on:

- Based on supply and demand (46%),
Mainly in Kapisa (86%), Bamyan (78%), Badghis (75%), Laghman (75%), Hirat (68%), Kunduz (67%), Farah (64%), Kabul (64%), Zabul (64%), Paktika (59%), Balkh (57%), Samangan (57%) and Daykundi (56%).
- Each one setting the price on their own (44%),
Mainly in Faryab (81%), Badakhshan (74%), Logar (71%), Jawzjan (70%), Nimroz (70%), Uruzgan (67%), Panjsher (60%), Kandahar (59%), Paktya (58%), Maidan Wardak (56%) and Parwan (56%).
- Dictated by someone (10%),
Mainly in Ghor (42%), Nuristan (38%), Ghazni (29%), Takhar (27%) and Nangarhar (25%).

Standard measures of weights (MT, Kg, gr) are the most used in 87% of Afghanistan markets to weight food commodities: local measures accounting for 13% and it is mainly used in Zabul (64%), Hilmand (50%), Uruzgan (50%), Nuristan (38%), Paktika (24%), Takhar (23%) and Daykundi (22%).

Market functionality

Through the SFSA, the market functionality index (MFI) was calculated. The current MFI incorporates several dimensions¹³: the assortment of essential goods (AEG)¹⁴, their availability as well as their prices' outlook (trend and volatility); the resilience of supply chains (in terms of responsiveness and vulnerability to disruptions) and competition.

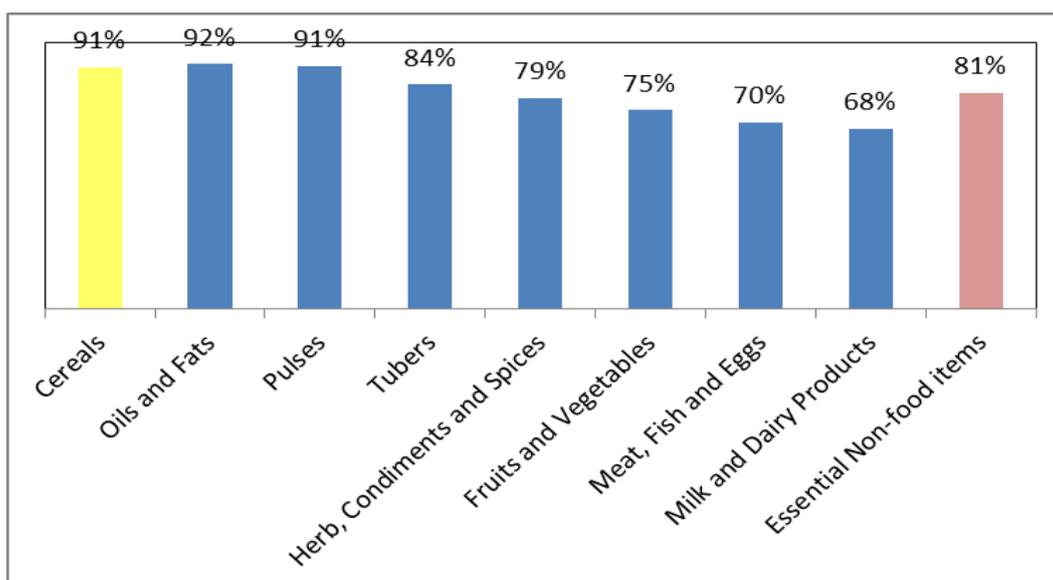
Assortment of essential goods

Products normally sold in the market are cereals (91%), food other than cereal (97%) and essentials NFI (81%).

Chart 46: Share of traders interviewed by type of products sold in the market

¹³ Dimensions related to infrastructure and market efficiency (transport systems, communication networks, etc.), services, food quality as well as safe access & protection have not been assessed in this context.

¹⁴ Cereal food, food other than cereals and essential non-food items.



In terms of typology, markets/traders sell around eight different types of products belonging to three different groups of essential goods: which corresponds to **an average AEG score of 8.1 (out of ten)**. The table below illustrates, at the national level, on one hand, the distribution of markets/traders according to the depth of the assortment of essential goods and the number of different types of essential goods sold; and, on the other hand, the distribution of markets/traders according to their AEG score. It shows that two-third of traders (68%) have high diversity in both type and number of essential goods.

Table 25: Distribution of markets/traders according to the depth of the assortment of essential goods, the number of different types of essential goods sold; as well as their AEG score

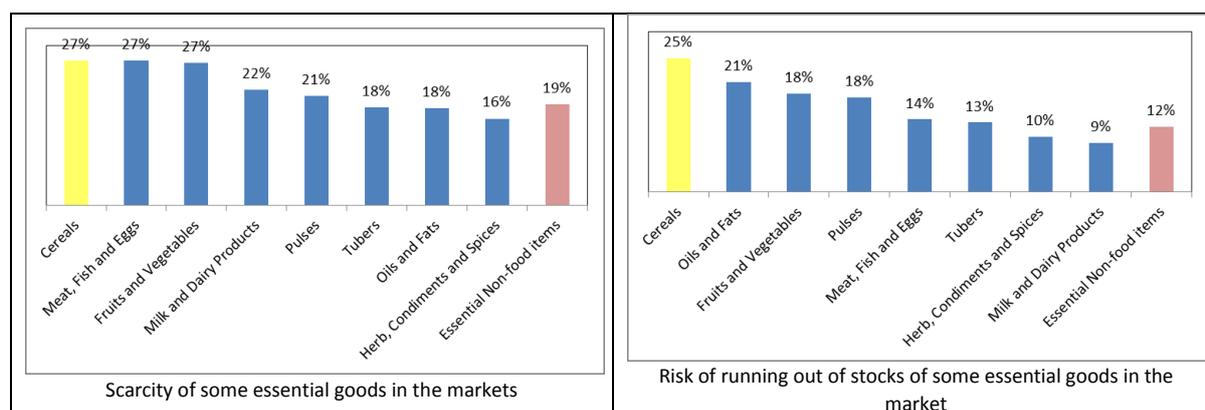
Number of different types of essentials goods sold (average = 7.3)	Depth of essential goods assortment (number of groups of essential goods sold) (average = 2.7)			Total								
	Low (1)	Medium (2)	High (3)									
1	3.9%	-	-	3.9%								
2	0.8%	0.4%	-	1.2%								
3	0.9%	1.2%	0.6%	2.7%								
4	0.8%	2.5%	1.0%	4.3%								
5	0.2%	1.2%	1.5%	2.9%								
6	0.2%	2.7%	7.0%	9.9%								
7	-	2.9%	10.3%	13.2%								
8	-	4.4%	16.7%	21.1%								
9	-	-	40.8%	40.8%								
Total	6.8%	15.3%	77.9%	100%								
AEG Score	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	TOTAL
	3.9%	0.8%	1.4%	1.9%	3.3%	2.3%	4.3%	9.9%	14.7%	16.7%	40.8%	100%

The level of markets' AEG provides an indication of the degree of markets functionality. The well-functioning markets are supposed to have all of these groups/types of essential goods available in very large quantities for purchase, which translates into an AEG score close to 10.

Availability of essential goods

The scarcity or lower availability of some essential goods is reported by 27% of markets/traders for cereals, 48% for food other than cereal and 19% for essential NFI. The possibility that some shops of market will run out of some stocks (within one week from the time of the interview) is reported by 25% of markets/traders for cereals, 33% for food other than cereal and 12% for essential NFI.

Chart 47: Share of traders interviewed by scarcity and risk of running out of stocks of some essential goods in the market



At the national level, the availability of essential goods in the markets is high and the likelihood to get scarcer in the short run is low: these two leading to a high **average availability score of 8.2 (out of ten)**.

The table below shows that 60.2% of markets/traders have both high essential goods availability and low risk of scarcity of essential commodities; while only 5.5% of markets/traders are reporting simultaneously a low availability and a high risk of running out of some essential goods.

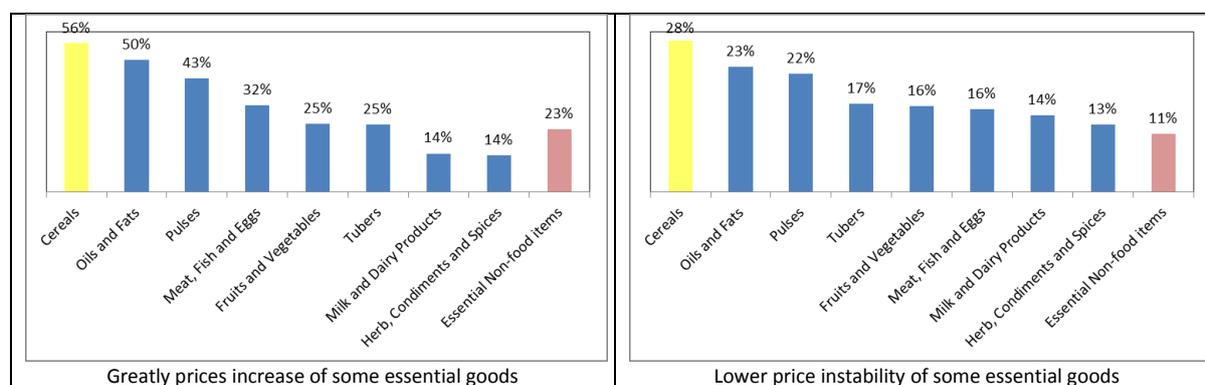
Table 26: Distribution of markets/traders according to the availability and risk of running out of stocks of some essential goods

Availability of some essentials goods in the market (average = 4.8)	Risk of running out of stocks of some essential goods in the market (average = 5.0)												TOTAL	
	0 Very high	1	2	3 Medium	4	5	6 Very low							
0 – Very low	1,0%	-	0,6%	0,4%	-	0,2%	2,3%						4,5%	
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	0,6%						0,6%	
2	0,2%	-	3,7%	1,9%	-	0,8%	2,9%						9,5%	
3 - Medium	0,2%	0,2%	0,4%	7,0%	-	0,8%	5,2%						13,8%	
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-						-	
5	-	-	0,8%	1,9%	-	0,6%	2,9%						6,2%	
6 – Very high	0,8%	0,2%	2,7%	5,0%	-	1,2%	55,5%						65,4%	
TOTAL	2,2%	0,4%	8,2%	16,2%	-	3,6%	69,4%						100,0%	
Availability score	0.0	0.8	1.7	2.5	3.3	4.2	5.0	5.8	6.7	7.5	8.3	9.2	10	TOTAL
	Very low			Low			Medium			High			Very high	
	1.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.6%	3.9%	2.5%	10.1%	2.3%	8.3%	10.3%	0.6%	4.1%	55.5%	100.0%

📊 Trends and volatility in the prices of essential goods

56% of markets/traders reported a greatly prices increase of cereals in the last 1 month: 66% for food other than cereal and 23% for essential NFI. Cereals lower price instability is reported by 28% of markets/traders: 32% for food other than cereal and 11% for essential NFI.

Chart 48: Share of traders interviewed by greatly increase and lower price instability of some essential goods in the market



At the national level, prices of essential goods are affordable but highly volatile in the markets: this translates into **an average price affordability and predictability score of 4.6** (out of 10).

The table below shows that the prices of essential goods are both affordable and stable for only 9.4% of markets/traders. Price of essential goods remains unaffordable in 23% of markets and highly volatile in 66.4% of markets.

Table 27: Distribution of markets/traders according to the affordability and price volatility of essential goods

Prices affordability of essential goods (average = 3.9)	Prices volatility, instability and/or unpredictability of essential goods (average = 1.6)							TOTAL						
	0 Very high	1	2	3 Medium	4	5	6 Very low							
0 - Highly unaffordable	3,9%	-	-	0,2%	-	0,2%	1,7%	6,0%						
1	0,4%	-	-	-	-	-	-	0,4%						
2	11,7%	-	-	0,2%	-	1,7%	2,6%	16,2%						
3 - Medium	22,1%	-	1,2%	1,0%	-	8,9%	1,7%	34,9%						
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-						
5	1,7%	0,2%	0,6%	-	-	0,4%	-	2,9%						
6 - Highly affordable	26,4%	-	2,5%	1,7%	-	5,3%	3,7%	39,6%						
TOTAL	66,2%	0,2%	4,3%	3,1%	-	16,5%	9,7%	100,0%						
Prices volatility, stability and/or predictability score	0.0 Very low	0.8	1.7	2.5	3.3	4.2	5.0	5.8	6.7	7.5	8.3	9.2	10 Very high	TOTAL
	3.9%	0.4%	11.7%	22.3%	0.0%	3.3%	29.3%	2.3%	14.0%	3.5%	0.4%	5.2%	3.7%	

📊 Resilience of supply chains

The resilience of supply chains is evaluated considering markets/traders responsiveness and vulnerability to disruptions. At national level, markets/traders responsiveness is high: 68% of markets/traders being able together to receive their products within a week after they have placed an order and to increase their stock to meet a 20% demand increase. Only 8% of markets/traders will not be able to do so.

Markets/Traders supply chains vulnerability to disruptions is also high (due to lower diversity of suppliers and supply locations).

At the national level, the resilience of supply chains - taking into account at the same time their reactivity, their response capacity, their stability as well as their vulnerability (by also considering their degree of dependence on a few main suppliers and/or supply locations) - is slightly below the average: which translates into **an average supply chains resilience score of 4.2** (out of 10).

The table below shows that the level of supply chain resilience is high for only 14.4% of markets/traders: this chain combining a high response capacity (reactivity), a high stability and low vulnerability to disturbances.

Table 28: Distribution of markets/traders according to their responsiveness and the vulnerability of their supply chains to disruption

Markets/Traders responsiveness (average = 1.6)	Vulnerability of supply chains to disruptions (average = 1.7)							TOTAL
	0 Very high	1	2	3 Moyen	4	5	6 Very low	
0 - Low	4,5%	0,2%	0,4%	1,7%	-	0,2%	0,6%	7,6%
1 - Medium	14,6%	0,2%	1,0%	5,2%	-	0,2%	3,5%	24,7%
2 - High	35,7%	0,8%	1,9%	19,2%	-	0,8%	9,3%	67,7%
TOTAL	54,8%	1,2%	3,3%	26,1%	-	1,2%	13,4%	100,0%

Supply chains resilience score	0.0	1.3	2.5	3.1	3.8	4.4	5.0	5.6	6.3	7.5	8.8	10.0	TOTAL
	Very low		Low				Medium			High		Very high	
	4.5%	14.8%	35.7%	0.6%	1.7%	1.7%	5.6%	1.6%	19.4%	0.8%	4.3%	9.3%	100.0%

Competition

The table below highlights the distribution power among traders in the markets.

Table 29: Distribution of power among traders in the markets

Can anyone who want to operate in this market could do so?	How the prices of food commodities set in this market?			Total
	Dictated by someone	Based on supply and demand	Each one is setting the price on their own	
Yes	8,0%	43,5%	41,3%	92,8%
No	2,4%	2,4%	2,4%	7,2%
Total	10,4%	45,9%	43,7%	100%

At the national level, the business/market environment is moderately conducive to fair competition: that it is translated to **an average competition score of 5.8** (out of 10).

Market Functionality Index (MFI)

For each marketplace, the MFI aggregation function reads as follows¹⁵:

$$MFI = \mu - \alpha \left(\sqrt{(\mu - \min(d))^2 + \beta^2} - \beta \right)$$

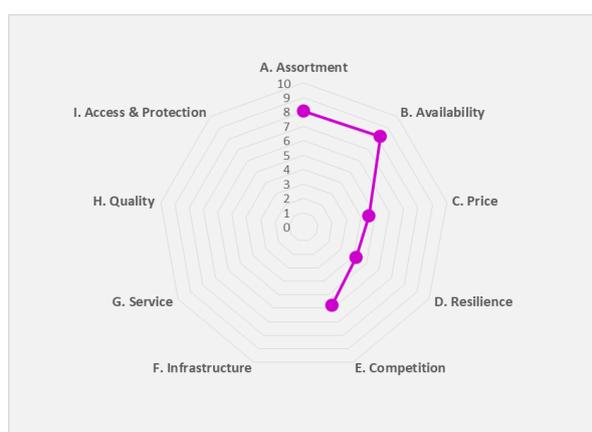
¹⁵ WFP MFI Technical guidance

Where:

- ➔ μ is the mean between the dimensions;
- ➔ $min(d)$ is the dimension with the minimum score;
- ➔ α is a penalization factor for unbalance between the five dimensions spanning between zero and one;
 $\alpha = 0.5$ to allow for partial compensability between the dimensions.
- ➔ β is a complementarity factor greater than zero;
 $\beta = 1$, noticing that the more β departs from zero, the more the aggregation function returns to the mean.

As a result, the average value of the MFI is 5.3 at national level - knowing that only five dimensions (out of 9) have been evaluated.

Chart 49: Market Functionality Index (MFI) across the five dimensions that has been evaluated



Daily wage labour

At the national level, the median daily wage (without food) is 300 AFS for unskilled agriculture or non-agriculture labour: unchanged compared to last year at the same time. For skilled labour (without food), this amount is twice as high (600 AFS/day): a 14% decrease compared to a year ago.

In average, the wage labours were available one or two weeks in a month: a common situation in this season according to three-fifths of market's interviews.

Table 30: Daily wage labour rate and availability patterns by type of labour

Type of labour	Median daily wage		Availability	Common/Usual in this season (% of Yes)
	Currently (AFS/day)	Last year same time (AFS/day)		
Wage labour non-Agri (without food)	300	300	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One week in a month (47%) • Two weeks in a month (29%) • Three weeks in a month (10%) • Every day in a month (6%) • Not available at all (8%) 	62%
Agriculture labour (without food)	300	300	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One week in a month (41%) • Two weeks in a month (28%) • Three weeks in a month (12%) • Every day in a month (9%) • Not available at all (10%) 	61%
Skilled labour (without food)	600	700	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One week in a month (40%) • Two weeks in a month (32%) • Three weeks in a month (14%) • Every day in a month (6%) • Not available at all (9%) 	57%

There are several disparities at provincial levels:

- ➔ Wage labours are globally more expensive in Panjsher and lower in Hilmand.
- ➔ Skilled wage labour is more expensive in Baghlan, Bamyan, Kabul, Panjsher and Parwan (1,000 AFS/day); and less expensive - half the price (500 AFS/day) - in Badghis, Balkh, Kunarha and Nangarhar.
- ➔ Compared to last year at the same time, the agriculture median wage labour (without food) has decreased in ten provinces - Badghis (-17%), Kandahar (-17%), Zabul (-17%), Faryab (-14%), Samangan (-13%), Nuristan (-9%), Balkh (-8%), Ghor (-7%) Sar-e-Pul (-7%) and Hilmand (-4%); while increasing in two - Laghman (+11%) and Khost (+20%).
- ➔ Compared to last year at the same time, the non-agriculture median wage labour (without food) has increased in five provinces - Ghor (33%), Khost (22%), Panjsher (20%), Bamyan (14%) and Laghman (10%); while decreasing in eighteen provinces - Zabul (-20%), Samangan (-20%), Kandahar (-17%), Hilmand (-15%), Uruzgan (-14%), Daykundi (-14%), Balkh (-14%), Kunduz (-13%), Faryab (-13%), Sar-e-Pul (-11%), Baghlan (-11%), Kunarha (-10%), Badghis (-9%), Nuristan (-8%), Maidan Wardak (-8%), Jawzjan (-7%), Badakhshan (-6%) and Takhar (-6%).
- ➔ Compared to last year at the same time, the skilled median wage labour (without food) has decreased in; while increasing in seven provinces - Bamyan (25%), Kabul (25%), Parwan (25%), Laghman (18%), Khost (17%), Jawzjan (13%) and Paktya (7%); while decreasing in fifteen provinces - Faryab (-29%), Uruzgan (-24%), Samangan (-22%), Balkh (-17%), Hirat (-17%), Kandahar (-15%), Paktika (-14%), Sar-e-Pul (-14%), Badakhshan (-13%), Kunduz (-13%), Ghazni (-11%), Badghis (-9%), Nuristan (-8%), Zabul (-8%) and Farah (-4%).

Livestock prices & Fodder/Feed availability and price change

At the national level, all livestock median prices have increased compared to their prices last year at the same time: +33% for a typical adult male sheep, +29% for a one year live female sheep, +14% for a typical adult male goat and +13% for a typical adult male cattle.

Table 31: Livestock prices & Fodder/Feed availability and price change

Type of livestock	Median price		Availability of fodder for livestock in the market (% of Yes)	Fodder/Feed price change compared to last year	Availability of fodder crop seed in the market (% of Yes)
	Currently (AFS/head)	Last year same time (AFS/head)			
Cattle (adult male, typical)	45,000	40,000	54%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➔ Increased (47%) ➔ Same (31%) ➔ Decreased (22%) 	61%
Sheep (adult male, typical)	12,000	9,000			
Goat (adult male, typical)	8,000	7,000			
One year live female sheep	9,000	7,000			

For cattle, this price increase was higher in Nimroz (+67%); unchanged in Daykundi, Logar and Faryab while slightly decreasing in Herat (-4%).

For sheep, this price increase was higher in Nangarhar (+60%) and unchanged in Balkh and Faryab.

For goat, this price increase was higher in Nooristan (+55%) and unchanged in Daykundi and Nimroz.

Availability of fodder for livestock is average at national level and not/lower in Nimroz (0%), Ghor (10%), Badghis (13%), Uruzgan (17%), Nuristan (25%), Khost (27%), Kabul (33%), Kandahar (33%), Panjsher (40%), Hirat (41%), Farah (43%) and Hilmand (44%).

Compared to last year, increase of fodder/feed price is more acute in Laghman (100%), Uruzgan (100%), Kunar (93%), Kandahar (89%), Khost (87%), Nangarhar (86%), Hilmand (81%), Nuristan (75%) and Paktya (58%). While the decrease is more significant in Nuristan (100%), Laghman (75%), Kandahar (67%), Hirat (65%), Khost (60%), Kabul (57%), Badghis (50%), Nimroz (50%) and Paktya (50%).

Availability of fodder crop seed is slightly good at national level, but remain not/lower in Nuristan (0%), Laghman (25%), Kandahar (33%), Hirat (35%), Khost (40%), Kabul (43%), Badghis (50%), Nimroz (50%), Paktya (50%) and Badakhshan (52%).

Annex 4: Food access methodology and disaggregated tables

❖ Methodological approach

The food access analysis is based on:

i) The selection food access indicators included in the SFSA :

- ➔ Food consumption score (FCS),
- ➔ Household dietary diversity score (HDDS),
- ➔ Household hunger scale (HHS),
- ➔ Reduced coping strategies index (rCSI),
- ➔ Livelihoods coping strategies (LCS),
- ➔ Contribution (in %) of each main sources of foods (own production, purchase on cash, purchase on credit, bartering, gifts/charity, wild foods, food aid),
- ➔ Monthly expenditures,
- ➔ Monthly food expenditures share,
- ➔ Indebtedness,
- ➔ Household cereals stocks duration (in number of months),
- ➔ Livestock and poultry ownership;

ii) The use of a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) - a statistical technique for reducing the dimensionality of large datasets, increasing interpretability but at the same time minimizing information loss. **Based on PCA results** (significantly good according to the KMO & Bartlett's test¹⁶ - 0.733), **the following seven indicators appear to be enough to assess households' food access: FCS, HDDS, HHS, rCSI, LCS, contribution (in %) of the purchase on credit and indebtedness.**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.733
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	24691,855
	df	21
	Sig.	,000

iii) A Two-step cluster analysis was then conducted with these 7 variables to identify households' food access groups by running pre-clustering first and then by running hierarchical methods.

The results of this analysis suggest classifying households in five groups considering the profile of their food access.

❖ Disaggregated food access tables (by urban/rural area, provinces, first main shock experienced in the last 6 months and first main source of cash income)

¹⁶ **The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy** is a statistic that indicates the proportion of variance in your variables that might be caused by underlying factors. High values (close to 1.0) generally indicate that a factor analysis may be useful with data used. If the value is less than 0.50, the results of the factor analysis probably won't be very useful. **Bartlett's test of sphericity** tests the hypothesis that your correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which would indicate that your variables are unrelated and therefore unsuitable for structure detection. Small values (less than 0.05) of the significance level indicate that a factor analysis may be useful with data used.

Table 32: Food access categories by Urban/Rural area

Type of area	Food access categories					Total
	Good	Bad	Very bad	Severely deteriorated	Catastrophic	
Rural	14,2%	18,0%	22,6%	11,7%	33,5%	100,0%
Urban	23,6%	15,3%	13,1%	24,6%	23,2%	100,0%
National	16,3%	17,4%	20,5%	14,5%	31,2%	100,0%

Table 33: Food access categories by province

Province	Food access categories					Total
	Good	Bad	Very bad	Severely deteriorated	Catastrophic	
Badakhshan	19,9%	31,9%	6,8%	9,8%	31,6%	100,0%
Badghis	13,5%	16,4%	11,9%	8,1%	50,1%	100,0%
Baghlan	21,6%	45,6%	22,0%	4,4%	6,4%	100,0%
Balkh	20,1%	19,9%	18,6%	16,0%	25,4%	100,0%
Bamyan	15,0%	26,3%	27,5%	13,4%	17,8%	100,0%
Daykundi	17,5%	18,1%	25,9%	11,6%	26,9%	100,0%
Farah	34,9%	14,3%	16,5%	7,2%	27,1%	100,0%
Faryab	6,6%	6,9%	12,4%	32,6%	41,6%	100,0%
Ghazni	29,7%	24,8%	28,4%	7,0%	10,1%	100,0%
Ghor	6,4%	14,0%	20,9%	10,6%	48,1%	100,0%
Hilmand	7,3%	20,8%	12,1%	6,0%	53,8%	100,0%
Hirat	11,3%	19,6%	14,4%	24,1%	30,6%	100,0%
Jawzjan	5,0%	25,4%	15,5%	16,1%	38,0%	100,0%
Kabul	23,6%	8,1%	17,0%	30,3%	21,1%	100,0%
Kandahar	6,8%	14,0%	16,6%	11,2%	51,3%	100,0%
Kapisa	39,5%	9,5%	27,7%	8,8%	14,5%	100,0%
Khost	19,6%	15,4%	26,4%	11,6%	27,0%	100,0%
Kunar	4,8%	19,0%	24,8%	8,7%	42,8%	100,0%
Kunduz	35,3%	23,6%	17,4%	5,1%	18,7%	100,0%
Laghman	4,6%	18,4%	23,0%	7,2%	46,7%	100,0%
Logar	10,0%	22,7%	31,2%	12,5%	23,7%	100,0%
Maidan Wardak	7,1%	8,3%	50,0%	3,0%	31,7%	100,0%
Nangarhar	9,3%	9,0%	37,1%	7,5%	37,1%	100,0%
Nimroz	7,5%	37,6%	19,4%	9,7%	25,8%	100,0%
Nuristan	3,9%	13,5%	43,2%	10,3%	29,0%	100,0%
Paktika	26,5%	20,6%	21,5%	13,5%	17,9%	100,0%
Paktya	16,5%	17,5%	14,1%	2,7%	49,2%	100,0%
Panjsher	47,9%	31,1%	10,1%	4,2%	6,7%	100,0%
Parwan	36,7%	8,0%	22,1%	22,8%	10,5%	100,0%
Samangan	5,0%	26,0%	21,4%	12,5%	35,2%	100,0%
Sar-e-Pul	3,4%	10,3%	16,6%	29,0%	40,6%	100,0%
Takhar	27,8%	20,3%	18,9%	10,8%	22,1%	100,0%
Uruzgan	1,7%	8,3%	29,0%	1,2%	59,8%	100,0%
Zabul	16,7%	35,3%	30,0%	4,7%	13,3%	100,0%
National	16,3%	17,4%	20,5%	14,5%	31,2%	100,0%

Table 34: Food access categories by first main shock experienced in the last 6 months

First main shock experienced in the last 6 months	Food access categories					Total
	Good	Bad	Very bad	Severely deteriorated	Catastrophic	
Loss of employment	9,0%	17,3%	26,5%	9,9%	37,4%	100,0%
Reduced income	13,0%	19,9%	21,1%	12,4%	33,6%	100,0%
Severe sickness or natural death of breadwinner (non-COVID)	12,7%	21,5%	23,7%	9,5%	32,6%	100,0%
Severe sickness or death in household due to COVID-19	10,8%	17,5%	24,7%	16,7%	30,3%	100,0%
Death or permanent impairment of breadwinner due to conflict	6,0%	13,1%	16,1%	10,6%	54,3%	100,0%
Livestock disease outbreak	10,3%	17,6%	21,2%	15,2%	35,8%	100,0%
Huge increase in food prices	12,1%	20,7%	20,3%	9,0%	37,9%	100,0%
Earthquake	32,0%	16,0%	8,0%	,0%	44,0%	100,0%
Avalanche / Landslide	10,0%	10,0%	35,0%	15,0%	30,0%	100,0%
Drought / Dry spell	20,7%	19,5%	24,5%	7,5%	27,8%	100,0%
Floods / Heavy rains	13,7%	23,3%	27,2%	7,1%	28,7%	100,0%
Snow / Late frost	23,5%	17,6%	35,3%	5,9%	17,6%	100,0%
Crop pest outbreak	17,2%	19,7%	33,9%	7,3%	21,9%	100,0%
Conflict induced displacement	8,1%	21,3%	14,0%	7,8%	48,8%	100,0%
Return from Pakistan, Iran, etc.	16,7%	27,8%	5,6%	11,1%	38,9%	100,0%
Theft/Looting	38,2%	11,8%	41,2%	-	8,8%	100,0%
Road blocks	22,5%	16,2%	15,3%	4,5%	41,4%	100,0%
Other	12,7%	27,4%	21,8%	13,2%	24,9%	100,0%
National	16,3%	17,4%	20,5%	14,5%	31,2%	100,0%

Table 35: Food access categories by first main source of cash income

First main source of cash income	Food access categories					Total
	Good	Bad	Very bad	Severely deteriorated	Catastrophic	
Production & sale of field crops	16,8%	15,5%	25,1%	11,9%	30,7%	100,0%
Production & sale of orchard products	17,0%	8,9%	18,6%	24,9%	30,6%	100,0%
Production & sale of cash crops	17,0%	12,9%	25,7%	16,6%	27,8%	100,0%
Agricultural wage labour	7,2%	17,8%	25,7%	10,4%	38,8%	100,0%
Production & sale of Poppy	19,5%	2,6%	19,5%	18,2%	40,3%	100,0%
Wage labour in Poppy field	5,0%	21,2%	10,8%	15,1%	47,9%	100,0%
Production & sales of livestock and livestock products	14,0%	16,2%	26,0%	11,2%	32,6%	100,0%
Shepherding wage labour	8,1%	12,6%	11,9%	19,2%	48,1%	100,0%
Production and Manufacturing	30,5%	12,6%	13,5%	13,5%	30,0%	100,0%
Non-Agriculture Wage labour	12,5%	20,4%	21,3%	10,0%	35,7%	100,0%
Skilled Labour	16,1%	21,2%	17,0%	18,6%	27,2%	100,0%
Salary work	31,6%	15,3%	16,8%	21,4%	14,9%	100,0%
Remittances	19,3%	18,6%	15,5%	17,3%	29,3%	100,0%
Transport	29,6%	20,4%	17,7%	9,6%	22,7%	100,0%
Small business/Petty trade	27,2%	20,6%	17,6%	15,4%	19,1%	100,0%
Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs, etc.	13,5%	8,4%	21,9%	14,2%	41,9%	100,0%
Begging	9,9%	10,7%	9,2%	8,4%	61,8%	100,0%
Gifts, Charity	8,0%	14,1%	7,2%	14,1%	56,5%	100,0%
Other	16,0%	22,0%	18,5%	20,5%	23,0%	100,0%
National	16,3%	17,4%	20,5%	14,5%	31,2%	100,0%

Annex 5: Results of the Multivariate GLM regression analysis

To identify these characteristics a multivariate General Linear Model (GLM) regression analysis was conducted.

The table 36 highlights, for each food security indicators (FCS, HDDS, HHS, rCSI and LCS), criteria/variables that influence their values level and classification categories. While the table 37 provides the parameters that can support a model-predicted values of food security indicators.

Table 36: Overview the main criteria/variables influencing the households' food insecurity indicators

Criteria/Variables	Food security indicators				
	Food Consumption Score (FCS)	Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)	Household Hunger Scale (HHS)	Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI)	Livelihoods Coping Strategies (LCS)
Sex of the household head	X	X	X	X	X
Education level of the household head	X	X	X	X	X
Residence status	X	X	-	X	X
Disability of the household head	X	X	-	-	-
Household with PLWD	-	X	X	X	X
Number of PLW - Categories	-	X	X	X	X
Access to agriculture land	X	-	-	X	-
Raising animals	X	X	-	-	X
Poultry ownership	X	X	-	X	X
Primary source of income	X	X	X	X	X
Livelihoods type	X	X	X	X	-
Place of residence (Rural/Urban)	X	X	X	X	X
Province location	X	X	X	X	X
Household size categories	X	X	-	X	-
Multiple shocks	X	X	X	X	X
Food sources	-	-	-	-	-
Number of income sources	-	-	X	X	X
Type of housing/shelter	X	X	X	X	X
Access to improved toilet facilities	X	X	X	X	X
Access to improved drinking water source	-	-	-	X	X
Distance to drinking water source	X	X	X	X	X

X: Criteria/Variable influencing the food security indicator -: Not influencing food security indicator

Table 37: Parameter estimates of a model-predicted values of food security indicators

Potential targeting criteria	Food security indicators				
	Food Consumption Score (FCS)	Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)	Household Hunger Scale (HHS)	Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI)	Livelihoods Coping Strategies (LCS)
Male-headed household	25,081	3,021	1,165	13,821	2,513
Female-headed household	21,227	2,737	1,503	15,946	2,711
Education level of the head of the household: Primary school				-0,623	
Education level of the head of the household: Secondary school	1,576	0,502		-1,491	-0,142
Education level of the head of the household: High school / Higher education	2,821	0,540		-1,694	-0,121
Permanent resident	3,784	0,529		-2,001	-0,165
Returns	4,669	0,441		-2,505	-0,354
PLWD-headed household	-1,058	0,138			
Household with additional PLWD	0,582	-0,135	-0,137	-1,100	-0,121
Household without PLW		-0,414	-0,129	-0,574	-0,052

Household with PLW		-0,378		0,503	
Access to agriculture land	2,894	0,210			
Raising animals (livestock ownership)	5,551	0,510			
Owning poultry	1,887	0,283		0,724	-0,096
Livelihoods type: Farmers				0,988	
Livelihoods type: Livestock & Poultry keepers	0,113		0,179		
Livelihoods type: Livestock keepers	1,630				
Livelihoods type: Poultry keepers	2,634				
Livelihoods type: Herders	-2,627	-0,795	0,367	2,978	
Livelihoods type: Other	2,701	0,427	0,397	1,899	
PSoI: Production & sale of field crops	2,793	0,365		-1,188	
PSoI: Production & sale of orchard products		-0,427		-1,262	
PSoI: Production & sale of cash crops	3,043	0,600		-1,860	-0,152
PSoI: Agricultural wage labour					0,110
PSoI: Production & sale of Poppy	8,122	1,275		-4,026	
PSoI: Wage labour in Poppy field	2,726				
PSoI: Production & sales of livestock and livestock products	4,603	0,492	-0,185	-3,124	
PSoI: Shepherding wage labour	2,598	0,768	-0,259	-2,583	
PSoI: Production and Manufacturing			-0,333	-3,634	-0,357
PSoI: Non-Agriculture wage labour			0,161		
PSoI: Skilled labour	2,274	0,533		-2,905	-0,089
PSoI: Salary work	6,751	0,808	-0,312	-4,798	-0,275
PSoI: Remittances	2,085	0,329	-0,363	-3,067	
PSoI: Transport	3,339	0,287		-2,321	-0,271
PSoI: Small business/Petty trade	4,711	0,286	-0,209	-3,114	-0,203
PSoI: Assistance from Government/UN/NGOs etc.	3,317			-2,059	
PSoI: Begging	0,175	-0,356	0,885	0,469	0,414
PSoI: Gifts/Charity	-3,325	-0,738	0,873	3,310	0,462
Living in rural area	-1,371		-0,089	0,616	0,214
Kabul	1,237	0,563		1,388	-0,219
Kapisa	1,772	0,564	-0,350	-2,275	-1,023
Parwan		0,807	-0,369	-3,166	-0,749
Maidan Wardak				3,535	-0,273
Logar	2,628	0,332			-0,470
Nangarhar	-2,916		0,128	2,216	-0,195
Laghman	12,281	1,251	0,181	3,047	-0,304
Baghlan	-3,186	-0,306	-0,159		-1,094
Bamyan	-7,312		-0,648	-3,045	-0,785
Ghazni			-0,187	-2,127	-1,051
Paktika		0,264	0,248		-0,226
Paktya	3,147				-0,439
Kunarha	-11,356	-1,290	0,281	1,352	-0,578
Nuristan	-11,273	-0,686	0,338		-0,740
Badakhshan	-3,370	-0,841		-4,981	-1,252
Takhar	-15,531	-2,009	0,665	4,189	-0,528
Kunduz	-15,738	-2,622	0,636		-0,469
Samangan	-16,535	-1,181	1,495	1,856	-0,210
Balkh	-8,568	-1,818	0,239	5,290	-0,322
Sar-e-Pul	-13,489	-2,571		1,381	-0,726
Ghor	-7,709	-1,251	0,153	4,393	-0,175
Zabul		1,149		3,520	-0,436
Kandahar	-12,721	-1,896	0,410		-0,322
Jawzjan	-17,752	-0,715	0,765		-0,170
Faryab	-3,680	-0,412		4,630	-0,341
Hilmand	-2,850	-0,599	0,156	4,123	-0,322
Badghis	7,995	1,220	0,424	-1,909	-0,984
Hirat	-3,203	-0,619		3,388	-0,229
Household size: 1-3	-1,649			-1,120	
Household size: 4-7		0,382		-1,059	
Household size: 8-12	-0,753	0,209		-0,382	
No multiple shocks		-0,175	-0,488	-2,886	-0,317
Number of income sources	-0,376	0,134	0,137	0,585	0,192
Shelter – Private house/flat	3,774	1,287			0,411
Shelter – Rents/Occupies room(s)		0,757	0,258	2,355	0,504
No access to improved toilet facilities	-3,204	-0,356	0,229	1,003	0,191
No access to improved drinking water source			0,043		0,096
Distance to drinking water source: 0-15 minutes	2,895	0,520	-0,437	-1,917	-0,106
Distance to drinking water source: 15-30 minutes	1,957	0,418	-0,204	-1,136	
Distance to drinking water source: 30-60 minutes	1,695	0,252			