

Madagascar rural observatory surveys, a longitudinal dataset on household living conditions 1995-2015

Velomalala Solo Andrianjafindrainibe, Nicole Andrianirina, Florent Bédécarrats, Isabelle Droy, Jean-Luc Dubois, Jeanne de Montalembert, Bako Nirina Rabevohitra, Rolland Rafidimanana, Patrick Rasolofo, Raphaël Ratovoarinony, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Velomalala Solo Andrianjafindrainibe, Nicole Andrianirina, Florent Bédécarrats, Isabelle Droy, Jean-Luc Dubois, et al.. Madagascar rural observatory surveys, a longitudinal dataset on household living conditions 1995-2015. 2024. hal-04502779v1

HAL Id: hal-04502779 https://hal.science/hal-04502779v1

Preprint submitted on 13 Mar 2024 (v1), last revised 2 Apr 2024 (v2)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Data Descriptor Template

Title

A rural observatory system surveyed household living conditions in Madagascar each year from 1995 to 2015

Authors

Velomalala Solo Andrianjafindrainibe⁷, Nicole Andrianirina⁷, Florent Bédécarrats^{1,2}, Isabelle Droy^{1,2}, Jean-Luc Dubois^{1,2}, Jeanne de Montalembert^{1,3}, Bako Nirina Rabevohitra⁶, Rolland Rafidimanana⁷, Patrick Rasolofo^{5,2}, Raphaël Ratovoarinony⁷, Lalasoa Anjarafara Onivola Ratsaramiarina⁶, Jean Dieudonné Ravelonandro⁷, Voahirana Razanamavo⁷, Mireille Razafindrakoto^{1,3}, Bezaka Rivolala⁴, François Roubaud^{1,3}, Camille Saint-Macary^{1,3}.

Affiliations

- 1. French National Research Institute for Sustainable Development (IRD), Bondy, France
- 16 2. International Mixed Unit Sustainability and resilience (UMI SOURCE), Guyancourt, France
- 3. Research Mixed Unit Dauphine Economics Laboratory, Development, institutions and
 globalization research Team (UMR LEDa/DIAL), Paris, France
 - 4. Malagasy Institute for Planification Techniques (IMATeP), Antananarivo, Madagascar
- 20 5. International Institute for Social Sciences (IISS), Antananarivo, Madagascar
- 21 6. Unit for emergency prevention and management (CPGU), Prime Minister Office, 22 Antananarivo, Madagascar
 - 7. Independent researcher

Corresponding author: Florent Bédécarrats (florent.bedecarrats@ird.fr)

Abstract

A Rural Observatory System (ROS) was established in Madagascar to address the lack of socio-economic data on rural areas. It collected, analyzed, and disseminated data to help in the formulation and evaluation of development policies. From 1995 to 2014, the ROS surveyed a total of 26 areas. The ROS methodology involved annual household panel surveys using consistent questionnaires, complemented by modules covering new themes and enriched questions adapted to specific contexts. Qualitative community surveys provided a qualitative understanding of the local features and dynamics. The site selection combined quantitative and qualitative insights to reflect Madagascar's diverse rural challenges. Quality control was comprehensive, with measures like limiting the number of surveyor interviews per day and daily field supervision. By making this data available for 21 consecutive years, along with documentation, metadata, and code with analysis examples, we aim to facilitate its discovery, assessment, and understanding by researchers, policymakers, and social organizations. To our knowledge, this is the only available data for an in-depth analysis of the situation and trends in the rural areas of Madagascar.

Background & Summary

Rural households constitute the major proportion of the population in least developed countries (64% in 2022) and they make up the bulk of worldwide poverty¹. Recent reductions in poverty rates in developing countries stem from a decline in the poverty rates among the rural population². Although improving living conditions in the countryside is one of the keys to enhancing welfare in developing countries, rural areas are generally neglected or poorly grasped by national statistical systems^{3–7}. In Madagascar, the population has grown from 12

million in 1993 to 26 million in 2018 with 81% of the population living in rural areas⁸. In the mid-1990s, Madagascar's rural areas underwent profound transformations. After a socialist period from 1975 to 1985, the country embarked on a policy of economic liberalization under the IMF's recommendations: liberalization of pricing and marketing structures, and shift from state-driven policies to market-oriented reforms⁹. The existing statistical system, which had deteriorated during the socialist era, was ill-equipped to capture these changes, leaving a gap in understanding the evolution of the rural landscape¹⁰. This situation was particularly concerning given that agriculture employed almost 80% of the active population, and that any analysis of the Malagasy economy would be incomplete without a comprehensive understanding of its rural sector.

This lack of information motivated the creation of four rural observatories in Madagascar in 1995^{11,12}, each representing distinct agricultural challenges within the country's diverse ecosystems. It consisted of a multi-year panel survey, dedicated to the continuous collection, analysis and dissemination of socio-economic data and insights, with the aim of identifying characteristics and dynamics across diverse agroecological contexts to guide the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of rural development policies ¹³.

As the ROS emerged as an innovative and cost-effective way to provide a nuanced and continuous observation of rural households, its extension was supported by new funders and partners, such as research institutions, non-governmental organizations or consultancy firms¹⁴. The institutional anchoring of the rural observatories changed in 2000, moving from the National Statistical Office, to which it was initially associated, to the Rural Development Policy Unit, within the Ministry of Agriculture. A charter has been drawn up to promote the methodological unity of the observatories and the ethics of intervention. Each partner involved in the observatory had to sign it to ensure consistency in the methodology across observatories and over the years.

 Over the years, the number of observatories increased, reaching 17 in 2004, before contracting to five following the political crisis of 2009¹⁵. Despite these challenges, the ROS persisted, with three of the original observatories remaining to operate actively until 2014, as shown in Figure 1.

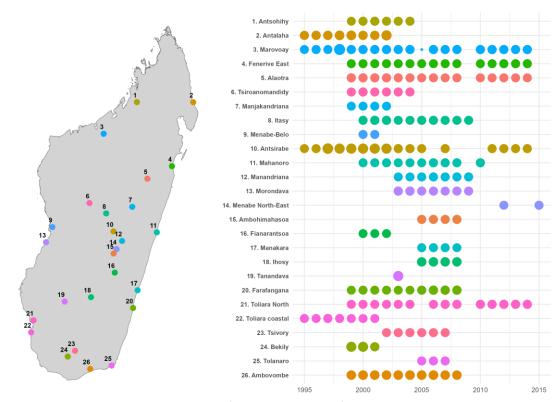


Figure 1: Coarse location and years of data collection of observatories composing the ROS (source: authors). The figure is composed of two panels. The left panel shows a map of Madagascar with coloured and numbered dots corresponding to the locations of the 26 observatories. The right panel indicates, for each number, the name of the observatory and the years in which survey data was collected.

The ROS remained operational until 2017. In 2015, one observatory that had previously been surveyed was surveyed again (Menabe North-East, #14 on Figure 1), and three new observatories were initiated (Ambatofinandrahana, Anjozorobe and Maintirano, not shown in Figure 1). Substantial work is needed to clean, harmonize, and document the data from these latest observatories in order to include them in the dataset. The data from these new observatories will be added to the dataset at a later stage, after the publication of this data descriptor.

The ROS adopted a methodology designed to combine consistency and continuous innovation. Annual surveys were conducted using questionnaires with stable parts that remained largely unchanged, ensuring the continuity of data on key variables over the years. This approach allowed for the tracking of households, capturing changes in their socio-economic conditions and their reactions to external shocks and policy changes. Over time, new themes were also introduced, and existing questions were enriched to adapt to contextual changes and emerging challenges. These additions addressed key areas such as food availability and food practices, especially during the lean period, exposure to natural disasters, damages, and strategies to recover after shocks, and access to basic services such as potable water, sanitation facilities, education, or health services. The survey, however, faced a challenge of 'questionnaire inflation,' as the eagerness to add new variables without removing outdated ones significantly extended the average duration of interviews as years passed.

Depending on the year, different subject-specific modules related to governance issues were also appended to the basic questionnaire. The objective was to collect the population's points of view on liberalization reforms, the respective roles of men and women, educational strategies, etc.), and on the multiple dimensions of poverty (vulnerability, participation,

political voice, etc.). The ROS approach combined quantitative methods to describe situations and a qualitative perspective to explain them, offering a comprehensive view of rural dynamics. Complementing the household questionnaire, a community survey was conducted, involving field observations and semi-structured interviews. This quantitative and qualitative mixed approach provides general information about the region, structural and situational insights on various aspects of community life, including agricultural campaigns, social and cultural environment, health, education, security, development support, and product pricing.

Over the years, the ROS data has played a significant role in various academic studies, policy formulations, and development projects. The dataset includes a bibliographic database providing a broad overview of the works produced from this data. The longevity and consistent methodology of ROS make it unique among household panel survey experiences. However, like all survey designs, it has faced challenges, particularly in terms of measurement and sampling, which were addressed through methodological improvement over time.

Methods

In a country like Madagascar, where the statistical information system is flawed, the ROS surveys had several advantages that explain why they lasted for several years before successive periods of crisis interrupted the process. They were based on a lightweight, modular organization, using the same methodology to generate economies of scale. Quality control was implemented at all stages, competent supervisors were trained, and institutional capacities were strengthened. Additionally, the ROS integrated into the national statistical information system, and the results were rapidly published and widely disseminated in the media.

Site selection

The selection of observatory locations was based on a qualitative approach leveraging the expertise of individuals who possessed extensive knowledge of the field, to reflect the diverse array of rural situations. Due to the multiplicity of terrains and climates, Madagascar has diverse ecosystems for agriculture. Farming methods are also influenced by the ethnocultural distribution of the population, underscoring the need for rural development policies to consider this diversity. A first subset of potential locations was prioritized to characterize a wide range of agroclimatic areas, production systems, population density, accessibility, and support structures. These potential locations were then correlated with development indicators reflecting their economic and social conditions. The observatory locations were then selected from each category to constitute a varied portfolio. Each of the 26 observatories comprised a minimum of two sites, whether hamlet or village, strategically chosen to reflect the local diversity. This approach aimed to provide an in-depth understanding of the many facets of Madagascar's rural landscape.

We illustrate this heterogeneity by describing the first four observatories established in 1995. The Toliara observatory (#22 on Figure 1) is located on the coastal Mahafaly Plateau in Toliara Province, which is an arid and isolated area with a low population density. This observatory was of particular interest due to its problem of landlockedness which is representative of a large part of rural Madagascar (territory and population), but it is also part of a regional trading system. In addition, the coexistence of two ethnic groups, the Vezo who rely on fishing, and the Tanalana who are livestock farmers, is another advantage, as these two populations have different but complementary production systems. The two villages selected, Beheloka and Itampolo, also struggled with primitive living conditions, lack of fresh water, and reduced

public services. The area was prone to low and irregular rainfall, leading to frequent droughts and crop failures.

Antalaha observatory (#2), located on the Northeast coast, was characterized by a large-scale production of traditional export products: vanilla, coffee, pepper and cloves. The observatory monitored producers' responses to the liberalization of the vanilla trade. The three villages selected, Maromandia, Tampolo, and Ambohitralalana, represent different levels of landlockedness.

The Vakinankaratra observatory (#10) in Antsirabe, located in the Madagascar central plateau, highlighted the challenges faced by family smallholdings that primarily engage in rice-growing but experience a shortage of rice. The central plateau is the most densely populated region in Madagascar, and the peasant farmers have developed a diversified cropping system to make the most of the varied landscape. This observatory is characterized by a production system in which irrigated rice cultivation plays a central role and polyculture and polyactivity are other major features (dairy farming, fruit crops, handicrafts, charcoal-making). In addition, there were seasonal migratory flows, permanent settlements on the "margins of the highlands", and less densely populated areas. Two villages were selected to reflect the regional diversity: Ambatomena, an old settlement zone, and Vinany, a settlement established by migrants from other regions.

The Marovoay observatory (#3), in the Lower Betsiboka plain, was a significant rice-growing area and belongs to one of the large irrigated perimeters constructed at the beginning of the 20th century ¹⁶. This region was mainly populated by migrants from several regions in search of salaried employment and land. A wide variety of communities could be found on the Marovoay plain. The population is young, and the main activity is farming, with almost all households having a secondary activity, often linked to farming or fishing. Farmers are highly integrated into the market economy. This region was known for its productive rice fields, and even some rice varieties were exported to Europe until the 1970s. It experienced challenges during the socialist period and the 1980s crisis, leading local farmers to adapt through retrenchment or diversification strategies. Two villages were selected in 1995: Ampijoroa and Maroala.

As shown in Figure 1, the focus in Toliara shifted to a different location at the beginning of the 2000's (#22 to #21), and the Antalaha observatory (#2) was discarded in 2004. The initial limitation to four observatories was due to resource constraints and the experimental nature of the project, and the number of observatories expanded during the 2000s, maintaining a similar kind of diversity as the one illustrated above.

Name and	Outstanding features
number on	
Figure 1	
Alaotra #5	Intermediate plateau, one of Madagascar's main rice baskets.
Ambohimahasoa	Tropical highland climate, relatively warm and humid, irrigated rice
#15	cultivation, fish farming, some livestock.
Ambovombe #26 Semi-arid region, frequent droughts, recurrent food insecurity,	
	pastoral system in which zebu plays a central role.
Antalaha #2 Family farming with production of rice for family consumption	
	cash crops (vanilla, coffee, pepper, and cloves).
Antsirabe #10	Small family farming on highlands, tropical highland climate, high.
Antsohihy #1	Diversified agriculture in a semi-humid tropical environment, large
	rice-growing plains but very isolated region.

Bekily #24	Significant local conflicts and diverse agriculture (rice, maize, peanuts, potatoes, vegetable gardening).	
Farafangana #20	Tropical humid climate. Subsistence farming, cash crops (coffee, pepper, cloves), high cyclonic risk.	
Fenerive East #4	Humid tropical zone, rice cultivation and cash crops (cloves, vanilla etc.), high cyclonic risk and fluctuation of cash crops prices on the global market.	
Fianarantsoa #16	High-altitude tropical climate, rice cultivation, off-season crops, small livestock farming.	
Ihosy #18	Tropical highland climate. Some industrial crops (sugar and tobacco), livestock. Affected by fires and deforestation.	
Itasy #8	Central plateau, rich volcanic soils, diversified crops and large plains for rice cultivation, land tenure issues.	
Mahanoro #11	Fishing, cash crops, tourism, high cyclonic risk.	
Manakara #17	Hot and humid tropical climate, cyclones, particularly diverse agricultural production, fishing activities.	
Manandriana #12	Tropical highland climate. Low-yield rice areas, complementary subsistence crops.	
Manjakandriana	Diverse agriculture (rice, potatoes, cassava, taro, sweet potatoes,	
#7	beans, peas) and cattle farming. Tropical highland climate.	
Marovoay #3	Large irrigated rice farming area in plains, dry tropical climate.	
Menabe-Belo #9	Semi-arid tropical climate with short rainy season, pastoral system and irrigated agriculture, fishing, water scarcity.	
Menabe North-	Tropical climate with a dry season, insecurity (cattle theft), rice	
East #14	cultivation, legume production for export, fish farming.	
Morondava #13	Semi-arid tropical climate, affected by bushfires, deforestation, erosion, agriculture (mainly irrigated rice), livestock farming.	
Tanandava #19	Former area of administered production of cotton and rice. Hot climate with short rainy season.	
Tolanaro #25	Increasing maize cultivation competing with rice, significant coffee production, intermediate climatic zone.	
Toliara coastal #22	Fishermen/agro-pastoralists in an arid and isolated region.	
Toliara North	Relatively developed agriculture (rice, cassava, maize, sugarcane)	
#21	despite a dry climate outside the rainy season.	
Tsiroanomandidy	Area of recent migration, young population, land issues, persistent	
#6	insecurity due to armed cattle thieves.	
Tsivory #23	Fertile but isolated region, periodic droughts, irrigated rice cultivation, vegetable crops.	

Table 1: List and overview of observatory outstanding features (source: authors).

The Table 1 shows the diverse range of agricultural and climatic zones encompassed by the ROS, reflecting the country's rich ecological variety. The observatories cover areas ranging from arid and semi-arid regions with predominant activities in dry crops (maize, tubers) and pastoral farming with some rice irrigated rice perimeters to humid tropical zones where rice cultivation, fishing, and a mix of subsistence and cash crops like vanilla, coffee, and cloves thrive. This network not only captures the dynamics of different agricultural practices and climatic challenges but also addresses unique regional issues such as food insecurity, land conflicts, and exposure to cyclones.

A panel household survey

For each observatory, an annual, stratified, two-stage survey of households was carried out. The survey adopted the format of a panel study, with the sample consisting of a consistent group of households from year to year. In the initial annual survey conducted in the year of each observatory's creation, at least 500 households situated in a minimum of two sites were selected. In small localities, the sample may have encompassed all households in the locality, while in more populated places, the sample households were randomly drawn from a comprehensive enumeration of all households in the locality. The sample frame was compiled at the beginning of each annual survey with the aim of identifying the households that had participated the previous year and, if applicable, ascertaining the reasons behind the attrition of particular households (death, moving, refusal to answer). By doing so, the survey was able to account for changes in population from one year to the next, such as households relocating, and new households being established. To ensure a consistent sample size of 500 households for each observatory and maintain the sample representativeness, the households that had relocated were substituted by new households through random selection. These new households were sourced either from the villages that had already been covered by the survey if the overall population of those villages was initially not fully included, or from neighboring villages otherwise.

235236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

216

217218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

The unit of observation for the rural observatories is the household, not the farm as in traditional agricultural surveys. This approach allowed for the comprehensive coverage of all activities undertaken by each individual and to establish a crucial, yet often blurred, differentiation between the rural sphere and the realm of agriculture. While the vast majority of rural households are engaged in activities such as crop farming, livestock husbandry, or fishing, there are others who pursue occupations such as craftsmanship, trade, shopkeeping, or wage labor. Some households combine agricultural and non-agricultural activities. In addition, within each household, a distinction was made between the primary activity, which is the activity that the household considers to contribute most of its income, consume most of its working time or what the respondent values most, and the secondary activities. It is quite common for households to participate in several income-generating activities, and the survival of rural households often hinges upon this diversification. Similarly, this allows the inclusion of transfer income from family members who are away on longer-term migration (over six months), but whose contribution enables the unit to continue its farming activity. Therefore, focusing on households serves as a means to assess the level of secondary activity and transfer revenues and identify those members of the working population who hold these jobs, which are not necessarily in the agricultural sector.

252253254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

The data collection was based on the statements provided by the household heads and their partners. These declarations were made in response to qualitative and quantitative questions. Under this system, the extent of cultivated land, the volumes of agricultural production, and the quantities sold were determined based on the knowledge and recollection of the producers. The survey was based on a comprehensive questionnaire, designed to capture the multifaceted nature of the rural environment, encompassing diverse crops, livestock, and both agricultural and non-agricultural activities. The questionnaire included a consistent general section, used each year by all observatories annually, but also special sections tailored to specific observatories or themes, like vanilla or fishing, or highlighted topics like education, gender roles in household tasks, migration, etc. The general section focused mainly on socioeconomic data, including household living standards, children's education, and food security, as well as income sources, prices, quantities marketed or consumed, and agricultural production factors, offering a holistic view of rural livelihood states and strategies.

Team organization

Conducting surveys across dispersed locations in Madagascar, especially in isolated areas, presented significant logistical challenges. Each observatory's collection team consisted of two to three supervisors, ten to twelve surveyors, and a driver. The primary supervisor for each observatory, with a background in statistics and survey experience, was supported by one or two deputy supervisors knowledgeable in economics, agricultural science, or geography. Their continuous presence in the villages during survey periods was crucial for effective and reliable data collection.

To foster effective communication, some of the supervisors and surveyors were recruited locally at each observatory site, ensuring that they were familiar with local customs, dialects, and practices. However, surveyors were never assigned to their native villages to preserve confidentiality. Given the temporary nature of their roles and the unavailability of the same team members each year, annual recruitment and training sessions were essential. These sessions, conducted with local partner organizations, included selection processes and intensive training focusing on the objectives of the questionnaire, teamwork, and household engagement. Supervisors were trained first, and then supervisors trained the surveyors. Each training session ended with a test survey in the field.

Before beginning the actual survey, surveyors underwent an "integration stage" for a few days in the assigned villages. During this phase, they liaised with local administrative and traditional authorities, often by presenting previous survey results. The team would then compile or update the sample frame, and if necessary, randomly select households to replace those that were absent. This period also allowed surveyors to familiarize themselves with local units of measurement, converting them into standard metrics, inventory the crops produced in the village, and acclimate the villagers to the surveyors' presence.

Implementation phasing

The process was divided into three phases, lasting a total of ten months. The preparatory phase, which lasted for two to three months, ideally between April and July, involved the ROS coordination team developing and refining both the general and specific sections of the questionnaire. They also updated user manuals, technical documents for data collection, and budget projections. Supervisors assembled essential kits for field surveyors, which included cooking tools, camping gear, and data collection materials. A unified ten-day training session was conducted for all supervisors to ensure consistency of methodologies, concepts, and data collection practices across all observatories.

The fieldwork phase required approximately one month in each observatory, at months adapted to fit the local context. It entailed filling out and verifying the questionnaires through interviews with the selected households. Prior to departing for their survey sites, the recruited surveyors, approximately ten for each observatory, underwent a week-long training session. Supervisors, who were ultimately accountable for the accuracy of the completed questionnaires, accompanied them and performed first consistency tests on the data collected. This phase was frequently divided, with observatories addressed in groups, considering variations in agricultural schedules, as well as constraints related to human resources and logistics.

The data entry, validation, and analysis phase included actions implemented at different moments of the year, from June to January. Surveys were conducted in accordance with the agricultural calendar in order to minimize disruption to rural household livelihoods, and to visit

villages during less labor-intensive seasons. As the agricultural calendar varies by agro-climatic zone, surveys were conducted over an extended period of time. Prior to the first data collection, the production of the input mask, the program for splitting and merging data files and the consistency-testing program were completed. Data from the first observatories to be surveyed were entered before the onset of the data collection phase of the observatories with a later agricultural schedule.

Measurement harmonization

The selection of measurement units raised a methodological issue. Among the peasant population, the units used to measure surfaces, weights, and volumes are not standardized and vary from one village to another. Requiring peasant farmers and fishermen to give their answers in standard units, i.e. kilograms, liters or hectares, was the surest way of losing touch with reality. Therefore, the ROS adopted "peasant measurements" that vary from one observatory to another depending on farming practices, and whose names also vary depending on regional languages. Output quantities are measured in daba or vata (oilcans), in zinga (a kind of metal drinking vessel), in sobika (baskets), or in cartloads. Rice-growing acreage can be quantified in the number of transplanters, by seed quantities and by kipa (the number of seedlings to be planted out) or number of carts of rice bales harvested in the field. In each village, these local measurement units were identified and converted into standard weights and measures. This conversion process had to be conducted separately for each village, due to variation in the meanings of the same name across different locations (for example, the cans or daba hold different volumes of fluid), and the absence of standardization of "peasant measurements" between villages. Following each complete interview, the questionnaire was reviewed by the survey supervisor, who converted the gathered "peasant measurements" into standard weights and measures. This ensured overcoming measurement errors that are common in surveys on rural households.

Data Records

The data collection consists of two datasets and a code repository. The reason for having two distinct datasets is to ensure that the ROS metadata and documentation are freely accessible, while also addressing the confidentiality concerns associated with the raw data from household surveys. This raw data has been anonymized, but due to the level of detail it contains about household composition, incomes, expenses, as well as individuals' education, activities, and assets, there is a risk of re-identifying certain individuals, especially in small rural areas. To safeguard the confidentiality of such sensitive information, the raw data from household surveys is stored separately in its own dataset.

Name and location	Content description	Format and details
Metadata and documentation dataset	- Data catalog	- tab, xlsx
	- Documentation overview	- txt
	- ROS methodological material: surveyor manuals, questionnaires, and other technical documents	- pdf
	- Full list of publications produced from the ROS data	- bibtex and pdf
	- Publications of the ROS project that are not accessible otherwise	- pdf
Raw household	- Data catalog	- tab
survey dataset	- One folder per year with in each one:	

	o Household composition, housing conditions, asset possession, land tenure, nutrition, food security, incomes and expenses. o Household member activities (with an in-depth analysis of farming practices), and finances o Additional annual or regional data collected in specific modules (e.g. fishing, vanilla production, natural disasters, hygiene, perinatal practices)	- All raw data provided in two versions: o Original proprietary format (Stata) o Open format (tsv)
Source code repository	 Workflow to catalog the data, assess its quality, enhance its metadata and format Data anonymization workflow Workflow to geolocate raw data at village level based on toponyms 	Quarto markdown notebook with R code sections for data processing

Table 2: Outline of the data records' content (souce: authors). Formats are abbreviated in the table as follows: tabulation separated values (tsv), Excel Open XML Spreadsheet (xlsx) and portable document format (pdf).

The two datasets are held in the DataSuds platform. It is an instance of the Dataverse open-source research data repository software. It was created and is administered by the French research institute for sustainable development (IRD) to provide research partners in developing countries with open science infrastructures.

The source code is maintained in a GitHub repository. The authors might bring further improvements and complements to this source code. Each version of the source code is versioned, so the state of the source code at the time of the validation, included in the citation in Table 2, can always be retrieved.

Technical Validation

In this section, we delve into the processes and methodologies employed in the ROS to ensure high data quality standards. We also provide a retrospective assessment of panel attrition, an important aspect for longitudinal studies.

Data collection process

From the inception of the data collection in 1995, measures were taken at every stage of the survey process to ensure the reliability of the data collected. The ROS was created during a period marked by the multiplication of observatories in developing countries, often with multidisciplinary approaches, to implement thematic monographies¹⁷. However, these initiatives often fell short of providing reliable longitudinal data suitable for quantitative analysis. In contrast, the observatories in Madagascar were established from the outset with a clear focus on economic and statistical expertise, making the production of consistent data series the main priority. Researchers from other disciplines, such as geography, economics and anthropology, were involved and their contributions were valued. However, the ROS have always emphasized the best practices in survey management, in particular regarding sampling, quality control, and data analysis.

Quality control during survey data collection was paramount. Each surveyor was limited to three household interviews per day to prevent rushing and ensure comprehensive data collection. These interviews, typically involving both the householder and their partner, lasted about two hours. At the end of the day, surveyors returned completed questionnaires to their supervisor, who assigned new interviews and conducted daily operations, including work schedule organization and questionnaire validation. Supervisors actively addressed errors or unclear responses and conducted consistency checks between questionnaire items. This close monitoring, facilitated by the concentration of interviews in a limited area, was unique and crucial for maintaining data quality in challenging rural conditions. The continuous presence of surveyors in the villages throughout the survey periods, along with the active involvement of supervisors in all stages of the fieldwork, ranging from organization to data processing, was a characteristic of this network. This feature distinguishes it from other rural surveys where temporary surveyors and supervisors are often less integrated into the overall workflow. During the survey period (mostly in the beginning and in the middle period), a researcher supported the team to improve the quality of the data collection.

Additionally, validation tests were periodically conducted to ensure data accuracy. For instance, in 1996, a test compared the measured surface areas of fields with the acreage reported in interviews among a subset of households. This test confirmed the absence of consistent bias in interviewees' statements, indicating a balance in any inaccuracies.

Attrition

Significant levels of attrition are reported from the ROS data^{18,19}. It is well-known that such levels of attrition are common place in any longstanding panel survey²⁰. Attrition has been extensively studied and understood by survey experts and there is a strong consensus that despite this phenomenon, panel data is both useful and necessary for understanding population living standard dynamics²¹. The attrition rate is defined as the percentage of households interviewed in the previous year that were not re-interviewed in the year of interest. We calculated the attrition rate per year and per observatory to produce Figure 2.

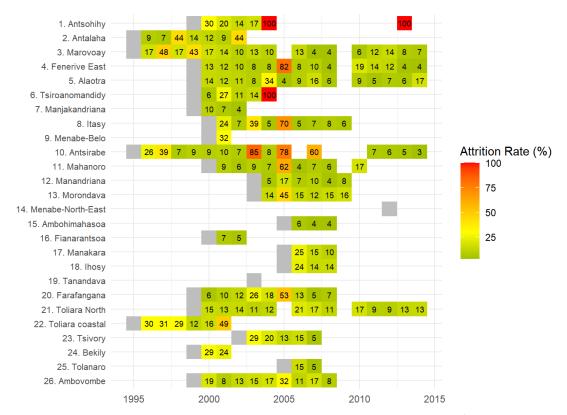


Figure 2. Attrition rates in ROS panels by observatory and survey round (source: ROS raw data and author's calculations). This heatmap displays the attrition rates for each observatory across survey years from 1995 to 2015. The vertical axis lists the observatories, while the horizontal axis represents the years. Each square at the intersection of an observatory and a survey year denotes the attrition rate, with the color gradient varying from green (0% attrition) to red (100% attrition). The percentage of attrition for each year is rounded and displayed within the corresponding square. The initial survey year for each observatory is marked in gray, indicating the absence of prior data for attrition calculation.

The six instances of annual attrition rates above 75% for a specific observatory were likely induced by reshuffles of the household identification codes or shifts in observatory sites. We are working to reconcile old and new identifications, and future dataset updates will include corresponding codes where possible. If we discard these outliers (attrition rates over 75%), we have an average attrition year of 15%, which seems in line with standards in developing countries, leading to a compound attrition rate of 80% over 10 years. In 2005, an IRD team conducted a tracking survey in one village of the Marovoay observatory (#3 in Figure 1) and was able to find 59% of the attrited households¹⁹. Among these, 35% of households had split, and 65% had migrated out of the village. These findings release part of our concern regarding ROS attrition: if we are interested in local development induced by protected areas, the fate of outgoing migrants is less of an interest, although the migration rate should be monitored somehow. Other motives of attrition observed by ROS members, although rarely, include the absence of the household during surveyor visits or the refusal to answer the survey.

Usage Notes

Access to the survey documentation and metadata is open and enables any researcher potentially interested to learn about the dataset content, production process and associated materials. Access to the raw survey data requires researchers to register, specify the purpose

of data access, and commit to upholding the confidentiality rules outlined in the associated end-user license.

Due to the number of variables and survey rounds, we recommend users to make use of the data catalog included as a spreadsheet both in the documentation and the raw data datasets. The data catalog includes as columns the file name, table title, variable name, variable label and the years in which this variable is present in the dataset. The presence of labels makes it easier to find relevant information using full-text search.

The GitHub repository linked to this paper serves as a technical appendix. It provides support materials in two formats: raw computational notebooks in markdown with R code chunks, and a web output. The web output is a HTML report featuring formatted text, embedded source code (indented and highlighted for readability), results of data analysis, and associated visualizations. This setup aims to be both technically reproducible and didactically user-friendly for researchers exploring this data. The repository contains instructions to reproduce all figures in the paper and includes a tutorial on georeferencing the data, useful for various types of analysis.

Users are advised to post any questions or comments about the source code or data directly on the GitHub repository's issues page (https://github.com/BETSAKA/Rural_obs_Madagascar/issues), rather than contacting the paper's corresponding author via email. This approach promotes transparency since all issues and responses are publicly visible and can be referenced by others with similar challenges. It also helps build a collaborative knowledge base that benefits the entire user community.

Code Availability

Acknowledgements

Besides the authors of this paper, the ROS endeavor was made possible by the help and dedication of a long list of colleagues at IRD, INSTAT, the University of Antananarivo and other institutions.

The ROS has been financially funded by a variety of donors and NGOs during the 1995-2015 period: European Union, French cooperation, AFD, GTZ, World Bank, Swiss cooperation, Care, Rio Tinto and IFAD.

Efforts to complete the preparation of ROS microdata and documentation for publication, along with the elaboration of this data descriptor, were supported by the BETSAKA project (cofunded by the KfW development Bank and the French development agency AFD via the PAIRES Program) and the DT3Ma Makay Observatory project (funded by AFD).

- The gold open access fee for this paper was supported by the KfW Development Bank,
- 503 financed by funds from the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and
- 504 Development (BMZ).
- The support from the above-mentioned organizations does not imply their endorsement of
- the interpretations presented herein and they bear no responsibility for the content of this
- 507 publication or for the associated dataset.

Author contributions

510

- 511 VSA: data curation and validation.
- 512 NA: ROS administration and supervision, investigation, data curation, and validation.
- 513 FB: formal analysis, software (geolocation, anonymization and data formatting) visualization
- and original draft writing of the data descriptor.
- 515 ID: ROS conceptualization and methodology design, funding acquisition, ROS administration,
- supervision, investigation, and validation.
- 517 JLD: ROS organization and investigation.
- 518 JdM: writing of the original draft of the data descriptor.
- 519 BNR: ROS administration, supervision and data curation.
- 520 RRafi: data curation and validation.
- PR: funding acquisition, ROS administration, supervision, investigation and validation.
- 522 RRato: ROS administration, supervision and investigation.
- 523 LAOR: ROS administration and supervision, investigation, data curation and validation.
- JDR: ROS administration and supervision, software (data entry setup), data curation and
- validation. VR: ROS administration and supervision, investigation, data curation and validation.
- 526 MR: methodology and investigation.
- 527 BR: funding acquisition, ROS administration, supervision, investigation, and validation.
- 528 FR: ROS conceptualization and methodology design, funding acquisition, ROS administration,
- 529 supervision, investigation, and validation.
- 530 CSM: data curation and validation.
- All authors revised and approved the final manuscript.

532

Competing interests

533534535

The authors declare no competing interests.

536537

References

- 539 1. Castañeda, A. *et al.* A New Profile of the Global Poor. *World Development* **101**, 250–267 (2018).
- 541 2. World Developpement Report 2008: Agriculture for Development. (World Bank, Washington DC).
- Jerven, M. Random Growth in Africa? Lessons from an Evaluation of the Growth Evidence
 on Botswana, Kenya, Tanzania and Zambia, 1965–1995. *Journal of Development Studies* 46, 274–294 (2010).
- 546 4. Sandefur, J. & Glassman, A. L. The Political Economy of Bad Data: Evidence from African Survey & Administrative Statistics. *Available at SSRN 2466028* (2014).
- 5. Randall, S. & Coast, E. Poverty in African households: the limits of survey and census representations. *The Journal of Development Studies* **51**, 162–177 (2015).

- 550 6. Östberg, W., Howland, O., Mduma, J. & Brockington, D. Tracing improving livelihoods in 551 rural Africa using local measures of wealth: A case study from central Tanzania, 1991– 552 2016. *Land* **7**, 44 (2018).
- 7. Ansoms, A., Marijnen, E., Cioffo, G. & Murison, J. Statistics versus livelihoods: questioning Rwanda's pathway out of poverty. *Review of African Political Economy* **44**, 47–65 (2017).
- 555 8. INSTAT. Résultats Globaux Du Troisième Recensement Général de La Population et de l'habitation de 2018 à Madagascar (RGPH-3). (Institut national de la statistique, Antananarivo, 2020).
- 9. Roubaud, F. La question rizicole à Madagascar: les résultats d'une décennie de libéralisation. *Revue Economie de Madagascar* 37–62 (1997).
- 560 10. Roubaud, F. Le projet Madio à Madagascar : objectifs, démarche, résultats. *Statéco* 5–24 (2000).
- 11. Razafindrakoto, M. & Roubaud, F. Two original poverty monitoring tools: the 1-2-3 surveys
 and the Rural Observatories. in *New international poverty reduction strategies* 335–361
 (Routledge, 2003).
- 12. Droy, I., Ratovoarinony, R. & Roubaud, F. Rural observatories in Madagascar: An innovative mechanism for monitoring the countryside. *Inter-Stat* 65–91 (2004).
- 567 13. Grislain, Q. Promesses et effets des observatoires fonciers: une géographie politique de 568 dispositifs sociotechniques pour le développement en contextes africains et sénégalais 569 (1980/2022). (Paris 1, 2022).
- 570 14. Dubois, J.-L. & Droy, I. L'observatoire: un instrument pour le suivi de la pauvreté. in *Les*571 outils de mesure et de suivi/évaluation des politiques de sécurité alimentaires et de lutte
 572 contre la pauveté 22–46 (AEDES-IRAM, Brussels, 2002).
- 573 15. Saint-Macary, C. Le suivi des dynamiques de pauvreté en milieu rural: retour d'expérience des observatoires ruraux à Madagascar. *Statéco* 63–67 (2018).
- 16. Droy, I. Que sont les greniers à riz devenus ? (Madagascar). Autrepart 7, 89–110 (1998).
- 576 17. Observatoires du développement, observatoires pour le développement: actes du séminaire, septembre 1994. (Éd. de l'Orstom, Paris, France, 1998).
- 578 18. Gubert, F. & Robilliard, A.-S. Risk and Schooling Decisions in Rural Madagascar: A Panel Data-Analysis. *Journal of African Economies* **17**, 207–238 (2008).
- 19. Vaillant, J. Attrition and Follow-Up Rules in Panel Surveys: Insights from a Tracking Experience in Madagascar. *Review of Income and Wealth* **59**, 509–538 (2013).
- 582 20. Alderman, H., Das, J. & Rao, V. *Conducting Ethical Economic Research Complications from the Field.* (The World Bank, 2013). doi:10.1596/1813-9450-6446.
- Ashenfelter, O., Deaton, A. & Solon, G. *Collecting Panel Data in Developing Countries: Does It Make Sense?* (World Bank, Washington DC, 1985).
- 22. R Core Team. *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2023).
- 588 23. Wickham, H. *et al.* Welcome to the tidyverse. *Journal of Open Source Software* **4**, 1686 (2019).
- 590 24. Wickham, H., Miller, E. & Smith, D. *Haven: Import and Export 'SPSS', 'Stata' and 'SAS' Files*. 591 (2023).
- 592 25. Larmarange, J. Labelled: Manipulating Labelled Data. (2023).
- 593 26. Pebesma, E. Simple Features for R: Standardized Support for Spatial Vector Data. *The R Journal* **10**, 439–446 (2018).
- 595 27. van der Loo, M. P. The stringdist package for approximate string matching. *The R Journal* 596 **6**, 111–122 (2014).

597 28. Tennekes, M. tmap: Thematic Maps in R. *Journal of Statistical Software* **84**, 1–39 (2018).