

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.

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1 Data Descriptor Template

2

3 Title

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

6

7 Authors

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2627 Abstract

28

29 A Rural Observatory System (ROS) was established in Madagascar to address the lack of 30 socioeconomic data on rural areas. It collected, analyzed, and disseminated data to help 31 formulate and evaluate development policies. From 1995 to 2014, the ROS surveyed a total of 32 26 areas. The ROS methodology involved annual household panel surveys using consistent 33 questionnaires supplemented by modules covering new themes and enriched questions 34 tailored to specific contexts. Qualitative community surveys were used to understand local 35 features and dynamics. The site selection combined quantitative and qualitative insights to 36 reflect the diversity of Madagascar's rural challenges. Quality control was comprehensive, with 37 measures such as limiting the number of daily surveyor interviews and daily field supervision. 38 By making this data available for 21 consecutive years, along with documentation, metadata, 39 and code with analysis examples, we aim to facilitate their discovery, assessment, and 40 understanding by researchers, policymakers, and social organizations. To our knowledge, this 41 is the only available data for an in-depth analysis of the situation and trends in the rural areas 42 of Madagascar.

43

44 Background & Summary

Rural households constitute the majority of the population of the least developed countries
(64% in 2022) and account for the bulk of worldwide poverty¹. Recent reductions in poverty
rates in developing countries stem from a decrease in rural poverty². 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 systems³⁻⁷. In
Madagascar, the population has grown from 12 million in 1993 to 26 million in 2018, with 81%

52 of the population living in rural areas⁸. In the mid-1990s, Madagascar's rural areas underwent 53 profound transformations. After a socialist period from 1975 to 1985, the country moved 54 towards economic liberalization following the IMF recommendations: liberalization of pricing 55 and marketing structures, and a shift from state-driven policies to market-oriented reforms⁹. 56 The existing statistical system, which had deteriorated during the socialist era, was ill-57 equipped to capture these changes, leaving a gap in understanding the rural landscape 58 evolution¹⁰. This situation was particularly concerning given that agriculture employed almost 59 80% of the active population, and that any analysis of the Malagasy economy would be 60 incomplete without a comprehensive understanding of its rural sector.

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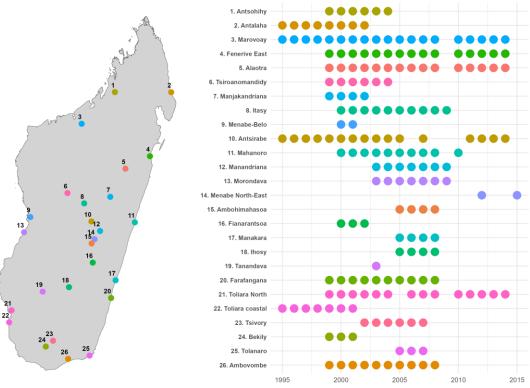
This lack of information motivated the creation of four rural observatories in Madagascar in 1995^{11,12}, each representing distinct agricultural challenges within the country's diverse ecosystems. The observatories consisted of annual panel survey, dedicated to the continuous collection, analysis and dissemination of socioeconomic 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.

68

69 As the ROS emerged as an innovative and cost-effective way to provide a nuanced and 70 continuous observation of rural households, its extension was supported by new funders and 71 partners, such as research institutions, non-governmental organizations or consultancy firms¹⁴. 72 The institutional anchoring of the rural observatories changed in 2000, moving from the 73 National Statistical Office, with which it was initially associated, to the Rural Development 74 Policy Unit, within the Ministry of Agriculture. A charter was drawn up to promote the 75 methodological unity of the observatories and the ethics of intervention. Each partner 76 involved was required to sign it to ensure methodological consistency across observatories 77 and over the years.

78

79 Over the years, the number of observatories increased, reaching 17 in 2004, before 80 contracting to five following the political crisis of 2009¹⁵. Despite these challenges, the ROS 81 persisted, with three of the original observatories remaining to operate actively until 2014, as 82 shown in Figure 1.



84

Figure 1: Coarse location and years of data collection of observatories (Source: authors). The
figure is composed of two panels. The left panel displays a map of Madagascar with coloured
and numbered dots corresponding to the locations of the 26 observatories. The right panel

88 indicates, for each number, the name of the observatory and the survey years.

The ROS remained operational until 2017. In 2015, a previously surveyed observatory 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 required to clean, harmonize, and document the data from these latest observatories 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.

95

96 The ROS adopted a methodology designed to combine consistency and continuous innovation. 97 Annual surveys were conducted using questionnaires with stable parts that remained largely 98 unchanged, ensuring data continuity on key variables over time. This approach allowed to 99 follow-up households, capturing changes in their socioeconomic conditions and their 100 responses to external shocks and policy changes. Over time, new topics were introduced, and 101 existing questions were enriched to adapt to contextual changes and emerging challenges. 102 These additions focused on key areas such as food availability and feeding practices, 103 particularly during lean periods, exposure to natural disasters, damages, and strategies to 104 recover after shocks, and access to basic services such as potable water, sanitation facilities, 105 education, or healthcare. However, the survey faced the challenge of 'questionnaire inflation,' 106 as the eagerness to add new variables without removing outdated ones significantly extended 107 the average interview duration over the years.

108

Depending on the year, specific modules related to governance issues were added to the core questionnaire. The objective was to collect the population's perception of liberalization reforms, the roles of men and women, educational strategies, and various dimensions of poverty (vulnerability, participation, political voice, etc.). The ROS methodology combined quantitative methods to describe situations and a qualitative perspective to explain them, offering a comprehensive view of rural dynamics. In addition to the household questionnaire, a community survey was conducted, involving field observations and semi-structured interviews. This mixed-method approach produces general information about the region and provides structural and situational insights on various aspects of community life (agricultural campaigns, social and cultural environment, health, education, security, development support, and product pricing).

120

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 offering a broad overview of the works derived from this data. The longevity and consistent methodology make it unique among household panel survey experiences. Nevertheless, akin to all survey designs, it has encountered challenges, particularly concerning measurement and sampling, addressed through methodological improvement over time.

127

128 **Methods** 129

130 In a country like Madagascar, where the statistical information system is flawed, the ROS 131 surveys had several advantages that explain why they lasted for several years before 132 successive periods of crisis interrupted the process. They were based on a lightweight, 133 modular organization, using a consistent methodology to generate economies of scale. 134 Rigorous quality control was implemented at every stage, competent supervisors were 135 trained, and institutional capacities were strengthened. Moreover, the ROS was integrated 136 into the national statistical information system, and the results were rapidly published and 137 widely disseminated in the media.

138

140

139 Site selection

141 The selection of observatory locations was based on a qualitative approach leveraging the 142 expertise of individuals with extensive knowledge of the field to reflect the diverse array of 143 rural situations. Due to the multiplicity of terrains and climates, Madagascar has diverse 144 ecosystems for agriculture. Farming practices are shaped by the ethnocultural distribution of 145 the population, underscoring the need for rural development policies to consider this 146 diversity. A first subset of potential locations was prioritized to characterize a wide range of 147 agroclimatic areas, production systems, population density, accessibility, and support 148 structures. These potential locations were then correlated with development indicators 149 reflecting their economic and social conditions. The observatory locations were selected from 150 each category to constitute a varied portfolio. Each of the 26 observatories consisted of at 151 least two sites, whether hamlet or village, strategically selected to capture the local diversity. 152 This approach aimed to provide an in-depth understanding of the many facets of the rural 153 landscape.

154

We illustrate this heterogeneity by describing the first four observatories established in 1995. 155 156 The Toliara observatory (#22 on Figure 1) is located on the coastal Mahafaly Plateau in Toliara Province, an arid and isolated area with a low population density. This observatory was of 157 158 particular interest due to its landlockedness problem, which is representative of a large part 159 of rural Madagascar (territory and population). However, it is also part of a regional trading 160 system. In addition, the coexistence of two ethnic groups, the Vezo, who rely on fishing, and 161 the Tanalana, who are livestock farmers, is another advantage, as these two populations have 162 different but complementary production systems. The two villages selected, Beheloka and 163 Itampolo, also struggled with primitive living conditions, lack of fresh water, and reduced 164 public services. The area was prone to low and irregular rainfall, leading to frequent droughts 165 and crop failures.

167 Antalaha observatory (#2), located on the Northeast coast, was characterized by large-scale 168 production of traditional export commodities: vanilla, coffee, pepper, and cloves. The 169 observatory monitored producers' responses to the liberalization of the vanilla trade. The 170 three villages selected, Maromandia, Tampolo, and Ambohitralalana, represent different 171 levels of landlockedness.

172

173 The Vakinankaratra observatory (#10) in Antsirabe, located in the Madagascar central plateau, 174 highlighted the challenges faced by family smallholdings that primarily engage in rice 175 cultivation but experience a rice shortage. The central plateau is the most densely populated 176 region in Madagascar, and the peasant farmers have developed a diversified cropping system 177 to maximize the potential of the varied landscape. This observatory is characterized by a 178 production system in which irrigated rice cultivation plays a central role. Polyculture and 179 polyactivity are other significant features (dairy farming, fruit crops, handicrafts, charcoal-180 making). In addition, seasonal migratory flows, permanent settlements on the "margins of the 181 highlands", and less densely populated areas contribute to the region's complexity. Two 182 villages were selected to reflect the regional diversity: Ambatomena, an old settlement zone, 183 and Vinany, a settlement established by migrants from other regions.

184

185 The Marovoay observatory (#3), in the Lower Betsiboka plain, was a significant rice-growing 186 area and belonged to one of the large irrigated perimeters constructed at the beginning of the 187 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 188 189 Marovoay plain. The population is young, and the main activity is farming, with almost all 190 households having a secondary activity, often linked to farming or fishing. Farmers are highly 191 integrated into the market economy. This region was known for its productive rice fields, and 192 even some rice varieties were exported to Europe until the 1970s. It experienced challenges 193 during the socialist period and the 1980s crisis, leading local farmers to adapt through 194 retrenchment or diversification strategies. Two villages were selected in 1995: Ampijoroa and 195 Maroala.

196

As shown in Figure 1, the focus in Toliara shifted to a different location at the beginning of the 2000s (#22 to #21), and the Antalaha observatory (#2) was discarded in 2004. The initial limitation to four observatories was due to resource constraints, 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, agro-
	pastoral system in which zebu plays a central role.
Antalaha #2	Family farming with production of rice for family consumption and
	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.
lhosy #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	Tropical highland climate. Low-yield rice areas, complementary
#12	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	Fishermen and agro pastoralists in an arid and isolated region.
#22	
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.

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

204 Table 1 presents the diverse range of agricultural and climatic zones encompassed by the ROS, 205 reflecting the country's rich ecological variety. The observatories cover areas ranging from arid 206 and semi-arid regions with predominant activities in dry crops (maize, tubers) and pastoral 207 farming with some 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 208 209 network captures the dynamics of different agricultural practices and climatic challenges and addresses unique regional issues such as food insecurity, land conflicts, and exposure to 210 211 cyclones.

- 213 A panel household survey
- 214

215 For each observatory, an annual, stratified, two-stage survey of households was carried out. 216 The survey adopted the format of a panel study, with the sample of a consistent group of 217 households from year to year. In the initial annual survey conducted in the year of each 218 observatory's creation, at least 500 households situated in a minimum of two sites were 219 selected. In small localities, the sample may have encompassed all households in the locality, 220 while in more populated places, the sample households were randomly drawn from a 221 comprehensive enumeration of all households in the locality. The sample frame was compiled 222 at the beginning of each annual survey to identify the households that had participated the 223 previous year and, if applicable, ascertain the reasons behind the attrition of households 224 (death, moving, refusal to answer). By doing so, the survey was able to account for changes in 225 population from one year to the next, such as households relocating and new households 226 being established. To maintain a consistent sample size of 500 households for each 227 observatory and ensure sample representativeness, households that had relocated were 228 substituted by new households through random selection. These new households were 229 sourced from villages already covered by the survey if their overall population was initially not 230 fully included, or from neighboring villages otherwise.

231

232 The unit of observation for the rural observatories is the household, not the farm, as in 233 traditional agricultural surveys. This approach allowed for the comprehensive coverage of all 234 activities undertaken by each individual and to establish a crucial, yet often blurred, distinction 235 between the rural sphere and the realm of agriculture. While most rural households are 236 engaged in activities such as crop farming, livestock husbandry, or fishing, others pursue 237 occupations such as craftsmanship, trade, shopkeeping, or wage labor. Some households 238 combine agricultural and non-agricultural activities. In addition, within each household, a 239 distinction was made between the primary activity, which contributes most to income and 240 consumes most of working time, and the secondary activities. It is common for households to 241 participate in several income-generating activities, and their survival often hinges upon this 242 diversification. Similarly, this approach allows for the inclusion of transfer income from family 243 members engaged in long-term migration (over six months), but whose contributions enable 244 the unit to continue its farming activity. Therefore, focusing on households enables the 245 assessment of secondary activity, transfer revenues and identifies the working population 246 holding jobs not necessarily in the agricultural sector.

247

248 Data collection relied on statements provided by the household heads and their partners, who 249 responded to qualitative and quantitative questions. Under this system, the extent of 250 cultivated land, the volumes of agricultural production, and the quantities sold were 251 determined based on the knowledge and recollection of the producers. The survey was based 252 on a comprehensive questionnaire designed to capture the multifaceted nature of the rural 253 environment, encompassing diverse crops, livestock, and both agricultural and non-254 agricultural activities. The questionnaire included a consistent general section, used each year 255 by all observatories annually, but also special sections tailored to specific observatories or 256 themes, like vanilla cultivation or fishing, or highlighted topics like education, gender roles in 257 household tasks, migration, etc. The general section mainly focused on socioeconomic data, 258 including household living standards, children's education, and food security, as well as 259 income sources, prices, quantities marketed or consumed, and agricultural production factors, 260 offering a holistic view of rural livelihood states and strategies.

261

262 Team organization

263

264 Conducting surveys across dispersed locations in Madagascar, especially in isolated areas, 265 posed significant logistical challenges. Each observatory's collection team consisted of two to 266 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.

271

272 To foster effective communication, some supervisors and surveyors were locally recruited at 273 each observatory site, ensuring their familiarity with local customs, dialects, and practices. 274 However, surveyors were never assigned to their native villages to maintain confidentiality. 275 Given the temporary nature of their roles and the unavailability of the same team members 276 each year, annual recruitment and training sessions were essential. These sessions, conducted 277 with local partner organizations, included selection processes and intensive training focusing 278 on the questionnaire objectives, teamwork, and household engagement. Supervisors were 279 trained first, followed by surveyors who were trained by supervisors. Each training session 280 ended with a field test survey.

281

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 enabled surveyors to familiarize themselves with local measurement units, converting them into standard metrics, inventory the crops produced in the village, and acclimate the villagers to the surveyors' presence.

289

290 Implementation phasing291

292 The process was divided into three phases spanning ten months. The preparatory phase, 293 lasting two to three months, ideally between April and July, involved the ROS coordination 294 team refining the general and specific sections of the questionnaire. They also updated user 295 manuals, technical documents for data collection, and budget projections. Supervisors 296 assembled essential kits for field surveyors containing cooking tools, camping gear, and data 297 collection materials. A unified ten-day training session was conducted for all supervisors to 298 ensure consistency in methodologies, concepts, and data collection practices across all 299 observatories.

300

301 The fieldwork phase required approximately one month in each observatory, at months 302 adapted to the local context. It entailed filling out and verifying the questionnaires through 303 interviews with the selected households. Prior to departing for their survey sites, the recruited 304 surveyors, approximately ten for each observatory, underwent a week-long training session. 305 Supervisors, who were ultimately accountable for the accuracy of the completed 306 questionnaires, accompanied them and performed first consistency tests on the data 307 collected. This phase was frequently divided, with observatories addressed in groups, 308 considering variations in agricultural schedules, as well as constraints related to human 309 resources and logistics.

310

311 The data entry, validation, and analysis phase included actions implemented from June to 312 January. Surveys were conducted in accordance with the agricultural calendar to minimize 313 disruption to rural household livelihoods, and to visit villages during less labor-intensive 314 seasons. Given the variation of the agricultural calendar across agro-climatic zones, surveys 315 were conducted over an extended period. Prior to the first data collection, the production of 316 the input mask, the program for splitting and merging data files and the consistency-testing 317 program were completed. Data from the first observatories to be surveyed were entered 318 before the onset of data collection in observatories with later agricultural schedules.

319

320 Measurement harmonization

321

322 The selection of measurement units raised a methodological issue. Among the peasant 323 population, the units used to measure surfaces, weights, and volumes are not standardized 324 and vary from village to village. Requiring peasant farmers and fishermen to answer in 325 standard units, i.e. kilograms, liters, or hectares, was the surest way of losing touch with 326 reality. Hence, the ROS adopted "peasant measurements" which varied from one observatory 327 to another depending on farming practices, and were named differently in regional languages. 328 Output quantities are measured in units like daba or vata (oilcans), zinga (a kind of metal 329 drinking vessel), sobika (baskets), or cartloads. Rice-growing acreage can be quantified in 330 terms of the number of transplanters, seed quantities, kipa (the number of seedlings to be 331 planted), or carts of rice bales harvested in the field. These local measurement units were 332 identified in each village and converted into standard weights and measures. This conversion 333 process had to be conducted separately for each village due to variations in the meanings of 334 the same name across different locations (for example, the cans or daba hold different 335 volumes of fluid), and the absence of standardization of "peasant measurements" between 336 villages. After each complete interview, the survey supervisor reviewed the questionnaire and 337 converted the gathered "peasant measurements" into standard weights and measures. This 338 ensured the mitigation of measurement errors that are common in surveys on rural 339 households.

340

Data Records 341

342

343 The data collection consists of two datasets and a code repository. The rationale behind having 344 two distinct datasets is to ensure that the ROS metadata and documentation are openly 345 accessible, while also addressing the confidentiality concerns related to the raw data from 346 household surveys. This raw data has been anonymized, yet it contains detailed information 347 about household composition, incomes, and expenses, as well as individuals' education, 348 activities, and assets. This level of detail poses a risk of re-identifying specific individuals, 349 especially in small rural areas. To mitigate this risk and protect the confidentiality of sensitive 350 information, the raw data from household surveys is stored separately in its own dataset. 351

Name and location	Content description	Format and details
Metadata and	- Data catalog	- xlsx and tab
documentation	- Documentation catalog	- txt
dataset	 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	- xlsx and 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 	 All raw data provided in two versions: o Original proprietary format (Stata)
	expenses.	o Open format (tsv)

	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)	
Source code repository	 Workflow to catalog the data and 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 hosted in the DataSuds platform. It is an instance of the Dataverse opensource 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.

360

The source code is maintained in a GitHub repository. Authors can make further improvements and complements to this source code. Each version of the source code is versioned, allowing users to retrieve the state of the source code at the time of the validation, included in Table 2.

366 **Technical Validation**

367

365

This section delves into the processes and methodologies employed in the ROS to ensure high data quality standards. Additionally, we provide a retrospective assessment of panel attrition, an essential aspect for longitudinal studies.

- 371
- 372 Data collection process

373 374 From the inception of the data collection in 1995, measures were implemented at every stage 375 of the survey process to ensure the reliability of the data collected. The ROS was created 376 during a period characterized by the multiplication of observatories in developing countries, 377 often employing multidisciplinary approaches to implement thematic monographies¹⁷. 378 However, these initiatives often lacked reliable longitudinal data suitable for quantitative 379 analysis. In contrast, the observatories in Madagascar were established from the outset with 380 a clear emphasis on economic and statistical expertise, making the production of consistent 381 data series the main priority. While researchers from various disciplines, such as geography, 382 economics, and anthropology, contributed to the ROS, the project has always emphasized the 383 best practices in survey management, in particular concerning sampling, quality control, and 384 data analysis.

385

386 Quality control during survey data collection was paramount. Each surveyor was limited to 387 three daily household interviews, preventing rushing and ensuring comprehensive data 388 collection. These interviews, typically involving the householder and their partner, lasted 389 approximately two hours. At the end of each day, surveyors returned completed 390 questionnaires to their supervisor, who assigned new interviews and conducted daily 391 operations, including work schedule organization and questionnaire validation. Supervisors 392 actively addressed errors or unclear responses and conducted consistency checks between 393 questionnaire items. This close monitoring, facilitated by concentrating interviews in a limited 394 area, was unique and crucial for maintaining data quality in challenging rural conditions. The 395 continuous presence of surveyors in the villages throughout the survey periods, coupled with 396 the active involvement of supervisors in all stages of fieldwork, from organization to data 397 processing, characterized this network. This feature sets it apart from other rural surveys, 398 where temporary surveyors and supervisors are often less integrated into the workflow. 399 During the survey period, especially in the beginning and middle stages, a researcher 400 supported the team to improve the quality of the data collection.

401

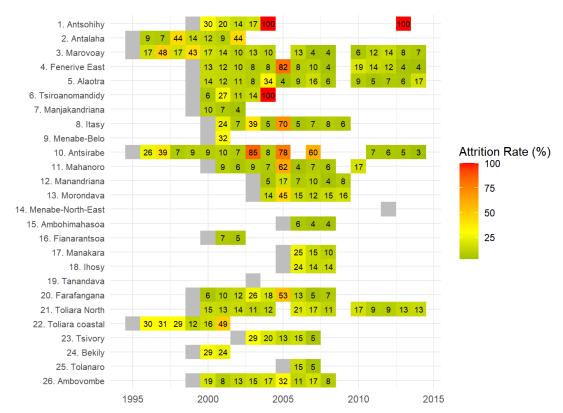
Additionally, validation tests were periodically conducted to ensure data accuracy. For
 instance, in 1996, a test compared the measured surface areas of fields with the acreage
 reported in interviews among a subset of households. This test tends to confirm the absence
 of consistent bias in interviewees'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

407 Attrition

408

406

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



416

417 Figure 2. Attrition rates in ROS panels by observatory and survey round (Source: ROS raw 418 data and author's calculations). This heatmap displays attrition rates for each observatory 419 across survey years from 1995 to 2015. The vertical axis lists the observatories, while the 420 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 attrition rate 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.

425

426 Figure 2 depicts the attrition rate per year and per observatory. The six instances of annual 427 attrition rates above 75% were likely induced by reshuffles of household identification codes 428 or shifts in observatory sites. We are working to reconcile old and new identifications, and 429 future dataset updates will include corresponding codes where possible. Excluding these outliers, the average annual attrition rate stands at 15%, aligning with developing countries' 430 431 standards and resulting in a cumulative attrition rate of 80% over ten years. In 2005, an IRD 432 team conducted a tracking survey in one village of the Marovoay observatory (#3 in Figure 1), 433 successfully locating 59% of the attrited households¹⁹. Among these, 35% of households had 434 split, and 65% had migrated out of the village. Other factors contributing to attrition, albeit 435 rarely observed by ROS members, include the absence of the household during surveyor visits 436 or the refusal to answer the survey. Nonetheless, it is important to note that attrition can 437 introduce bias, requiring careful consideration in the analysis.

438 439

440 Usage Notes

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Access to the survey documentation and metadata is open, allowing any interested researcher
to explore the dataset content, production process and associated materials. However, 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.

Given the number of variables and survey rounds, we recommend users to utilize the data catalog provided as a spreadsheet in the documentation and the raw data datasets. The data catalog contains 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 facilitates the findings of relevant information using full-text search.

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453 The GitHub repository associated to this paper serves as a technical appendix. It provides 454 support materials in two formats: raw computational notebooks in markdown with R code 455 chunks, and a web output. The web output is a HTML report featuring formatted text, 456 embedded source code (indented and highlighted for readability), results of data analysis, and 457 associated visualizations. This setup aims to be technically reproducible and didactically user-458 friendly for researchers exploring this data. The repository contains instructions to replicate 459 all figures in the paper and includes a tutorial on georeferencing the data, useful for various 460 types of analysis.

461

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

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469 Code Availability

The data anonymization, data validation, and guidance for data georeferencing and analysis are available at <u>https://github.com/BETSAKA/Rural obs Madagascar</u>, under the MIT opensource license. This work used *R* 4.3.1 for the general data processing environment²², alongside the following packages: *tidyverse* 2.0.0 for data preparation and visualization²³, *haven* 2.5.3 for reading and converting files from Stata format²⁴, *labelled* 2.12.0 for generating the data catalog²⁵, *sf* 1.0.14 for spatial data georeferencing²⁶, *stringdist* 0.9.10 for toponym

- 477 matching and data pseudonymization ²⁷, and *tmap* 3.3.4 for spatial data visualization²⁸.
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- 479

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485

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- 498

499 Author contributions

500

- 501 VSA: data curation and validation.
- 502 NA: ROS administration and supervision, investigation, data curation, and validation.

FB: formal analysis, software (geolocation, anonymization and data formatting) visualizationand original draft writing of the data descriptor.

- 505 ID: ROS conceptualization and methodology design, funding acquisition, ROS administration,
- 506 supervision, investigation, and validation.
- 507 JLD: ROS organization and investigation.
- 508 JdM: data curation, original draft writing of the data descriptor.
- 509 BNR: ROS administration, supervision and data curation.
- 510 RRafi: data curation and validation.
- 511 PR: funding acquisition, ROS administration, supervision, investigation and validation.
- 512 RRato: ROS administration, supervision and investigation.
- 513 LAOR: ROS administration and supervision, investigation, data curation and validation.
- 514 JDR: ROS administration and supervision, software (data entry setup), data curation and
- validation. VR: ROS administration and supervision, investigation, data curation and validation.
- 516 MR: methodology and investigation.
- 517 BR: funding acquisition, ROS administration, supervision, investigation, and validation.
- 518 FR: ROS conceptualization and methodology design, funding acquisition, ROS administration,
- 519 supervision, investigation, and validation.
- 520 CSM: data curation and validation.
- 521 All authors revised and approved the final manuscript.

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524 525 526	The	The authors declare no competing interests.		
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