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NEWS

OSSREA Workshops in Uganda

OSSREA conducted two training workshops on research methodology training and gender mainstreaming back to back from 22nd May to 1st of June 2013 in Seeta, Uganda. The first training was a refresher research methodology training workshop for PhD trainers and supervisors and was attended by 26 university lecturers drawn from universities based in 8 African countries. The second one was a gender mainstreaming training workshop in political and economic arenas and was attended by 27 participants drawn from many universities based in 9 sub-Saharan African countries. They were conducted at Ridar Hotel, Seeta, Uganda and started on Wednesday, 22 May and came to an end on Saturday, 1st June 2013.



GMT Training in Uganda 2013

OSSREA Represented at the Annual Conference on “Challenges of Development in Africa” organized by the Catholic University of East Africa (CUEA)

The Annual Conference was attended by Professor Paschal Mihyo from the 24th to the 28th of June 2013 where he was one of the plenary speakers on the theme “Challenges to Development in Africa”. This was the second annual conference organized by the CUEA and was attended by 560 participants from 16 African countries, three European countries, the US and Canada. There were more than twenty panels covering among others the following topics:

- Gender issues in health, education, small businesses, environment and conflicts;
- Education and ICT; learning and teaching; quality assurance; ICT and e-learning and education and employment/unemployment;
- Law, constitutions and human rights;
- Environment and development;
- ICT and health, education; SMEs and business development;
- Churches, NGOs and development;
- Youth , ICTs, education and employment;
- Libraries; ICTs and education;
- Languages and instruction in education
- Banking and SMEs
- Resources, conflicts and MNCs;

- Governance, democracy and poverty reduction;
- Globalization, social discourses and scholar activism;
- Health, HIV/AIDS and development;
- Privatization, entrepreneurship and business development; and
- Indigenous knowledge and technology development in Africa.

Each panel had not less than five papers and in total 400 papers were presented at various panels over the three days of the conference.

Professor Mihyo's presentation emphasized the following:

- The threats facing social sciences as most governments have reduced or even withdrawn scholarships and funding for research in the social sciences in favour of natural sciences and in this context the need for social science scholars to organize debates and policy dialogue on the need for inclusive approaches to the sciences;
- The need to rally such efforts within existing social sciences networks such as OSSREA, CODESRIA, AAPAM, FAWE and the AAU in order to have a collective voice;
- The current attack on regional organizations by external agencies that want to organize regime changes within organizations such as OSSREA, CODESRIA and the AAU under the pretexts of either lack of transparency or the irrelevance of their research output to the strategic needs of the Northern partners as a reflection of both donor fatigue and paradigm shift in donor thinking about the importance of research in social sciences in Africa;

- In the context of the above attention was drawn to the congruency of thinking among those who call for more focus on science and technology and those who want regime change and reduction of funding for social sciences research NGOs;
- The increasing competition between disciplines in the social sciences especially between economics and other social sciences such as political science and public administration on the one hand and competition for ascendancy and predominance within the social sciences for example between law, political science and public administration on the other, as they struggle to access resources available in the implementation of the neoliberal agendas. A call was made for the social sciences disciplines to work in tandem instead of competing to endear themselves to the proponents of the neoliberal agenda. It was emphasized if the social sciences disciplines work together and even draw in other disciplines, poverty reduction will be achieved faster and policy reforms will have less negative effects than is the case at the moment; and
- Finally attention was drawn to the disciplines in social science which have been systematically undermined and weakened because they were seen not to be in the interests of the current neoliberal agenda. They include rural development studies which have almost disappeared to pave way for liberalization of food markets; anthropology which has been relegated to the study of exotic African communities instead of being a study of the indigenous systems to help create hybrid knowledge between the modern and the indigenous; history which has been weakened in so many universities as the current development agenda does not want young people to even remember the immediate past of colonialism, apartheid, economic apartheid and violent development imposed through SAP and even genocide. A call was made for universities to assess the state of these threatened and orphaned disciplines, revive them and ensure Africa's past and present inform its future.

Professor Miho also explored ways in which OSSREA could co-publish with CUEA and it was suggested that the decision will be made by the management of OSSREA on recommendations of the Directorate of Publications and Dissemination. It was agreed however that:

- Those which will be selected will be jointly re-edited and editors will write introduction chapters and even add their own chapters;
- Funding for publication will be decided upon after selection is made by OSSREA depending on available funds;
- According to OSSREA's policy some of the copies of published books will be distributed freely to various stakeholders and some sold. If CUEA wants copies for sale, it will contribute more funds to support printing of more copies;
- The whole process of selection and publication has to be completed by November 2013.

Professor Miho also had joint consultations with some partners and potential partners. The visit to the IDRC was a courtesy call to meet the Regional Director who provided useful advice on new areas of interest to Canadian donors: natural resources management, climate change and urban development. The UNHABITAT was also visited and discussions held with staff in the urban development programme. It was also agreed to exchange ideas on urban development issues. The following major lessons learnt were listed as follows:

- African scholars are looking for platforms for presenting and disseminating their research findings. Participants of the two conferences and even keynote speakers are not sponsored by the organizers. They pay their tickets, registration fees and accommodation costs. Universities in the region are sponsoring scholars to such conferences. Even scholars from countries and

universities presumed to have no resources were present and had been sponsored by their universities. In this context, if a new university such as CUEA which is less known than OSSREA in Africa and the world can organize such events with such a turn out and with such success, OSSREA can do the same better and with more impact. It is time for OSSREA to plan such annual events for dissemination, networking and resource mobilization.

OSSREA Represented at Conferences in Portugal and France

Dr Paulos Chanie, the Director of Research attended the 5th European Conference on African Dynamics – ECAS 2013, which was conducted from June 26 – 29 in Lisbon, Portugal under the title - African dynamics in a multi-polar world. This conference was hosted by Instituto Univesitario de Lisbon (ISCTE –IUL). The conference was attended by more than 1500 participants and comprised 3 keynote speakers, 11 round table discussions, 177 panels, 13 book launches, exhibitions and other events.

Representing OSSREA, Dr Paulos was a panellist in one of the round table sessions entitled ‘THE_ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY ON THE AFRICA-EU STRATEGIC PARTNERSHIP’. The round table focused on the role of civil society, namely of policy-oriented and research-oriented organizations, on the Africa-EU Strategic Partnership and on the agenda of the Africa-EU Summits of Heads of State and Government. The panelists were the Coordinator of Strategic Studies of the Institute Marquês de Valle Flôr (IMVF); Head of the Programme Global Powers and Africa, South Africa Institute of International Affairs (SAIIA); Research Director of the Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA); Director of Casa África; Executive Secretary of the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA); and Ambassador and Secretary General of the Installer Council of the Academy of Sciences and Humanities of Cape Verde.

OSSREA was also visible on one of the book launch ceremonies – African Dynamics in a Multi-polar World. This book was published in 2013 by Brill and edited by Ulf Engel and

Manuel Joao Ramos, reflecting the theme of the ECAS 2013 conference. In this book Professor Paschal Mihyo, the Executive Director of OSSREA and Dr. Paulos, the Research Director have a chapter entitled ‘Doctoral Studies in sub-Saharan Africa and the Planned RESSESA Interventions’. During the launching ceremony the editors of the book appreciated the quality of the book chapter and OSSREA’s project to address the challenges of PhD education in sub-Saharan Africa.

OSSREA also donated 10 books from its recent and earlier publications to the Library of Instituto Univesitario de Lisbon (ISCTE –IUL).

The second workshop was the expert meeting of OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development)/ IHERD (Innovation, Higher Education, and Research for Development). The theme of the meeting was ‘Increasing evidence-based approaches in the design and implementation of innovation and research policy in developing countries’. The meeting was conducted on the 1st and 2nd July 2013, in Marseille, France.

The expert meeting was organized by OECD, in partnership with Sida and IRD, with the aim of taking stock on lessons learned on evidence-based approaches to policy making through IHERD research, with a special focus on effective governance and management of research and innovation at policy and institutional levels. 58 international experts including policy makers, managers of research institutes and academicians were present at the expert meeting.

In the meeting of the IHERD a series of thematic reports and country studies done in 2012-2013 were presented. The following were the main agenda of the expert meeting.

- Trends in public research and innovation funding - opportunities and challenges
- Centres of Excellence as a tool for capacity-building
- Modern Academy: Skills and knowledge requirements for managing research and innovation
- Trends in development assistance and policy implications

- Research universities and innovation for inclusive development

In the expert meeting, OSSREA was part of the team that wrote and presented the paper on ‘Centers of Excellence as a Tool for Capacity Building’.

Furthermore, in consultation with Ms. Asa Olsson, Policy Analyst (Innovation, development) at OECD, it discussed on the arrangements to conduct a similar workshop in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in September 2013. This expert meeting was organized by ‘OECD/IHERD and OSSREA. The theme of the workshop was ‘Implementing research and innovation policy at policy and institutional levels in Africa’.

OSSREA Mission Trips to Kampala, Uganda

Professor Mihyo had travelled to Kampala twice, firstly to meet the Uganda Chapter officials and members and to meet the Principal of the College of Social Sciences and Humanities at Makerere to discuss the issues of RESSESA and the Makerere Journal *Mawazo* which OSSREA supports. He also met the officials of the East African Legislative Assembly regarding the joint project being developed by EALA and OSSREA and also closed the OSSREA workshops that were running concurrently at Ridar Hotel in Kampala. Secondly, following consultations with the EALA he was invited by the EALA to join them at the Inter-Parliamentary Relations Seminar which took place in Kampala and was expected to approve the EALA Strategic Plan 2014-2018 in which the EALA -OSSREA project activities have been embedded.

Meetings were firstly held with Professor Kirumira, Principal of the Makerere University College of Social Science and Humanities which was also attended by the OSSREA Executive Committee and the Principal on the 30th June 2013. Three issues were discussed: the extension of the current MoU with Makerere which expires in December 2013; the re-organization of the editorial board of *Mawazo* Journal of Makerere University supported by

OSSREA and institutional membership of OSSREA for the College of Social Science and Humanities. Regarding the MoU it was agreed that the next one should be signed with the College of Social Sciences and Humanities which had direct links with OSSREA and has been designated the link faculty for OSSREA. It was further agreed that the MoU should cover more issues including institutional membership for Makerere, RESSESA and support for the Nile Basin Project and publications. Regarding institutional membership the possibility of institutional membership of OSSREA for the College was suggested and the principal agreed to table the issue to his board and respond. The *Mawazo* Journal was said to have lost members from the editorial board due to staff mobility and the College of Social Sciences and Humanities decided to suspend the activities of the journal until the board is reconstituted. Professor Kirumira agreed to re-constitute the editorial board in order to enable *Mawazo* to resume its activities.

Meeting of the Uganda OSSREA Chapter took place on the same day and was accompanied by the Principal of the College of Social Science and Humanities and the Executive Committee of the Uganda Chapter. After all protocols and introductions the following issues were raised and discussed:

- The Chapter members were appreciative of the support they got from OSSREA especially in the support for *Mawazo* and the book projects. They also expressed appreciation of the support for the academic forums which they said were helping them to enter into dialogue with policy makers especially about funding higher education and research;
- Members expressed regret that the University had decided to suspend the activities of *Mawazo* which they said had contributed immensely to capacity building and staff development in the last four years. They requested the College and OSSREA to expedite dialogue aimed at its immediate revival. The Principal agreed to address the issue in the next three months;

- The members suggested that the Chapter should be allowed to organize seminars and workshops on other campuses in order to reach out to the members who live far away from Kampala;
- The Chapter Executive Committee stated at the meeting that there was a *Mawazo* Issue of 2011 which has been already edited but could not be published because of the suspension of the activities of the journal and asked OSSREA to support the printing of this issue pending the reorganization of its editorial board. They were advised to get in touch with Dr. Paulos and Dr. Abiye;
- The Chapter resolved to ask the Principal of the College of Social Sciences and Humanities to be its patron and champion of OSSREA in Uganda to which Professor Kirumira agreed;
- It was finally agreed that the Executive Committee needed to be reconstituted and this would be done at the next meeting of the Chapter to be attended by Professor Herman Musahara, the EC member assigned to support the Uganda Chapter and a representative of the Secretariat. It was also agreed that the meeting would be held at the closure of the next Chapter workshop and that the costs of the meeting would be included in the workshop budget.

The Inter-Parliamentary Relations Seminar of the East African Legislative Assembly (EALA) takes place every year where the EALA organizes a joint meeting of the five parliaments of the East African Community (Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda). This time the House of Representatives of Zanzibar sent a delegation making the number of houses represented six. Each house sent about 50 delegates. Before the meeting of the six houses, the EALA was working towards the finalization of its strategic plan for 2014-2018. The EALA-OSSREA project was being finalized and it was aimed at OSSREA supporting EALA to enhance the capacity of the five parliaments to fast track the process of regional integration and it is part of the new EALA strategic plan. OSSREA was therefore invited to join the

EALA in the finalization of the project components of that plan and also to brief the five parliaments on the intended activities of the project. In that context Professor Mihyo attended the EALA meeting on its strategic plan and the inter-parliamentary seminar. Below is a brief of what transpired:

- Together with the EALA secretariat a brief was given to the EALA on the project objectives and details were given on intended activities: capacity development for staff of the five parliaments to enable them undertake policy research, package findings appropriately for MPs, develop data bases and manage parliamentary information systems (PIMS); undertake research on progress made on regional integration, challenges faced and the way out; organize workshops for MPs on how to fast track the integration process. The same brief was given to the inter-parliamentary seminar;
- The briefs were highly appreciated and MPs suggested that there should be a needs assessment before any activities were launched; national interests should be properly assessed and built into activities; the interests of the youth and women together with their worries should be taken into account and allocations in the budget should be made for each parliament instead of concentrating all the resources in the EALA Secretariat;
- The Secretariat and Professor Mihyo held a separate meeting with the Speaker of EALA and agreed that the project should not be finalized until the concerns of each parliament has been captured. It was agreed that both organizations should work together to build into the project all the issues raised and meet in the first week of July in Arusha or Addis Ababa and finalize the project;
- Once finalized key elements of the proposal will be added to the draft of the strategic plan of EALA which will be finalized before the end of the year. EALA will raise funds for the project as part of the strategic plan.

SAP Seminar Attended by OSSREA

Mr. Hassen Abeaw and Mr. Alemu Tesfaye attended a SAP conference at Capital Hotel in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia on 2nd July 2013. Fairfax technologies representative office of Addis Ababa and SAP organized and invited OSSREA to a one day seminar that introduces one of their financial software solutions called SAP Business One. The event highlighted financial management with SAP Business One, CRM with SAP Business One, Service Management with SAP Business One, Production Management with SAP Business One, Breakthrough in memory solution for SAP Business One (SAP Business One HANA).

The morning session covered a welcoming speech by the Managing Director of Fairfax Technologies, the impact of enterprise business performance and introducing SAP as a leader in ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning) by the head of SAP B1 East Africa. The afternoon session covered technical topics such as introducing SAP B1 for mid and small size companies by a SAPB1 expert for Africa.

The SAP B1 software is a comprehensive programme that can accommodate OSSREA's current and potential requirements. The bondage between the software developers and the support givers is so strong that continued support is guaranteed.

Recommendations for OSSREA

It was found that the SAP B1 software solution was a user friendly system that fulfils most of the requirements of OSSREA and during the discussion the organizers had indicated that an NGO based here in Addis Ababa University called Horn of Africa has already implemented this software. It was pointed out that the Institute of Peace and Security Studies is also under consultation to buy the software. It was also suggested that the local SAP partner Fairfax technologies showcase the software giving more time to NGO requirements in addition to the licensing and payment schemes to acquire the software. On the basis of the continued

discussion with Fairfax technologies, the OSSREA team felt it had information as to the software acquisition cost and the yearly maintenance service fee which can be shared with OSSREA's donors for possible funding.

Mission Report to Zimbabwe

Professor Mihyo went to Harare on the 21st of August 2013 to follow up on the RESSESA project proposal and the draft digest of AU instruments with the ACBF and also to close the RESSESA workshop that was going on during that period. Professor Mihyo managed to meet staff of the ACBF, Deans of various faculties at the University of Zimbabwe, the Vice Chancellor, the OSSREA Liaison Officer and participants of the RESSESA research methodology workshop.

Meeting on the Digest at the ACBF

Most of the people at the ABF were out on mission including Dr. Roger Atindehou and the Executive Secretary Dr. Frannie Léautier. Dr. Kobena Hanson who is coordinating the activities related to the Digest gave Professor Mihyo his own feedback on the draft. It was agreed that if OSSREA completed the final draft by the 15th of October 2013 there would be enough time for publishing the digest for distribution at the next AU Summit of Heads of State and Government in January 2014.

Meeting on the RESSESA Proposal

The meeting on the proposal was between Professor Mihyo and Ms. Nyawira Miano the Officer in Charge of Ethiopia and Dr. Beruk Negash the person in charge of AERC programmes. Professor Mihyo was asked to make a short presentation of the proposal after which he was asked a few questions for clarification.

Meeting with the Deans of Social Sciences and Humanities

The meeting was arranged by the Liaison Office Zimbabwe Chapter and brought together four Deans of social sciences and humanities. They were briefed on OSSREA and its activities and the RESSESA project. They expressed appreciation of the contribution OSSREA has made to staff development. They pointed out that 90 PhD students had undergone research methodology training and most of them were in the field. They also indicated that the programme of RESSESA began only in the faculty of social sciences and had now extended opportunities to almost all faculties including medicine. They underlined the fact that the University had a strong feeling of ownership of the RESSESA courses because before courses were run, the curriculum is scrutinized by the authorities and approved. The meeting ended with a proposal that OSSREA should develop a special Research School for Advanced Gender Studies, a Ph.D. programme on gender issues which the University of Zimbabwe would host. It was agreed that after a new government is formed in Zimbabwe, the university and OSSREA should approach the government and parliament and discuss the possibilities of the government supporting the initial processes with some seed money and mobilizing other governments especially in SADC to chip in.

Meeting with the Vice Chancellor University of Zimbabwe

The VC, the patron of the Chapter and the Chairman of the Senate and the Higher Degrees Committee was briefed on OSSREA activities in general and RESSESA activities in particular. Professor Mihyo was also briefed on the current RESSESA programme at the university which he said had helped over 90 students who were stuck for lack of training on methodology. The VC indicated that most of the universities in Zimbabwe were not strong on Ph.D. training and therefore depended on his university for support which is why they had opened up the RESSESA courses to students from other universities. The VC agreed to close the RESSESA workshop on behalf of the university and OSSREA and issue the certificates. The proposal on a regional PhD programme on gender studies which could be hosted by his university was discussed and it was agreed that a draft concept note would be sent to the VC

and then he would liaise with the OSSREA Liaison Officer and make all arrangements for the Secretariat to present the note to the government.

Discussion with RESSESA Trainees

Professor Mihyo visited the site where the RMT was taking place. There were 33 or so participants the majority of whom were from the University of Zimbabwe and they were introduced to OSSREA and the RESSESA programme and asked for feedback on the course.

From the discussion it was clear:

- The participants found the course very useful as it was based on mixed methods of research;
- Students from natural sciences (medicine and geology) found the course even more useful because they said during their Masters' course they were not given rigorous methodology training;
- Students from other universities were grateful to the University of Zimbabwe and OSSREA for giving them an opportunity to participate;
- All students expressed worry that in the absence of research grants to support their field work, they would take too long before applying the knowledge they had acquired.

Professor Mihyo returned to Addis Ababa on 24th August, 2013.

Report on the Mission to Kenya and Tanzania

Visit to the East African Legislative Assembly (EALA) in Arusha

Professor Mihyo arrived in Arusha in the afternoon on the 26th August 2013 and spent the following morning attending the session of EALA for familiarization and was introduced to the EALA by the Speaker. After that a Memorandum of Agreement was signed between OSSREA and EALA. This agreement follows the finalization of the EALA- OSSREA Project Proposal on 'Capacity Building for Fast Tracking Regional Integration in the East African Community' (EAC). The proposal will be submitted to possible donors by the EALA and EAC. In the MoU EALA undertakes to work with OSSREA in the following areas:

- Joint research on regional integration in the five EAC countries;
- Make OSSREA the first organization of call on issues related to the project;
- To allow OSSREA access to its facilities and premises for purposes of implementing the project;
- To support OSSREA to access resources of the EAC in general as regards regional integration processes;

On the other hand OSSREA undertakes to:

- Support EALA to adopt best practices in performing its oversight roles;
- Support capacity building for the parliaments of the EAC countries to strengthen their oversight roles;
- Train the secretariat of the five parliaments and EALA itself on research methods, policy analysis, writing briefs etc;
- Write briefs and digest on treaties, protocols and other instruments of regional integration for friendly use by members of parliament in EAC parliaments;
- Support the development of the East African Inter-Parliamentary Institute

The project is expected to start in 2014 after funding has been obtained by EALA.

Consultations with Universities

Professor Mihyo also visited two new universities in order to ascertain their accreditation status and get insights into their programmes. They were: Tumaini University and Moshi Cooperative University from which OSSREA has been receiving applications for RMT and GMT courses. It was reported that Tumaini University is fairly established and has strong graduate programmes but no PhD programme and Moshi Cooperative University is still very new with a good Masters' programme but no PhD programme. Both can benefit from general RMT and GMT courses but not those meant for supervisors.

Closing the RMT and GMT Workshops in Nairobi

Professor Mihyo arrived in Nairobi on the 28th of August 2013 in the evening and on the 29th visited the UNHABITAT to consult colleagues there on the draft concept paper sent to them earlier on 'Research and Capacity Building for Increased Urban Productivity and Inclusive Development'. On the 30th a closing ceremony for the RMT and GMT was held and he returned on the 31st August 2013.



Refresher Research Methodology Training Workshop for PhD Trainers and Supervisors 2013



Gender Mainstreaming Training workshop in Nairobi 2013

OSSREA Employee Graduates from CPU College



Mrs. Fetlework Chalew, an employee of the Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA), graduated from the CPU College in August 2013. Ms. Fetlework graduated with a Diploma specializing in Office Administration and Secretarial Technology after following a 4 year programme in the evenings. All members of the OSSREA staff congratulate her on her success and wish her all the best.

FEATURE ARTICLES

Revision of Consumer Price Index Basket in Zimbabwe

Chikoko Laurine Tawedzerwa Ngundu[♦] and
Kennedy Kupeta[♣]*

Abstract

The Zimbabwe Statistical Agency (ZIMSTAT) introduced a revised Consumer Price Index (CPI) basket, effective January 2013. Periodic revisions of the expenditure weights are necessary so that the CPI reflects price changes of current spending patterns. The latest 2012 revision of CPI basket shows an increase in weight of basic items such as food and non-alcoholic beverages, education, housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, health, clothing and footwear divisions of the CPI. The depressed disposable incomes have led to consumers reverting to the 'basic' basket. Communication division, however, increased in weight, owing to the impact of technology on the consumers. As the Consumer Price Index is used for many purposes, and affects various policies, it is important to maintain the public credibility on inflation statistics through improving its timeliness, relevance and accuracy. In this regard, the CPI basket should be frequently updated. Thus, the relatively long time of about 11 years taken before revising the CPI basket in Zimbabwe in the face of clear changing expenditures, is not welcome and may have contributed to a larger extent to criticisms about the credibility of inflation figures in the country.

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Introduction

The Zimbabwe Statistical Agency (ZIMSTAT) introduced a revised Consumer Price Index (CPI) basket, effective January 2013. ZIMSTAT updated expenditure weights based on the Poverty Consumption and Expenditure Surveys (PICES) of 2012. The CPI is an important economic indicator as it is used for inflation, cost of living, indexation of pension among other things. Therefore, periodic revisions of the expenditure weights are necessary so that the CPI reflects price changes of the current spending patterns. Consumption patterns can change over time as a result of changes in prices, demographic changes in population, income, tastes and habits.

In a fixed-weight index such as the CPI, the quantity of any item used in calculating the index remains the same each month. When the index is revised, the quantity weights change to reflect changes in consumption that have taken place over time.

This article provides the rationale for the frequency updating of the weights; choice of reference period to review the CPI basket weights; the data sources used to compile the weights and details of the different weight types; the causes of the changes in CPI basket; the evolution of the CPI basket in Zimbabwe since 1960; and detailed analysis of the main changes of the 2011/2012 CPI basket to the 2001 basket. The detailed new CPI basket is appended at the end of the article.

This article does not attempt to bring to the fore definitional issues, that is, refinement in how certain items in the CPI are now defined and measured.

Rationale for Updating the CPI Weights

Recognised international best practice calls for revision of expenditure weights at least once every five years, and more frequently if there is high inflation or evidence of rapid changes in consumption patterns. A combination of lack of resources and a highly unstable economic

environment, delayed the revision of the Zimbabwe CPI basket, with the last review done in 2001.

Short-run

In the short run, consumers will change consumption patterns in response to changes in relative prices, mostly between products included in the same class or sub-class. That is, despite a fixed basket, the relative importance of a sub-category may go up or down as a result of changes in relative prices.

Relative Importance

The expenditure weight of an item in the CPI is derived from the consumption, income and expenditure survey. The CPI is a type of the Laspeyres fixed-weight index. The Laspeyres index is given by;

$$I_{t,0} = \frac{\sum_i p_{ti} q_{0i}}{\sum_i p_{0i} q_{0i}} \times 100$$

where: $I_{t,0}$ is the index;

t is the comparison period for which a new index number is to be calculated;

0 is the reference period;

p_{ti} is the price of item i in the comparison period t ;

p_{0i} is the price of item i in the base period ; and

q_{0i} is the quantity consumed of item i in the base period.

The Laspeyres index indicates the cost of buying base year quantities at current year prices, compared with the base year costs. It requires quantities measured for only one period - the base year. The major strength of the method is that by using the same base period, it allows for direct comparison of indices. Thus, it allows for weighting the price relatives by expenditures.

The weighting is equivalent to weighting price levels by constant quantity weights. When the CPI is revised, the quantity weights change to reflect the changes in consumption that have taken place over time. Between revisions, however, prices for different items can change in relation to one another. This differential price movement results in changes to the relative importance (RI) of items in the index (Mason and Butler, 1987). The relative importance is defined as the share of that base-period expenditure multiplied by the price relative for a particular item stratum is the sum of all base-period expenditures multiplied by their price relatives that is:

$$RI_i = \frac{E_{0i} \left(\frac{P_{ti}}{P_{oi}} \right)}{\sum E_{0i} \left(\frac{P_{ti}}{P_{oi}} \right)} \times 100$$

where: RI_i is the Relative Importance;

E_{0i} is the base-period expenditure; and

p_{ti} , p_{oi} , q_{oi} are as defined above.

Items whose prices rise faster than average become relatively more important. For example, from December 2001 to December 2011, the average international oil prices, increased from US\$23 per bbl to US\$87.04 per bbl, reflecting the increase in relative importance of oil. When new expenditure weights are introduced in a revision of the CPI, the changes in

relative importance result from the revised quantities implicit in the new expenditure levels (Mason and Butler 1987).

However, the quantification of the relative importance of items in the 2011/12 CPI basket is difficult as the country switched from Zimbabwean dollar to United States Dollar in 2009. The switchover therefore makes it difficult to directly compare prices of commodities.

Long-run

Over longer time periods, consumption patterns are also influenced by factors other than price changes. Most importantly, changes in the level and distribution of household income will cause a shift in demand for goods and services towards goods and services with higher income elasticities.

Demographic factors such as ageing of the population, and technological changes, such as the increase in the use of computers, are examples of other factors that affect spending behaviour in the longer run. The revision of the CPI basket allows new products to be introduced and existing ones may be modified or become obsolete. A fixed basket is unresponsive to all these changes.

As a result of both relative price changes and long-term effects, the weights may become out of date and less representative of current consumption patterns. The longer the period a fixed basket index is used the greater is the probability of biasedness of the weights and the less representative is the basket. In Zimbabwe, the weights have been in use for a long time, making it desirable to use the weights of a more recent period to ensure that the index is weighting appropriately the price changes currently faced by consumers.

In addition, the periodic revision of the CPI provides an opportunity to modify the structure of the aggregate index by combining some detailed indexes into a single-item stratum; developing separate indexes for items that had previously been combined with others; and pricing and adding new items.

Changes of this nature are based on an examination of the expenditure data and are made in an effort to keep the CPI coverage current and to spread price collection over the optimal mix of items in order to minimize the sampling error of the all-items CPI.

Further, the revision of the CPI basket also facilitates the introduction of definitional modifications to the way certain item strata expenditure weights are computed. Some computational or definitional changes are made so that the expenditure weights are definitionally consistent with the way a particular item stratum can be most effectively priced.

Regional Economic Integration Initiatives

Regional economic integration initiatives have also resulted in the harmonisation of the collection and compilation of economic statistics. In this regard, some CPI basket reviews have been necessitated by the developments at Southern African Development Community (SADC) and Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) levels. Since 2011, SADC and COMESA have been producing harmonised inflation, triggering efforts to align and harmonised CPI related statistics across the countries (COMESA 2012 and SADC 2001).

CPI Weights Reference Period

The CPI basket weights reference period which is the time period covered by the expenditure statistics used to derive the CPI weights. The choice of this period is critical (ILO, 2004).

The year chosen should have economic conditions that can be considered to be reasonably normal or stable. In some instances, data for a single year may not be adequate either because of unusual economic conditions or because the sample is not large enough. In such a scenario, an average of several years of expenditure data may then be used to calculate the weights (ILO 2004).

Critically, the period chosen to derive the weights should be long enough to cover seasonal cycles (ILO 2004).

Data Sources for Compiling CPI Weights

Household Consumption, Income and Expenditure Surveys (CIES)

The household CIES is a source of data for several key economic and social statistics that include poverty, income levels, expenditure patterns and informal sector. Primarily, however, the CIES enables the derivation of CPI basket weights to be used for the calculation of inflation.

In Zimbabwe, a variant of CIES survey known as Poverty Consumption and Expenditure Surveys (PICES) is carried out by ZIMSTAT. Collection and processing of the data by the statistical agency on consumers' expenditure patterns covers the whole year. Weights are then computed using the PICES survey data.

The Consumer Price Index is a measure of the average change in the price paid by consumers for a fixed market basket of goods and services. The composition and relative weight of each component of the CPI basket is derived from estimates of expenditures from consumer expenditure surveys. In Zimbabwe, the weights were derived from the Poverty Consumption and Expenditure Surveys (PICES) of 2011/2.

Some countries prefer to use expenditure weights that are the average rates of expenditure over periods of two or three years in order to reduce "noise" caused by errors of estimation or erratic consumer behaviour over short periods of time.

The expenditure data are tabulated using a hierarchical system. Each item included within the index belongs to a CPI class. The CPI class comprises a group of similar or related goods or services items.

For the purposes of international comparison, the classification scheme of goods and services should, to the extent practical, be in line with the United Nations Classification of Individual

Consumption according to Purpose (COICOP). Using COICOP as an example, the classifications have the following hierarchical structure:

- Divisions: the 12 main groups of households' consumption expenditures;
- Groups: there are 47 of these in COICOP; and
- Classes: sub-divisions of the groups; there are around 120 classes.

The classes are further split into sub-classes which include the lowest level categories. The lowest level of the CPI basket is the individual goods and services for which prices are actually collected.

Upper-level indices are formed by weighting together lower-level indices through progressive levels of aggregation, as defined by the classification structure. These weights remain fixed for a period of say, five years between index re-weighting.

Other sources of data for CPI Basket

National Accounts

Despite, differences in the scope and definition of consumption between the national accounts and the CPI, national accounts data on consumption can be used to come up with weights for CPI Basket. The UK revises its CPI basket every year using weights from the national accounts data.

Retail sales data

Statistics on retail sales by region and type of outlet may be available for broad groups of items and these can be used to update CPI weights. The most single draw back of this method is that some of the sales may be to groups outside the reference population, perhaps to the business sector or to the government (Bailey 2012). The corresponding purchases do not form part of household private consumption.

Scanner data

Due to improved technology, some countries have started to use statistics obtained from cash register data to derive CPI weights. These statistics are based on electronic data records that are stored as scanner data in the databases of sellers. Such scanner data sets include the quantities sold and the corresponding value aggregates.

Population Censuses

Population censuses provide statistics on the geographical distribution of the population and households, as well as on the regional differences in household size and composition. Combined with estimates of regional levels of household expenditure, these statistics can be used to estimate expenditure weights for CPI.

Many developing countries, Zimbabwe included, have however, relied heavily on a variant of consumption, income and expenditure household surveys to come up with the CPI weights. Other sources of data have been used as complementary and supplementary sources of data.

Evolution of the CPI Basket in Zimbabwe

The study of the evolution of the CPI basket allows for the disentangling of the long term trends in the expenditure patterns over time. There are several typical long term trends that have been observed in several studies regarding expenditure patterns and trends. The proportion of food in the CPI has been observed to decline with increases in income, (Mason and Butler 1987). Thus, as will be shown below countries with higher incomes tend to have lower proportion of expenditure towards food. The recent trend has also witnessed an increase of expenditures toward information communication technology (ICT) products.

The Zimbabwe CPI basket evolved significantly since 1960, when CPI was measured only for the European community. The CPI basket for the African community was only introduced

in 1965. The baskets, however, related only to urban population in Harare, Bulawayo, Gweru and Mutare.

The two baskets were different in terms of weight allocations as well as the items covered. The European community basket had an extra sub-group, servants' wages. In addition, the African community basket had transport sub-group while the same sub-group was recorded as vehicle expenses under the European community.

Table 1 below shows the comparison between the African and European Communities CPI baskets in 1965.

Table 1.A Comparison of the European and African CPI Basket: 1965

	CPI basket European :1960=100			CPI basket African: 1965=100		
	Salisbury	Bulawayo	Smaller towns		Salisbury/ Bulawayo	Umtali/Gwelo
Foodstuffs	243	253	245	Foodstuffs	536	580
Drink and tobacco	56	53	53	Drink and tobacco	42	42
Clothing and footwear	69	77	85	Clothing and footwear	83	100
Rent and Rates	200	182	161	Rent, fuel and light Household durables & stores	196	138
Fuel and Light Household stores	39	33	40	Transport	43	45
Servants wages vehicle expenses	55	53	53	Personal care and health	51	37
Miscellaneous	112	124	140	Miscellaneous	7	9
Total	171	171	168		42	49
	1000	1000	1000		1000	1000

SOURCE: Central Statistical office, Zimbabwe Quarterly Digest of Statistics,1973

*The baskets relate to urban population only

*Miscellaneous category included education.

The above table depicts significant differences in the composition of weights. The CPI basket for the African race was heavily inclined towards foodstuffs, accounting for more than 50%. Another dominant sub-category for the African Community was rent, fuel and light, accounting for an average of 15%.

In contrast, in the European society, the food subcategory accounted for just below a quarter of the total basket. Other notable sub-categories for the European community included rent and rates, 20%; vehicle expenses, 13%; and miscellaneous, 17%. The miscellaneous subcategory was mainly driven by education expenditures. The miscellaneous subcategory for African race was only 4%, as a result of negligible education expenditures.

The urban African basket was further revised in 1970 for Harare and Bulawayo and 1973 for Gweru and Mutare. The following table shows the CPI basket for the African community for 1970 and 1973.

Table 2. CPI Basket for the African Race: 1970-1973

Lower Urban Income Group	Salisbury	Bulawayo	Gwelo	Umtali
	1970	1970	1973	1973
Foodstuffs	49.6	51.1	55.2	54.9
Drink and tobacco	5.1	6.5	5.3	4.4
Clothing and footwear	8.2	10.3	8	7.9
Rent, fuel and light	16.8	15.1	18.1	17.8
Household durables and stores	4.4	4.7	4	4.7
Transport	7.3	4.5	3.8	4.1
Personal care and health	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.4
Miscellaneous	7	6.2	3.9	4.8
Total	100	100	100	100

SOURCE: Central Statistical office, Zimbabwe Quarterly Digest of Statistics, 1973

Table above shows that the proportion of the CPI basket in relation to foodstuffs had declined slightly across all towns by around 5%. The CPI baskets for both the European and African communities were revised in 1978. The following table shows the 1978 CPI weights for both races.

Table 3. A Comparison of the European and African CPI Basket: 1965

CPI Basket for Urban Europeans: 1978		CPI Basket for Urban African: 1978	
Foodstuffs	20.5	Foodstuffs	54.9
Drink and tobacco	5.4	Drink and tobacco	5.4
Clothing and footwear	7.2	Clothing and footwear	6.6
Rent and Rates	19.8	Rent, fuel and light	18.4
Fuel and Light	2.9	Household durables	4.6
Household stores	7.1	and stores	4.7
Servants wages	6.1	Transport	5.4
vehicle expenses	11.7	Miscellaneous	
Miscellaneous	19.3		
Total	100		100

SOURCE: Central Statistical office, Zimbabwe Quarterly Digest of Statistics, 1980

In the revised African CPI basket of 1978, the personal care and health, category was removed.

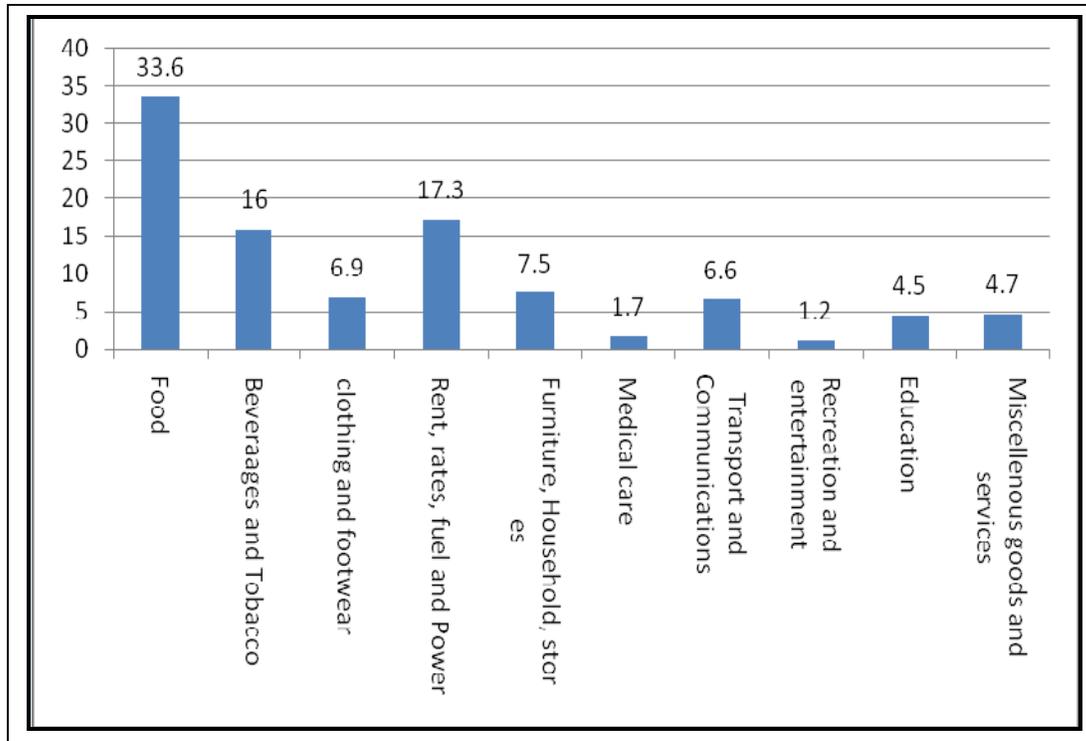
The CPI basket was amalgamated into one in 1990. The new CPI basket became a national basket covering both the urban and rural communities. The following table shows the national CPI basket for 1990 and the separate baskets for Africans and Europeans in 1980.

Table 4. A Comparison of the 1990 National Basket and European and African CPI Basket 1980 Baskets

	New CPI weights National (1990)	Old Lower Urban Income 1980	Old Urban Higher income 1980
Food	29.2	54.9	20.5
Beverages and Tobacco	9.9	5.4	5.4
clothing and footwear	9.8	5.7	7.1
Rent, rates, fuel and Power	18.7	18	22.7
Furniture, Household, furnishings, utensils and operations	7.2	5.8	7.7
Medical care	2.8	0.6	4.5
Transport and Communications	8.4	4.7	14.1
Recreation and entertainment	2	0.4	5.4
Education	7.6	1.9	2.6
Miscellaneous goods and services	4.4	2.6	10
Total	100	100	100

SOURCE: Central Statistical office, Zimbabwe Quarterly Digest of Statistics, 1992

The combined new CPI basket for 1990 shows a weight for food, 29.2%; rent, rates, fuel and power, 18.7%; beverages and tobacco, 9.9% and clothing and footwear, 9.8%. The national CPI basket weights were further revised in 1996 and the Figure 1 below shows the 1996 CPI weights.



1996 CPI Basket

SOURCE: Central Statistical office, Zimbabwe Quarterly Digest of Statistics, 1992

The above graph shows marked increases in CPI basket weights for food, beverages and tobacco and medical care from 1990 compared to 1996. Food weight increased from 29.2% in 1990 to 33.6% in 1996, whilst beverages and tobacco rose from 9.9% to 16% for the same period.

Transport and communication, clothing and footwear, rent, rates, fuel and power, medical care, recorded notable declines in weights between 1990 and 1996. The reclassification of some sub-categories in 2001 basket makes a direct comparison difficult. The 2001 basket was designed using the United Nations Classification of Individual Consumption according to Purpose (COICOP), thus had 12 divisions, implying 2 additional divisions from the 1996 basket.

Detailed Comparison of The 2001 And 2011/12 CPI Baskets

This section details the main changes in weights between the 2001 and the 2011/12 CPI baskets. The national CPI basket weights were revised in 2013 based on PICES survey of 2011/12. Table 5 below shows a detailed comparison of the 2001 and 2012 CPI basket.

Table 5. Comparison of the 2001 and 2012 CPI basket Weights

Description	2001	2011/12	Difference
Food & Non Alcoholic Beverages	31.93	33.56	1.62
Beverages and Tobacco	4.91	4.38	-0.52
Clothing and Footwear	5.71	6.05	0.34
Housing, water, electricity, gas & other fuels	16.23	17.74	1.51
Furniture and equipment	15.11	9.91	-5.20
Health	1.31	2.16	0.85
Transport	9.77	9.75	-0.01
Communication	0.99	3.41	2.42
Recreation and entertainment	5.75	2.10	-3.64
Education	2.85	5.67	2.82
Restaurants and Hotels	1.52	1.38	-0.14
Miscellaneous goods and services	3.94	3.89	-0.05
Total	100	100	100

SOURCE: PICES 2011/12 Survey

The above table shows that education, communication, food and non alcoholic beverages, housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, health, clothing and footwear increased in weight from 2001 to 2012. Major divisions that fell in weight included furniture and equipment, recreation and entertainment and beverages and tobacco.

Education

Education's CPI weight increased by 2.82 percentage points from 2.85 in 2001 to 5.67 in 2011/12. The education sub-group is largely dominated by pre-primary and primary education which contributes a large weight in this sub-group of 5.33. The increase in education sub-group weight was driven mainly by the inclusion of pre primary education. Pre-primary education has increased due to the compulsory introduction of Early Childhood Learning Development Concept in the country.

Pre-school education is mainly run by private institutions and most of them are very expensive. Despite the huge proportion taken by pre-school education from most of the consumers' budgets, more and more parents are, however, sending children to pre-schools as they realize the importance of these early childhood learning centres on their children's future education.

Communication

Communication sub-group weight increased significantly to 3.41 in 2012, from 0.99 in 2001. This is a clear shift in expenditure patterns, due to a general surge in the use of the mobile and telephone services by the public. Internet use has also increased greatly over this time period. Reflecting the wide use of mobile phones, Zimbabwe's tele-density has increased to around 90% in 2012, from below 20% in 2001.

Food and Non Alcoholic Beverages

Signalling deteriorating incomes over the period under review, the food and non alcoholic beverages subcategory weight increased from 31.93% in 2001 to 33.56% in 2011/12. With depressed incomes households have reverted to purchasing the basic consumer basket dominated by food, rent and transport. The main mover in this sub-category was the bread and cereals class, increasing from 8.5652 in 2001 to 11.38 in 2011/12.

Housing, Water, Electricity, Gas and Other Fuels

The housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels sub-group's weight increased by 1.51 percentage points, from 16.23% in 2001 to 17.74% in 2011/2012. A closer analysis of this sub-category shows that all the major classes such as rent, rates and electricity recorded increased, with the exception maintenance and repair which suffered a decline.

Rent, rates and electricity tariffs have been on an increase since the introduction of the multicurrency system. Thus, this sub-sector expenditure has been on a rise on the basis of price and not quantity.

Health

Under the new CPI basket the health subcategory increased by less than one percent. This is despite the fact that medical services are generally expensive to most of the consumers. Most of the firms in the private sector and the public sector have compulsory medical aid schemes which cushion the workers from spending a large portion of their incomes on health care.

Furnishing, Household Equipment and Routine Maintenance

Furnishing, household equipment and routine maintenance weight declined significantly to 9.91 in 2011/12 from 15.11 in 2001. The reduction in the furnishing, household equipment and routine maintenance sub-group can be attributed to a decrease in disposable incomes, thus curtailing purchases of non durable household goods. Most consumers spend their incomes on food, rent, rates, fuel and power. The 2011/12 consumer basket is therefore merely reflecting the changing consumer expenditure patterns.

Recreation and Entertainment

The weight on the recreation and entertainment sub-group decreased by 3.64 percentage points from 5.75% in 2001 to 2.11% in 2011/2012. In terms of contribution to the overall basket recreation and entertainment accounts for a small proportion of the consumer's

expenditures as most households prioritize basic commodities. Recreation and entertainment are usually ranked last on the list.

Beverages and Tobacco

Beverages and tobacco sub-category's weight reduced by 0.52 percent points, reflecting changes on consumption patterns away from tobacco and alcohol. Beverages and tobacco spending has been affected by deteriorating incomes.

Regional Comparative Analysis of CPI Baskets

Table 6 below compares Zimbabwe's CPI basket weights to the regional CPI baskets for different SADC countries.

Table 6. Regional CPI Baskets.

SADC Country CPI Baskets Weights (%)									
Sub- category	Zimbabwe	Botswana	Angola	South Africa	Lesotho	Tanzania	Mozambique	Swaziland	Zambia
Food and non alcoholic beverages	33.56	25.53	44	15.7	38	47.8	55.48	24.5	53.5
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	4.38	13.49	2.7	5.6	1.2	3.3	2.21	0.7	1.5
Clothing and footwear	6.05	5.84	6.5	4.1	17	6.7	4.65	10.9	8.1
Housing, water, electricity, gas, and other fuels	17.74	12.2	12.5	22.6	11	9.2	12.63	15.9	11.4
Furniture, household equip. and maintenance	9.91	2.58	6.0	5.9	9.4	6.7	5.27	5.8	8.2
Health	2.16	5.14	3.4	18.8	1.9	0.9	2.94	8.6	0.8
Transport	9.75	3.87	7.9	3.2	8.5	9.5	7.91	4.6	5.8
Communication	3.41	5.7	3.3	1.5	1.2	2.1	1.72	1.7	1.3
Recreation and culture	2.10	19.73	2.2	4.2	2.4	1.3	2.64	8.2	1.4
Education	5.67	1.55	2.5	2.2	2.7	1.7	1.26	4.4	2.7
Restaurants and hotels	1.38	3.78	3.0	2.8	0.7	6.4	1.97	6	0.3
Miscellaneous goods and services	3.89	0.66	6.0	13.6	5.8	4.5	1.32	0.7	5.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

*Malawi has not been included since its weights are not designed through COICOP

Anecdotal evidence on the CPI basket weights for SADC countries shows that most countries spend significantly on food items. Mozambique, Zambia, Tanzania, Angola, Lesotho and Zimbabwe contributions of food to the CPI are 55.48%, 53.5%, 47.8%, 43.95%, 38% and 31.9%, respectively. Malawi also has 58.1% food weight contribution to the CPI.

Housing, water, electricity, gas, and other fuels sub-category is the second most important CPI category in the SADC region. Its contribution ranges from as low as 11% in Lesotho to as high as 22.56% in South Africa.

Other CPI sub-categories weights are fairly small and evenly distributed in most countries. Health sub-category which averages about 3% of the CPI basket in most SADC countries, however, account for 18% in South Africa.

A cursory analysis of the above cross country data shows that the proportion of the CPI food category falls with increases in income. Countries with higher incomes tend to have lower proportion of food in the CPI basket.

Table 7 below shows the food CPI weights against country per- capita incomes.

Table 7. Selected SADC country per capita incomes and CPI food weights

SADC Country CPI Baskets Weights (%)									
Sub- category	Zimbabwe	Botswana	Angola	South Africa	Lesotho	Tanzania	Mozambique	Swaziland	Zambia
2011 GDP per capita Income (US\$)	376	13 049	4 874	9 469	1 664	1 328	898	4 484	1 254
Food Proportion as a percentage to national CPI basket.	33.56	25.53	44	15.7	38	47.8	55.48	24.5	53.5

SOURCE: IMF, African Department and World Economic Outlook databases, and World Bank World Development Indicators, 2009

Comparison with the United States

Zimbabwe has been using the United States Dollar as a principal currency, since the introduction of the multicurrency in 2009. It is, therefore, imperative to make a comparison between the US and Zimbabwe CPI baskets.

Table 8 shows the comparison between US and Zimbabwe CPI baskets for selected sub-groups. A direct comparison of all sub-groups is difficult as the two countries use different classification systems.

Table 8. A comparison between Zimbabwe and US CPI weights for selected sub-groups

Category	Zimbabwe	US
Food	33.56	14.18
Shelter	7.2	31.39
Energy	10.52	10.18
Apparel	6.05	3.70
Medical services	2.16	5.39

SOURCE: US Bureau of labour statistics and Zimstats, 2013

The US CPI basket is dominated by housing (31%), whilst the Zimbabwean CPI basket is largely dominated by food (34%). In Zimbabwe housing only accounts for 7.2% of the total basket. These contrasting differences reflect the different consumer spending habits in both countries. In addition, the differences also highlight the different national income levels between the two countries.

CONCLUSION

The Zimbabwean economy has experienced a series of different economic phases (both booms and recessions) since 1970, making it difficult to ascertain the impact of economic development on long term trends in the CPI basket.

Small changes in weights have very little effect upon overall CPI. If all prices move in the same way, weights would not matter. The greater the variation in price behaviour between products, the greater the role of weights in measuring aggregate price change.

As the Consumer Price Index is used for many purposes, and affects various policies, it is important to maintain the public credibility on the statistics through improving the timeliness, relevance and accuracy. In this regard, the CPI basket should be frequently updated.

The relatively long time of about 11 years taken before revising the CPI basket in Zimbabwe in the face of clear changing expenditures is not welcome and may have contributed to a larger extent to criticisms about the credibility of inflation figures in the country.

In this regard, ZIMSTAT is implored to publish inflation figures using the old weights as well as new weights for at least a period of six (6) months to allow the general public to evaluate the degree of biasedness that might have been induced by the delay in the review of CPI weights.

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The Need to Apply Geographic Knowledge in Implementing Rural Development and Poverty Reduction Programmes in Developing Countries: The Nigerian Example.

*Raymond Ekam Matiki**

Abstract

Although rural development and poverty reduction programs are designed to address inequalities that result from spatial disparities and bad governance, geographic knowledge has not been applied for solutions to these challenges in developing countries. Designed to increase income earning ability of rural dwellers, diversity rural economic activities, and improve living standard, these programs utilize agriculture as a “process” that has failed to achieve the objectives over the years. This paper posits that since geographic knowledge is effective at providing solutions to spatial problems, it should be applied to achieve objectives of rural development, and poverty reduction programs in developing countries.

Key words: Geographic knowledge, poverty, rural development.

Introduction

Rural development is usually defined as a “process” aimed at improving the living standard of low income population resident in rural areas and making the “process” self sustaining (Lele 1975,4; World Bank 1975,10; Olatunbosun 1976,12; Lacroix 1985,3; Koinyan 1987,13. The failure of rural development programs to raise rural incomes is responsible for the change to poverty reduction programs. Low incomes (poverty) of rural farmers in developing countries is a problem that community development projects of the 1950’s, and integrated

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rural development programs that followed failed to raise through agricultural production “process”.

Why did the World Bank, and donor agencies abandoned rural development programs for poverty reduction programmes, when rural development programs aim at raising the income earning ability of rural farmers? Is the “process” of poverty reduction different from that of rural development? Why did the “process” of rural development fail to raise incomes of rural residents, and how can the same “process” now reduce poverty in these countries?

The failure of these programs to achieve the intended objectives is due to the fact that policy makers in these countries including the World Bank, and other donor agencies are yet to accept the fact that agricultural output cannot be increased and sustained in developing countries because of their dominant rural landscapes. These countries have rural populations of about 60%, or more, and urban populations of about 40% or less. These small urban populations cannot stimulate agricultural production in their rural areas. Similarly, industrial commercialization cannot be achieved in their few urban centres. Worst still, these countries have a primate city system that allows their capital cities to grow very large to hinder the growth of other centres. Thus, with a dominant rural landscape, there can be no functional relationship between rural and urban centres to stimulate agricultural and industrial production for the reduction of hunger and poverty. By ignoring these important facts, these countries concentrate their rural development effort on “agricultural production process” that cannot stimulate and sustain increased agricultural and industrial production for the reduction of hunger and poverty. Thus, the problem of rural development, and poverty reduction in developing countries was not clearly identified before the introduction of these programmes. On the change from integrated rural development programmes to poverty reduction programmes, Ajakaiye and Olomaola (1999, 11), stated thus:

All effort aimed at promoting rural development, infrastructural development, and equitable resources distribution which used to be described as accelerated development programs, and the like, are now covered under a common phraseology known as poverty alleviation.

The Misconception about Rural Development

Our concern is to look for what made people take rural development “process”, for agricultural production. In an effort to define rural development and integrated rural development “process”, Lacroix (1985,2-3:), stated that:

Rural development by definition is oriented towards benefiting primarily the poor. Hence, in a narrow interpretation, rural development is agricultural development among the poor segments of rural population. The fundamental distinction between pure agriculture and rural development is the emphasis on the physical capital development for the former, and human capital development for the latter... The concept of integrated rural development is often considered vague, particularly in academic literature either because the philosophy is considered unclear, or because the concept is considered confused to serve as a practical strategic tool. Field experience shows that the practical application of the concept is less vague than is often considered to be. Most practitioners use the term integrated as describing the fact that this type of rural development project tries

to integrate a number of otherwise unrelated components each of them addressing one aspect of rural development. It is generally agreed that the various components can be subdivided into three main categories:

1. The component related to agriculture –agricultural extension, credit supply, input supply, etc.
2. The component related to social services- education, health services, etc.
3. The component related to infrastructural supply – rural roads, potable water, rural electricity supply, etc.

Many scholars share the view that since agriculture is a major economic activity for rural dwellers, it should be utilized as a “process” of rural development among the poor segments of rural population. In support of this view, Olatunbosun (1976, 15), stated thus:

Rural development aims at reducing the disparity in income, and rectifying other inequalities and disabilities which are harsh realities for the majority of the population in African countries. Since 80% of African population is engaged in agriculture, and allied activities all in the rural areas, it therefore means that the agricultural sector shall provide the base for rural development.

From the above, we know that agricultural production is misconceived as the “process” of rural development, while integrated rural development process is seen as the integration of a number of unrelated components with agricultural production process. But, we know that rural development “process” or poverty reduction “process” cannot be agricultural development. It is our conviction that rural development implies a spatial organization “process” of the rural landscape so as to generate functional relationships between rural and urban centres of the country. We still need to examine other aspects of the problem to know exactly how the mistake was made.

Rural Development and Integrated Rural Development Programs in Nigeria

Based on these wrong definitions that made agriculture the “process” of rural development, agricultural development projects were mistaken for rural development programs. In Nigeria these projects include-the Ibarapa and Uboma rural development projects, the Isoya rural development project by the Obafemi Awolowo University; the Otta and Bodeku pilot projects of the University of Ibadan. Others include the rural change projects by Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and the Okpiye rural development projects of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. The list include farm settlement schemes in eastern and western Nigeria, farm institutes in northern Nigeria, and school leavers’ projects in Mid western Nigeria (Olatunbosun 1976,18).

According to Idode (1989,92) “Farm settlement schemes in eastern and western Nigeria had farm villages with oil palm, citrus, and other tree plantations. The villages were provided with primary schools, health centres, post offices, portable water, rural electricity, feeder

roads, etc". Farm settlements in Nigeria were like the Ujaama Village programme in Tanzania in the 1970s because these villages suffered the problem of poor rural market systems, with low producer prices to farmers, farm settlers abandoned these farm villages for urban jobs. Other integrated rural development programmes in Nigeria, include the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), the Green Revolution, the Accelerated Development Areas (ADA)'s, and the Agricultural Development Projects (ADP)s, The ADPs pilot projects at Funtua, Gusua, Lafia and Ayangba were provided with feeder roads, the supply of bore holes for potable water, farm inputs, credit supply, farm service centres, and earth dams for irrigation.

Idachaba, (1980,6) criticized the ADPs for not being integrated enough because they had no processing and marketing facilities, including social infrastructure like rural electrification, health and education facilities, among others. He provided an analytic model for rural development programme that contained almost all the sectors of the national economy like rural housing, rural industry, health, education, technology and rural industrialization, social mobilization, political process, etc.

More Integrated Programs

Influenced by Idachaba's 1980 model, Babangida's administration in 1986 established the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) with the following components: Food and agriculture, rural infrastructure development, rural health, rural education and manpower development, engineering services, rural industrialization and technology development, natural resources development, grass root sports, socio-cultural and recreational activities, grassroots political development, community and social mobilization, performance monitoring and evaluation (Koiyan 1987,10). This rural development programme was truly integrated since it attempted to include all the sectors of the national economy.

Although Babangida's administration also established the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) to create jobs for unemployed youths in the country, it was not considered as a rural development programme. The Better Life for Rural Women Programme

(BLP) established by the first lady, the late Mariam Babangida in 1987 also had many rural development components like DFRRI (Ekanem 1993). The execution of DFRRI, and BLP programmes at the federal level down to the rural villages, led to increased production of food crops as well as local craft materials for the first few years. But that increase was not sustained because the rural landscape of Nigeria cannot generate functional relationship with a few urban centres in the country to achieve the rural development objectives before the ex-president stepped aside in 1993. These programs were abandoned by Abacha's administration, except for the National Directorate of Employment (NDE).

Although Abacha's regime had no rural development programme, it adopted programmes of the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) established by the ex-first Lady Mrs. Marym Abacha (Cross River 1996,11), laid the foundation for Obasanjo's National Poverty Eradication Programmes (NAPEP). Although Obasanjo's administration had no rural development programme, it also allowed NDE to continue. But his administration incorporated some components of the NDE like food and agriculture, qualitative education, primary health, social service, water resources development, rural communication, etc., as schemes of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)(Aliyo 2001,5-7).

To fast track the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals MDGs on the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, Obasanjo's administration also established the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), States Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS), and the Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS) to achieve these goals (National Planning Commission (2004).

Okon and Bassey(2010,87)stated that LEEDS had no agro-base, nor small scale industrial programs that could absolve the teeming unemployed youths in the rural areas of Akwa Ibom State. They stated that since LEEDS lacked specific programmes and strategies that could increase rural incomes, or create wealth in rural areas, poverty had been increasing since 2004. Poverty they noted varied from a low of 27 percent in a few local government

areas (LGAs), to about 90 percent in many other thirty- one (31) LGAs in the state. Because of this, they concluded that since LEEDS is the grassroots programme of NEEDS these programmes (that have not yet been effectively implemented anywhere in the country) cannot reduce poverty. The intensification of poverty in the country at the moment affects all states of the country in various degrees depending on the dominance of their rural landscapes.

The Failure of Similar Programs in other African Countries

In his African Rural Development Study ARDS Lele (1975, 4) classified rural development programmes in the continent into commodity, functional, regional and miscellaneous programmes. Some of these were the Kenya Tea Development Authority (KTDA), the Sukuma Land Cotton Development Programme in Mali, and the Chilalo Agricultural Development Unit (CADU) in Ethiopia. Others include Lilongwe Land Development Programme (LLDP) in Malawi, Kenya Special Rural Development Programme (SRDP), and the Ujaama village programme in Tanzania. He stated that there were increases in crop production in all these programmes, but that the major problem was the marketing system for crops. With very low producer prices, and the inability of farmers to sell their crops at times, farmers were unable to pay credit, and buy inputs regularly to sustain increase in crop production. The failure of these rural (agricultural) development programmes made Lele (1975,2) to state thus:

What explains the very limited impact of past rural development programmes on low income rural population of Africa? Why despite great variety of approaches tried by donor agencies and national governments, and despite a great amount of experience generated by this effort, has the problem of rural poverty remained acute? If future rural development programmes are to have lasting and positive impact in rural Africa, and rural world in general, what lessons has this experience to offer to the specification of target groups, and the sequencing and phasing of activities and institutions?

The specification of target groups, sequencing and phasing of activities and institutions are some of the aspects and, or concepts that make the implementation of integrated rural development programs vague, unclear, and confused for any practical purpose. Why specify target groups in pilot projects out of the total population of poor rural farmers of the country in an agricultural production process? Why should government's sequence, and or phase agricultural production activities, and institutions among poor rural farmers of the country, and hope to sustain increase in agricultural production to reduce hunger and poverty in the country? This piecemeal execution of agricultural production projects, termed pilot rural development projects can never sustain increase in agricultural production in developing countries. The misconception about rural development as "agricultural production process" (Matiki 2010,48) is responsible for these vague, unclear and confused concepts that consider agricultural extension service, credit and input supply, etc, as agricultural incentives rather than price incentives that stimulate increased crop production by farmers. Certainly, we can say that increased agricultural production can only come from the functional relationship between urban and rural areas in an organized spatial structure. Although the ADPs pilot projects suffered serious criticism before becoming nation-wide in 1985, they still failed to sustain increase in agricultural production because Nigeria like other African (developing) countries is dominantly rural with few viable urban centres that cannot stimulate increase in crop production.

According to Johnson (1976, 114), "The dendritic market system does not stimulate or impel producers to put forth their best effort. The local markets, the only ones in which producers can in any way participate, are the capillary extremities of market structures, calculated to pay the least for agricultural produce, and charge the most for payment goods". This makes rural dwellers to produce little, suffer hunger and to remain under the absolute poverty line. Rural development and poverty reduction programs base on agricultural production "process" instead of spatial organization "process", will always lead to failure because the rural landscape cannot generate functional relationship with itself to stimulate increase agricultural production. Again, terms used in poverty reduction programs like-

“empowerment, access to justice, equitable access to markets, access to freedom of choice, community participation, organizational capacity, among others (Narayan 2005)”, like those of rural development are vague, unclear, and can easily confuse political leaders in developing countries who have little, or no time, to find out what they mean, before implementing these programmes.

The Application of Geographic Knowledge in Rural Development and Poverty Eradication Programmes in Developing Countries

It is the thesis of this paper that spatial organization of the rural landscapes of developing countries into hierarchies of central places is the best rural development “process”. Building hierarchies of central places in a rural landscape develops it into a rural-urban continuum that makes it easy for farmers to increase production and sell their crops directly to urban dwellers for high incomes that can drastically reduce their hunger and poverty. This view is in line with that of many scholars.

Mabogunje (1980,13) stated that rural development is concerned with the improvement of the living standards of low income population living in rural areas on a self-sustaining basis through the transformation of the socio-spatial structure of their productive activities. He noted that spatial re-organization involves the rearrangement of all spatial elements in the rural areas so as to improve the physical access of farmer to resources. He added that the implication of the strategy for urbanization cannot be devoid from that of rural development.

Hewes (1974,87) stated that the objective of integrated rural development is the evolvement of a well rounded rural-urban continuum, adding that rural development must by no means signify that development as sectoral. He suggested that an alternative, but awkward term of rural development might be the urbanization of the rurality for inter-dependence of urban and rural functions.

Taylor (1975, 309) stated that rural development is urban development, and pointed out that the dichotomy between rural development and urban development is a false one.

Criticizing the application of the growth pole theory in regional planning in developing countries, Misra (1972,147) stated that because these countries have no hierarchy of central places, there can be no trickle down (spread effect) of development from urban centres to rural villages in developing countries as in developed countries. He pointed out that the “trickle-down process” or “spread effects” is halted if a particular hierarchy of growth centres is missing in the settlement hierarchy. He recommended a four-tier settlement hierarchy for India, which other developing countries can also utilize to speed and sustain development in their counties.

Adalemo (1990) stated that settlements play a key role in rural development, and added that urban centres create the demand for cash and food crops that commercialize agricultural production in rural areas, while the demand for industrial goods by rural farmers also stimulate industrial commercialization in urban centres. He noted that urban centres also provide non-farm production activities for professionals like teachers, technicians, tailors, bricklayers, mechanics, etc, that can enhance the effort of job creation for poverty reduction in these countries.

Matiki (2008, 457) stated that rural development is national development, and opined that the dichotomy between rural development and national development hinders both the planning and implementation of national or rural development programs. He formulated a model for rural or national development with five components, and stressed that the spatial organization component of the model is the most important component of rural or national development since it creates hierarchies of central places for agrarian and industrial commercialization.

Matiki (2010,48) stated that the misconception about rural development as agricultural development “process” is responsible for the intensification of rural problems in developing countries. Instead of developing the rural landscape into a rural-urban continuum that can

commercialize agricultural or industrial production, these countries embark on agricultural development programmes with the hope that these can lead to increased agricultural production in rural areas for the reduction of hunger and poverty.

The views of Hewes (1974) Taylor (1975) Misra (1972) Adalemo (1990), Matiki (2008, 2010), and many other scholars are based on the application of Christaller's central place theory that can be applied to develop the rural areas of developing countries for agricultural and industrial commercialization to reduce their poverty and hunger.

Writing extensively on how the application of the central place theory aided development in developed countries, Johnson (1976, 18) stated that, "The key to economic development of countries and regions is normally to be found in the historical relationship between town and county, and that agrarian, and industrial commercialization depend on a network of conveniently located central places where efficient exchange of goods and services can occur". He observed this feature in developed countries including Britain, United State of America, Belgium and Japan among others. He stated that England had about 760 market centres in 1500 that transformed agricultural production in the country side. For Belgium, Johnson (1976, 42) stated:

As the Belgian landscape became dotted with active and flourishing towns, the agrarian hinterlands became progressively commercialized. New opportunities for nimble-fingered young people opened up in the town-centred textile industries, and by reason of their economic and social attraction, the market towns grew, while the castle communities and many of the old ecclesiastical centres mouldered, or disappeared.

Thus, it appears certain that the British Colonial masters understood the effectiveness of a hierarchy of central places in stimulating agrarian commercialization before colonizing Nigeria in 1900. In his letter to the colonial Secretary, Governor Egerton (1905, see Ofonagoro 1979, 193) stated thus:

The fact that the palm kernel of southern Nigeria is not exported has frequently been pointed out. The export is however increasing rapidly, and that increase will be **hastened** by the extensive clearing of water ways now going on, the construction of good roads to the interior, the multiplication of inland stations where European officers are stationed; and this is the most important – **the establishment of centres** in the interior by European merchants for the purchase of produce direct from producers.

For the effective implementation of their strategy, the colonial masters established administrative and trade centres all over the country. With the Roads and Creeks Proclamation of 1903 (Ofonagoro 1979,195) they made use of the natives to clear the creeks, and rivers for inland water transportation; and the construction of roads and railway lines into the interior for the evacuation of export commodities to ships at the coast. This stimulated increased agricultural production that put Nigeria at the lead in the production of some crops. The emphasis on the establishment of trade centres by Egerton (1905) shows the importance of spatial organization as a ‘process’ of rural development. Nigeria was dominantly rural at that time. More than five (500) hundred produce buying stations (trade centres) were established all over the country where European merchants bought export products direct from producers that gave high incomes to farmers. With effective agricultural policies through the Marketing Boards, the colonial masters were able to commercialize export crops production in Nigeria. High incomes from export crops kept rural farmers above the poverty line. These gave them the ability to embark on self-help community development projects like community schools, health centres, town halls. etc, that speeded economic development. This truly confirms what Johnson (1976, 75) wrote thus:

The character of the resulting spatial design is of critical importance in the study of economic development. Just as a happy conjuncture of the right soil, the right rainfall, the right temperature and the right amount of sunshine can produce grapes that yield a vintage wine; the proper spatial organization of the landscape can provide incentives that will induce the people to do their very best to maximize the productive capacity of an economic region...For genuine development cannot possibly be disassociated from geography; investment, if it is to be fruitful, must be made at growth points “and industrialization will have little ameliorative

effect unless low-cost marketing can widen demand. Each critical measure of development is influenced by spatial factors; hence it is the underdeveloped countries that stand in the most urgent need of central place studies and careful spatial analysis.

Statistical data available indicate that by 1960 when there was increased production of export crops with the right spatial structure, “the poverty level in Nigeria covered about 15% of the population. In 1980 it grew to 28.0%. In 1985 the poverty level was 46.0%, and by 1996 the federal office of statistics estimated the poverty level of Nigeria at about 66% (see Aliyu 2001,2; Tamuno 2007,52). Subair (2012,1) stated that the rising poverty level in Nigeria had hit 71.5% with over 100 million people living on less than one dollar a day.

Rural Dominance and the Intensification of Poverty in Nigeria

After independence, Nigerian governments through the marketing boards pursued a negative price policy that brought producer prices very low. This discouraged farmers from increasing export crops production. The decline in export crops production led to the pull-out of trading firms from trade centres. This also led to the decline of many trade centres including the inland water ways transport network, and later the railway transport system. Nigeria now has few viable urban centres (mainly state capitals), and a few local government headquarters, and these have allowed the middle men to bridge the gap between these few urban centres, and the numerous rural villages. These middlemen pay very low producer prices that discourage farmers from increased agricultural production. With low production, even farmers and their families suffer extreme hunger in addition to poverty despite many rural development programs that have been executed over the years. The change to poverty eradication programs with the same agricultural production “process” cannot provide anything better than past rural development programmes. Rather than increase in agricultural production, there has been decline, and stagnation over the years, despite a variety of agricultural production projects misconceived as rural development and poverty reduction programmes.

Because of low agricultural production that cannot feed the increasing population, Nigeria's annual food import bill is now in billions of dollars. Hunger appears to be a greater problem facing Nigerians than poverty. If farmers can feed themselves, their poverty will be greatly reduced. Writing about the hard times that Nigerians had been going through since the establishment of NAPEP, Fiakpa (2002, 33) stated thus:

But two years on, some Nigerians are now beginning to think if the draconian dictatorship of late General Sani Abacha was not better than what was on the ground at the moment... Samples of some product prices collected by the magazine tend to suggest that the inflation rate may really have gone quite high. A bag of rice (chef-rice or cap-rice) which sold for N2500 early in the year now sells for N3000. A 12.5 kg bag of beans now sells for N700 as against N500 a couple of months ago. The rise in the price of garri adjudged as poor man's food is much frightening. The kerosene tin measurement which used to sell for just N240, now goes for as much as N1000- some 317 per cent increase. A carton of fish (shawa), which recently sold for N500, now sells for N1800. And this rising trend of food stuff prices cut across other food items such as yams, plantain, maize, and many more prompting the government to contemplate the importation of beans from Burkina Faso recently.

At the moment a bag of rice cost from N11, 000 to N13, 000. Quoting Dauda (2009), Onakoya (2010, 5) stated that 'the food situation in the country is not in tedium with the MDGs target of reducing the population of hungry Nigerians in the next five years. There is high level of hunger and poverty as over 70 percent of the population live on less than N100 (\$0.7) daily'. He noted that by 1960 Nigerian agriculture had a good foundation geared toward the export of cash crops, and food crops were produced without food import. Manuaka (2010, 6) wondered why Nigeria with all the resources, and a favourable climate remains a net importer of foodstuff. He pointed out that the country's food imports were estimated at \$6 billion or N900 billion annually, which at 2010 exchange rate amounted to about N9 trillion. But that within the same period, only N605 billion had been allocated to the agricultural sub sector in the past ten years budgets. With this, he wondered if Nigeria can achieve food security, and reduce poverty by 2015. According to Oziri (2013, 13) "Nigeria

spends about \$500 million on fish importation yearly". Thus, Nigeria is now a net importer of all kinds of food items.

Although the NDE has over the years trained several thousand youths in vocational skills like auto-mechanics, electronic maintenance, welding, foundry, plumbing works, carpentry and joinery, leather work, photography, bakery, hair dressing, barbing, metal fabrication, etc, these non-farm activities have not sustained job creation in the country. In the mega city of Lagos these nonfarm production activities try to compete with products of big companies, while in the rural villages they suffer from little demand for their products and services. As a result, many NDE trained youths have left their trades for farming so that they can feed themselves and their families, while many are underemployed or unemployed. Stressing the importance of non-farm activities in speeding up the change from rural-agricultural to urban-industrial economies, Anderson and Leiserson (1976, 241), stated thus:

Non-farm activities become increasingly concentrated in rural towns in response to infrastructure improvements, and the growth of markets. Besides being of benefit to the activities themselves, this process appears to stimulate a degree of decentralization of urban growth, providing added employment, and earning opportunities for out-migrants from agriculture as agricultural productivity rises. Non-farm activities in rural areas and towns are thus an essential element in the process of economic development and structural change from rural – agricultural to urban-- industrial economies.

Although the colonial spatial organization process achieved rural development objectives, it has not been considered as a rural development programme by Nigerian policy makers till today. The decline of export crops production, and the subsequent decline of colonial trade centres, reverted that economic landscape of the country close to its pre-colonial rural landscape. Although NDE programmes have been implemented by all the administrations from ex-president Babangida to this day, it has failed to solve the unemployment problem of Nigeria to reduce poverty and hunger in Nigeria. In his Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA), President Jonathan's administration is planning to implement a National Integrated

Policy on Rural Development NPRD. This too will fail along with youth empowerment programmes, if a spatial organization component to create a rural-urban continuum for agricultural and industrial commercialization is not included.

Because of ineffective programs that failed to create growth centres in the country, poverty and hunger have been escalating since the 1980s, Subair (2012,8) showed that the north-west, and the north-east zones of the country have the highest poverty rates of 77.7% and 76.3% respectively, while the south-west zone has the lowest poverty rate of 59%. Sokoto State, the least urbanized in the north-west zone has the highest poverty rate of 86.4%. Hence, the problem becomes clear to us. The south-west zone, the most urbanized zone in Nigeria (Mabogunje 1968, 114), has the lowest poverty rate, while the north-west and the north-east zones, the least urbanized have the highest poverty level. This revelation provides a good reason for the application of geographical knowledge to create hierarchies of central places in developing countries to develop their rural areas for increased agricultural production for the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger.

CONCLUSION

Rural development, and or poverty reduction programmes are designed to solve the challenges of low rural incomes (poverty), low agricultural production (hunger), and poor living standards in rural areas, that result from the non-functional rural landscape of developing countries. Thus, the rural landscape, and the other challenges - low agricultural production, low rural incomes etc, are like two sides of a coin. The application of agricultural production “process” in rural development with the aim of developing the rural areas is like trying to use a symptom of the challenge to deal with other symptoms for a solution to the challenge. In this case, the real problem (the rural landscape) that is responsible for the challenges is allowed to continue to intensify these challenges. This is just what traditional rural development programmes have been contributing to intensifying these (symptoms) challenges in these countries. But the spatial organization process develops the rural

landscape (the real challenge) into a hierarchy of central places that generate a functional relationship between urban and rural areas for agricultural and industrial commercialization that provide solutions to the challenges of poverty, hunger and poor living standards in the rural areas. For these reasons, the application of geographic knowledge in rural development, and poverty reduction is the best strategy to achieve rural development objectives in developing countries.

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Traditional Gender Roles in Energy Conservation in Madagascar: Focus on Gender Mainstreaming Politics in the Fokontany of Amboniriana

*Elyette Nirina RAJAOFERA**

Abstract

Biomass, physical and thermic energies represent high sources of economic development if their production is sustainable. As they are renewable, their conservation is a priority and so far there has hardly been any research on the subject on Madagascar, whose decision-makers have signed CEDAW and the MDG international commitments to explore women empowerment. Thus, gender equality and equity would be visible in the energy-related services and policies. However, researches and surveys undertaken in this particular field in the Fokontany of Amboniriana seem to confirm that the notion of “sameness” pervades instead. In fact, unrepaired micro-hydroelectric equipment, the waste of energy it entails, women’s heavy and unpaid labour at home and their inaccessibility to clean fuel resources result from confused traditional gender roles which can be obstacles or possibly stepping-stones to gender mainstreaming policies. Answering the survey questions and conversations has triggered public gender awareness and willingness to voice gender needs to investors.

Keywords: Madagascar, gender, energy, conservation, Fokontany

Introduction

The present work focuses on the study of the traditional gender roles in Madagascar and their links to the conservation of energy be it mental, physical or combustible. The term energy refers to the Greek word “energeia,” meaning activity or operation. Its broader meaning is “power” which might have inspired Mr Betiana Bruno, the Malagasy Minister of Energy and Mines in 1995, when he quoted in his foreword of the first issue of the periodical on Energy

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and Mines that the term means: “force en action¹” which we have tried to translate as “driving strength.” This active force enables the human faculties to be productive in different basic activities which take place in the environment itself, being a capital of renewable energy sources. If exploited, well-managed, and protected, the latter ensures a sustainable capital of development for its users. Actually, Madagascar disposes of a 7,800 MW hydroelectric potential, of which only 110 MW are exploited, i.e. 1.5 % of total capacity.²” The micro hydroelectric plant of Amboniriana is part of this percentage but national energy policies rely upon foreign investors to propose their projects regarding hydroelectricity and its technologies. Once implemented, their maintenance is too costly for the beneficiaries who use the energy services per family and for collective purposes. The collaboration between the fund providers and the service recipients enables the sustainability of the existing electric energy, which does not last long.

As for physical energy sources, Malagasy women in towns or in rural areas do household chores along with their jobs if any, in addition to child care, reproductive roles and academic activities. In the Malagasy language, energy has two meanings: first, “angovo,” a translation of the word in the last quarter of the 20th century after the adoption of the “malgachisation” policy, which consists in using only the Malagasy terms for teaching, even for scientific subjects. Prior to this event, a Malagasy proverb, “Ny vola fitady, ny herim-po fanary,” refers to the second meaning of energy with the word “herim-po.” It means that money is to be sought after whereas heart vigor is conceived to be discarded. Literally, “herim-po” means force of the heart. In a Malagasy context, whenever a physical effort is produced, it is linked to the production of energy. The fruit of one’s efforts means also the price of one’s sweat, so this results from the heart beatings’ vigor. This heart force can also be used to evaluate the surface of land or rice fields. It is used as a representative unity of measure, for example, this rice field is “ketsan’olona valo” meaning the rice field has the size of eight women’s workforce when transplanting young plants of rice. And this gives the listener an estimated dimension of the land in his/her mind. Apart from carrying out field work, Malagasy

traditions have assigned to women the female tasks of cooking, collecting the firewood, fetching water and care-giving. She gets no pay but if a helper is engaged, she gets a salary. The energy used for these duties cannot be measured quantitatively but the social or kinship position of the persons who perform these activities regulates their gender roles according to ancestral norms. A father who is expected to cook his lunch spares his energy by delegating the responsibility to a niece or a sister or a mother first, then only to a male relative. Thus, traditional gender roles are rooted in male and female minds and they vary with the contexts and circumstances which may hinder innovative policies for sex-based interests and needs.

Nature of the Problem about Energy Conservation and Gender

Accessibility to electricity grids is very limited in rural areas so country people use kerosene lamps, candles, firewood, and LED bulbs for lighting. Men are responsible for the energy sources when repairing stoves and cutting firewood. Women's acceptance of this situation retards their openness to reforms. This is the very case of the micro-hydroelectric plant of Amboniriana which has been operational for almost three years but which is now not functioning due to problems of maintenance and lack of adequate technicians in the Fokontany. This administrative district has also benefitted the settlement with water faucets for drinkable water. Christophe Maillard de la Morandais, the inventor of the magnet equipped pico-turbine firstly used in Madagascar,³ had worked out the first electrification system of the village. This helped the users to promote and to conserve the hydroelectric energy and to avoid the time-consuming and physical energy spent for water collecting. But gender needs were not considered prior to the project because even if the women in Amboniriana could use their sewing machines with the tax-free electricity, men could charge cell phones and batteries, and people could watch TV and listen to the radio, the economic activities however were limited due to the low power of electricity provided. Thus, to conserve energy sources, how do villagers make themselves heard by the state and decision makers, not globally as groups nor individually as citizens but specifically as male and female potential users, conservators and promoters of their energy infrastructures?

Traditional gender roles reflect the differences in energy consumption and energy saving. So, to what extent can gender mainstreaming policy correct the waste and raise gender awareness instead? How does gender mainstreaming policy bring about gender responsive attitudes that claim voiced gender needs from the investors' "projects" and from the state's legal support?

Methodology

We used interviews, surveys, and questionnaires to collect the data. Observations and conversation exchanges have helped us draw the interpretations. Then, from literature documents and field work, we evaluated statistical figures to support our findings. The Mayor of the Commune of Andriambilany which also includes Amboniriana is an active member of Gender links; this fact facilitated the verification of gender sensitiveness indicators in the working areas. We have adopted the hypothetical-inductive thoughts path to draw our conclusion concerning the nexus of traditional gender roles and energy conservation. As for the limits of this research, time constraint and the lack of regular transportation to the place have prevented access to the remotest villages beyond the Fokontany. This missed opportunity could have provided more information for a comparative approach. This research is only a glance at the issues linked to energy preservation and gender.

Literature Review

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

Recorded in the dictionary of etymology, the scientific use of energy dates back to 1807 and the energy crisis was first attested in 1970.⁴ Thus, the world consumption of energy since the industrial era until the late 20th century has faced conservation and provisions issues. This phenomenon seems to coincide with Sarah Fee's perceptions on gender in Madagascar when she declared that since the year 1985, anthropology on women has been transformed into gender studies and the conception of gender has replaced "woman" as an object of study. She explained the reasons as follows: "The causes are easily identified if one considers the

transformations anthropology has gone through during the 1970's. In fact, the praxis theory has induced the rejection of Western universal collective representation. Instead, local and contextual categories are favored.⁵ (Fee 2000) Her views confirm Moore's assertions on gender studies to be defined as « the analysis of the interrelations between men and women along with gender roles in order to structure human societies, their histories, their ideologies, their economic systems and political institutions⁶» (Moore 1988).

Starting from these points of view we realize the introduction of gender dimensions in the field of development should be sustainable in order to reduce poverty and enable productivity for human survival. The actors of this mentioned development can be efficient or fail according to their gender roles henceforth. This vision leads us to the monitoring of gender-mainstreaming policy application in the domain of energy conservation as far as the Fokontany of Amboniriana is concerned. There is no adequate translation of Fokontany in English, but it can possibly refer to district village. It represents the smallest administrative division in the territory of Madagascar and if a development project is to operate in a local area, the bureaucratic papers must be sealed by the Chief of the Fokontany, to make it legal. Initially, it represented the concept of "home" uniting different families who have exchanged would-be married daughters, in other words, givers and recipients of marriageable children. The enlarged families resulting from kinship constituted ethnics whose "home" was dedicated for meetings, rejoicing or funeral events as a collective, each family was free to act as its members pleased. From this point of view are born the concepts of "tokantrano" (home) in the highlands, "tranobe" in coastal regions and "tranompokonolona" (the big house for ethnic or tribal population), the current place for gatherings. The Malagasy anthropologist L.P Randriamarolaza stated that this big collective house implies "autonomy," meaning there is no dependence on parents any more in the social and material fields (Randriamarolaza 1986, 23 – 24, 17 - 34).⁷ He confirms that "men and ethnics or tribes are treated equally concerning fines and conventions which regulate communities, but men and ethnics have the rights to be different from one another. And he cites the famous expression in Malagasy: 'tsy

sahala fa mitovy,' which means 'not the same but equal' in English, though he translates it as 'different but equal.'

This expression implies the notion of sameness, meaning in the Malagasy context the opposite of to be different from one another, that is to be like everyone. And this has become a social reference in all domains either social, economic, cultural, or gender neutral roles. A spectator or an actor of development is expected to behave according to the "same" roles, meaning like everyone, not compelled to be gender sensitive. Actually Malagasy traditional gender roles are gender-negative and gender neutral as the kinship, the patriarchal principles interfere in societal relations. For the sake of a family's pride to have the sons graduate and get high social status, daughters do the chores and cook the meals and do the laundry work. Thus the male children bear in mind that this is the norm built by society, inherited from ancestors.

As a result, the responsibility for household energy provision affects women's health disproportionality to men's (for example, higher levels of lung and eye diseases due to the long hours of exposure to smoke particularly in smoky kitchens when experienced by women compared to men. Girls are then kept away from schools because their time for studying is reduced. However, climate change and the present economic crisis have upset this superiority of the male position at home level. Even if the media keeps broadcasting the advocacy of gender equality, any male villager has his own attitude to save his physical energy by imposing his personal perceptions: "Women and men have different perceptions about the benefits of energy, men see the benefits of electricity in terms of leisure, quality of life, and education for their children, while women see electricity as providing the means for reducing their workload, improving health, and reducing expenditure (quoted in Barnett 2000)⁸.

So, genderless perceptions may dictate one's personal behaviour and may develop a self-centred interest that may prevent gender empowerment which is the equality and equity of both male and female citizens instead of considering only their "same-ness." This lack of

gender awareness perceptions inserts different variables which can be identified in the gendergram. The individual who remains in the traditional contexts of her or his family tries to comply with the kinship's or peer groups' values, but not to the societal gender norms. For example, a boy feels a certain amount of gender pride to join the maintenance team for the hydroelectric plant whereas his gender dynamic will lessen if he is asked to grind rice in a mortar in order to allow his sister to review her lessons for an exam. The two examples cited refer to two types of energy conservation.

In reality, every actor of development has in mind different associated perceptions attached to traditional gender-related events that have constructed his/her social context about the behaviour to be adopted concerning gender sensitiveness. In order to meet CEDAW and MDG requirements to empower women, the individuals' concepts cited above should change and the trend of thought should deviate towards innovations: a reconstruction of reality perceptions becomes a priority starting from the state's policy and transferred to the grassroots. The following theory seems to justify this tie between an individual's social context and his or her possible openness to replace or add and adopt new perceptions in his/her mentality. "Social constructionism emphasizes the mutually agreed-upon meanings of a particular group and their roles in shaping individual constructions."(Berger and Lackmann 1966)⁹ Once they are gender aware, villagers and focus groups receive capacity building, training and sensitization on how to protect and ensure the maintenance of micro hydroelectric equipment and they apply the learned techniques according to their gender needs.

As for the application of biomass energy conservation, such as improved charcoal stoves, reducing the daily frequency of cooking, sharing the chores equitably at home, etc. Dewski has stated that information is a valuable resource and knowledge is power which can empower both male and female conservators of energy¹⁰. Their attitudes toward gender-responsiveness concerning energy conservation is like the learners' behaviour which implies the willingness to accept the information and knowledge provided¹¹. Yet, this is fruitless if

the decision-makers and the investors are not involved. So, instead of being passive and showing an overdose of “patience,” as is the case of Madagascar which is named the country of slow processes, the would-be gender aware, gender sensitive and gender responsive villagers of Amboniriana should voice their gender needs, mainly the practical ones and the strategy needs in addition to that of Maslow’s.

If the theories and concepts above are considered and taken into account, a gender mainstreaming policy can be effective. Uganda’s National Gender mainstreaming policy definition seems to best enable the efficiency of the gender concept in Madagascar. It reads “Gender mainstreaming is a ‘conscious approach of an organization to take into account gender equality concerns in all policy, programmes, administrative and financial activities as well as organizational structures and procedures. It is based on a political decision to work towards gender-equality in the respective society. It involves applying a variety of measures, providing resources (financial, human, time, information) and ensuring a process of learning and transformation.” (Cecelsky and Segendo 2011)¹²

This concept represents a driving force to transform the traditional gender roles for energy conservation into tools for women empowerment. It is at the level of this consciousness approach that the gender roles regarding energy conservation are manifest first in the hydroelectric power’s beneficiaries and second in the legal text of should-be-gender-sensitive project of the donors. If gender sensitiveness is missing in both stockholders’ perceptions, the hypothesis of behaviour change should take place as it is recommended in the definition of Gender mainstreaming in Uganda. The wished change would be operational after the acceptance of a Gender mainstreaming policy, which should be adapted to the context of Amboniriana as the decision-making should start from the identified physiological needs of the villagers.

For this purpose, as they represent convinced or systematic applicants of traditional roles in energy management and conservation, their willingness to change could be effective

according to different variables. If the independent variable is gender, the dependent variables can be age, or the level of instruction. For example, gender sensitiveness, awareness, and responsiveness will vary according to age, if the theory of Piaget is applied to work out any integration of a new concept. The constructivist approach allows each person to use his inherent capacity so that he/she can comprehend his surrounding reality. He can willingly try to feel a balance with his sphere. He constructs his own reality but this may lead her or him astray if he lacks capacity building and material information.

(Schcolnik and Abarnel 2006)¹³ agree to overcome this concept by stating that “knowledge under constructivism” is not seen as a commodity to be transferred from expert to learner, but rather as a construct to be pieced together through an active process of involvement and interaction with the environment. The content of knowledge and capacity building should focus on energy management and conservation techniques or means, related to a gender mainstreaming policy and defend women’s interests. They should be able to plan and to speak up for their needs, which involve some training in the capacity for negotiation. When armed with adequate information which is a source of knowledge, thus power, women can be empowered and will not let go of their opportunity to give up their genderless traditional roles. The legal reality of this phenomenon or wished condition will probably affect men’s visions of reality and will also change their attitude. Continuous variables such as intelligence quota and illiteracy can be removed if constructivism is grafted on traditional gender practices uprooted by consciousness approach.

Concerning this conscious approach to overcome genderless consciousness, and sameness cited earlier, Randriamarolaza mentions J. Rafaralahy’s¹⁴ definition of the Fokonolona, occupants of the Fokontany, as “communautés de dépassement” or obstacle-overtaking communities. This is probably the reason why the project leader of CICAPE¹⁵ and CEAS¹⁶ addresses directly the Chief of the Fokontany of Amboniriana who welcomes the hydroelectric power exploitation. Social closure is not part of his education; the communicative approach meets the initiators of the project instead. The theory of

communicative approach may be adopted and is predictable to be efficient if innovative thinking and practices are introduced and transferred to respond to the grassroots' gendered voiced needs for the protection, maintenance, improvement and conservation of their material and physical energies. "It is a new theory of paradigm of emotional life and psychoanalysis that is centered on human adaptations to emotionally-charged events with full appreciation that such adaptations take place both within awareness (consciously) and outside of awareness (unconsciously). This theory developed by Robert Langs in the early 1970's would make possible the efficiency of gendered empowerment since the bridging of the gap has caused a silence of the energy conservation needs

Data Presentation and Analysis

1. Location of the Fokontany of Amboniriana

1.1. Location

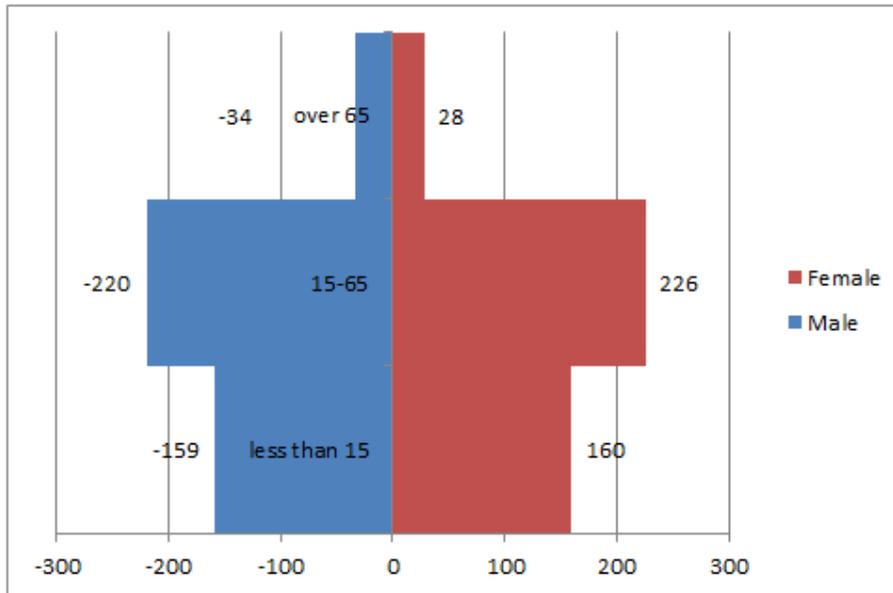
The Fokontany of Amboniriana is located on the National Road n°7, 58 kms from the capital city of Antananarivo, to the South, and 9 kms before Ambatolampy. It belongs to the commune of Andriambilany. It is named after the dam of Amboniriana where the river Imamba flows.

1.2. Inhabitants of the Fokontany

Table 1. Classification per age and gender

Age	0 - 1	2 - 4	5 - 9	10 - 14	15 - 19	20 - 24	25 - 64	+ 65
Male	18	31	62	48	42	42	136	34
Female	21	25	58	56	52	33	141	28

Census 2010 – 2011, (SOURCE: office of the Fokontany of Amboniriana)²



Graph 1. Fokontany Amboniriana, Population Pyramid; established from data census 2010-2011

Figures in Table 1 and corresponding Graph 1 indicate a more or less balanced sex ratio (413 male/ 414 female) for the Fokontany of Amboniriana. The population related to it shows a narrow base, referring to a rather slow population growth and a large proportion of working people (age 15 to 65). According to our survey, the inactive female actors of development are non-operational toward energy conservation: 136 women stay in the Fokontany, ignorant of how to repair water faucets and hydroelectric mechanic problems. As they stay in the village when their husbands are away, they are the ones who hold the key and the faculty to transform their living standards and so they represent a dormant potential.

1. Choice of the Fokontany: Human Capital

Amboniriana is situated near the river Imamba whose source is in the mountain of Ankaratra. As seen above, the number of women aged between 25 and 64 exceeds that of men, which means that the number of human capital should be balanced. But the majority of these men

work outside the Fokontany as carpenters or masons or they practice other versatile jobs in town or other areas. As a consequence for some periods of the year, the households are female-headed. Since Amboniriana is included in the Commune of Andriambilany whose Mayor is a woman, Mrs. Yvette Rakotomalala, a member of Gender Links, gender sensitization is advocated but this only applies for rearing milking cows and agriculture and not for energy-related services.

2. Identification of Energy Equipment and Services in Amboniriana

2.1 The Magnet-equipped Pico-turbine of Amboniriana

The dam had been exploited to become a micro hydroelectric source of energy that could supply electricity for up to 9 households, plus the Fokontany's house for meetings and shows. This micro hydroelectric plant is the result of the cooperation of, on the one hand, Centre d'Information de Communication d'Animation de Formation et d'Education supported by the Swiss development NGO CEAS and on the other hand, the inhabitants of the Fokontany of Amboniriana. The latter ensures the cement constructions and supplies the posts for the bulbs whereas the NGOs provide the wires and the pico-turbines. The power of the electricity delivered is 800W from the 2 pico-turbines. Thus, 8 households and the Fokontany's meeting building are powered by this tax-free electric energy. In addition, CEAS has offered 20 water faucets, which reduce the women's work load as they are the ones who stay at home and do the household chores. The Tranom-pokonolona is also served by this electricity. The members from the NGO, Nouvelle Planète, camp there every year. They have contributed to the fund-raising for the implementation of the micro-hydroelectric plant. Unfortunately, because of the mechanical failure inside the pico-turbine which is made of bronze and so conducts electricity, the necessity to replace it with a plastic one is being delayed for the moment at the workshop of CEAS, now called PATMAD.

Evaluation and Approach

The project does not include gender mainstreaming. No official files are signed with the donors and the beneficiaries, which mean that gender needs, are not taken into account. Traditional gender roles are followed because men do the difficult tasks while women are spectators as they have not mastered the work of electricians. Only the President of the Fokontany, Mr. Andriamahenina Etienne, represents the official and legal executive representative of the state, which shows the absence of women in decision-making. The sight of the waste of energy due to the failure to capture the water-fall reveals the passive reactions of both ADER (Agence de Développement de l'Electrification Rurale) and the government, which cannot interfere but rely upon assistance outside the Fokontany.

2.2 Maintenance and Conservation of this Micro-hydraulic Potential

Even if a minority of households have the advantage to access electricity in Amboniriana, thus being part of the 4.8%¹⁷ of the rural people the micro-hydroelectric plant only lasted 3 years – from January 2007 to 2009. When the 2 pico-turbines were propelled by the irregular water flows due to the dry or rainy season, problems occurred. Although local efforts have been undertaken by men especially, to ensure maintenance, no solution could be found. Christophe Maillard de la Morondais, the engineer of A-Z engineering in France, who had invented the magnet equipped device and who fixed it himself in Madagascar at Amboniriana, is not reachable because his factory became bankrupt. The initial investment by donors would have enabled the marketing of the pico-turbine if it had worked properly. This is proved by the present program of CICAPE and CEAS which have their workshop in Ampitatafika and in Ambatomirahavavy, the TSIKY workshop, where they sell fruit driers and other electric equipment that they have introduced through their assistance projects. The technician Mr Haja is now responsible for repairing the damaged pico-turbine but the villagers have waited for more than two years and their situation has not changed.

If the villagers had been trained on how to fix spare parts or negotiate the repair of the turbine in town or even present their problems to the Ministry of Energy, the situation may have been different. The absence of gendered roles, equity and equality of male and female villagers is conspicuous. When I enquired about the case of this micro-hydroelectric plant of Amboniriana at the Ministry of Energy the usual response was that gender mainstreaming is not yet legal, and that they followed the policy of “same” treatment for men and women. As a result the project sustainability is failing and women who could have used their sewing-machines have lost their income-generating source.

For two years, the villagers would have been able to watch TV and be informed about the news but the power-cuts have deprived them from this unique opportunity.

Reactions to the Hydroelectric Plant Power Cut

When asked about their expectations concerning the damage of the pico-turbine, the villagers have the nostalgia of the period of when it functioned. A glimmer of hope sparkles in their eyes and they look forward to having electricity in their Fokontany. Our conversation has revealed that they have a poor and superficial knowledge of the Malagasy decision-makers’ policy. The answers to the questions asked have enabled us to discover that they are not aware of their potential as simple citizens firstly, because no negotiation attempt had occurred to them. Moreover, if their conviction of citizenship had been legally combined with gender values and practices, to work out equal opportunities and means not only for the community’s vague progress, the hierarchical authorities above, may have reacted differently. When they are asked what solutions they suggest to have the hydroelectric power back, the answers vary according to the social status of the villagers. Learned women’s answers were: “*manao fangatahana*,” which means to write a petition to get it back, without mentioning to whom, which indicates that they are not eager to claim their due right whether the answer will be positive or not. They do not even urge the President of their Fokontany. Patience is the expected reaction of everyone, to act differently, is out of norm.

For non-disaggregated women villagers of lower level, the answers were: “mangataka antanan-droa mba haveriny ny herin’aratra,” which means that they “beg them” to bring the electricity back. This reaction reflects a connotation of submission, as if it were not within their rights to claim or to negotiate the possible solutions for the malfunctioning pico-turbine. The illiterate villagers have answered “we wait. It is up to them to decide.” For fear of stating their opinions, some people remained silent. People in the rural areas of Madagascar believe that being talkative is a source of trouble because it has been inherited from post-colonial practices. If one person dares to oppose those in authority, he will be a subject of investigation and will be considered as an opponent to the political régime in office. Rural people are still afraid of voicing their needs unless they have been in contact with or are members of a social or religious association, where they get information and new progressive ideas.

2.3 Biomass and Physical Energy

According to the 80 sex-disaggregated surveys and interviews performed in the area, which represents 9% of the inhabitants: 44 are male (10.65%) and 36 are female (8.70%). All the 80 villagers collect firewood, grass and dry leaves for cooking. To preserve firewood, women use less firewood for the fire. During the rainy season wood fuel is wet and blowing the fire produces smokes which affects the lungs and causes chest pains and coughing. As men work away from the houses, daughters and housewives become the victims of eye diseases and breathing problems while cooking. Vulnerable households use peat for cooking and the common means of water conservation to save physical energy for water collecting is the use of a big plastic container to store it. A Malagasy proverb warns against useless expenses and conveys a lesson of conservation and saving instead. Whenever a person is a spend-thrift, an aged person would say, “Be careful, you will collect wood when your hair is white,” which means that the young person has not managed their goods well in their youth, that is why they are compelled to go and collect firewood at an old age even though their strength and energy

have left them weak. That is why it will be shameful to be seen collecting wood fuel when one is old, regardless of their gender.

Evaluation and Approach

The quantity of firewood, grass and dry leaves collected are immeasurable but this involves also the physical energy consumed along with getting water. Female tasks consist of fanning the fire to make it last. Women blow the fire, they use grass or dry leaves as a result, the smoke affects their eyes. In order to get ash fertilizer, saving firewood is not a priority. Women are not energy savers when fertilizers are scarce. In terms of conservation during rainy seasons, men are responsible for storing firewood. Every household has his or her own forest land, about half a hectare each. Moreover, the Fokontany owns a common forest land at Antsahamahalana.¹⁸ So access to fuel wood is free at any time. Charcoal is an income-generating activity which also helps to pay for expenditures in the burying-out ceremony for the ancestors. To sustain the fuel wood production, afforestation is undertaken but not in a regular basis, nor in a gendered strategy.

Access to land ownership may increase the production of firewood. If compared to the national biomass energy use, grass also has an interesting potential. The National Centre for Industrial and Technological Research (CNRIT) is developing several technologies in order to value local biomass. The goal is to roast the grass and reeds to reduce their volume by half. Processing this biomass can produce fuel. About ten roasted grass balls are necessary to cook common food such as rice. The caloric power of this fuel exceeds 3000 Kcal per kilo, as opposed to 4000 for charcoal and 6600 for coal. It is a good alternative to charcoal and fire wood¹⁹. Female children and women use grass along with wood for cooking, the smoke affects their eyes and their lungs. The whites of the eyes become darkish and the adults cough when they get old. The absence of women empowerment mentioned in the MDG is not effective because when the patients go to the health centres; public gender awareness is not

applied concerning the health of women who suffer from energy-related causes. Yet, they are potential energy conservers and protectors.

2.4 Practical Gender Needs Concerning Energy Conservation Water Provision

Men's time table does not make water collection a priority as women's subordinate position is still visible. Consequently, female water collectors spend more energy and more time than men. To do the washing-up girls only wash the plates in one basin and rinse them once. 20 water faucets are provided by CICAFFE-CEAS for the Fokontany of Amboniriana. They get water from the natural spring of Ambohiboanendra. Men replace or repair the pipes when there are problems. Spare parts are available in the markets. Women however do not have a place in maintenance areas. The NGO has not included gender mainstreaming in the program. Even if the drinkable water is available, the beneficiaries still face energy consumption problems as the volume of water fetched by girls is limited, they have to travel to the water faucet, burning more energy than boys.

The same case applies to young women, and it is worse for mothers who are still looking after their babies and have to carry a pail of water on the head while carrying their infant on their backs. If measured, the latter's storage of physical energy is reduced compared to that of a child-free woman or an adolescent boy. Such a situation invites the male revision of women's status at home and a change of men's attitudes towards spouses' workload. As gender mainstreaming application is not visible in the streets, at least rural people listen to the news on radio sets powered by batteries. This way, if the recognition of gender parity is legal, then it will be considered and may be respected at home. But once more, gender inherited values and passed on roles pervade more than ever and so training and capacity building related to women empowerment must be reinforced.

Below we find the national report about the daily gendered time-table on water collection in Madagascar.

Table 2. Typical daily activities for active males and females, aged between 6 -65

	Women		Men	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
WORK	6h 40mn	7h31 mn	5h 45m	6h 38mn
• Marketable economic activities	2h 6mn	1h 55mn	3h 54mn	3h 33mn
• Economic activities including water fetching	49mn (19mn)	2h 5mn (41mn) 3h 31mn	55mn (16mn)	2h 26mn (35mn)
• Household activities (including cooking)	3h 45mn (1h 28mn)	(1h 37mn)	56mn (13mn)	39mn (10mn)
SOCIAL ACTIVITIES (including leisure and studies) (visits and celebration)	4h 29mn (45mn)	2h 49mn (41mn)	5h 11mn (55mn)	3h 21mn (58mn)
MOBILITY	41mn	31mn	1h2mn	53mn
SLEEPING, REST, MEAL	13h 8mn	13h 37mn	13h 4mn	13h 37mn
TOTAL	24h 56mn	24h 28mn	25h 2mn	24h 29mn

SOURCE: INSTAT-DSM/PNUD-MAG/97/007 :EPM 2001 – Module Emploi du Temps

Table 2 illustrates a general point of view which can help in the study of the case cited above because young boys push wheeled wooden toy carts to carry their fetched water and also use their shoulders an adult men use poles from which two pails of water are hung. We only have a table here, but as far as energy conservation is concerned, the means used to transport water may have an impact on the physical energy consumption. Table 2 also shows that women (whether urban or rural) work more than men in terms of time (Urban: 6h40min Women vs. 5h45min Men – Rural: 7h31min Women vs. 6h38min Men). Women, then, spend more time and more energy at work than men. The figures in this table depict also the absence of gender consciousness: households chores are still considered and assigned to women (cooking, fetching water, and collecting firewood...), whereas men's domains are more focused on income-generating activities. Since women are busy with work, they have less leisure time than men, less time to allocate to studies and other activities. Gender disparity in the domestic activity is conspicuous for rural people. A woman spends 3h31 min whereas a man collects

water in 39 min, so he has plenty of time to increase his productivity, thus taking part in the gross domestic product. The Fokontany of Amboniriana is composed of 5 hamlets. Taking a triangulation verification of this national case analysis, we consider the following cases:

Table 3. Time allotted to water collecting: Amboniriana

FirstName	Hamlet	Existence of Water Faucet	Time allotted to fetching water	Result
Mrs. Ruffine	Antsahabe	Yes	10 minutes	Less energy consumption
Mrs. Bakoly	Anosy	Yes	A few minutes	Less energy consumption
Mrs. Sahondra Tiana	Antambitsy	No	1 hour daily	More energy consumption
Mr. Philibert's son	Amboniriana	Yes	A short walk	Less energy consumption
Mr. Martin	Antsahafiraisana	No	Long Way	Pain in the side and complaint about the time spent (he can do something else)
Mr. Tanjona	Anosy	Yes	A few minutes	Less energy consumption

SOURCE: Triangulation method for comparison of national table and Amboniriana

Table 3 shows that the absence of gender sensitiveness and gender awareness in the project because the water faucets have not been set up on gender related practical needs. As a result, the advantages have been established from the top to the grassroots regardless of the latter's needs and gender issues.

Table 4. Duration and content of Malagasy male and female daily activities age 4 – 49 per residence.

	Urban				Rural			
	Women		Men		Women		Men	
WORK	9h	100	8h	100	9h	100	8h	100
	30mn		35mn		40mn		20mn	
	6h		7h		7h		7h	
Economic Activity	10mn		35mn		40mn		40mn	
	5h		6h				5h	
- marketable	20mn	56.1	35mn	76.7	4h 5mn	42.2	15mn	63.0
							2h	
- non marketable (including water fetching)	50mn (15mn)	8.7 (2.6)	1h (10mn)	11.7 (2.0)	2h 5mn (35mn)	21.5 (6.0)	25mn (30mn)	29.1 (6.0)
	3h		1h		3h		40mn	
Household activity	20mn	35.1	1h	11.7	30mn	36.2	40mn	7.9
	(1h				2h			
(including cooking)	45mn)	(18.4)	(15mn)	(2.9)	10mn	(22.5)	15mn	(3.0)

SOURCE: Rapport National sur le Développement Humain, 2003, "Genre, Développement Humain et Pauvreté" p.46

According to the survey in Amboniriana, women wish to increase their productivity in weaving, sewing and handcrafts in addition to their daily work. This table shows that rural women have less time than men to do activities which could be marketed.

Table 5. Method of evaluation of the water collecting activity

	Time allocated to daily activities in minutes per day	Number of days/year	Number of people aged 6 to 65	Equivalence in months	Monthly salary of a similar job as reference	Production = total value added
Rural Women	32.4	24.6			70,700	
Urban Women	16.2	12.3			71,700	
Rural Men	8.4	6.4			95,500	
Urban Men	9.6	7.3			143,200	
Ensemble						

SOURCE: Rapport National sur le Développement Humain, 2003, "Genre, Développement Humain et Pauvreté" p.52

Note : The salary rates are from EPM²⁰ 1999, farmer salary of unqualified manpower (rural), salary of unqualified manpower of BTP²¹ (urban)

In table 5, rural women spend 32.4 minutes per day to fetch water, making 24.6 days per year, corresponding to 70.700 Fmg (equivalent to \$6.23). As for rural men, they only spend 8.4 minutes per day making 6.4 hours per year that is 95.500 Fmg (equivalent to \$8.41). If we take into account the case of Amboniriana, Rakotondranaivo Martin, from the hamlet of Antsahafiraisana, declares that the time he allots to water collection is nearly one hour per day; he realizes that he could do income-generating work during this time which is longer for a woman from the same village. Gender disparity still exists if any project on drinkable water does not include gender needs in their sustainable development activities. The cost of energy consumed for water collection is evaluated in money, here, a measurement means knowledge of a result, a source of empowerment rooted on gender consciousness or awareness.

1. Lighting and Energy Sources Used

The oil lamp is the main source of lighting used in the households of the Fokontany of Amboniriana. The traditional way the villagers use to save oil is: salt is added to the oil to make it last longer and also making it smokeless. This practice has been transmitted from generation to generation. The oil lamp is lit from 7:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m. during the dinner time and for the children to do their homework. Breast feeding women use it during the night and mothers light it early in the morning for their chores. Alternative forms of light are candles and LED bulbs as vulnerable households do not have access to electricity. The national report on the rates concerning the use of a lighting source in the Vakinankaratra region in Amboniriana, is as follows:

Table 6. A glance at the percentage of light use in the region of Vakinankaratra which also includes Amboniriana

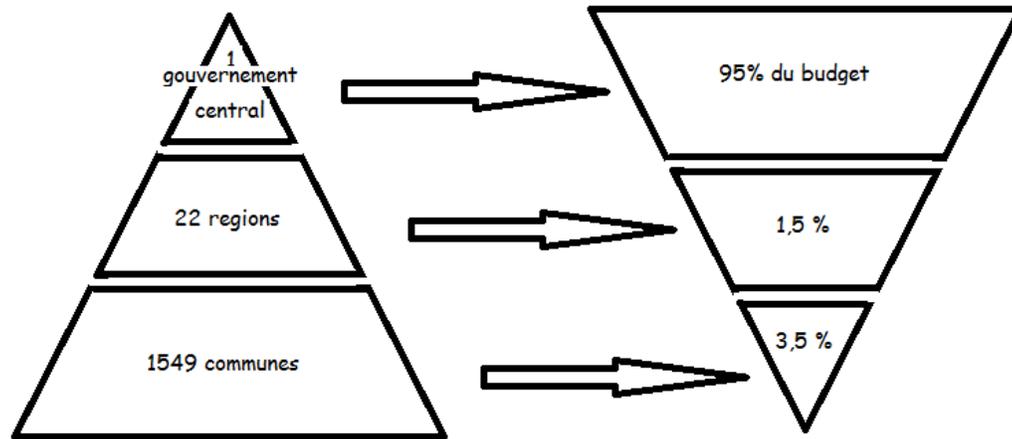
Region	Electricity	Generator	Oil lamp	Candle	Others
Vakinankaratra	9.3	1.0	78.0	5.1	6.7

SOURCE: Excerpt from INSTAT/DSM/EPM 2010

The other sources of light in Amboniriana is to stay near the fire light during the cooking time, another way to save energy but which also implies the breathing in of smoke and too much dim light, to read which will affect the boys and girls. Candles are scarcely used in Amboniriana as they are expensive. According to surveys, each household spends 3,000 Ariary per month on petroleum for oil lamps that is 1.5 litres. In vulnerable households, regardless of gender, the villagers of Amboniriana use an alternative method where they cut portions of pine-trees into small pieces to be used as sources of light. Gender roles related to the conservation of light in the past is to make a wick with cow dung and erect it in the middle of stones to be lit like a candle where this process has been used during circumcision. Households with low income also use peat for cooking. But the villagers of Amboniriana use peat for brick-making and regarding the division of labour: men dig the peat whereas women are responsible for drying it. Peat is then transported on carts, and boys are in charge of the task.

Interpretation of the Data

For the energy sources cited previously, a gender mainstreaming policy is absent and this is due to the non-implementation of the commitments the Malagasy government has signed for CEDAW (Convention to Eliminate Discrimination against Women) and the Millennium Development Goals. The decentralization of budget does not reach the rural areas as far as the Ministry of Mines and Energy is concerned. As a whole, there is a significant difference between the political decentralization and the budget centralization.



Graph 2. Paradox of Decentralization in Madagascar, *Jacques Morisset 2009*

Decentralization: A Needed Utopia

As it is seen in graph 2 Amboniriana is a Fokontany comprised of communes, so a very reduced decentralization budget is allotted to it. That is 3.5% divided into 1549 communes, which makes 0,002 % of the National budget. For its part, the commune of Andriambilany, including the Fokontany of Amboniriana, comprises 9 Fokontany. So Amboniriana gets 1/9 of this communal budget.

During the field of work in Amboniriana and the discussions at the Ministry of Mines and Energy in Antananarivo, regarding the case of this Fokotany prove that the gender mainstreaming policy is not yet present in that area. The traditional perceptions of gender roles persist but commune's female Mayor due to her membership to gender links has an influence on men's attitudes to women. The survey has revealed the mutual respect of spouses as the majority of households are female headed because men leave the Fokotany to work in towns. The questions asked during the survey surprised the interviewees because an importance of management and the conservation or saving of energy sources was never raised.

In terms of gender perspectives, this means that gender awareness is not understood nor applied publicly. This is another point which testifies that the explanation and the advocacy of gender are not effective because both the decision makers and the community are mistaken and confuse gender with sameness, meaning, everyone is equal without considering this social identity. However, age, ethnicity, religious affiliation, status position, level of instruction, social structure and the role of NGO's can affect gender behaviour for example, male dominance pervades in the hydroelectric context. Women empowerment is minimal even if the Ministry of Energy and Mines plans that: "From 2020 on, 75% of electricity will come from renewable energy sources, mainly hydroelectricity"²², the starting point of gender mainstreaming de facto needs to be effective, right now.

1. Feasibility of Gender Mainstreaming Policy in Energy Conservation

Capacity-building, training, technique teaching are provided by women's associations, in Amboniriana especially for rearing cows; this gender awareness has been introduced and the female members of the association have managed to improve their life by borrowing funds from CECAM (Caisse d'Epargne et de Cr dit Agricole Mutuel). Guidance is needed along with gender advocacy, to clarify people's conceptions. This way, gender can be capitalized, and traditional gender roles can be transformed into gender responsiveness.

The problem resides also in the women's level of consciousness so that they can judge their advantages and the risks and dare to voice their needs which can affect their life positively.

Most of the time, they feel inferior to men and do not manifest the will to change nor to challenge their subordinate situation. In fact, the shops at Amboniriana are owned by women who sell fried patties, tea, and coffee. Their informal activities make them use charcoal and they stick to their habits and are afraid of using gas. To change their status would be unthinkable since the Malagasy mentality expects that one is supposed to act like the others and if a woman adopts an unusual livelihood, this is not socially acceptable.

Deconstructing traditional trends of thought, grafting and constructing an identity either male or female, is the theory of constructionism evoked previously in order to adopt the promotion of gender sensitiveness and capitalize it to become a cultural dynamic. To address the conservation of energy, learning is required, and should the local authorities seek professional trainers or NGO s gender-sensitive proposals, the beneficiaries' practical needs would be satisfied. Moreover chances are that some women can become leaders of the project implementation.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The Fokontany of Amboniriana includes the Fokonolona which means the local authority's institution and it is unthinkable to act against its agreed on social discipline regarding health, education, infrastructure and income generating societal problems. In 2012, all the Fokontany of Madagascar should benefit from the access to electricity as the Ministry of Energy and Mines states it: "In terms of emergency, the government is looking toward renewable energies". Until 2012, 25% of the households are supposed to use alternative energy sources. According to the Madagascar Action Plan where gender mainstreaming is not mentioned in the challenge 4 of the commitment No 2, it ensures an adequate energy supply: "adequate" which is very vague.

Thus it means that gender equality is not part of the objective yet. However gender sensitiveness should start from a top down hierarchy. As for the conservation of energy sources, the commitment 7 in the Madagascar Action Plan mentions the protection of the Environment. The focus is vague too and does not address gender issues which engage gender roles. If compared to gender roles in Senegal, a for example and Malawi, the gender awareness promotion is not yet legally applicable in Madagascar. The traditional gender roles can be corrected or replaced by gender responsive roles unless the state follows-up donors' and investors' projects which are gender sensitive.

Recommendations require the presence of a gender mainstreaming policy both for government and the investors. More importantly, the beneficiaries should be informed and taught about their potential gender rights and they should voice their practical and strategic needs to claim their owed advantages. After answering the questions during the survey and the interviews, the villagers of Amboniriana look forward to getting back their electricity. Empowered by the gender sensitive questions women want to sew again and dream of opening hairdresser shops whereas young people want to have internet access and men desire to start mills and wish to work until dawn safely with light. To conclude, this research has opened a way for the villagers to be bold and to write about their needs and send it to the authorities in charge. Their traditional roles transformed by gender mainstreaming policies represent the nexus, the bridge or the stepping stones, between energy and gender as they would be able to bring heat to their local Fokontany of Amboniriana, like in a house warming event where lighting a fire brings life and vigour.

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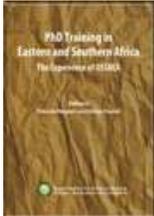
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New Publications

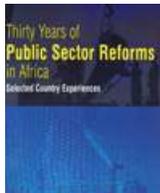


PhD Training in Eastern and Southern Africa

The Experience of OSSREA

Editors: *Tekeste Negash and Abiye Daniel*

The anthology of PhD training in Eastern and Southern Africa contains altogether eleven papers, eight of which deal with the current status of PhD training in specific countries. All eight papers look into the academic standing of universities in the region and provide information on the current operation of PhD training which is of immense relevance and engages the reader on the pressing problems that are faced by academic institutions. The other papers deal with Higher Education Policies within Eastern and Southern Africa and provide a history as well as a realistic role for OSSREA and RESSESA as well as European research school traditions and their relevance to Africa with special reference to the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom.



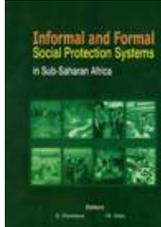
Thirty Years of Public Sector Reforms in Africa: Selected Country Experiences

P. Chanie, P.B.Mihyo

Over the past three decades, African countries have been reforming their public sector with a view to improving efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and transparency as part of efforts to improve the delivery of public services. Reform actions have included privatisation, public-private partnerships, commercialisation and adoption of private sector approaches in managing public organisations. This book, put together by OSSREA, reviews measures by African countries in that regard-the extent to which the measures have achieved their intended results, as well as the factors behind the failure to achieve those results, where this was the case.

The chapters in this book journey across 30 years and through nine countries – Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe. The chapters are:

- 1- The Trajectory of Public Administration in Africa: Background
- 2- Reforms without Change: Kenya's Unending "War on Corruption"
- 3- Public Sector Reform amid Adversity and Uncertainty: The Zimbabwean Experience
- 4- The Privatisation and Deregulation of Dar es Salaam's Public Transport, 1983-2010
- 5- Integrating All Stakeholders: Health Service Governance in Addis Ababa
- 6- The Ups and Downs of Business Process Re-Engineering (BPR): A Tale of Two Offices in Bahir Dar Town, Ethiopia
- 7- The Inside Story of Outsourcing: Contract Management Capacity in Tanzania
- 8- E-Government for Good Governance: The Case of Tanzania
- 9- The Quantity-Quality Balance: Reforms in University Education in Uganda
- 10- Making Outcomes Matter: Programme-Based Budgeting for a Better Public Sector in Mauritius
- 11- Good Intentions, Poor Results: Reforming the Academic Organisational Structure and Performance Management System at the University of Botswana
- 12- Big Growth and Big Mistake: Telecoms in South Africa
- 13- The Performance of Decentralisation and Public Sector Accountability Reforms in Uganda
- 14- Contracting Out Public Services to Private Agents: Lessons from the Management of Local Government Contracts in Ghana
- 15- Lessons and Conclusions.

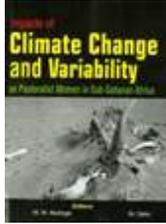


Informal and Formal Social Protection Systems in Sub-Saharan Africa

S. Devereu and, M. Getu

In recent years, social protection issues have gained unprecedented momentum in Africa. This is reflected in the fact that most African countries have either introduced or are considering social protection measures, as witnessed by initiatives within the African Union (AU), African national government and their development partners in the international donor community. The 2004 'Ouagadougou Declaration and Plan of Action', the 2006 'Livingstone and Yaoundé Calls for Action', the 2008 'African Union Social Policy Framework for Africa' and the 2010 'social Ministers' Khartoum Declaration on Social Policy Action. Towards Social Inclusion' are key milestones towards an Africa-wide consensus on the need for social protection. Many national governments are also in the process of establishing social protection strategies and policies. Unfortunately, most of them give little attention to the role or potential of informal social protection systems. This is despite the fact that the rural population and those who are engaged in the informal economy, which together constitute the bulk of these countries' populations, depend on informal social protection systems. The possibility of building on existing informal social protection systems and creating complementary linkages between the formal and informal systems is rarely considered by policy-makers and donor agencies in Africa. Instead, most attention is given to formal safety net programmes.

Addressing several themes in the social protection literature, this book makes an original and important contribution to the rapidly growing body of literature on social protection in sub-Saharan Africa. Some of the themes are relatively neglected or under-researched, while some others are not usually conceptualized as social protection. These themes are organized around the major issues: informal social protection, urban social protection, social protection and physical security, social protection, urban social protection, social protection and physical security, social protection in unstable contexts, climate change, pastoralism, and gender. In fact, the most significant challenge this book offers to current thinking and practice is in focusing attention on local or 'indigenous' mutual support systems and institutions, sometimes characterized as 'informal' and 'semi-formal' social protection mechanisms, which are undervalued or even neglected in discourses of 'formal' social protection policy-making and programming. From the discussions presented by the different chapters, the book draws the conclusion that although the trend towards institutionalizing social protection as a core government responsibility is welcome and should be encouraged, these formal social protection mechanisms could arguably be strengthened if they acknowledge and build on local experiences and cultural norms around reciprocity and mutual support.

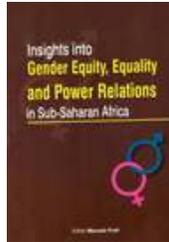


Impacts of Climate Change and Variability on Pastoralist Women in Sub-Saharan Africa

M. Mulinge and M. Getu

The term climate change is used to denote any significant but extended change in the measures of climate. The changes could be due to natural variability or as a result of human activities, such as the burning of fossil fuels to produce energy, deforestation, industrial processes, and some agricultural practices. Such activities release large amounts of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases into the atmosphere that hang like a blanket around the earth, thus trapping energy in the atmosphere and causing it to warm up. This results increasingly in climate variability, which is characterised by extreme seasonal, annual, temporal and non-spatial variability in temperature, vagaries of precipitation (rainfall patterns and amounts) and/or wind patterns occurring over a prolonged period of time. The last decade (2001 – 2010) has been the warmest on record; with the average temperatures reaching 0.46°C, above the 1961 – 1990 mean, and 0.21°C warmer than the 1991 – 2000 period. It has been proved that the African continent is warming up faster, all year-round, than the global average; a trend that is likely to continue. By the year 2100, it is predicted that temperature changes will fall into ranges of about 1.4°C to nearly 5.8°C increase in mean surface temperature the mean sea level will rise between 10cm to 90 cm (AMCEN 2011). The interior of semi-arid margins of the Sahara and central southern Africa will be the most affected by such warming (AMCEN 2011).

To tackle the phenomenon of climate change effectively, human societies have put in place a combination of mitigation and adaptation mechanisms and strategies. Whereas mitigation aims at avoiding or lessening the impacts of the unmanageable, the goal of adaptation is to manage the unavoidable. That men and women are affected differently by climate change suggests that they also differ in terms of the adaptation mechanisms they employ. Despite the existence of gender-based differences in the effects of climate change and in adaptation and coping strategies, studies on the gender differential impacts of climate change and variability on women in general and pastoralist women in particular in sub-Saharan Africa are limited. This volume offers insights and knowledge that pastoralist women developed on climate change adaptation through their experiences in their households and communities and thereby tries to narrow this gap.



Insights into Gender Equity, Equality and Power Relations in Sub-Saharan Africa

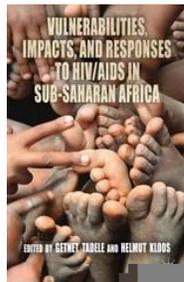
Mansah Prah

Since gender entered the development discourse in the Seventies, African countries have increasingly taken the concept on board in policy and practice. This concern may be due to either one or a combination of the following factors: the ideological positioning of African countries, demands by their donors and development partners, and demands by organised local groups and NGOs. Gender in the development discourse ought to transform power relations between men and women and shift them to social relations that reflect their equal access to productive resources, opportunities and social and material benefits. The result of such actions should be an achievement of comparable status of women and men. This volume, initiated by OSSREA, seeks to examine in more depth, issues regarding the gender-power imbalance in sub-Saharan African countries, with a specific focus on the eastern and southern African regions. They represent research that examines and analyses the effectiveness and efficiency of gender mainstreaming policies, strategies and projects developed and implemented by national and international actors. The themes interweave with each other, although they address gender issues in specific countries and specific contexts. This can be explained by the shared colonial and post-colonial heritage of African countries. It is useful, therefore, to view the structure of the book as a spiral of inter-connected issues that address similar themes, approaching them from different levels. Purely for ease of reading, the contributions have been organised into three parts, with over-arching themes that at first glance may seem not to fit well together. A theme that runs through all the chapters is the persistence of patriarchal values and attitudes in Africa and its constraining effect on the achievement of gender equity and equality.

Vulnerabilities, Impacts, and Responses to HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa

Edited by

Getnet Tadele and Helmut Kloos



'This book provides a wealth of fine grained detail about the unfolding HIV/AIDS epidemic and the expanding interventions in Sub-Saharan Africa, and particularly in eastern and southern Africa. Most HIV prevention programmes in Africa have failed because biomedically orientated actors have failed to adequately address the social, cultural, economic and political context of HIV/AIDS and human sexuality, disease impacts and interventions. This book goes some way to addressing that gap and provides new and relevant information for health planners, administrators, students and researchers, thus representing a major achievement by the ten authors and two editors.' - Anne Scott, University of Canterbury, New Zealand.

'This book can inform undergraduate and graduate students of public health, and epidemiology, clinical medicine, African studies, medical anthropology and medical sociology, as well as health planners, health administrators, and NGO staff. Thus it may contribute to accelerating the current decline in HIV incidence and AIDS mortality and promote adequate and sustainable care for the still growing number of patients, orphans, and other affected people.' - Ahmed Ali, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.

**The June issue of the EASSRR volume XXIX No.2 2013 includes
The following six articles:**



Fossil Fuel and Food Tax Incidence in Ethiopia

Alemu Mekonnen, Rahel Deribe, and Liyousew Gebremedhin

Analysis of Vulnerability to Food Insecurity in Drought-prone Areas of the Amhara Region of Ethiopia: Case Study in Lay Gaint Woreda

Arega Bazezew and Woldeamlak Bewket

Partners for Progress and Modernization: Rise and Fall of United States of America's Soft-Power Relations with Ethiopia

Assefa Mehretu

Teachers' Expectations on Academic Achievement and Social Skills and Behaviour of Students with Emotional and Behavioural Disorders

Fiseha Teklu and R. Sreevalsa Kumar

Ethnic Conflict, Interaction and Cohabitation in Africa: The Case of Nuer and Anuak

Temesgen Gebeyehu

Sub-Saharan Africa Electricity Supply Inadequacy: Implications

Nyasha Kaseke and Stephen G. Hosking

**The OSSREA Bulletin Vol. X No. 2 (June 2013) constitutes news articles,
feature articles, the feature articles include:**



A Revisit to the Agro-Ecological Regions of Zimbabwe – Evidence of Climate Variability and Change?

Mugandani. R, Wuta, M, Makarau, A, Chipindu, B

The Debate Over the Nature and Impact of the United States and European Union 'Sanctions' On Zimbabwe, 2001 To 2012

Musiwaro Ndakaripa

University Administration in the 21st Century: The Politics of Resource Mobilisation at Midlands State University 2000-2010

PercyslageChigora



OSSREA Annual Report 2012 and Operational Plan 2013

CALL FOR ARTICLES, REVIEWS AND COMMENTARIES

Since the February 2003 issue of its *Newsletter*, OSSREA has been publishing short articles on topical issues concerning the transformation process in Africa. The African Union and NEPAD have been among such topics dealt with from various angles. Our aim is to provide members of the academic and research institutes with a lively forum for debate and reflection on matters of critical concern for the people of the continent.

In the February 2014 issue of the *OSSREA Bulletin*, we plan to publish a few articles on issues of interest to the continent. Accordingly, OSSREA members and other interested scholars are invited to contribute articles.

Articles should be 6-8 pages in length, including a brief abstract. Authors are advised to include their full address and send their contributions by e-mail before 31st December 2013 to:

The Editor
OSSREA Bulletin
OSSREA, P.O. Box 31971
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
E-mail: pubunit@ossrea.net

Readers wishing to respond to or comment on the articles in this Bulletin should also send their papers to pubunit@ossrea.net

The Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review (EASSRR)

OSSREA invites contributions to its journal. The EASSRR publishes articles, book reviews, research notes and other short communications pertaining to the social sciences. The Editorial Policy and Authors' Guidelines are available on the website <http://www.ossrea.net>

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