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9 ORGANIZATIONAL DETERMINANT OF TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATION IN FOOD AGRICULTURE AND
10 IMPACTS ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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23 Abstract:

24

25 The food security challenges faced by populations in sub-Saharan Africa and the fact that
26 extensive production systems are reaching their limits in the food-producing agricultural
27 chain have increased the need to accelerate technological innovation toward the ecological
28 intensification of agricultural production systems. A review of the research conducted on
29 plantain bananas (*Musa Paradisiaca.*) in Cameroon since 1988 revealed how institutional
30 innovation has enabled the hybridization of different research forms—such as fundamental,
31 systems, and action research—and reinforced the organizational innovation required for
32 technical change. We found that impact evaluation underlined the complementarity between
33 the increases in productivity and income in rural areas, as well as the production of human
34 and social capital and the protection of forest resources.

35

36 Keywords:

37

38 innovation, agricultural technology, institutional, information, knowledge

39

40 JEL code: O31, Q16, B52, D83

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43

44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

45

46

47 In the agricultural systems of southern countries, the transfer of innovation models promoted
48 by industrialized countries has historically dominated the governance of technical change
49 (Swinnen, 2006). These models underpin the governance of innovation techniques in
50 agriculture following two different lines. The first examines generic research on upstream
51 agricultural production (e.g., biotechnology and mechanics) in the industrial sector, which
52 guides “process” innovation at the producer level. The second examines the downstream
53 conditions for accessing markets that influence “product” innovation. The agricultural
54 producer, often considered as an entrepreneur, is supposed to optimize the opportunities and
55 constraints resulting from the previously sector-based insertion (Pavitt, 1984). The dominant
56 system has not only structured the organization of international agricultural research focusing
57 on the green revolution in Asia, but also that of national agricultural research systems in
58 Africa (Sumberg, 2005; World Bank, 2006). This model is based on a diffusionist and linear
59 approach to technical change between the inventor (researcher) and the user (agricultural
60 producer). It constitutes a technological paradigm that has been successfully transferred to
61 sub-Saharan African agro-industries, which have been focalized by the supply of
62 international markets (Afari-Sefa, 2007).

63

64 However, this paradigm has had little impact on food crops production (e.g., plantain,
65 cassava, yams, etc.) in sub-Saharan Africa, where production systems mainly rely on family
66 labor and the conditions for mobilizing the various productive resources—namely work,
67 natural capital (water, land, etc.), and human capital (e.g., knowledge or information)—are
68 highly dependent on institutional and organizational variables (Requier-Desjardins, 1994).

69 Consequently, the transfer of green revolution principles based on the diffusionist approach
70 during the 1970s/80s failed (Chambers et al., 1994), as demonstrated by the agricultural
71 productivity approach and recent food crises. In sub-Saharan Africa, the available statistics
72 (Fao-Stat) emphasize a decrease or stagnation in food crop productivity According to
73 available data, food security in sub-Saharan Africa will remain uncertain over the next 20
74 years if no new approach is found or proposed.

75

76 Several factors can help to explain the conventional model's global failure in this region
77 including political crises, which disrupt the institutional conditions required for the expansion
78 of agricultural productivity, and state disengagement from the organization of the support
79 services required by agriculture, such as credit, agricultural extension, infrastructure,
80 research, etc. (Nyemeck and Nkamleu, 2006). A transverse explanation is the lack of
81 adaptation of the technical innovations provided by this diffusionist model to the very diverse
82 production conditions (socioeconomic and ecological).

83

84 This failure has forced farmers to innovate in order to satisfy the food productivity objectives
85 defined by the issues of food security. In this context, the emergence of the concept of
86 sustainable development examines the capacity of the technical innovations, which have been
87 implemented to ensure the compatibility of the objectives of increasing productivity;
88 protecting natural resources, biodiversity, and forests; and reducing social inequalities
89 (Griffon, 2006). This question guides new research lines for the intensification of production
90 systems. These research lines involve an improved adaptation of complementarities between
91 plants or the ecosystem potential (Crozat et al., 2010) and an understanding of the
92 socioeconomic determinants, which implement biological knowledge within the farmers'
93 technical systems (Chianu et al., 2010).

94

95 In the social sciences, the evolutionist referential of technical change (Dosi et al., 2006;
96 Nelson, 2008) shows how the emergence of the innovation system concept helps to
97 understand technical changes, notably in the fields of biotechnology research. The application
98 of this innovation system concept (Carlson et al., 2002) to the analysis of agricultural systems
99 in southern countries (Sumberg et al., 2002; Hall et al., 2003) finally underlines how the
100 fostering of various research orientations and subjects requires the development of interactive
101 frameworks between operators in the innovation process. The exercise focuses on a pathway
102 approach, which “sectorializes” the innovation system in regards to a particular product
103 (Montaigne, 1996). This theoretical referential allows us to specify the concept of technical
104 innovation used here.

105

106 We define technical innovation as a process that distinguishes an invention (a technique, a
107 type of organization, a hybrid, etc.) that can be developed by a farmer, a researcher, or an
108 organization within the sector. An innovation is embodied by the invention’s integration into
109 a productive system. This integration may or may not be supported by non-farmers, such as
110 managers, researchers, etc. (Sibellet, 2006). In fact, it suggests the capacity to “hybridize”
111 both the different sources of the invention’s creation (e.g., fundamental research and
112 empirical research) and the different processes required to integrate the invention into a
113 productive system. Consequently, a technical innovation depends to a large extent on
114 institutional and organizational innovation, which structures the coordination between the
115 operators required for its implementation (Aggeri and Hatchuel, 2003). It implies that the
116 researcher’s job is no longer limited to producing an invention or knowledge, but that he or
117 she is responsible (directly or indirectly) for ensuring that the three dimensions—technical,

118 organizational, and institutional—giving rise to the innovation are taken into account. This
119 activation mobilizes the concepts of action research and the tools of participatory research.

120

121 Another determinant of the innovation process is the need to take the historical or long-term
122 dimension into account, as this ensures coherence between organizing production methods,
123 technological choices, incremental innovations, and collective values. The degree of
124 coherence in the integration of these different dimensions shapes the paradigms that
125 ultimately determine research choices.

126

127 In order to test this explanation, we will show how knowledge production concerning these
128 specificities has modified the conditions for the emergence of technical innovations and
129 optimized the focus of agronomic research. It calls on empirical experience and databases
130 produced in the framework of a research program in Central Africa initiated in 1980
131 (Chataigner, 1988).

132

133 The story of agronomic research on plantains leads to the analysis of different institutions’
134 research programs that participated in the production of knowledge that is being used for the
135 ongoing plantain innovation process (Hauser, 2000). We put forward the hypothesis that the
136 mechanism of “hybridizing” the different forms of research implemented at African Banana
137 and Plantain Research Center (CARBAP) since 1989 has played a crucial (but not exclusive)
138 role in ensuring the implementation of scientific knowledge among producers in Cameroon,
139 that is to say, in transforming this knowledge about bananas and plantains in Cameroon,
140 especially in the upscale of technical improvements at the farmer level. The presentation of
141 the methodological framework explains the main research stages that have structured this
142 hybridization (Figure 2) between: fundamental research (botany), systems research

143 (economics), experimental research (agronomy), and participatory research
144 (interdisciplinary).

145

146 2. METHODOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTION OF A CHAIN-BASED INNOVATION SYSTEM

147

148 2.1. *Producing knowledge about the territorial and sector-based determinants of technical* 149 *changes*

150

151 Along with cassava and cocoyam, the plantain banana (*Musa Paradisiaca.*) is one of the basic
152 components of the populations' agriculture and diet in the forest zone of sub-Saharan Africa.
153 It is an herbaceous plant with a cycle of 12 to 22 months according to its variety, ecology,
154 and a vegetative multiplication system. While plantains can be produced for four to five years
155 in plantations under industrial production conditions, they can be maintained for decades in
156 well-managed household gardens.

157

158 In Cameroon, annual plantain consumption varies between 70 and 90 kg/capita/year
159 (Akyeampong, 1998; Bikoï, 1998), making it one of the most popular consumer products.
160 Formerly produced primarily for private consumption, more than 50% of plantain production
161 is now sold on the market (Bikoï, 1998).

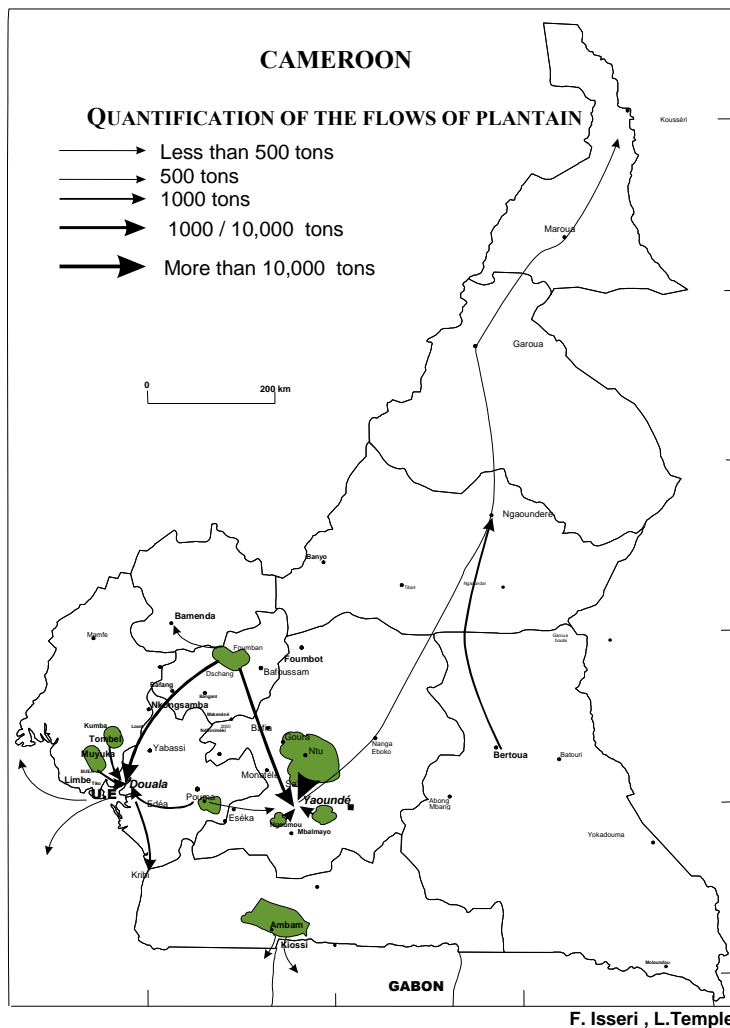
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163 The importance of this product led to studies being conducted to characterize the food chains
164 (e.g., identification of operators and markets, identification and quantification of flows, and
165 identification of the main production areas). In total, four main production zones were
166 identified (Figure 1).

167

168

169



170

171 Figure 1 : Production areas and flow of plantain in main provinces in Cameroon

172 ⇒ the first zone (accounting for 55% of total production in Cameroon) in the South-West
173 and Littoral provinces supplies Douala (about 2 million inhabitants).

174 ⇒ the second zone (24% of total production) in the Center, South, and East provinces
175 supplies Yaoundé (about 1.5 million inhabitants) and northern Cameroon.

176 ⇒ the third zone (18% of total production) in the West and North-West provinces
177 supplies the “Great West,” but also occasionally Yaoundé and Douala. These main
178 towns have special supply needs, depending on the time of year.

179 ⇒ the fourth recently developed zone near the southern border supplies Gabon, the
 180 Congo, and Equatorial Guinea.

181

182 Table 1. Agro-ecological characteristics of plantain production zones in Cameroon

Provinces	Agro-Ecological Zone (AEZ)	Altitude (m)	Rainfall (mm)	Temperature (°C)
South-West	AEZ with a monomodal rainfall pattern	0–1000	2000–10000	20–30
Littoral		0–1300	1600–5500	23–32
Center	AEZ with a bimodal rainfall pattern	400–800	1450–2500	22–28
South		350–650	1500–3000	23–32
East		400–900	1350–2000	23–35
West	AEZ with a monomodal rainfall pattern	900–1500	1500–2200	18–26
North-West		750–1800	1500–3500	15–25

183 Source: adapted from KWA et al., 2002, “Creation and Managing of a banana farm in
 184 Cameroon: case of plantain banana,” Technical data sheet, CARBAP, 2002, 28p.

185

186 The production zone locations have helped to identify the priority areas for conducting
 187 research or identifying limiting factors at the food chain level. Research has revealed a
 188 specialization process in certain areas that is characterized by a local increase in the
 189 proportion of producers for whom plantain plays a major role in farm activities.
 190 Specialization also results in a spatial concentration of production, which in turn facilitates
 191 the creation of wholesale markets, thereby making the transport costs for collecting the
 192 produce cheaper in comparison to when production is dispersed (Nkendah et al., 2007).

193

194 The better localization of production zones supplying the different markets has revealed three
195 main points for agronomic research on governance.

196

197 First, it has highlighted the crucial problems related to plantain production, which prioritizes
198 the effect of root and corm pest attacks (i.e., nematodes and black weevil) on production and
199 productivity. These findings have permitted the characterization of farmers' different plantain
200 production strategies through typologies (Temple et al., 2005). This work also helped to
201 identify specific farmers to partake in the participative experimentations in the field (Temple
202 et al., 2006).

203

204 A second aspect was that it has characterized the strongest territorial and sector-based
205 heterogeneity of demand for varietal innovation. From a territorial point of view, this
206 heterogeneity is a function of the localized diversity of both the ecosystems and the integrated
207 control strategies implemented by farmers. From a sector-based point of view, this
208 heterogeneity is explained by the differentiated expectations of those involved in the sector,
209 namely wholesalers and consumers. Thus women who purchase plantains can distinguish
210 between 10 different cultivars, as quality depends on the product's origin and degree of
211 maturity—both of which influence the flavor, cooking time, and consistency (Dury et al.,
212 2002).

213

214 Finally, it has underlined the fact that the non-availability of planting material reduces work
215 intensification in production systems. In light of the lack of a sufficient quantity of quality
216 plantain material (suckers), farmers collect suckers from old plots that are lying fallow (80%
217 of suckers), thereby transferring significant quantities of contaminated planting material to

218 healthy plots. Production cycles last only four years and produce low yields, with losses
219 amounting to more than 50% of production after the third cycle, resulting in a shift in the
220 production area (Pierrot et al., 2002).

221

222 This knowledge has played a major role in guiding research programs (i) in the field of
223 agronomy through the development of sucker multiplication techniques adoptable by farmers
224 and (ii) in genetic improvement by opening a new line of research (Mauricio et al., 2002;
225 Sperling and Cooper, 2003) that focuses on the participative selection of different plantain
226 varieties.

227

228 *2.2. Generating knowledge about the socioeconomic determinants of technical intensification*

229

230 In spite of the intensity of urban demand and increased pressure on land resources, the
231 average yield/ha of plantain in some zones did not increase significantly—from 7 to 10
232 metric ton/ha within a period of 10 years (1980–1990). Therefore, it appears that production
233 systems were still extensive in these areas.

234

235 Low yields from plots used for single-crop farming may result from space occupied by felled
236 trees or the lack of suckers. One explanation is the satisfactory labor productivity in this
237 system, which is based on the natural renewal of soil fertility; however, this involves an
238 increase in the use of new land (e.g., forest reserves), spatial dispersion, and high marketing
239 costs. In practice, these extensive systems have started to adapt in two different ways.

240

241 First and foremost, extensive systems adapt through changes in crop associations including
242 plantain, food (e.g., taro, groundnuts, maize, etc.), or perennial crops (e.g., cocoa, coffee, oil

243 palm) and changes in planting density, crop combinations, and farming techniques (e.g.,
244 fallow, ridging, staking, etc.). One economic determinant of these changes is the desire to
245 achieve economies *of range* (the complementarity of different crops) according to several
246 objectives: (i) to ensure food needs (harvest phased with respect to a food calendar), (ii) to
247 make optimal spatial use of land (juxtaposition of several strata of crops in an association), or
248 (iii) optimize work time (the labor needed for clearing and weeding serves several crops). In
249 other situations, these synergies between plants optimize the use of mineral fertilizers
250 (Akinnifesi et al., 2010). We were nevertheless unable to find any references enabling us to
251 assess changes in labor productivity within these systems.

252

253 This follows the logic of the progressive labor intensification of production systems based on
254 a better knowledge of ecosystems.

255

256 Because of the instability of plantain prices and the lack of stable financial facilities, farmers
257 do not invest for fear of losing their investments, thereby limiting the use of industrial inputs
258 (e.g., pesticides and fertilizers).

259

260 The implicit cost of financial resources for family agriculture is high because the use of cash
261 income in a situation of financial uncertainty is subject to the alternative of ensuring human
262 health and education or acquiring pesticides to protect the plants.

263

264 Second, extensive systems also adapt through the emergence of a banana monoculture in two
265 contexts: in peri-urban agriculture, thanks to the investment of capital in agriculture from
266 other sectors by people who operate several activities (Gockowski and Ndoumbe, 2004), and
267 in the framework of diversification efforts by agro-industrial banana companies. However,

268 the development of monoculture has resulted in increasing pressure from black sigatoka
269 (*Mycosphaerella fijiensis*). This disease can be controlled by aerial spraying, an operation
270 that is too expensive for family farms and causes environmental pollution that is damaging to
271 human health (Wilson and Otsuki, 2004).

272

273 The agricultural intensification model based on the increased use of industrial inputs means
274 that it is difficult for increased production, environmental protection (Nkamleu and Adesima,
275 2000), and human life to be compatible.

276

277 These observed technical changes do not suffice to meet the demand of urban markets. For
278 instance, the department of Lékié, once capable of supplying Yaoundé, can no longer feed its
279 own population. People living in areas subject to serious population pressure are migrating to
280 new locations: towns. Consumer prices, already high, are thus continuing to rise (INS, 2002).
281 These high prices reflect the difficulties in adapting supply systems to urban demand.

282

283 The findings discussed above emphasize the need to change the technological focus in
284 intensifying the production function of food crops by modifying the paradigm that polarizes
285 the function of agronomic research (Asenso-okyere et al., 2008).

286

287 This modification suggests a shift from an industrial input intensification paradigm, which
288 supports the homogenization of environments, to an ecological one. In this ecological
289 intensification paradigm, industrial inputs are “replaced” by an optimization of ecosystem
290 diversity through improved knowledge. In this context, the conditions for knowledge
291 production through the construction of innovation systems are at the root of the paradigm
292 shift.

304 • A study, which was derived from the researchers' empirical observations, based on
305 fundamental research in botany explained the emergence and the development of buds in
306 bananas. This stage, which occurred before 1990, lasted three to five years and led to a
307 better understanding of the failure of the *in-vivo* multiplication techniques practiced up to
308 then, but was not significantly adopted by farmers. It resulted in the development of a
309 technique for multiplying banana planting material from stem bits (Kwa, 2000, 2003). At
310 a complementary level, techniques for integrated control (e.g., trapping weevils, paring
311 suckers, using neem or submersion in hot water, control of black sigatoka by stripping
312 leaves, changing the planting calendar, control of nematodes through crop rotation with
313 plants that don't host nematodes, etc.) were initiated at the research station together with
314 the creation of hybrids resistant to black sigatoka.

315

316 The first stage led researchers at the stations (given the environment and number of
317 constraints) to produce technical inventions. The creation of interactions between the two
318 studies was undertaken simultaneously by an observatory that monitored farms and markets.
319 It also disseminated techniques that were implemented within the zone that supplies Douala
320 (South-West and Littoral provinces) by providing specialized training for technicians from
321 the Ministry of Agriculture.

322

323 The second stage (1999–2003) saw to the adapting of a set of technical proposals, namely
324 multiplication techniques and integrated control, to the range of different production
325 conditions (and thus constraints) and locations. This adaptation was made possible by the
326 researchers' involvement in the creation of institutional frameworks through contracts with
327 different types of private partnerships (e.g., companies and NGOs) and national and
328 international public partners in the South and West provinces. This system involved

329 negotiations between researchers and development projects, public authorities, and
330 operational partners (e.g., producer groups and NGOs), as well as between researchers from
331 different disciplines (e.g., economists, agronomists, nematologists, phytopathologists, and
332 geneticists) and a network of experimental farmers.

333

334 The dynamics of institutional innovation described above defined the interface between the
335 researchers, farmers, and technicians by simultaneously mobilizing:

- 336 • the main methodological principles of action research that involve the researcher in
337 creating the conditions that enable technical change to be accomplished.
- 338 • participatory research tools (Sanginga et al., 2004), which ensure that proposals
339 resulting from experimental research are validated in real production conditions and
340 involve farmers in the evaluation of the results.

341

342 In the South-West and Littoral provinces, the project relied on an observatory that monitored
343 farms and markets. The production of information concerning the markets facilitated an
344 analysis of the structures of marketing costs and value distribution in the different channels.
345 This analysis revealed dysfunctions—such as an increase in the discrepancy between prices
346 in production and consumption zones—that led public authorities to hold national surveys,
347 which resulted in more transparent markets (INS, 2005).

348

349 In the Center and South provinces, the scheme was set up around a network of experimental
350 farmers and relay institutions that were responsible for maintaining training plots and
351 demonstration nurseries.

352

353 Researchers gave participatory training courses between 2001 and 2003. These brought
354 together more than 80 farmers, 40 of whom were delegates from farmers' groups,
355 representing more than 1000 producers and 90 managers (from the Ministry of Agriculture
356 and NGOs), for 60 days of training. The process was finalized in 2003 through the
357 definition—at the initiative of the researchers—of a national plantain development project,
358 which was adopted and partially implemented by public authorities in the national plantain
359 development project introduced by the Ministry of Agriculture (Tetang et al., 2008).

360

361 The third stage (underway since 2003) is a continuation of the second stage in the Littoral,
362 South-West, and, more recently, West provinces. In the Center and South provinces, a
363 monitoring and evaluation survey based on questionnaires was conducted between 2002 and
364 2004 on a sample of 90 farms and a 2006 participatory survey was organized involving both
365 farmers and managers. In these provinces, International Institute of Tropical Agriculture,
366 which sent its technicians to CARBAP for training in new multiplication techniques, also
367 played a complementary role in disseminating innovation techniques. Monitoring of the
368 scheme enabled (i) the identification of factors that limit the diffusion of techniques, (ii)
369 evaluation in terms of adoption and impact (social, economic, etc.), and (iii) identification of
370 the extent to which the removal of bottlenecks results in new risks and technical needs.

371

372 The approach presented here results from a progressive institutional construction initiated
373 some 20 years ago by calling on a theoretical evolutionist referential and a constructivist
374 posture. From a methodological point of view, it is similar to approaches mobilized in other
375 activity-based sectors. These works underline the need to create knowledge through
376 collective action by the various operators involved in innovation (Bocquet et al., 2007;
377 Hamdouch et al., 2008).

378 3. RESULTS: IMPACTS ON PRODUCTIVITY AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

379

380 The evaluation of the impacts of the aforementioned innovations on sustainable development
381 implies the use of socioeconomic and environmental indicators (Elske and Braum, 2002). It
382 raises the methodological problem not only of access to reliable data, but also of establishing
383 causal relationships between externalities linked with the production of knowledge and
384 results that are partially induced by such externalities. These difficulties necessitate the
385 crossing of different sources of information.

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389
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393

The first indicator selected concerns the changes in plantain productivity, which was previously unstable or falling, but has seen upward movement since 1991.

Graph 1

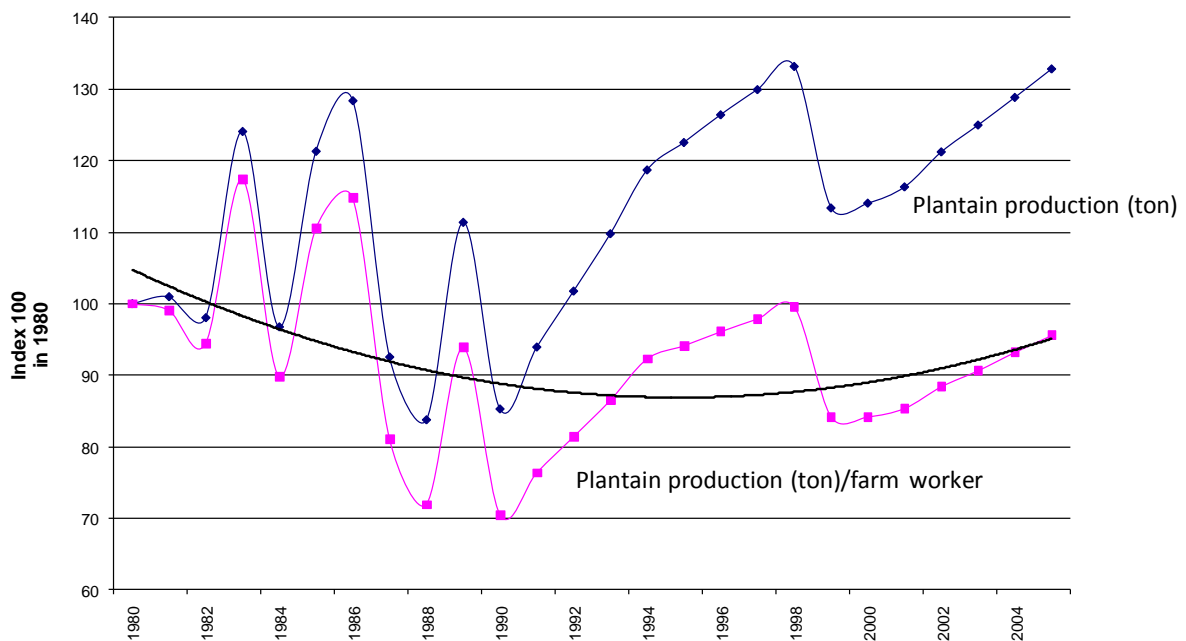


Figure 1. Plantain Production in Cameroon since 1980. Source: FAO Stat

394 Several different hypotheses may explain this phenomenon. The first supposes that farmers
395 have increased the area of land used for plantains without changing their farming techniques.
396 However, data on the amount of land used for plantain production between 1980 and 2004
397 (Fao-Stat) does not support this hypothesis. The second questions the validity of the data
398 used; however, we do not have the statistical means to test this hypothesis. The third leads us
399 to suppose that the process of innovation and the support provided by research that began in
400 1988 have influenced the observed reversal of the trend. We propose to test this hypothesis
401

402 by analyzing the adoption of technical changes in an area of experimental action (the zone
403 that supplies the city of Yaoundé). Afterward, we will attempt to characterize the relationship
404 between the increase in productivity and its impact on sustainable development, of which the
405 fight against poverty is one component.

406

407 *3.1. Impacts on the rate of adoption and dissemination of innovations*

408

409 The evaluation of impacts on the rate of adoption and on the dissemination of technical
410 innovations in the Center and South provinces revealed the considerable success met by new
411 techniques in the multiplication of planting material. A survey conducted on a sample of 90
412 experimental farms shows that the rate of adoption (57%) is high (i.e., the percentage of
413 farmers who make significant use of the technique), but the rate of diffusion is even higher.
414 Each year one farmer who masters the technique trains more than 14 others. Techniques for
415 integrated control of nematodes and weevils have also been widely adopted, although their
416 rate of diffusion is considerably lower (Temple et al., 2006).

417

418 **Box 1. Impacts on the experimental area (Center and South provinces)**

419 In 2001, in the framework of the experimental scheme, 150 nurseries were created in
420 collaboration with farmers who used shoots in natural conditions over an experimental area
421 of 70 hectares. In 2004, the national development project for plantain that was created as a
422 result of the scheme (in the area concerned) distributed 800,000 plantlets or the equivalent of
423 planting an average of 750 ha/year.

424

425 *3.2. Impacts on ecological intensification*

426

427 The adoption of new multiplication techniques for planting material results in major changes
 428 in the management of banana plantations on family farms. It enables farmers to select
 429 varieties before planting. It also means that the planting calendar can be adapted to the needs
 430 of the variety concerned and to existing soil and climate conditions. The result is an increase
 431 in planting density. On the farmers' land monitored by means of survey, planting density
 432 more than doubled, increasing from an average of 300 to 700 banana plants per plot.

433

434 The need to supply nurseries with healthy suckers has lead 65% of the farmers to establish
 435 plots for multiplication close to their homes that are also used to experiment with integrated
 436 pest control and organic fertilization. This technique, which enables varietal homogeneity to
 437 be controlled, has led to the creation of special plots dedicated to the varieties most in
 438 demand among urban consumers. Table 2 illustrates this development and shows that two
 439 varieties—"Essong" and "Elat"—are most frequently selected and thus represent 75% of
 440 nursery production. Hybrids that are resistant to black sigatoka, provided by researchers for
 441 testing, (Crbp39) (included in the category "other") have only been multiplied to a limited
 442 extent and consequently have rarely been adopted.

443

444 Table 2. Variety multiplied by new technology

Variety	Number	%
Essong	42,335	53.8
Elat	19,845	25.2
Divers	7870	10
Assugbegle	5410	6.9
Otougá	3000	3.8

Other	190	0.24
TOTAL	78,650	1.00
Sample of 10 nurseries. 2005 survey by authors		

445

446 The dissemination of new techniques creates a risk of varietal homogeneity in the plots.

447 Before the dissemination of this new multiplication technique, there was an average of 12

448 varieties of plantain per plot (in the Center province). The adoption of this technique by a

449 sample of farms, monitored by means of survey, demonstrated a fall in the average number of

450 varieties per plot to six. A generalized version of this observation would be reflected in a fall

451 in biodiversity in terms of varieties and possibly a risk of increased pressure on plant health

452 (Black Sigatoka)).

453

454 On the basis of the sample we surveyed, the new techniques have increased the yield by

455 between 10 and 30% due to reduced losses caused by parasites (healthy planting material),

456 increased weight of the bunches, increased density, and improved farming management

457 thanks to the homogeneity of the plots. Experimental results of the observations we made

458 showed an increase in the quantity of work of between 10 and 20%. The increase in yield,

459 which results from ecological intensification, reflects an increase in the intensity of work and

460 an increase in labor productivity without the use of chemical inputs.

461

462 This intensification leads to a disconnection between the current increase in the supply of

463 plantain and the continued and increased farming of new land. It should be recalled that

464 cultivating forest areas currently left fallow in the long term generally implies burning trees

465 with negative consequences for the greenhouse effect. This results in positive externalities

466 concerning the protection of forest reserves, biodiversity, and the greenhouse effect that
467 cannot be discussed in the framework of this paper.

468

469 *3.3. Impact on the increase in incomes in rural areas*

470

471 The widely dispersed plantain production mainly takes place on family farms (around
472 500,000 farms in Cameroon). The increase in labor productivity (without the use of inputs)
473 increases income from diversification on small farms by means of two main mechanisms: (i),
474 a mechanical effect caused by the increase in the volume of products sold linked to the
475 increase in physical productivity and (ii), the change in marketing conditions. The
476 homogenization of varieties and ripeness and the spatial concentration of production (at the
477 individual farm level and for the entire supply zone) reduce the costs of marketing and the
478 transaction. The increased yield of varieties that are homogenous in terms of ripeness enables
479 sales to be grouped, resulting in considerable savings on transport costs as well as allowing
480 producers to draw up sales contracts with buyers (thus a reduction in transaction costs).

481

482 The farmers pool their sales, thereby enabling them to increase their ability to negotiate
483 wholesale prices. They have also acquired “a reputation for quality” and are on the road to
484 becoming “professionals.”

485

486 One quality indicator that is important for wholesalers in the banana sector is the
487 homogeneity of ripeness and of varieties, which reduces losses resulting from logistical
488 issues. The “bayams sellam” prefer to buy products produced using “seedlings resulting from
489 stem fragments” and this has resulted in an increase in the price paid to the producers, which
490 has not yet been evaluated. In rural areas, income from plantain production is generally used

491 to satisfy basic needs and, in certain situations, finance investments in other crops (e.g., cocoa
492 or coffee). It contributes to the fight against poverty in rural areas and reduces the migration
493 of the rural populations toward the towns. While the observed link between the
494 homogenization of varieties, the reduction in transport costs, the increase in farm incomes
495 and the fall in migration towards urban centers was observed in farms that are members of the
496 Interprofessional Plantain Banana Network; however, it has not yet been subject to a precise
497 quantitative impact assessment. These measures involve specific methodologies and survey
498 mechanisms, which are programmed within the work in progress.

499

500 Two other contributions to the fight against poverty should be underlined. The first is linked
501 to the professional behavior of a certain number of nurserymen who combine their plantain
502 nursery work with other crops, such as fruit trees, palm trees, or cocoa. At another level, the
503 plantain supply is better suited to the logistics of supplying towns (homogeneous and regular
504 quantities, sufficient supplies), which consequently increases the competitiveness of the
505 plantain in respect to imported food products, such as cereals.

506

507 *3.4. Contribution to social capital: institutional to organizational innovation*

508

509 The process currently in progress is improving the ability of farmers to understand
510 ecosystems, the relations between plants and disease, and the management of banana
511 plantations (e.g., scheduling sales). The creation of this shared human capital enables farmers
512 to improve their capacity to analyze the technical transformations that are taking place by
513 combining their experience with knowledge produced through research. The reinforcement of
514 their understanding of plantain accelerates their capacity to specialize: the majority of
515 nurserymen have become large-scale producers of plantain. This alters the ways in which

516 farmers are involved in marketing by introducing contracts. An improved cognitive capacity
517 of the farmers also affects their ability to negotiate with researchers and management
518 structures, such as NGOs.

519

520 Specific know-how results in collective recognition of the nurserymen who are then called on
521 by other farmers to organize training sessions for new converts, as one farmer said: “Being a
522 nurseryman has given me an identity and increased my social recognition and prestige.”

523

524 This has resulted in the creation of social capital, which, when mobilized by the farmers, has
525 institutionalized horizontal coordination and given rise to socio-technical networks via legally
526 identified organizations:

527 • The Interprofessional Plantain Banana Network, which brings together about 50
528 farmers/nurserymen and managers, was set up in 2002 with the following objectives:

529 ➤ to collect and circulate information (e.g., technical information, sales
530 opportunities, etc.) between nurserymen and encourage the exchange of ideas.

531 ➤ to collaborate on specific and mutually advantageous activities.

532 ➤ to create a structure to tap the sources of subsidies (public and private).

533 • Association of Producers of Plantain Bananas Lékié (established in 2001), which
534 institutionalized a network of experienced planters for the purpose of producing plantlets.

535

536 The existence of these “summit” organizations has led to the creation of about ten other
537 producer groups (Common Initiative Group) that focus their activities on multiplying
538 planting material and disseminate either the techniques themselves or the knowledge required
539 for their implementation via two means:

- 540 • by organizing participatory training courses for non-members: in exchange for the transfer
541 of know-how, the participants provide the inputs needed for the seedbed (sawdust, etc.) and
542 suckers to multiply that will belong to the seedbed owner.
- 543 • by distributing “seedlings resulting from stem fragments” free of charge to encourage
544 farmers to see for themselves the difference in yield with the new planting material,
545 resulting in the “creation of new converts.”

546

547 This scheme has produced organizational innovation dynamics that are a key element in the
548 mechanism behind the rapid dissemination of knowledge and technical proposals produced
549 through research since 2002. Control of the homogeneity of the harvest calendar in respect to
550 the stage of ripeness, which is linked to the ability of farmers to multiply suckers, also
551 changes the terms of agreements with sellers. Beyond the horizontal forms of coordination
552 mentioned above, this has resulted in new forms of vertical coordination in marketing
553 contracts that have not previously been described in this context. In this study, we did not
554 examine the relation between technical innovation and improved valorization within the sales
555 chains.

556

557 Different externalities can also be mentioned. As far as positive externalities are concerned,
558 the increase in the demand for water to irrigate the nurseries has led nurserymen to invest in
559 digging wells that not only benefit other horticultural activities, but also fulfill family needs.

560 In regard to negative externalities, the fact that the nurseries are located close to homes has
561 resulted in serious termite infestations in certain areas, as the sawdust used in nurseries
562 attracts termites.

563

564 Concerning the questions posed in the introduction, it is difficult to say whether the
565 development of “organizational producers” is a condition for activating innovation processes
566 through the implementation of scientific knowledge produced through research or whether it
567 is created by the involvement of researchers alongside the producers.

568

569 4. CONCLUSION

570

571 The questions arising in connection with the adaptation of the supply of agricultural food
572 products to the urban market demand and the limited natural resources, which determine the
573 performance of extensive production systems in sub-Saharan food-producing agriculture,
574 have led to strategies for ecological intensification that require a change in classical research
575 orientations. The historical review of a 1988 scheme for plantain bananas launched in
576 Cameroon has revealed how different forms of research (e.g., fundamental, diagnostic,
577 action, and participatory) can be hybridized by relying on interactions between different
578 disciplines. Monitoring and evaluation have revealed significant impacts in terms of
579 productivity, the protection of natural resources, and an increase in the income level of family
580 farms in rural areas. It is difficult to measure these impacts exactly, as they result from
581 externalities induced by institutional and organizational innovation systems that accompanied
582 the implementation of technical innovations. The process described here is part of the
583 intensification of work and ecological approaches toward food-producing systems that
584 increase productivity. The innovations that activate a gradual intensification—making use of
585 knowledge about socioeconomic conditions and multiplication processes—also mobilize
586 productivity reserves in the field of food agriculture without using the conventional models of
587 the industrialization of production. Nevertheless, while it appears possible in light of our
588 results to increase the productivity of food agriculture without damaging natural resources by

589 increasing income, we cannot determine whether or not this increase in productivity is
590 sufficient in regards to the objectives of food security. Nor do our results analyze the
591 consequences on the reduction of social inequalities.

592

593 The shift in the technological paradigm for agronomic research toward a better ecological
594 intensification of potential production systems is possible. It underpins the governance of
595 new knowledge production involving users of research results prior to defining research
596 orientations. It must also be recalled, in respect to the experiences experimentations presented
597 in this paper, that the impact of research evaluation should include the lag between the time
598 of invention and that of innovation.

599

600

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