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Using photovoice methods as a community-based participatory research tool to advance uptake of clean cooking and improve health: The LPG adoption in Cameroon evaluation studies

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Title:

Using photovoice methods as a community-based participatory research tool to advance uptake of clean cooking and improve health: the LPG Adoption in Cameroon Evaluation studies.

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1 Title

2 Using photovoice methods as a community-based participatory research tool to advance uptake of

3 clean cooking and improve health: the LPG Adoption in Cameroon Evaluation studies.

4 Abstract

5 Each year up to 2.6 million people die prematurely from household air pollution (HAP) due to

6 cooking with polluting fuels such as wood and charcoal, particularly in low and middle-income

7 countries (LMICs). The World Health Organisation recommends scaling the adoption of clean fuels to

8 improve maternal and child health. Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) represents a scalable clean fuel

9 that provides health and environmental benefits when used for household energy in LMICs. In

10 Cameroon, over 70% of people rely on biomass for cooking, and the Government aims to increase

11 LPG use from < 20% to 58% by 2030. Supporting households make this transition requires

12 involvement of multiple stakeholders and an understanding of perspectives from the community's

13 perspective. We used visual participatory methods 'Photovoice' to explore households' perceptions of

14 factors influencing the uptake of LPG for cooking in South-West Cameroon. Two groups of

15 participants from rural (n=7) and peri-urban (n=8) areas photographed subjects they identified as

16 preventing and facilitating LPG uptake in their communities. Subsequently, individual interviews

17 (n=15) and group discussions (n=5) explored participants' reflections on the photographs. Thematic

18 analysis was conducted using NVivo 10 software. The main barriers identified included difficulty in

19 affording the initial LPG equipment and ongoing refills, scarcity of LPG retail shops and refills, and

20 safety concerns. Facilitators included (i) increasing awareness of the benefits of LPG (*e.g.* health), (ii)

21 increasing retail outlet density in rural areas, (iii) addressing safety concerns (*e.g.* replacing damaged

22 cylinders), and (iv) reducing the price of LPG refills. Participants presented their photos at a public

23 exhibition, which generated discussions with key stakeholders (*e.g.* government ministries) about how

24 best to assist communities in this transition. Photovoice was found to be an innovative and effective

25 approach for exploring how to advance equitable access to LPG from a community perspective and

26 successfully engage with key stakeholders.

27 Key words

30 1. Introduction

31 Each year up to 2.6 million people die prematurely from household air pollution (HAP) arising from

32 use of solid fuel for domestic energy, particularly in low and middle-income countries (LMICs) (HEI

33 Household Air Pollution Working Group, 2018). HAP occurs when fuels such wood and charcoal, are

34 burned indoors for cooking or heating. In 2016, HAP accounted for 4% of all premature deaths

35 (Global Burden of Diseases (GBD) (HEI Household Air Pollution Working Group, 2018). HAP is a

36 recognised risk factor for several diseases affecting both adults (cardiovascular disease, lung cancer,

37 chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) and children (pneumonia) (Dherani et al., 2008; Gordon et

38 al., 2014; Smith et al., 2014).

39 To address these challenges, the WHO Indoor Air Quality Guidelines recommend the adoption of

40 clean fuels at scale (WHO, 2014). Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) represents a widely available and

41 scalable clean fuel that provides health and environmental benefits when used for household energy in

42 LMICs (Rosenthal, Quinn, Grieshop, Pillarisetti, & Glass, 2018). LPG is already used as primary or

43 secondary cooking fuel by more than 2.5 million people globally (International Energy Agency, 2017)

44 and several countries have recently embarked in large-scale efforts to promote LPG uptake for their

45 populations (Thoday, Benjamin, Gan, & Puzzolo, 2018). Although other clean fuels are available (*e.g.*

46 electricity or piped natural gas), they are currently impractical or more expensive to deploy in these

47 disadvantaged contexts (WHO, 2014). Despite being cleaner than traditional solid fuel stoves,

48 'improved biomass cookstoves' have shown limited effectiveness in reducing HAP to levels which

49 are able to produce significant health improvements (Mortimer et al., 2017).

50 Many factors, such as household finances and availability of LPG, however, impact on the transition

51 to LPG (Quinn et al. 2018). For households that do not use LPG, particularly with low-incomes or

52 who have wood freely available to gather, the upfront costs of LPG equipment act as a primary barrier

53 to adoption (Leeuwen, Evans, & Hyseni, 2017). Among households that currently do use LPG in

54 LMICs, a frequently reported issue is the parallel use of traditional stoves with solid fuel – a practice

55 known as 'fuel stacking' (Hollada et al., 2017). Fuel stacking occurs for a variety of reasons (*e.g.* fuel

56 costs and food taste preferences), and has important implications for supporting households to use

57 LPG exclusively, necessary to significantly reduce HAP (Quinn et al., 2018).

58 Understanding around factors influencing the transition to LPG has been structured - in the form of a

59 'LPG logic model' according to (i) industry and services, (ii) consumer demand (iii) pricing and

60 costing and (iv) user and community perceptions (Rosenthal et al., 2017). This model builds on a

61 systematic review by Puzzolo *et al.* (2016) where several factors have been identified as operating at

62 different levels including international (*e.g.* LPG import price), national government (*e.g.* ability to

63 enforce rules and safety standards) and community and household level (*e.g.* needs). To facilitate

64 communities to make this transition these structures need to be recognised as operating within the

65 same system, and issues tackled together by working across different levels, with strong government

66 support (Quinn et al., 2018; Rosenthal et al., 2017). Despite recognising the importance of community

67 perceptions, the systematic review by Puzzolo *et al.* (2016) did not identify any qualitative studies

68 related to LPG at that time and highlighted the need to conduct qualitative research to address this gap

69 and better understand community perspectives. There is now a growing recognition for the need to

70 develop programmes able to promote continued LPG use, in addition to adoption to maximize health

71 and environmental benefits. Exploring community perspectives is needed to disentangle the key

72 motives for people not adopting or using LPG on a sustained basis, and ultimately inform policy.

73 Moreover, until recent years, qualitative research has focused on adoption of 'improved cook stoves'

74 (Ardrey, Desmond, Tolhurst, & Mortimer, 2016; Rehfuess, Puzzolo, Stanistreet, Pope, & Bruce,

75 2014; Stanistreet, Puzzolo, Bruce, Pope, & Rehfuess, 2014). Only a few studies (Hollada et al., 2017;

76 Labriet & Alfaro, 2015; Rehfuess et al., 2014) have explored households' perceptions of factors

77 impacting on LPG uptake in LMICs, none of which were in Sub-Saharan Africa, where reliance on

78 solid fuels is prevalent and policies to promote access to clean household energy are still scarce.

79 Driven by these needs, community-based participatory research (CBPR) could be an effective

80 approach in (i) engaging more actively with community members in the field of clean household

81 energy, (ii) understanding how best to facilitate adoption and continued use of LPG from a

3

82 community perspective, and (ii) reaching key stakeholders across the different levels of the LPG

83 supply chain, so that the users' voice and needs can directly influence interventions/policies to address

84 local needs. CBPR is an approach that promotes community participation, social action, and

85 collaborative inquiry, and is often employed to tackle public concerns (Castleden, Garvin, & First

86 Nation, 2008; Israel et al., 2005; Minkler, 2005).

87 Photovoice, initially developed by Wang & Burris (1997), originates from a CBPR approach, and is a

88 collective visual method wherein people use photographs to represent community issues important to

89 them. Photovoice is grounded in Freire's approach to education for critical consciousness (1970,

90 1974), which suggests that the visual image is an important instrument for (i) stimulating individuals

91 to reflect about their community and (ii) advocating for change. In photovoice, the production of

92 knowledge is in the hands of participants, who determine what to represent in a photograph, and

93 gradually become 'interpreters of the world' (Carlson, Engebretson, & Chamberlain, 2006). This

94 process is strengthened by collective discussions, where people share the meanings of their

95 photographs and reflect on their community (Wang & Burris, 1997). Photographs and accompanying

96 captions presented through an exhibition are used as an advocacy tool to bring participants' voices to

97 the attention of key stakeholders (*e.g.* policy makers), raise their awareness about the issues identified,

98 so that they can stimulate change (Hergenrather, 2009).

99 *1.1 Study context*

100 Cameroon is a low middle-economy with a Gross Domestic Product worth 34.80 billion US$ in 2017

101 (Trading Economics, 2018). Despite the recent health, and economic developments, over 70% of

102 people still rely on solid fuels (primarily wood) for cooking (more than 90% in rural areas) (Enquête

103 Démographique et de Santé et à Indicateurs Multiples du Cameroun 2011, 2012). As of 2011, 18% of

104 peri-urban households reported to use LPG primarily for cooking. To address this issue, in 2016 the

105 Cameroon Government announced the first national Clean Cooking LPG *Master Plan* – the first step

106 needed to expand the LPG market. By improving LPG supply and availability in cylinders, the

107 Government aims to increase usage of LPG from less than 20% to 58% of the population (around 18

108 million people) by 2030 (GLPGP, 2016). Achieving this goal will help to solve the issues of health,

109 deforestation, energy security, and climate associated with relying on biomass for fuel (Bruce et al.,

4

110 2018). It will also contribute to achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 7 on "ensuring

111 universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services" and SGD3 on "better health and

112 well-being for all". Cameroon operates the safe and sustainable 'branded cylinder recirculation

113 model': LPG marketers own the cylinders and are responsible for safety checking and replacement,

114 and households exchange their empty cylinders of a specific brand for a filled one of the same brand.

115 The price of LPG is uniformly subsidised in Cameroon; a 12.5kg cylinder refill cost CFA 6,500/US$

116 12 (equivalent to US$ 0.98 per kg of LPG), with minor cost variations due to added transport costs.

117 *1.2 Study aims*

118 This paper reports on a photovoice study that engaged with community members in South-West

119 Cameroon to: (i) identify factors influencing the uptake and continued use of LPG for cooking from a

120 community perspective; (ii) increase individual and community awareness of the benefits of switching

121 to clean fuel; and (iii) facilitate critical dialogue with key stakeholders (*e.g.* policy makers) about how

122 best to advance uptake of clean cooking and improve health.

123 ## 2. Methods

124 The study was conducted from February to September 2017 as a part of the 'LPG Adoption in

125 Cameroon and Evaluation (LACE)' program, a series of mixed methods studies examining how to

126 achieve and sustain LPG transition in Cameroon (anonymised reference). Ethical approval was

127 obtained from [Anonymous] and [Anonymous] (Cameroon) in February 2017.

128 *1.1 Study setting and participants*

129 We conducted the study in the South West Region of Cameroon (Anglophone coastal region), in the

130 locations of Buea and Limbe – one community selected from each location. In Limbe (peri-urban),

131 availability of LPG refills and supply tends to be more consistent than Buea (rural), located

132 approximately 15 km from Limbe, where there is a lack of LPG retail outlets. A cross-sectional

133 household survey conducted for the LACE program (anonymised reference) showed that household

134 wealth (income and asset ownership) was significantly related to LPG use, with greater LPG use in

135 peri-urban settings. These households had greater occupations that paid in cash and monthly income

136 and were more likely to own assets (*e.g.* access to electricity) than rural households. By contrast, rural

5

137 households were more likely to be employed in farming with lower incomes and seasonality affected

138 earnings (*e.g.* timing of crops). Study participants (n=15) were purposively selected from a sub-set of

139 households that took part in a cross-sectional household survey for the LACE study (n=300)

140 (anonymised reference). The recruitment comprised two stages. 1. Based on the survey data, we

141 generated a list of households (head cooks) stratified by fuel use: those who reported (i) exclusively

142 using wood fuel (defined 'non-LPG users') and (ii) using both wood and LPG (defined 'mixed users')

143 for cooking. The non-LPG users were predominantly from the rural community, and mixed users

144 from the peri-urban community. 2. From this list, fieldworkers recruited participants ensuring a range

145 of ages, gender, and incomes, to incorporate various perspectives. They further assessed participant

146 eligibility through a set of questions, including current use of LPG (to assess if it changed since the

147 survey response) and a desire to adopt or use LPG exclusively (we were interested in encouraging

148 participants to identify solutions to LPG uptake in their community). We anticipated a more female

149 representation of the sample, as based on traditional gender roles, women living in Sub-Saharan

150 Africa are primarily responsible for cooking and child rearing (Austin & Mejia, 2017). In Cameroon,

151 women tend to be head cooks, while traditional male occupations in the study region include farming

152 and fishing.

153 To best promote effective group dynamics, fieldworkers selected between six and ten participants per

154 community.

155 *2.2 Procedures*

156 Three trained fieldworkers collected the data. Their knowledge of the local culture proved crucial in

157 informing parts of the study and in facilitating the research process. For instance, fieldworkers

158 reported that participants were not used to sharing their views on their community and therefore they

159 may have found it challenging to identify issues and potential solutions. We worked with the

160 fieldworkers to ensure that the questions were phrased in such a way that prompted participants to

161 think of issues/solutions, and the value of their views was stressed thorough the process.

162 We slightly adapted Wang & Burris' (1997) original methodology consisting of just focus group

163 discussions (FGDs) to incorporate a semi-structured interview (SSI) in the process (Nykiforuk, et al.

164 2011 replaced FGDs with SSIs in their methodology) (represented graphically in Figure 1). Based on

6

165 previous experience, the lead researcher found that the additional SSI helped to (i) build a rapport

166 with the participant and (ii) explore the individual perceptions of the photographs in a greater depth

167 than in FGDs – typically focused on stimulating discussion (anonymised reference). We arranged two

168 photovoice groups, one in each community (demographics presented in Table 2), which lasted

169 approximately one month. Each group took part in three sessions: two FGDs (Phase 1 and 4, Figure 1)

170 and a SSI (Phase 3), conducted in the local language (Pidgin) and audio recorded with permission.

171 Field notes were collected on these occasions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Both FGDs took place in

172 community halls, while the interviews took place in participants' homes. In recognition of their time,

173 participants received a framed photograph of their choice. Phase 1-5 (Figure 1) were repeated

174 separately for each group.

175 • In Phase 1, the fieldworkers offered an overview of the project, gave each participant a digital

176 camera, and conducted the photographic and ethical training, including photo ownership and

177 ethics of individuals appearing in photos. Following the ethics guidance developed by Wang &

178 Redwood-Jones (2001), participants received an 'Acknowledgment and release form' and were

179 instructed to obtain written consent from any person who was photographed. Fieldworkers

180 explained the 'rules' regarding when consent was required (*e.g.* individual or group is 'featured')

181 and when it was not (*e.g.* a crowd of people) and advised to avoid taking photographs of

182 individuals under 18, unless they were relatives. Written permission to use photographs for

183 dissemination of results was obtained from participants (Evans-Agnew & Rosemberg, 2016).

184 Subsequently, participants discussed in groups their general views of cooking with wood and LPG

185 use in their community. This discussion served as a stimulus to encourage participants to think

186 about potential subjects they could photograph (Phase 2).

187 • In Phase 2, participants took photographs over ten days. Participants were asked to photograph

188 'any meaningful object/person/aspect of their community that represented a barrier or facilitator

189 to starting cooking or to cook more with LPG. They were not given examples of potential photos,

190 as we wanted to limit the researcher's influence over the participants' choice of photographs

191 (Evans-Agnew & Rosemberg, 2016). The fieldworkers visited each participant to check on the

7

192   photo taking-task and provided technical assistance if required (Musoke, Ndejjo, Ekirapa-

193   Kiracho, & George, 2016).

194 • Phase 3 included a SSI. Each participant, who had not seen the photographs before the interview,

195   selected the six photos they thought best represented factors influencing LPG uptake in their

196   community. To elicit meaningful responses, fieldworkers asked a set of questions (Appendix A)

197   informed by the *SHOWeD* technique (Wang, Yi, Tao, & Carovano, 1998). The questions focused

198   on the meanings and importance of the photographs. Moreover, participants discussed whether

199   there was any photograph that they wanted to take, but for various reasons were unable to, to

200   identify unrecorded issues of importance to them (Hodgetts, Chamberlain, & Radley, 2007).

201   Overall, 90 photographs were selected by the two photovoice groups.

202 • Phase 4 started with a FGD, wherein each participant presented their chosen six photographs and

203   commented on each other's photos, reflecting on similarities and differences between them.

204   Subsequently, they sorted the photographs into two clusters (barriers and facilitators to LPG

205   uptake) and summarised the meanings of each photograph onto flipcharts. They later made a list

206   of priorities that needed addressing (*e.g.* replacing damaged cylinders). Fieldworkers ensured all

207   participants were involved in the process by encouraging everyone to ask questions about the

208   photographs presented and assisting participants in writing up what was discussed onto the

209   flipcharts. At the end of the session, participants chose which photographs they wanted to display

210   at the photo-exhibition (Diez et al., 2016).

211 • In Phase 5, [Anonymous] wrote a commentary based on the participant's original description of

212   the photographs (from the transcripts). To ensure the captions accurately reflected the meanings,

213   each participant reviewed and approved the commentaries prior to the photo- exhibition (Evans-

214   Agnew & Rosemberg, 2016).

215 • In Phase 6, a photo-exhibition (September 2017) was conducted in the study location. Following

216   discussion with participants, the event was held at a central Museum of social significance with

217   good access to public transport. Fifty-one photographs were presented, with each participant

218   having between three and four photographs displayed. Photographs were organised by themes and

219 subthemes, which were reviewed and approved by participants. Participants presented their

220 photographs and stories to 100 people including (i) community leaders and mayors of the

221 communities, (ii) local representatives from government ministries of Environment, Energy, and

222 Health, (iii) LPG marketers, (iv) local and national newspapers and (v) community members. The

223 photo-exhibition provided a forum for participants to raise awareness about these issues to

224 influential stakeholders (Figure 2) and discuss how best to assist communities in transitioning to

225 clean cooking. The event was evaluated with a short survey, and observation notes were taken to

226 capture the interactions between participants and stakeholders. Findings of the impact of the event

227 will be presented in a forthcoming paper.

228

229   [Insert Figure 1]

230 Figure 1 Phases of the photovoice process. Adapted from Wang & Burris (1998) Nykiforuk, et al. (2011), and
231 (anonymised reference)

232   [Insert Figure 2]

233   Figure 2 Example of a participant explaining her photo to key stakeholders at the event.

234

235 2.3 *Data analysis*

236 Interviews and FGDs were transcribed verbatim and translated into English; the transcripts were

237 doubled-checked for accuracy. Analysis was conducted using NVivo 10 software (QSR International,

238 2014). We identified themes and subthemes from the transcripts, drawing on techniques from

239 thematic analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The data analysis process began after Phase 4 (Figure

240 1) was completed in both groups. It was informed by Drew & Guillemin's (2014) analytical

241 framework of 'interpretive engagement' for participants-generated images, and included the following

242 steps:

243 1. Participants' analysis recorded onto the flipcharts was used to develop an initial set of codes for the

244 thematic analysis. This material consisted of a list of photographs categorised into barriers and

245 facilitators, a summary accompanying each photograph, and a list of key priorities that needed

246 addressing.

9

247   2. Based on this preliminary list of codes, the analysis progressed with line-by-line coding of the SSIs

248   and FGDs transcripts, wherein additional codes were developed. [Anonymous] read, coded, and

249   analysed the transcripts, for which [Anonymous] with 20% double-coding. [Anonymous] &

250   [Anonymous] compared the codes and discussed any discrepancies.

251   3. The analysis progressed with development of categories, and organisation of categories into themes

252   and sub-themes. We looked for similarities and differences between photographs (Bisung, Elliott,

253   Abudho, Schuster-Wallace, & Karanja, 2015), which we grouped into sub-themes that emerged

254   through the thematic analysis. Although photographs contextualised participants' narratives (Belon,

255   Nieuwendyk, Vallianatos, & Nykiforuk, 2014), we did not code the photographs' content separately

256   from the transcripts – according to Wang & Burris (1997), the meaning of the images resides in the

257   ways that participants interpret those images.

258   4. The fieldworkers met with each participant, who checked that the findings emerging from the

259   thematic analysis reflected what emerged from the photographs and discussions. Selected examples of

260   how the participants' analysis (of barriers, facilitators, and priorities) is linked with the findings

261   identified in the thematic analysis is shown in Appendix B.

262   5. Finally, we presented the preliminary findings at the photo-exhibition event (Phase 6, Figure 1). We

263   displayed some bubble posters presenting open questions arising from the main findings (*e.g.* what are

264   your opinions about availability and accessibility of LPG?). Attendees (community and stakeholders)

265   made comments with post-it notes. This helped to verify the accuracy of the findings and integrate

266   any external perspectives relating to the issues raised (Bisung et al., 2015).

267   3. Results

268   Participants took a total of 586 photographs (313 peri-urban; 273 rural), with an average of 25-30

269   photographs per participant. Table 1 presents demographic details of the 15 participants.

270   [Insert Table 1]

271   Table 1 Details of participants.

272   The findings that emerged centred on two main themes: *barriers* and *facilitators* for adoption and

273   continued use of LPG. Some findings were similar between non-LPG users and mixed users, such as

274 safety/security concerns due to poor housing and old equipment, the importance of raising awareness

275 of the negative effects of firewood, and the benefits of LPG. However, rural households identified

276 affordability of and accessibility to LPG as the main factors preventing their adoption. Peri-urban

277 households, instead, emphasised issues related to accessibility of LPG refills as preventing their

278 continued use of the fuel. In terms of differences according to higher or lower income, rural

279 households generally had lower household income (Table 1) than peri-urban households, and this was

280 reflected in the findings, with financial difficulties emerging as an important barrier to LPG adoption

281 for rural households. Female and male participants, as well as younger and older participants, took

282 similar photographs, and expressed consistent views about perceived barriers and facilitators of LPG

283 use.

284 It is noteworthy that, when reflecting on their own experiences of fuel use, some participants

285 identified aspects that related to themselves, and others, identified aspects that related to the wider

286 community.

287 *3.1 Key identified barriers to adoption and continued use of LPG*

288 Amongst the barriers to LPG uptake or use, participants described (i) the high cost of initial purchase

289 of the LPG equipment, (ii) poor access to refills due to long distances, (iii) poor availability of LPG

290 cylinders at retail shops, (iv) lack of access to certain cylinder brands and resulting in use of wood and

291 (v) safety concerns due to poor housing and old LPG equipment.

292 *3.1.1   Financial impediments in affording LPG*

293 Despite willingness to use LPG, all non-users reported the prohibitive costs of initial purchase and/or

294 refills as a barrier. Figure 3 shows a woman with a three-burner LPG stove but without a gas cylinder,

295 as she was unable to afford the refill.

296   "I took this picture because *this woman has a gas plate, but no gas bottle*. [...] without the

297   gas bottle, the plate is useless. [...] *this woman is really interested in having gas, but she is*

298   *financially down, and business is slow."* (P7, SSI, F, Rural, age 66, Income 4)

299   [Insert Figure 3]

300   Figure 3 Example of financial impediments preventing LPG use (P7, F, Rural, age 66, Income 4)

301 According to non-LPG users, the cost of the initial equipment was pitched against competing

302 expenses such as providing food for their family and supporting children to go to school.

303 "Some of us have given birth to 8, 9, 10 children, so *we cannot remove thirty to thirty-six*

304 *thousand [francs][1] to go and purchase LPG kits when there is no food in the house.*" (P6,

305 FG1, group 1) [1][30,000 CAF= 52.1US$, exchange rates as of December 2018]

306 Some participants reported using both LPG and wood for cooking to make LPG last for longer,

307 particularly when cooking large quantities of food or for foods taking a long time to cook.

308 "I am doing economy, since I don't want my gas to get finished fast. *I use wood to cook*

309 *my food and then I use gas to reheat the food so that the gas can stay for long* [...]." (P1,

310 FG1, F, Peri-urban, age 28, Income 2)

311 According to some non-LPG users, financial support (*e.g.* access to micro-loan schemes or the

312 possibility of paying in instalments) could help them to afford the initial equipment and refills.

313 "Gas is good though many [people] are complaining of financial difficulties. *If you [...]*

314 *can supply gas to them and they pay in instalments, it will be good.*" (P5, SSI, F, Rural,

315 age 60, Income 1)

316 *3.1.2   Transportation costs to access refills due to long distances*

317 Most non-LPG users reported the scarcity of retail shops selling LPG in rural areas resulting in both

318 time and financial costs in accessing LPG, as shown in Figure 4 and the quote below.

319 "This is a picture of a child with an [empty] gas bottle waiting to board a car to go and buy

320 gas. [She waited] for about 2 hours. *[This picture shows] the difficulties in obtaining gas*

321 *due to distance and transport cost and, also the uncertainty of gas in other places*. If we

322 had a shop that sells gas, [this would] reduce transport costs." (P2, SSI, F, Rural, age 28,

323 Income 1)

324   [Insert Figure 4]

325 Figure 4 Example of added transportation costs and time lost due to lack of retail shops (P2, F, Rural, age 28,

326   Income 1)

327 Most non-LPG users and one mixed user represented long distances to procure LPG by photographing

328 empty roads (*e.g.* Figure 5). They also reported that poor road infrastructure prevented distribution. In

329 Figure 5, a participant photographed a ruined road to raise awareness of this issue.

330   "This picture represents *a clear example of a bad road, [and] there is no point sale of gas.*

331   *It is very costly to buy gas from town and transport it to your house. When we talk of*

332   *scarcity of gas, it doesn't mean that the gas is not available at all, but not available where*

333   *you are.* The companies can come into collaboration with the council to fix the roads, so

334   that vehicles can be able to supply gas right into our quarters." (P5, SSI, M, age 38, Peri-

335   urban, Income 2)

336   [Insert Figure 5]

337 Figure 5 Example of poor road infrastructure preventing LPG distribution (P5, M, age 38, Peri-urban, Income 2)

338 *3.1.3 Poor availability of LPG cylinders at retail shops*

339 Most mixed fuel users reported that scarcity of cylinders prevented exclusive use. This included lack

340 of specific refill brands, or lack of available refills due to shortages more generally, as shown by

341 Figure 6 and the quote below.

342   [Insert Figure 6]

343 Figure 6 Example of lack of access to specific cylinder brands (P6, F, age 45, Peri-urban, Income 2)

344   "My gas got finished and I went to buy a new one, but *it was not available.* I asked the

345   sales' boy why he is not selling the brand of gas that I am using. He said that the gas is not

346   available in town, and a lot of people have demanded gas. *This [situation] might lead to*

347   *health problems, due to the use of firewood as alternative. […] even if you have the money*

348   *to buy gas, it is difficult to get gas."* (P6, SSI, F, age 45, Peri-urban, Income 2)

349 *3.1.4 Lack of access to specific cylinder brands and reversion to biomass use*

350 In addition to time and expense to procure LPG cylinders, travelling long distances did not always

351 guarantee finding a new cylinder. Mixed fuel users reported often being unable to replace their

352 cylinder with one of the same brand meaning they had to revert to their traditional stove, with

353 associated negative health effects.

354   "I don't like the fireside. *I used wood because my gas got finished.* […] *That fireside* […]

355   *gives too much sickness: catarrh, cough, eye problems, chest problems."* (P8, SSI, F, age

356   52, Peri-urban, Income 3)

357 The participant who took a photograph representing scarcity of cylinders (section 3.1.3 Figure 6), also

358 described her suffering as a result of using firewood as an alternative (Figure 7). She explained that

359 changing her refill brand (*e.g.* paying the deposit to get a different brand's cylinder) would have

360 resulted in extra costs (than just buying a refill of her current brand), which she could not afford at

361 present.

362   "I took this picture to show *how my face was affected by smoke, because there is no gas*

363   *and I could not starve my children. [The suppliers] should make gas to be always available.*

364   *I'm used to this brand, and if you want to change the brand you need to buy the bottle and*

365   *have the head changed, which is expensive for me."* (P6, SSI, F, age 45, Peri-urban,

366   Income 2)

367   [Insert Figure 7]

368
369   Figure 7 Example of lack of access to specific cylinder brands and consequent use of firewood to cook
    (P6, F, age 45, Peri-urban, Income 2)
370

371 These examples suggest that firewood still represents an important source of cooking fuel that people

372 revert to when LPG becomes unavailable for logistical (e.g. scarcity of refills) and/or financial

373 reasons.

374 *3.1.5   Safety/security concerns due to poor housing and old equipment*

375 Non-LPG users and two mixed fuel users reported safety and security concerns due to poor housing

376 and old equipment. For instance, they considered the quality of some housing materials not suitable

377 for use with LPG. Plank houses were perceived unsafe due to risk of theft and accidents (*e.g.*

378 explosions), particularly when children were around (Figure 8 and quote).

379   "In this kind of kitchen, I can't put my gas in it. *The plank is soft, and the kitchen space is*

380   *small, such that someone can steal my gas bottle. It's dangerous to use gas because the*

14

381   *gas can burn the planks, particularly when children are around."* (P3, SSI, F, age 45,

382   Rural, Income 1)

383   [Insert Figure 8]

384   Figure 8 Example of a plank house considered unsuitable for use with LPG (P3, F, age 45, Rural, Income 1)

385   Conversely, both groups identified 'block' houses as safe to have LPG. They described them as

386   valuable assets, which could not be spoilt by the smoke of firewood (Figure 9 and quote).

387   *"Houses made of block are good to use gas and it's safe. The smoke will spoil the block,*

388   *so need to use only gas."* (P4, SSI, M, age 47, Rural, Income 1)

389   [Insert Figure 9]

390   Figure 9 Example of a block house considered suitable for LPG use *(*P4, M, age 47, Rural, Income 1)

391   Despite these safety concerns, some non-LPG users suggested that people could be trained how to use

392   LPG in a plank/mat house safely.

393   "With mat houses, using gas is so risky; it can easily catch fire. [This problem can be

394   solved] *by helping [people] through advice, that having such a house does not prevent*

395   *[them] from owning gas. They can still use it [gas] by putting it in a safe area where*

396   *children cannot reach."* (P1, SSI, F, age 24, Rural, Income 2)

397   Others highlighted that children could be educated on safe use of LPG.

398   "The person having the gas can [tell] the children to stay away when not around, and if

399   *there is an older child in the house, the person can show them how to operate the gas."*

400   (P2, SSI, F, age 28, Rural, Income 1)

401   For two mixed fuel users, the poor quality of the LPG equipment (including cylinders and gas plate/

402   knobs) was also an important concern. For instance, they were worried that leakage could lead to

403   explosion. In Figure 10, a participant photographed a potentially damaged cylinder they were using in

404   their home, to raise awareness of the need to replace damaged cylinders. These negative experiences

405   reinforced mistrust in certain LPG brands.

406   *"This type of bottle usually has a leakage.* It is rusted and old. It looks like a bottle fallen

407   from a trailer because *the head is bent. [Gas providers] should change the gas bottles and*

408   *produce clean and new ones* […]." (P3, SSI, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)

409   [Insert Figure 10]

410   Figure 10 Example of poor-quality LPG cylinder (P3, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)

411   *3.2   Facilitators to adoption and continued use of LPG*

412   Participants were encouraged to find solutions to address the barriers identified. For example, in

413   Section 3.1, participants suggested ways to overcome some of the identified barriers including

414   increasing LPG retail density and number of refills available for purchase (Figure 7), repairing bad

415   roads to improve refill distribution (Figure 5), replacing damaged cylinders (Figure 10), and enabling

416   access to micro-loans/instalment payments to improve affordability of LPG equipment. In this

417   section, other facilitators to LPG adoption/use are described, not previously mentioned in relation to

418   barriers.

419   *3.2.1   Increasing awareness of the economic benefits of cooking with LPG*

420   In section 3.1.1, non-LPG users reported high costs of LPG as a key barrier preventing their uptake.

421   To address this issue, most mixed users suggested informing people of the cost comparison between

422   LPG and firewood.

423   "People […] haven't realised that *wood is more expensive than gas,* especially those who

424   don't buy wood but fetch for free. For those who buy wood and gas, *if you compare the*

425   *prices, you will realise that […] gas is cheaper."* (P2, FG1, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income

426   2)

427   The above quote shows that non-LPG users who purchased firewood perceived it as being more

428   affordable than LPG, as they tended to buy it frequently in small amounts. Paying in small

429   amounts was seen as more affordable than a single large expense for a refill. For this reason,

430   non-LPG users continued cooking with firewood:

431   "*Wood is less expensive, and always available.* We buy firewood every day for 300 to

432   400 francs[2]. *Since we do not have gas around, we prefer the wood even though it has*

433   *effects on us"* (P2, FG1, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 2)

16

434 [2]CAF 400 = US$ 0.70. The monthly firewood expenditure is approximately equal to CFA 9,000

435 – 12,000 as compared to the cost of a cylinder refill CFA 6,500 = US$ 11.3 [Exchange rates as

436 of December 2018]

437 Alongside buying wood, however, most non-LPG users (N=4) reported gathering some of their wood

438 for free, thereby making it difficult to realise the economic benefits of switching to LPG.

439 "If we go into the forest, we will find wood. Cross-cutting the wood is less expensive as

440 compared to gas. […] we will not think of buying gas, because wood is readily available".

441 (P4, SSI, M, age 47, Rural, Income 1)

442 Two participants took photos of chopped wood and a forest to represent this concept, and the quote

443 below shows how cooking with wood impacted negatively on their health,

444 "I took this picture because we don't buy wood but collect it free from the farm. […] when

445 cooking, the smoke affects my eyes, so I need gas. I wish that the price of gas was

446 reduced." (P4, SSI, M, age 47, Rural, Income 1).

447 These findings further reinforce what expressed by participants in section 3.1.13.1.2 about the

448 importance of making LPG more affordable.

449 *3.2.2   Increasing awareness of the health and everyday benefits of cooking with LPG*

450 Both groups highlighted the importance of informing people of the benefits of cooking with LPG.

451 Most mixed users indicated the cleanliness of the kitchen, clothes, and pots from using LPG. An

452 example is shown in Figure 11 and quote.

453 "There are *two pots on a gas plate. The shiny one shows that it is always used on gas, and*

454 *the black one is permanently on fireside. I took this picture to show the disadvantages of*

455 *firewood and good usage of gas."* (P3, SSI, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)

456 [Insert Figure 11]

457 Figure 11 Example of differences between LPG and firewood. The pot on the left is used on an LPG stove,
458 and the pot on the right is used on firewood. (P3, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)
459

17

460 Mixed users also reported that cooking with LPG was easy and fast, and that they could cook all foods

461 on LPG, including traditional meals (*e.g.* 'fufu').

462   "My traditional meal is fufu corn and I prepare it with LPG. Some people said they can't

463   prepare fufu with LPG. *I can prepare everything with LPG. Their reason is to economise*

464   *their gas*, especially homes that have [many] persons in the household, *because gas is very*

465   *expensive."* (P6, IV2, F, age 45, Peri-urban, Income 2)

466 This quote suggests that the reason for not cooking some meals on LPG may not be taste-

467 related, but because they take a long time to cook using a perceived large amount of LPG (see

468 also Section 3.1.1). These findings further highlight how perceived fuel prices impact on the

469 ability of some households to use LPG exclusively.

470 *3.2.3   Increasing awareness of the negative effects of smoke pollution on health*

471 In sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2, mixed users took photographs of the benefits of using LPG. By contrast,

472 most non-LPG users (and a few mixed users) photographed the negative effects that smoke pollution

473 had on health. From the participant's narratives, it appears that they did it with a twofold aim: (i) to

474 raise awareness of the negative impacts of using firewood, as well as (ii) to show the benefits of using

475 LPG.

476 Reported negative health effects included breathing, heart, and eye problems (*e.g.* tears), catarrh, and

477 headache. Figure 12 shows a pregnant woman having difficulties in breathing due to the smoke

478 coming from the firewood.

479   "This picture shows a pregnant woman cooking in smoke in her kitchen. *It is not good for*

480   *her health and of the baby […]. She had difficulty in breathing and the heat is too much*

481   *for her in her condition.* [This picture] is a motivation for us to use gas". (P3, SSI, F, age

482   45, Rural, Income 1)

483   [Insert Figure 12]

484 Figure 12 Example of a pregnant woman experiencing the negative effects of cooking with firewood (P3, F, age
485 45, Rural, Income 1)

486 Similarly, a mixed user reported the negative effects caused by inhaling smoke and highlighted the

487 benefits of cooking with LPG:

18

488   "The smoke from the three-stone fireside destroys the walls of the kitchen. *If the smoke*

489   *can destroy the wall, what do you think will happen to your chest when you are always*

490   *there?* […] every day you inhale the smoke by blowing the fire with your mouth and

491   destroy your lungs. *Gas is better because you cook in a clean good atmosphere and the*

492   *pots are clean."* (P3, SSI, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)

493 ## 4. Discussion

494 This study adds important findings to the qualitative literature on factors influencing LPG uptake in a

495 Sub-Saharan African context (anonymised reference). To our knowledge, it is the first CBPR study

496 that used photovoice methods to actively engage community members in exploring their perceptions

497 of factors influencing uptake of LPG and in bringing their views to the attention of relevant

498 stakeholders through a photographic-exhibition event. A previous pilot photovoice study was

499 conducted in Malawi, but this explored factors influencing uptake of 'improved biomass cook stoves'

500 (Ardrey et al., 2016).

501 Socio-economic factors (household wealth and income) have been identified as a major social

502 determinant of use of LPG for cooking (Nlom & Karimov, 2015). In our study, difficulties in

503 purchasing the initial equipment represented a significant barrier, particularly among rural households

504 that had lower incomes than peri-urban households. This is consistent to what was found in the cross-

505 sectional survey conducted for the LACE program (anonymised reference), which showed that socio-

506 economic factors were significantly related with LPG use – which was greater in peri-urban areas. To

507 address this barrier, in our study, participants suggested that payment in instalments and/or access to

508 loan schemes could assist communities to afford the initial purchase. In some countries, including

509 Sudan and Burkina Faso, financing and micro-loan initiatives have been put in place to help

510 households in transitioning to LPG (Carbon Clear, 2016; Entrepreneurs du Monde, 2014). In

511 Cameroon, the first ever micro-loan initiative to support adoption of LPG through the acquisition of

512 new LPG equipment was launched in a peri-urban community (n=150) in the South-West region in

513 2017 (Leeuwen et al., 2017). The evaluation of the 'Bottled gas for better life' pilot was conducted as

514 part of the LACE program with preliminary results indicating that the microloan intervention

515 positively changed people's cooking practices with continued use of LPG during the loan period

516 (anonymised reference). The loan offered is now being offered in other regions of Cameroon (Global

517 LPG Partnership, 2018). Despite the increasing drive to scale up clean cooking energy, without

518 financial support, most disadvantaged people will not be able to fully make the transition to LPG. It is

519 therefore imperative to explore approaches that make the initial equipment more affordable

520 (Goldemberg, Martinez-Gomez, Sagar, & Smith, 2018).

521 Consistent with the literature, LPG availability is among the first pre-requisites to shape its adoption,

522 in both urban and rural settings (Cecelski & Matinga, 2014; Puzzolo et al. 2016). If LPG is

523 unavailable, people cannot use it even if they could afford it. Our study showed that poor availability

524 of cylinders (e.g. cylinder brands and low retail outlet density and distribution) prevented LPG use in

525 the study area. Some mixed users were willing to use LPG and may have been able to afford it for

526 continued use, but scarcity of cylinder refills forced them to revert to firewood for cooking. This

527 supports findings by Labriet & Alfaro (2015), that biomass still represents an important source of

528 energy that people use when LPG becomes unavailable for logistical (*e.g.* scarcity of refills) and/or

529 economic reasons (*e.g.* lack of money to pay for transportation).

530 Concerning safe use of LPG, some participants reported fear of accidents due to poor housing

531 materials (particularly when children were around) and/or due to poor-quality cylinders. Prior studies

532 (Hollada et al., 2017; Puzzolo et al., 2016) have also reported that safety concerns acted as barriers to

533 uptake of LPG. For instance, Hollada *et al.* (2017), in their qualitative study in Peru, found that the

534 perceived risk of explosions due to improper use of LPG stoves or due to poor-quality cylinders

535 contributed to the users' sense of mistrust towards some LPG cylinder brands. No concern was

536 reported however, related to LPG use in plank/mat houses or when children were around, as observed

537 in our study.

538 Mixed users in our study recommended increasing awareness among non-LPG users of the benefits of

539 cooking with LPG (*e.g.* cost comparison between LPG and other purchased fuels). However, despite

540 recognising that LPG was cheaper than purchased wood, to make LPG last longer, some mixed users

541 tended to use LPG in combination with firewood/charcoal, particularly with large quantities of food or

542 with food taking a long time to cook. Similar findings were found in a qualitative study conducted in

543   Guatemala exploring mixed users' views of LPG (Labriet & Alfaro, 2015). These results further

544   highlight that polices and interventions to promote LPG uptake need to tackle fuel stacking to

545   accelerate transition to continued use of LPG in communities (Leeuwen et al., 2017; Quinn et al.,

546   2018). Our study also showed that most non-LPG users collected their wood for free from the forests.

547   Free wood availability, particularly in rural areas, represents an important issue which prevents LPG

548   uptake, since it makes it difficult for firewood collectors to see the economic benefits of switching to

549   LPG (Feka & Manzano, 2008; Venkata Ramana, Michael, Sumi, & Kammila, 2015).

550   Our findings show that being aware of the benefits of LPG was not enough to enable uptake, as lack

551   of local retailers and cost for some, prevent transition. This aspect is consistent with previous

552   literature, which reports that, despite increased knowledge facilitating willingness to uptake, other

553   significant factors influence households to make the transition (Bruce, Aunan, & Rehfuess, 2017;

554   Labriet & Alfaro, 2015). Policies and LPG market expansion need to be in place prior to focusing on

555   increasing awareness. Moreover, focusing on short-term and direct benefits may potentially be of

556   greater value by households considering adopting LPG. In our study, direct benefits included

557   cleanliness, ease of use, reduction in headaches and eye pain, and more time available for other

558   activities. Previous qualitative studies in Peru and Guatemala reported that cleanliness of pots and

559   homes, cough and eye pain reduction acted as greater motivators than longer term

560   health/environmental benefits (Hollada et al., 2017; Labriet & Alfaro, 2015).

561   This further suggests that understanding community perceptions is key to enabling transition to clean

562   cooking energy (Quinn et al., 2018). In our study, some factors influencing LPG uptake are related to

563   the individual (*e.g.* lack of awareness of cost comparison between LPG and firewood), whereas others

564   are outside the individual's control and involve the wider LPG sector at regional and national levels

565   (*e.g.* affordability of the initial equipment and availability of refills). Developing a supportive and

566   regulated environment for scaling up LPG in Cameroon requires therefore an understanding of the

567   complexity of the LPG market and partnership work to address the various factors concurrently

568   (Lewin et al., 2017). This aspect is also highlighted in the Cameroon National *LPG Master Plan*,

569   which focuses on implementing strategies to increase cylinder supply as well as distribution of LPG

570   across Cameroon, among other areas of intervention (Bruce et al., 2018). Photovoice methods should

571   be considered as an effective approach to explore and incorporate users/communities' views into the

572   development/implementation of cooking energy programmes.

573   Although our data did not expressly draw significant differences between males' and females'

574   perspectives, we are aware that gender is an important dimension influencing LPG adoption (Austin

575   & Mejia, 2017). Despite women spending many hours cooking and consequently experiencing the

576   greatest exposure to HAP (WHO, 2014), men (typically head of the household) manage the household

577   incomes and hold disproportionate control over household purchasing decisions (Cecelski & Matinga,

578   2014). To implement large-scale adoption of clean cooking fuels it is therefore important to

579   acknowledge the influence of gender-related intra-household-dynamics and to find opportunities to

580   engage women more effectively in the decision making-process (Shankar et al., 2014). This further

581   highlights the additional benefit of LPG access for women's empowerment, who may access

582   additional time that could be used for education and other tasks (Rosenthal et al., 2018), thereby

583   contributing to the SDG5: "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls".

584   *4.1 Strengths and Limitations*

585   Photovoice was found to be a valuable method on several levels. First, by adopting a CBPR approach

586   (Israel et al., 2005), it actively involved participants in the research process. By capturing factors

587   related to LPG use through their own 'lenses' and discussing these in a wider group, participants

588   became more aware of their perceptions, leading them to become more critical of the issues affecting

589   LPG use in their community (Carlson et al., 2006). Second, the photographs enabled us to uncover

590   'hidden things meaningful to people', which we may not have been able to capture solely through

591   interviews/FGDs (Belon et al., 2014). Third, presenting their own photographs to key stakeholders,

592   encouraged participants to become advocates for change (Hergenrather, 2009). This generated a sense

593   of 'ownership' of the research among them and impacted on individual empowerment (Evans-Agnew

594   & Rosemberg, 2016). Fourth, the photo-exhibition created a platform for participants to communicate

595   their perceptions of the issues that need to be addressed to key stakeholders, who can then develop

596   initiatives that can better support households in this transition. (Catalani & Minkler, 2010). For

597   instance, one of the LPG marketers participating in the event reported not being aware that in some

598 areas there had been shortages of refills from their company (see Figures 6 and 7). At the event, he

599 stated in front of the attendees that he would address this issue so that consistency of supply could be

600 guaranteed to these areas. Through discussions with participants at the event, a general practitioner

601 (GP) reported not being aware that people suffering from respiratory conditions were not asked by

602 clinicians about their cooking fuels during routine consultations (although they were asked about

603 smoking cigarettes – very rare in this population). Since the event, he has worked on developing

604 training for GPs to raise awareness about HAP and respiratory problems.

605 The main limitation of this research relates to the gender imbalance in the sample (males: 2; females:

606 13). As stated in section 1.1, this was expected, as our participants were all household cooks, and in

607 the study region, as well as in many LMICs, women are primarily responsible for cooking (Austin &

608 Mejia, 2017). Our sample included one male cook in each group to capture males' perspectives on

609 LPG. Further, the wide range of ages and incomes included offered different perceptions of LPG use

610 among rural and peri-urban households. Whilst acknowledging that gender norms represent a key

611 factor influencing LPG uptake, this study did not explicitly explore participants' views on the

612 decision-making process for LPG purchase and use, including the potential impact of gender roles and

613 how/if these decisions may change over time. This aspect was explored as part of the wider LACE

614 program through in-depth interviews and will be discussed more explicitly in a forthcoming paper.

615 Our data did not identify significant differences between older and younger participants, despite

616 evidence suggesting younger age being associated to LPG use, and perhaps to a greater inclination to

617 adopt and use more modern technologies (Lewis & Pattanayak, 2012). This might have emerged with

618 more participants in older and younger age strata. Data collection was also limited to a small area in

619 South West Cameroon. Although some findings may be area-specific (*e.g.* scarcity of refills from

620 certain brands), many other findings may be transferable to Cameroon and Sub-Saharan countries

621 facing similar challenges or to specific groups (mixed users and non-LPG users). This is also

622 demonstrated through the similarities of our findings with other studies that explored households'

623 perceptions of LPG (*e.g.* Peru, Guatemala). Our findings can therefore play an important role in

624 informing approaches to advance clean cooking energy globally.

5. Conclusions

Photovoice enabled participants to critically reflect on the factors influencing uptake and use of LPG as a clean cooking fuel in their communities, and to provide thorough information on these important aspects that may have been difficult to describe solely through interviews/FGDs. The photo-exhibition assisted participants in communicating these factors to local stakeholders as well as ministry representatives from Energy, Health and Environment, with direct influence on policy related to the National LPG Master Plan. Photovoice was found to be an innovative and effective research methodology that can play a key role in future qualitative and mixed-methods studies looking at clean household energy in LMICs.

In conclusion, this study has revealed the interrelated factors affecting uptake and continued use of LPG in rural and peri-urban areas, particularly around availability, affordability, accessibility, and safe use of LPG. To scale up LPG in Cameroon and Sub-Saharan Africa, it is important that policy makers and the private sector incorporate communities' perspectives into developing/implementing interventions for clean cooking energy.

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Acknowledgments

Table 1

Table 1 Details of participants.

Group	Geographical area	N	Gender M=male F=female	Total Monthly Household Income** 25,000 CFA (US$ 43,5) is poverty threshold; <50,000 CFA (<US$ 87) is below national average monthly household income; 50,000 CFA (US$ 87) is national average monthly household income; >100,000 CFA (>US$ 174) is above national average monthly household income. Exchange rates as of December 2018.		Age group
1 Non-LPG users	Rural	7	F=6 M=1	<25,000 CFA: 4 26,000-50,000 CFA: 1 51,000-100,000 CFA: 1 >100,000 CFA: 1	Income 1 Income 2 Income 3 Income 4	18-24: 1 25-40: 2 41-59: 2 60+: 2
2 Mixed-users	Peri-urban	8*	F=7 M=1	<25,000 CFA: 1 26,000-50,000 CFA: 5 51,000-100,000 CFA: 1 >100,000 CFA: 1	Income 1 Income 2 Income 3 Income 4	18-24: 0 25-40: 5 41-59: 3 60+: 0
Total		15	M=2; F=13			

* Note: N.2 participants did not attend the second focus group but participated in a paired interview.
** Note: To simplify, the total Household Monthly Income has been split into 4 categories, from poverty threshold (Income 1) to above national average Household Monthly Income (Income 4).
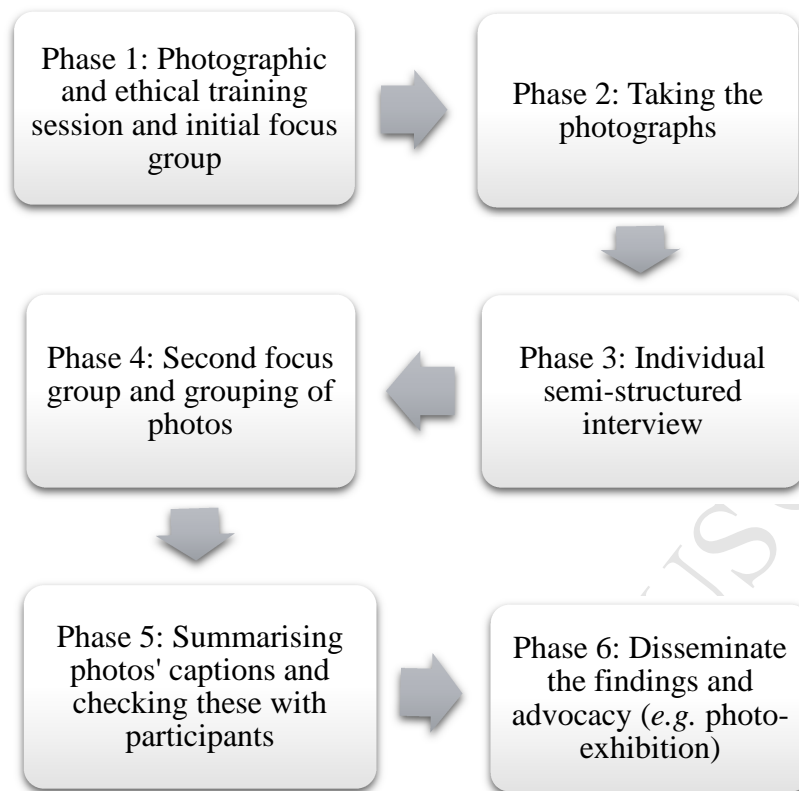
Figure 1

Figure 1 Phases of the photovoice process. Adapted from Wang & Burris (1998), Nykiforuk, et al. (2011) and (anonymised reference)

Figure 10

Figure 10 Example of poor-quality LPG cylinder (P3, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)

Figure 10

Figure 11

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Figure 11 Example of differences between LPG and firewood. The pot on the left is used on an LPG stove, and the pot on the right is used on firewood. (P3, F, age 28, Peri-urban, Income 1)

Figure 12

Figure 12 Example of a pregnant woman experiencing the negative effects of cooking with firewood (P3, F, age 45,

Rural, Income 1)

Figure 2

Figure 1 Example of a participant explaining her photo to key stakeholders at the event.

Figure 3

Figure 3 Example of financial impediments preventing LPG use (P7, F, Rural, age 66, Income 4)

Figure 4

Figure 4 Example of added transportation costs and time lost due to lack of retail shops (P2, F, Rural, age 28, Income 1)

Figure 5

Figure 5 Example of poor road infrastructure preventing LPG distribution (P5, M, age 38, Peri-urban, Income 2)

Figure 6

Figure 6 Example of lack of access to specific cylinder brands (P6, F, age 45, Peri-urban, Income 2)

Figure 7

Figure 7 Example of lack of access to specific cylinder brands and consequent use of firewood to cook (P6, F, age 45, Peri-urban, Income 2)

Figure 8

Figure 8 Example of a plank house considered unsuitable for use with LPG (P3, F, age 45, Rural, Income 1)

Figure 9

Figure 9 Example of a block house considered suitable for LPG use (P4, M, age 47, Rural, Income 1)

Highlights

1. Explore factors influencing Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) uptake via photovoice

2. Provide new insights into how to advance LPG access from a community perspective

3. The high cost of initial LPG equipment acts as a barrier to adoption

4. Low retail density makes it difficult to access refills and use LPG regularly

5. Increasing awareness around the economic and health benefits of using LPG is key