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WATER ■■■ SERVICES THAT LAST

LESSONS FOR RURAL WATER SUPPLY ■ ■ ■

Assessing progress towards sustainable service delivery

Ethiopia

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LESSONS FOR RURAL WATER SUPPLY

Assessing progress towards sustainable service delivery

Ethiopia

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 OVERVIEW OF THE SECTOR

During the past two to three decades there has been relative success in providing new rural water infrastructure—building the physical systems—and driving increased coverage levels. However, despite this positive trend, there has to a large extent been a failure to find durable solutions to meet the needs of the rural poor for safe, reliable domestic water. Rural people face continuing and unacceptable problems with systems that fail prematurely, leading to wasted resources and false expectations. Although figures vary, studies from different countries indicate that somewhere between 30% and 40% of systems either do not function at all, or operate significantly below design expectations.

Constructing physical systems is an obvious requirement, but it is just one part of a more complex set of actions that are needed to provide truly sustainable services. Increased coverage does not equate to increased access.

A tipping point may now have been reached, however, with national governments and development partners beginning to recognise the scale of the problems associated with poor sustainability and the real threat this in turn presents to achieving the WASH[1] Millennium Development Goals. Discourse on sustainability is now shifting from a focus on one or two individual factors, to requirements for addressing the underlying causes in a more holistic, systemic way.

The rural water sector in most countries in the developing world has been undergoing a period of profound change over the last 10 to 15 years, driven by broader processes of decentralisation and of sector reform. In some cases, decentralisation of service provision authority has been relatively well planned and supported, as in South Africa and Uganda for example. In other countries, including Burkina Faso and Mozambique, the decentralisation process has been much more problematic. In almost all cases,

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[1] WASH is the acronym for Water Sanitation and Hygiene.

however, serious challenges remain in terms of lack of capacity and resources at intermediate, or decentralised governance levels.

Other significant factors affecting the sector and its actors include the drive for increased harmonisation and 'professionalisation' of community-management approaches—that is, making them more viable, commercially-orientated and more efficient but not necessarily privatised. More importantly, many of these change-drivers—decentralisation in particular—are not unique to the water sector; rather, they are part of broader societal changes to which the rural water sector (as other sectors) has to respond.

1.2 THE TRIPLE-S INITIATIVE AND COUNTRY STUDIES

1.2.1 General background

Sustainable Services at Scale (Triple-S) is a six-year learning initiative with the overall goals of improving sustainability of rural water services and bringing about greater harmonisation through increased sector capacity. The initiative is managed by IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre in the Netherlands and works in partnership with international, national and local partners. Further details can be found at: www.irc.nl/page/45530.

Triple-S aims to act as a catalyst for transforming the current approaches from piecemeal projects that often involve one-off construction of water systems, to indefinitely sustainable rural water services delivered at scale. Working in two initial focus countries—Ghana and Uganda—the initiative will seek to encompass a further two countries over the next two years. As part of the initiative's start-up, a broader research and scoping exercise was conducted in the form of *country studies* which were carried out in a range of countries, alongside a parallel process of documentation and a literature review of experiences in rural service provision.

1.2.2 Objective

The main objective of the research study is to contribute to the conceptual and empirical basis of Triple-S by providing an in-depth understanding of rural water service delivery and fostering better understanding of the organisational changes, incentives and barriers within the sector. More specifically, the study seeks to identify those factors and principles that appear to contribute to or constrain the delivery of sustainable rural water services at scale in different country contexts.

1.2.3 Case countries

The composite country studies took place in 13 countries: Ghana, Uganda, Honduras, Colombia, India (three states), Thailand, Sri Lanka, Burkina Faso, Benin, South Africa, Mozambique, Ethiopia, and the USA. Three broad groupings can be identified from this selection: a set of *least developed* countries—Ethiopia, Mozambique, Burkina Faso and Benin—with highly aid-dependent WASH sectors (more than 50%); a *middle group* of countries—Honduras, Uganda, Ghana—with mixed aid dependency and income levels; and finally, a group of *middle-to-higher income,* non-aid dependent water sectors that include the USA, Colombia, South Africa, Thailand, Sri Lanka and India.

The selection of a broad range of countries was intentional, firstly because it was known that individual cases included interesting examples of elements of rural water service delivery; and secondly because these cases represent a continuum of sector maturity across differing coverage levels and decentralisation experiences, where lessons could be shared. This document presents the findings of the country study for Ethiopia.

Understanding the causes of poor sustainability can also be related to the **political economy** of the country in question. This refers to the broader socio-economic, governance and political dynamics of the country within which the water sector is developing. It also encompasses an understanding of how groups with common economic or political interests influence the development of the sector—for example, the promotion of or resistance to privatisation of service delivery, maintenance or government monopolies.

These country studies look beyond a description of the rural water sector and towards broader processes of decentralisation and political leadership in an attempt to unpack what has gone right or, as in many cases, what has gone wrong, within the rural water sub-sector.

1.3 KEY CONCEPTS

The country studies are based on a number of concepts regarding rural water service delivery, which are outlined here.

The starting point for sustainable services at scale is the realisation that there is a need to move towards a **service delivery approach (SDA).** The SDA is a conceptual ideal of how water services should be provided. It is rooted in the shift in focus from the means of service delivery (the water supply systems or infrastructure), towards the actual service accessed by users, where access to a water service is described in terms of a user's ability to reliably and affordably access a given quantity of water, of an acceptable quality, at a given distance from her or his home. A water service consists therefore of the hard and soft systems required to make this access possible.

A key assumption of the approach is that, in a given context, the principles behind the SDA should be applied through one or more agreed **service delivery models (SDMs).** SDMs provide agreed frameworks for delivering service. They are guided by a country's existing policy and legal frameworks which define: norms and standards for rural water supply; roles, rights and responsibilities; and financing mechanisms. At intermediate level, an SDM can articulate the provision of the service to an entire population in a given area usually served by a variety of systems. In a country, or even within a single decentralised or intermediate level administrative unit, there may be

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BOX 1: WHAT IS THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE SERVICE DELIVERY *APPROACH* AND A SERVICE DELIVERY *MODEL?*

We define the underlying *concept* of the water delivery approach as sustainable water services, delivered in a harmonised and cost-effective way, at scale within a district. We see this as a universal approach, or paradigm, with common principles and benefits that can help unblock the problems of the past. However, when applied in practical terms in any given context, we argue that a model has to be researched and developed, to reflect the realities of that country and the service area, including the type of rural population, levels of social and economic development and relative strength of the public and private sectors. In simple terms, the water service delivery approach is the concept while the water service delivery model is the application.

several SDMs, often related to the management models recognised in the policy framework.

Decentralisation is a core theme in many of the country studies and is often a process that takes many years or even decades to reach a level of maturity in which lower tiers of government are not only given a mandate to deliver services, but are provided with adequate resources, capacities and indeed decision-making power.

As the various studies show, there can be a number of approaches that lead to decentralisation. These range from well planned and resourced processes that take place over many years, with progress indicators, to the so called "big bang" decentralisation wherein the central level of government announces decentralisation, swiftly passes laws and transfers responsibilities, authority, and/or staff to sub-national or local governments in rapid succession without adequate time to embed real capacity.

For the purposes of the country studies, the following definition of decentralisation and its variants developed by the Independent Evaluation Group of the World Bank (2008) (Table 1) is used.

In the study, reference is also made to a number of different levels or functions within the SDA conceptual framework for rural water service delivery. These levels are closely linked to decentralisation but vary from country to country in terms of the exact formulation used, particularly in larger federal states such as India or the USA, where they may have intermediate levels (i.e. states, regions or provinces which often house deconcentrated representation of central ministries). Broadly speaking four distinct groups of functions can be identified at specific levels:

1. Policy and normative functions—national level

This is where sector policy, norms and regulatory frameworks are set, service levels defined and macro-level financial planning and development partner coordination takes place. It can also be the level at which learning, piloting and innovation can be promoted. Overall sector guidance and capacity building is set by this level of authority.

2. Service authority functions—intermediate level (district, commune or municipality)

In decentralised settings, planning, coordination and decision making most commonly take place at the level of local governance. Regulation and oversight functions are performed at this level, as well as the day-to-day monitoring and technical back-stopping for service providers and operators. Depending on current national laws and by-laws, this level may also include asset ownership.

3. Service provider functions—local level (a community or a group of communities)

This is the level at which services are provided to consumers. Depending on the size and scale of the water supply system, delivery of water services may be managed by a community, or a group of communities. Day-to-day management of the system for maintenance and operations takes place at this level and is often implemented by a voluntary water committee. More importantly, this may be outsourced or delegated to a private company or individual operator under a lease agreement. This may also involve asset ownership and investment under certain management arrangements.

TABLE 1: DIMENSIONS AND MODES OF DECENTRALISATION	
Dimensions of decentralisation	**Modes of decentralisation**
Administrative decentralisation—how responsibilities and authorities for policies and decisions are shared between levels of government and how these are turned into allocative outcomes	*Deconcentration*—the shallowest form of decentralisation, in which responsibilities are transferred to an administrative unit of the central government, usually a field, regional, or municipal office
Fiscal decentralisation—the assignment of expenditures, revenues (transfers and/or revenue-raising authority), and borrowing among different levels of governments	*Delegation*—in which some authority and responsibilities are transferred, but with a principal-agent relationship between the central and lower levels of government, with the agent remaining accountable to the principal
Political decentralisation—how the voice of citizens is integrated into policy decisions and how civil society can hold authorities and officials accountable at different levels of government	*Devolution*—the deepest form of decentralisation, in which a government devolves responsibility, authority, and accountability to lower levels with some degree of political autonomy

Source: World Bank, 2008: p.4

4. Operator functions—community committee level or outsourced to company or individual

This is the level at which day-to-day operation of the physical system takes place. This includes preventative and corrective maintenance, bookkeeping, tariff collection, etc. This may be done directly by a committee acting on behalf of the community. In cases where community management is being professionalised, these tasks are increasingly delegated or sub-contracted to an individual (plumber or technician) or to a local company acting under a lease contract.

1.4 METHODOLOGIES AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The methodologies for data collection followed a similar format in all study countries, employing a combination of secondary data collection, such as document and literature reviews, with primary data collection gathered through interviews. The report was written with substantial input from interviews with and questionnaires from key sector players, including government officials, national and intermediate level organisations, donors and NGOs operating in the water sector.

Because the picture 'on paper' can differ wildly from the reality of the rural water sector, the studies focused primarily on *theory versus practice* to highlight the gaps between 'how it should be' and 'how it actually is'. Each study was coordinated by an IRC staff member, conducted by a national expert, or team of experts, and involved a range of sector stakeholders, from national government ministries or agencies, to UN organisations, NGOs and civil society groups in most of the country study processes.

In order to validate the studies and gain sector buy-in, the majority of studies incorporated a *check-in* process

in which preliminary findings were shared and discussed with a group of sector experts at validation workshops during the course of the study. This often involved a two-step process with those key issues identified at national level meetings being put to a group of experts and practitioners from district and regional levels who participated in similar workshops.

This type of validation exercise served to enrich the conclusions in the studies as well as jump-start a process of dissemination and dialogue around the key issues facing sustainability in the country in question.

1.5 METHODOLOGY FOR THIS STUDY

In the case of Ethiopia, this study examined service delivery models for rural water and existing efforts toward improving them (see Box 2 for a detailed list of objectives). It is based upon a review of published documents and a series of interviews held with government, donors and NGOs. The interviews focused on harmonisation and alignment processes in the sector and sought the perspectives of staff from the Ministry of Water Resources (MoWR), five Regional Water Resources Development Bureaus (Amhara, Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People's Region [SNNPR], Oromiya, Somali, Harar) and the Dire Dawa Administrative City Water Resources Development Bureau, the World Bank (WB), the British Department for International Development (DFID), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), the Development Cooperation arm of the embassies of Finland and Italy, WaterAid Ethiopia, Plan International Ethiopia, Water & Sanitation Forum (CCRDA) and the Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers (SNV) in Ethiopia. Guideline questions used for the semi-structured interviews are included in Annex 2.

BOX 2: OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To capture and describe existing service delivery models (SDMs) in rural water, and better understand how SDMs develop

- To analyse the strengths and weaknesses of existing SDMs, with a focus on their individual plans for sustainability and achieving progress at scale

- To identify and analyse the underlying principles, success factors and challenges to the SDMs

- To capture and describe un-/successful processes of change towards the coordination and harmonisation of policies and approaches in service delivery

- To identify and analyse triggers, incentives, drivers and processes, as well as stumbling blocks that appear to influence organisational behaviour, specifically with regard to improved harmonisation and coordination of service delivery

2 COMMON ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

In order to provide a common point of reference for the various countries involved in this study, an analytical framework was developed for the individual country teams. This framework includes a range of elements or principles at three different levels of intervention designed to provide prompting questions or descriptions of issues known to be important to understanding sustainable service delivery. In total there are 18 elements, each with a short description, that address issues such as: sector decentralisation and reform; institutional roles and responsibilities; financing, service delivery models; learning and coordination; monitoring and regulation.

The three main levels of analysis in the framework correspond to levels 1 to 3 above and include an assessment of the national level enabling environment, the intermediate level (most commonly corresponding to the local or district government level or commune or municipality, depending on country context) and the service provision level with functions typically delegated to the water committee or operator. An example of the analytical framework used by the country study team in Ethiopia is given in annex 4, which includes many of the detailed findings.

The application of this common analytical framework has allowed Triple-S to compare key issues and elements across the full range of countries, thereby identifying common trends or factors which seem to be important either as positive drivers of improved sustainability or constraints to service delivery approaches.

2.1 STUDY OUTPUTS

For each country involved in the Triple-S study process, a stand-alone document, or **country working paper,** will be produced and circulated to interested stake-holders at national or regional level. Additionally, shorter country summary case studies of four to six pages—that are more accessible to policy makers, suitable for international dissemination and intended to catalyse debate—have been produced.

Finally, a **synthesis document**—the main output from the 13 country study analyses comparing key factors and principles across these different experiences—will be produced. This document captures trends and emerging lessons around decentralisation and sector reform processes as well as the development of the community-based management approach. The synthesis document will also help to inform the on-going Triple-S action research process both at country level (in Ghana and Uganda) and internationally.

3 CONTEXT

Ethiopia is Africa's second most populous country and is among one of the world's poorest (see Table 3 on p. 7). The country is overwhelmingly rural, with the highest population density found in the highland areas. Agriculture is the main driver of the economy, accounting for more than half of the country's production. Over 80% of the population live in the regions of Oromia, Amhara and SNNPR, which together with Tigray are known as the major regions. The more remote and emerging regions in the country are Somali and Afar, Benishangul-Gumuz and Gambela.

As a federal state, the regions constitute an important political level in Ethiopia (see Table 2). With decentralisation policies put in place, *woredas* (districts) are found at the frontline of service delivery. Other administrative levels are the zones between regions and woredas and the *kebele* which is a sub-woreda unit considered to be the lowest level of government.

As of date, there are approximately 550 woredas in the country.

Since 1991 and at the end of the Derg regime, the government has been dominated by the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). Policies emphasising federalism and decentralisation have since been introduced, with the support of donors with strong commitments to poverty reduction and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In a study conducted by DFID (Barnett, et al., 2009), the overseas development agency of the United Kingdom highlighted the existence of relatively sound and transparent public financial management systems in Ethiopia and the increase in expenditure in the social sectors. In the same report, however, the political context has been very much criticised for the imbalance in power manifested by a strong state that had effectively reduced spaces for opposition and civil society participation (Barnett, et al., 2009).

TABLE 2: ROLES AT THE FEDERAL, REGIONAL AND WOREDA LEVEL

Level	Roles	Comments
Federal	• Formulation of policy and regulatory mechanisms • Provision of technical support (preparation of guidelines, manuals, etc.) • Management of the implementation of largest capital investment projects	There is a rather loose connection to the regions except in areas where there exist donor programmes at the federal and regional levels
Region	• Implementation of projects and programmes • Providing technical support to woredas • Following up the progress of implementation of activities implemented by woredas (including those implemented with support from donors)	
Woreda	• Implementation of small projects • Following up the proper functioning of schemes and reporting to the higher levels if it is beyond their capacity • Planning of different projects	• Most of what they plan is ambitious and lacks the budget for implementation • Due to the lack of capacity and budget the follow-up of schemes is limited

Source: constructed by authors

TABLE 3: SOME DEVELOPMENT AND GOVERNANCE INDICATORS	
GDP (PPP) per capita:	US$954 (rank 168 out of 181 countries, & 10 times less than global average)[1]
Human Development Index:	0.328 (rank 157)[2]
Life expectancy at birth:	56.1 years[3]
Corruption perception index:	2.7 (rank 120 out of 180 countries)[4]

Source: [1]IMF, 2009; [2]UNDP, 2010; [3]UNDP, 2010; [4]TI, 2009

3.1 PHYSICAL TARGETS AND FINANCIAL REQUIREMENTS

The government has committed itself to very ambitious targets to expand access to water and sanitation across the country. These targets are generally supported by a technologically-driven strategy of constructing new water supply systems in rural areas. A review of the MoWR's Accelerated Universal Access Plan (MoWR, 2009a)—a key sector policy document—suggests that the country's target to increase coverage of water access to 98% by 2012 (defined as 15 lpcd potable water within 1.5 km) is more ambitious compared to the MDGs.

Data on sector financing are hard to access and analyse. Regional governments are financed through federal grants, federal-regional shared revenue, and the regions' own revenues. Woredas, on the other hand, are financed by a block grant from regional government and their own revenues generated from user fees and community contributions (Alemu and Thomas, 2009). Donors and NGOs route money through three different channels, either on-budget or off-budget.

Alemu and Thomas (2009) estimate that the total spending for urban and rural investment and operations, including bilateral and multilateral donor financing (but excluding much of the NGO financing which is often off-budget and hardest to calculate) is approximately US$53m per annum (equivalent to about US$67 cents per capita). Both authors claim that current sector investment on rural water is five times less than the amount required to achieve coverage consistent with MDG targets. For rural water to reach at least 64% of the population by 2015, it is estimated that Birr 12.6 billion (US$1.5 billion) until 2015—or about US$115m per year on average—is required for sector development. They also point out the discrepancies between intentions (as set out in the Program for Accelerated and Sustainable Development to End Poverty, PASDEP) and budget allocation. Of most concern is the observable decline in shares of water and sanitation in overall poor-focused expenditure. Recently it was reported that government funds about half of all sector investments, while donors fund a little over a quarter and NGOs a little less than a quarter (MoWR, 2009b).

3.2 SECTOR CHALLENGES

Currently, fragmented projects and programmes place a huge burden on government with high transaction costs, while levels of capacity remain low. A lack of capacity, both in skills (e.g. financial management) and budget availability, especially at the critical woreda level, is one of the major challenges to the sector. As a result, significant levels of funds remain unspent and construction of new schemes is slower than what is required. Many systems also fall into disrepair.

Rural coverage was most recently reported in the Minister's speech on World Water day 2010 as 61.5% in 2009 compared to 15.5% in 1991 reflecting the huge strides that have been made. Recent JMP figures, however, report rural water users of improved sources as 26% (for 2008).

BOX 3: FUNDING CHANNELS
There were, until recently, three different channels for funding WASH-related activities in the country (i.e. Channels 1, 2 and 3). The first channel of funding stream went through the government treasury; the second, through donors; and the third, through NGOs. Funding for the sector used to flow through one of these three channels. However, recently an agreement between government and donors led to combining channels 1&2, creating what is now known as Channel 1B. The four main donors (WB, UNICEF, DFID and AfDB) have agreed to route their money through Channel 1B. NGO expenditure remains off-budget.

Source: constructed by authors based on interviews

Since national and JMP statistics are subject to (different) major methodological challenges, both need to be treated with caution and the reality is probably somewhere between these values, at best. A major concern is the lack of sustainability due to an emphasis on construction with inadequate post-construction support. There is also a target to reduce non-functionality rates to 10% in 2012 (officially non-functionality was 33% in 2007). The data (both for functionality and non-functionality) is generated from the inventory which is carried out by different regions at different times rather than having an agreed method of calculation, making it a challenge to agree on figures. Though there is no regular inventory carried out, regions update this figure whenever a region carries out an inventory.

3.3 DONORS

The key donors in the sector are the World Bank (WB); the African Development Bank (AfDB); the British Department for International Development (DFID); UNICEF; and the Governments of Finland, Italy, The Netherlands and Japan. These donors are influential in setting the agenda in the sector, linked to the huge amount of resources they invest. A Donor Assistance Group brings donors together in discussions with government.

4 FINDINGS ON SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL(S)

The system used for categorising service delivery models in Ethiopia is outlined in Annex 3. Formally recognised service delivery models are:

1. **Community management** is the main service delivery model implemented in the rural water sector. After construction and the handover of schemes, operation and minor repairs are handled by the WASH committees (WASHCOs) representing the community. In multi-village schemes, water boards are established to oversee these tasks. Water boards comprise of representatives from the sub-committees (WASHCOs) of individual villages.

2. **Self supply** is a low-cost approach to service delivery initiated by individual families or groups (see Box 4). Within this model, water sources—usually hand-dug wells—are constructed. In 2009, this low-cost approach was formally recognised in policy. However, self supply has yet to be incorporated as a formally recognised model in sector performance assessments.

3. Municipalities with **Town Water Boards** in small towns (not considered further in this report).

Policy recognises that a mix of service delivery models is required. Self supply with its reliance on low-cost technologies has been recognised as the first and most feasible option to accelerate the PASDEP. Innovative approaches, including the implementation of multiple use approaches (see Box 5, p. 10) and the Community Development Fund (CDF) (see Box 6, p. 11) for financing rural water, have also been officially recognised and scaled up by the government. The CDF will be included as an approach in the Program Implementation Manual (PIM), which is being prepared at present.

4.1 HANDING OVER TO COMMUNITIES: SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS AT SYSTEM LEVEL

In general water systems are 'handed over' to communities after the construction of a well, borehole

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BOX 4: THE SELF-SUPPLY APPROACH[2]

Many households have taken small and affordable steps to develop and improve their own water supplies, using their own resources. This is known as self supply. However, the capacity of members of the household to develop their own systems and the advantages this brings are seldom recognised or built upon. Digging wells and rainwater harvesting are particularly relevant in small or remote communities, and where there is easy access to groundwater or rainwater is plentiful. Per capita costs can be lower than conventional community systems, and supplies that have been improved with household investment tend to be more effectively managed and maintained. In the Oromia region of Ethiopia, the promotion of family wells was largely stimulated by a successful mass mobilisation campaign. Other complementary technologies being tested and promoted include the rope pumps that ease water lifting and household water treatment that improves water quality at the household level.

Although subsidies are available, such approaches are particularly well-suited to involve (small) private sector entrepreneurs such as artisans in well digging and the sale of spare parts for rope pumps.

Source: Sutton, 2010

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[2] For more information, visit the self supply flagship at http://www.rwsn.ch

Multiple-use Water Services (MUS) are water supply services that incorporate both domestic and productive uses in their design and delivery. With Ethiopia having the highest livestock population in Africa, providing water to animals is an obvious priority alongside human consumption. Small-scale irrigation or gardening is also required. The MUS system posits that the productive use of water may be effectively combined with meeting basic domestic needs and that the additional benefits offered by this system outweigh the additional costs incurred. Further, sustainability is better achieved through the creation of systems that meet local multiple needs.

The Hararghe Catholic Secretariat (HCS), an NGO working in the Oromia Region of Ethiopia, is among the few organisations involved in piloting MUS approaches in Ethiopia.

Source: Faal, Nicol and Tucker, 2009

or spring within the community management paradigm. Operation and maintenance (O&M) then become the responsibility of the users and more specifically the WASHCO, which is set up for that purpose. WASHCOs are responsible for responding to minor repairs for which they charge a tariff to users. WASHCO members are selected from the communities through an election process.

It is normal practice that a tariff (in cash) is paid for the use of water sources. Payment collections assume different forms—from the set-up of monthly flat fees to collection by jerry cans for instance. In some communities, poor families are exempt from payments. Support and funding for major repairs are generally sourced from the woreda, zone, or regional level. In most cases, WASHCOs lack the capacity to handle funds (cost recovery may be weak), do not have the necessary O&M skills and hardly have any access to spare parts. In turn, capacity problems at the WASHCO level create WASHCO dependency on woredas, themselves having limited capacities to respond to the multiple demands of its constituents. While cost recovery has been successful in some multi-village schemes (Tekalign, 2001), this has often not been enough to cover major replacements.

Payment of tariffs differs from scheme to scheme. For smaller schemes, payment is often organised on a 'pay-as-you-fetch' basis, with the collection of fees taking place at the source. Where agreements have been made, monthly payment and collection may also be organised at the source. For relatively larger schemes that make use of motorised boreholes for example, the WASHCOs decide on a fixed rate, but this often does not include the costs for O&M.

The absence and/or lack of legal recognition for WASHCOs also compound their problems and effective performance. In general, WASHCOs are not legally recognised and in areas where breakthroughs for WASHCO recognition have been achieved, delays in implementation pose great difficulties to effective governance. Without the necessary structural recognition, WASHCOs are restricted from opening a bank account for instance. Furthermore, this grey area of non-recognition creates ad hoc governance schemes and the individual management of finances (often lacking a system for auditing), posing greater risks in the misuse of funds.

Communities also participate by providing labour during construction. NGOs are generally able to give more attention to problem assessment and to adapt implementation cycles that meet local requirements. In the Community Development Fund model (CDF), communities are empowered to directly control and manage funds for implementation and are made responsible for procurement. As opposed to most WASHCOs, communities are allowed to open their own bank accounts. For this purpose, two accounts are created—one for investment and the other, a savings account, to cover operation and maintenance expenses.

4.2 WOREDAS IN THE FRONTLINE: DESCRIPTION OF SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

A broad decentralisation process down to the regional level is reasonably complete (involving decision-making, financial and human resources) but is weaker down the chain to where the poorly resourced woreda and kebele levels are found. Under this highly decentralised model, woredas are clearly made responsible for service delivery even when they often lack the capacity and capability to manage operational budgets. In most cases, recurrent costs (in particular, salaries) take up a major proportion of operational budgets.

The woreda is the key unit for planning and where annual woreda WASH plans and budgets are prepared. However, with little government money for

implementation, donor-supported programmes and NGOs generally provide the vital finance for constructing new schemes. The capability to construct new schemes is therefore most often linked to whether or not a donor or NGO programme is available and, in this sense, planning is partly driven by donors and the programmes they support. The allocation of donor money between woredas is mainly discussed at the regional level. It is at the regional level where decisions are taken on which woredas are to serve as hosts to the various donor and NGO programmes (a process coordinated by BoFED).

4.2.1 Implementation

Communities play a key implementation role in the management and operationalisation of low-cost technologies (e.g. involvement in well digging or in the employment of local artisans). Technical support to communities on low-cost technologies is provided by government staff from zonal and regional levels or NGOs. In contrast, well drilling, spring-works and distribution systems are primarily undertaken by a government-owned company[3] known as the Water Works Construction Enterprises, present in all of Ethiopia's regions. In some areas, NGOs have their own drilling rigs and work with their own private contractors. Few at present, NGO-driven implementation systems of this type are increasing in number.

Post-construction support, however, remains very limited and ad hoc. The emphasis is nearly always on new construction types, which again reflects a focus on new system construction or repairs over long-term support for capacity building and preventive maintenance. Most training, such as on operation and maintenance, is done before the handover of schemes

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BOX 6: THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT FUND (CDF)

The Community Development Fund is a financing mechanism developed under the Finish-supported Rural Water Supply and Environmental Programme (RWSEP). Having had started in Amhara in 1994, this programme now also operates in the Benshangul Gumuz region. In 2010, a major conference (CDF Summit) was organised to review its results and assess existing opportunities for scaling up the CDF approach to the benefit of other parts of the country.

The programme is aimed at strengthening a community's capacity to initiate, plan, implement and manage their own water supply and sanitation, while being cognisant of the latter's environmental impacts. The programme carries the slogan 'not community participation, but government participation in community initiatives' and is distinctly different from other approaches to community management. In the CDF model, microcredit and saving financial institutions are used to channel money down to communities who themselves (but with the woreda level support) become responsible for the procurement of services, goods and contract management. The approach has mainly been tested for simple technologies like hand-dug wells and on-the-spot spring systems.

The CDF programme is managed at region, woreda and kebele levels following the same institutional arrangements as other approaches, with the addition of a programme management board involving both Finland (as the donor) and the Ethiopian Government at regional level. At the woreda level, a CDF Board to manage the CDF fund is also installed. The board decides on and approves projects and supervises the use of funds by the community. The programme employs its own technical assistants at regional and woreda levels (primary level of decentralised government in Ethiopia). At the woreda level, artisans are trained to provide technical assistance to the community for the construction and maintenance of water supply and sanitation facilities. Private sector participation is also promoted in the CDF where micro-entrepreneurs and small-scale traders are also encouraged to play a significant role in the implementation of the programme.

Compared to other programmes, programme coordination appears to have been relatively strong and problems associated with financial disbursement and procurement, very minimal. The functionality rate of water supply schemes constructed under this programme is reported to be very high at 94%, compared to the regional average for Amhara which is at 75%. Higher levels of sustainability appear to be largely attributed to capacity building activities for government, private sector and communities; the programme's introduction of a spare parts supply arrangement at the woreda water office level using a revolving fund arrangement; and the strong relationship established between the community and microcredit and saving institutions (ACSI in Amhara), which facilitates better access to credit for maintenance.

Source: CDF summit, Amhara, 2010

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[3] These government-owned companies (or 'Water Works Construction Enterprises') operate on income from profit on construction. The profit and the assets belong to the government. They compete in the construction market but mostly they get government projects.

to communities. While some donor-funded and NGO programmes may provide more training activities (such as the CDF programme), there generally are very limited post-construction training activities organised for WASHCOs on O&M, book-keeping, etc.

Minor repairs are the responsibility of the WASHCOs while major repairs can be referred to the woreda, zone or region depending on their severity. The capacity of woredas, zones and regions to respond however is low and repairs may take a few weeks up to two years (Israel and Habtamu, 2008). The current system does not seem to work effectively and efficiently and, at times, minor repairs are reported even up to the regional level. Spare parts distribution remains problematic with very weak private sector supply chains (e.g. for handpump spares, and there are as yet inadequate efforts to develop or support supply chains.)

4.2.2 Monitoring and information management

Monitoring at woreda level is generally very poor due to capacity and budget constraints. The woreda council, sector offices for water, health and education are all involved in monitoring. In theory woreda staff from the water office and some technical experts are supposed to be part of monitoring, but many posts remain vacant, creating a challenge in capacity.

The budget for monitoring is almost non-existent as most of the allocated budget fails to go beyond the payment of a few salaries. Most woredas do not maintain proper records (e.g. on functionality) even when these could be done at low cost. Most do not bother to update woreda inventory results (even when they are involved in data collection) and fail to recognise the relevance of monitoring and evaluation. The use of data at lower levels is also very limited and mostly channelled upwards to fulfil reporting requirements. This is a significant gap and experience observed by the RiPPLE programme.[4] The RiPPLE programme posits that with basic analysis, support and more accurate information management systems, it is possible to improve resource mobilisation at woreda levels. Woreda inventory-taking has continued to be irregular, with a lot of coverage data based on assumptions and the incremental addition of new schemes constructed.

Regions are a key level for government, and regional offices include the de-concentrated presence of the Ministry, in particular, the Bureaus of Water Resources Development (BoWRD). At the regional level accountability first rests on the devolved regional cabinets, rather than central line ministries within Ethiopia's federal structure. At times this creates tension over certain issues (such as WASH coverage statistics) between the region and centre. Systems and structures of accountability and regulation are generally focused on implementation and construction and much less so on long-term service provision.

Methodologies to calculate coverage and access remain weak and have yet to be addressed adequately. Reporting often focuses on input-output type reporting where money spent, systems constructed and highly problematic coverage figures are considered key indicators. Although periodic coverage monitoring exercises (e.g. woreda inventory) are undertaken for monitoring access in some regions, there does not exist as yet a regularly updated process for monitoring and evaluation (M&E). Further, figures and their interpretation tend to be contested across the different levels of WASH governance, from the woreda to the zone, region and national levels. While rolling out an agreed and standardised national approach to M&E has now become the main sector priority for 2010, which will in turn greatly improve data availability on sector performance, agreements on the calculation of coverage will probably still remain a major challenge.

4.2.3 Regulation

After construction is complete and the system has been handed over to the community, the WASHCOs are responsible for overall O&M. As delegated by the beneficiary community, the WASHCOs are expected to report to users on progress, challenges they are facing and any support they may need from the community.

At the implementation phase, the government or implementing NGOs are supposed to regulate the system. After construction, it is assumed that lower levels of government regulate, but again this rarely happens.

4.2.4 Coordination

In woredas, the council structure provides some coordination mechanisms (e.g. quarterly meetings), but interaction at the regional level is limited. At regional levels, the BoFED organises an annual government (GO)-NGO meeting but learning between NGOs and government and amongst NGOs themselves remains limited. While the RiPPLE programme facilitates learning and practice alliances at regional and woreda levels, all of these are project-based and limited in scale.

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4   RiPPLE is a five-year research programme that advances evidence-based learning on water supply and sanitation financing, delivery and sustainability as a key strategy to improving equity in access by the poor in Ethiopia and the Nile region. The research programme was launched on 1 July 2006 and concludes on 30 June 2011.

4.3 ALL CHANGE: THE ENABLING ENVIRONMENT FOR THE SERVICE DELIVERY APPROACH AT NATIONAL LEVEL

The enabling environment for WASH service delivery has been steadily improving. A memorandum of understanding (MoU) between the three key Ministries being Water, Health (with responsibility for sanitation, health centres, hygiene promotion) and Education (responsible for WaSH in schools) was signed in 2006. The MoU marks an important step in improving inter-governmental coordination. In 2008, a national WASH coordination office was established, with the responsibility to coordinate the MoU's implementation. Since then, considerable progress has been achieved towards putting in place the necessary elements for a harmonised national programme for the sector (otherwise known as 'One WASH'). Key policies such as the PASDEP (Poverty reduction strategy papers, PRSP which run from 2006–2010) and the Accelerated Universal Access Programme for WASH are also now aligned.

Against this backdrop, the MoWR provides sector leadership with the strong backing of donors involved in supporting key mechanisms for pushing forward alignment. This includes the Protection of Basic Services (PBS) programme—a form of budget support, which has replaced direct budget support. However, especially below national level, there is still a lot to do to implement the MoU and put harmonised policies into practice.

The One WASH programme builds upon existing approaches to service delivery and aims to harmonise efforts around one plan, one budget and one report (at woreda, regional and national levels). The approach, including the Program Implementation Manual (PIM), improves upon and standardises M&E activities (e.g. woreda inventory). It provides a common framework to all regions and actors involved in implementation and monitoring progress of WASH activities. Increasingly, it is planned for donor funds to begin flowing through a common fund (multi-donor trust fund), with activities like procurement becoming more aligned with government guidelines. Within the framework of working within one plan, budget and report, it is necessary to point out that different implementation modes (e.g. in disbursement, procurement, accounting and financial reporting) and actors, including large numbers of implementing NGOs, will remain.

4.3.1 Coordination and knowledge sharing

One important modality for coordination is the bi-annual Joint Budget Aid Review (JBAR) meeting held between government and donors. Organised by the Public Finance Management Committee, the JBAR meetings discuss the Protection of Basic Services (PBS)

programme, which was operationalised in 2006 and where significant donor financing is provided via the regional block grant (which comes from the regional Bureau of Finance and Economic Development). Annual multi-stakeholder forums (the third forum of which was held in October 2009) for the WASH sector also provide a mechanism for coordination between regional representatives and members of civil society. These forums bring together all stakeholders (including academia and the private sector) involved in WASH activities, and as does the joint sector review monitoring process, help form a single sector.

Specific undertakings set priorities for the sector in implementing policy (e.g. in 2010 to improve monitoring and evaluation). One of the key achievements under the harmonisation process is manifested in the sector's more recent development of a monitoring framework that outlines the common indicators for monitoring and evaluation. This monitoring framework enables the development of one report on the sector. In the future, all sector actors will be expected to report on the basis of the monitoring framework. Currently, there exists no such reliable reporting system for the sector.

Additionally, other key networks have been constituted, thus increasing the capacity of the sector. The WASH Ethiopia Movement (and its regional chapters) is an important multi-stakeholder body involved in advocacy and learning-focused meetings. The Water and Sanitation Forum (WSF) is a national forum hosted by the Consortium of Christian Relief and Development Association (CCRDA) that engages with and involves civil society in capacity building, policy advocacy, and information sharing. There are signs of improvement in coordination among the many NGOs working in the water sector, with civil society continuously playing a key role (e.g. providing support to the roll out of the new M&E system in 2010). Another key forum in the sector supported by the RiPPLE project is known as the Forum for Learning on Water Supply and Sanitation (FLoWS). Guided by a strong research component, FLoWS provides a mechanism for learning at national level, linking different networks and forums. To date, RiPPLE had successfully promoted the uptake of learning and practice alliances in three pilot regions, and in six pilot woredas.

4.3.2 Efforts in capacity building

Development partners often invest in capacity building at the regional and woreda levels (e.g. UNICEF, JICA, World Bank through WSG) although there remains a huge un-met demand. Technical and Vocational Training Centres (training centres at regional levels which equip local level professionals with practical skills needed to work at district level) provide most of the manpower at woreda level. Several NGOs active in providing training in the sector include SNV,

WaterAid and many others. The Public Sector Capacity Building Programme (PISCAP) managed by the Capacity Building Bureaus, however, continues to be weak on its training initiatives with a focus on water, and as of date, very few links with the sector have been developed. Arba Minch University, recently Addis Ababa College of Development Studies (with a new MSc in water issues) and others provide graduates a degree and masters level.

The National WASH (NWASH) programme supports regions through Regional (RWASH) Coordination and Woreda (WWASH) Coordination offices. These offices are responsible for coordinating the implementation of the MoU and providing technical support. However, RWASH and WWASH Coordination offices (expected to be hosted by the regional water bureaus) have yet to be established. For now, the tasks assigned to the water bureaus (i.e. coordination of the implementation of the MoU) have simply been assigned to an existing governmental staff member's responsibilities—s/he is considered the focal person.

4.3.3 Financial flow

Financing for the sector is showing, on average, an increasing trend (Minilik, et al., 2009). On-budget government capital expenditure (Channel 1A) is most easily identifiable. Regions allocate a block grant to woredas, which constitutes the combined income drawn from various sources (federal subsidy, regional tax income, and woreda tax income). Woredas in turn decide how to spend this money on various developmental priorities, with WASH being one of the poverty reduction priorities that government policy seeks to address. Sectors which are given priority are those considered to be poor. These include agriculture, health, education, water and roads, and the government is expected to allocate about 60% of the budget to these sectors.

All donors now route their money via Channel 1B (MoFED-BoFED-WoFED) which is essentially the same as 1A except that money comes from donors rather than the government treasury and there are no other sources. This is a new arrangement (representing progress in alignment) that replaces a more fragmented and complex arrangement of fund management, which used to flow through line ministries (formerly known as Channel 2). With the new arrangement, improvements in access to and availability of information and data are expected. Even though all donor finance now goes through the same channel for fund management, separate accounts are kept for each donor. Certain donor

financing streams are also earmarked for certain geographic areas and activities. Financing by NGOs (Channel 3) is routed via NGO offices for local spending. This is the most problematic to assess since it is considered off-budget owing to the current arrangement, and data is not consolidated. In Amhara and Benishangul-Gumuz, microfinance institutions are now used to route money directly to communities. For example in Amhara, ACSI channels money via its regional and sub-branches (rather than via the woredas). This financing modality is gradually being recognised (e.g. in PIM) and is being explored for scaling up.

IDB/AfDB/DFID (where DFID are joined in silent partnership) now use government procedures (e.g. in procurement) and UNICEF is similarly aligning. Representative of a good start towards alignment, the three main donors, whose deployment of their own procedures created a stumbling block for the sector, have now agreed to use the existing financial procedures offered by the government.

Some cost figures are now reported and used in the Universal Access Program (UAP) (MoWR, 2009a). The overall national average per capita cost of construction was Birr 181 (being Birr 87 for low-cost technologies and Birr 252 for high cost technologies). This figure is used to calculate the requirement (for construction) of 6.5 billion Birr (MoWR, 2009a). There are, however, no figures reported on other operational costs including government staffing costs, planning and facilitation costs, capacity building, monitoring and reporting, and other support costs. The absence of these figures suggests an assumption that O&M costs will be and are met by communities or other governmental budgets. Currently, there is an ongoing debate on whether current approaches and technology choice effectively facilitate the achievement of the government's ambitious targets. From these debates, the drive for self supply as a policy priority is beginning to emerge. Communities also contribute to the costs for construction (money, labour, materials or in-kind). Community contribution generally covers between 5-15% of all project costs. Depending on funding agreements made with some NGOs, this percentage may be higher.

Low utilisation rates and limited absorption capacity are also important issues that need to be considered. Utilisation of government expenditures against planning is reported to be higher (75%) than for donor grants (47%) and loans (27%) (MoWR, 2009b).

5 SECTOR ORGANISATION BEHAVIOURS: MOVING TOWARDS ONE WASH

BOX 7: ONE WASH

The One WASH initiative is mainly donor-driven and led by the World Bank, ADB, UNICEF and other bilateral donors like the Italian Development Cooperation, a member of the Donors Assistance Group for water. Buy-in by the government on One WASH has been achieved. Some of the key achievements include:

- An MoU has been signed;

- A federal level WASH Coordination Office has been established;

- Preparation of the PIM is ongoing, though limited in participation of all stakeholders.

Source: constructed by authors

The term One WASH was originally used for the World Bank-supported programme on water and sanitation. In the more recent years, the concept of One WASH was adopted as an umbrella for a sector-wide approach (SWAp) and in a process of harmonisation that aimed at strengthening the capacity of the sector and its performance. As identified in the Triple-S framework, '...harmonised approaches are considered vital in order to scale up good service delivery models'. This section focuses on the challenges of moving towards a harmonised sector, drawn from a series of key informant interviews conducted at federal and regional levels with government, donors and NGOs. While there seems to be general agreement on working towards a harmonised approach, many articulated that there is a need to move beyond the rhetoric of harmonisation where slow progress is observed. Analysis includes the identification of barriers to harmonisation, and possible drivers of change and opportunities to overcome these obstacles.

The One WASH approach recognises that leadership and setting the future direction and development of the sector is in the hands of government. One WASH aims to bring all actors together to support the government's developmental strategies and targets. In order to consolidate activities, the approach requires the development of structures and mechanisms for coordination that enable the joint development of sector targets and sector visions. The approach also aims to improve efficiency and effectiveness in the sector, by harmonising financial planning, reporting and monitoring systems.

5.1 PERCEPTIONS TO ONE WASH

The One WASH concept is widely perceived by interviewees as progress from the current practice of WASH projects or programmes developing their own plans and arrangements for implementation, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), reporting, and financing. One WASH aims to harmonise all these elements by introducing a common approach across all partners working in the sector. Interviewed respondents noted that the elements being offered by One WASH reflect a holistic plan that integrates the different WASH sub-sectors in a better coordinated manner. This includes, for example, working with a single overall budget where various donors align and channel their resources in accordance with government policy and strategies, and the standardisation of technology, one implementation approach, one M&E framework, one report using a similar reporting format, transparency in sharing information across the sector, one financial management manual and aligned WASH financing mechanisms. It was also perceived that One WASH implied for all partners, including all

donors, NGOs, private sector groups and the government, to work together towards the achievement of one result. One respondent felt that One WASH was an approach, principle or guideline but the means to achieving its objectives were open to interpretation by different organisations. Another key stakeholder mentioned that One WASH was a partnership between the government, donors, NGOs and the private sector. Some of the advantages of the approach cited by the study's respondents are summarised in Box 8.

At the intermediate levels, however, differences in the interpretation of One WASH as a concept and approach were observed. These differences highlight the need to create awareness on the concept at all levels, to better mobilise all sector actors in moving concertedly towards the visions of One WASH. It was mentioned by some respondents that the concept is wrongly perceived by others in that it is understood to mean that all resources are meant be put in one basket. According to this group of respondents, the intention is to harmonise approaches setting the broad parameters for strategy implementation based on shared plans, contributions to an overall budget and similarly constructed reports. At regional level, it was also reported that some regions mistook the current One WASH concept for the earlier programme concept used by the World Bank.

In some regions, One WASH is understood to reduce the burdens associated with procurement, reporting, etc. Furthermore, there were other respondents who said that this type of arrangement comes from the federal level rather than regional levels. If approaches

are harmonised at national level, implementing at regional level will be an easier task.

Some stakeholders expressed concern over how a standardised approach (i.e. sector actors using the same techniques or systems in providing services) may possibly reduce the potential for innovation and the ongoing search for more effective and efficient ways of achieving sustainable service delivery. Mitigation of this risk was proposed by putting in place appropriate research policies and allocating a fraction of programme budgets toward innovative approaches that improve upon standardised approaches and develop capacity of all actors to cope with changing situations. Another key issue drawn from the interviews conducted is found in the challenges posed by harmonising approaches on other donor-involvement in sector development due in part to the latter's stringent reporting requirements. It was argued that with harmonisation, institutions will be faced with difficulties in tracking their own contributions (crucial for their own reporting purposes) and claiming for attribution. In particular, one bilateral donor mentioned that policies and regulations in donor countries designed to protect the interests of tax payers may serve as stumbling blocks toward attempts to harmonise.

Some respondents also added that harmonisation requires building trust between donors and government, government and government, and improving overall collaboration. Confidence in an approach and system that allows all key stakeholders to monitor progress and attribute changes to the collective work and investments made toward the sector will also need

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BOX 8: ADVANTAGES OF A HARMONISED APPROACH CITED BY INTERVIEWEES

- Reduced reporting requirements, important in a context of limited capacity

- More effective monitoring systems using common indicators and a consistent baseline, enabling better measurement of progress

- Effective and efficient utilisation of funds and identification of unit costs for providing services

- Simplified implementation due to standardisation

- Streamlined decision making based on pooled funds

- Better access to information with one monitoring and evaluation system in place

- Reduced transaction costs

- More clarity on who is doing what and where based on a single plan

- Strengthened role of NGOs where their contribution to the sector is made more visible, creating opportunities for NGO participation in national dialogue and influencing policy processes for pro-poor outcomes

Source: constructed by authors based on interviews

to be developed. To this end, some respondents voiced concerns over a lack of trust and confidence in the government, owing to weak mechanisms that effectively monitor transparency and accountability in the use of financial resources, for example.

5.2 PROGRESS ON ONE WASH

Most of the respondents explained that the signing of the MoU (at the highest governance level) combined with the development of the Program Implementation Manual (PIM) (not yet finalised) as the key tool for implementing a harmonised approach were indicative of the government's political commitment to harmonisation. The PIM adopts SWAp as its core strategy to move away from a fragmented project approach. It outlines the implementation strategy of the National WASH Program for the achievement of Ethiopia's National Policy, Strategy, Water Sector Development Program (WSDP) and UAP goals. The PIM also contributes to the achievement of the targets of both the Hygiene and Sanitation Development (HSDP) and Education Sector Development (ESDP) programmes. The basic principles applied include, but are not limited to, demand responsiveness, consistency across regions, sustainability, equity, participatory approaches, empowerment of the community, gender-sensitivity and cost recovery.

One respondent noted that a lack in understanding of One WASH, in particular how it is perceived to impact on NGO work in the WASH sector, is another challenge to contend with as NGOs are oriented towards closely linking their activities to communities or very specific areas. All agreed that, although harmonisation is expected to help solve the problems related to low capacity at local levels, implementing the approach without capacity building activities at all levels will lead to negative impacts.

Despite the fact that a MoU had already been signed by the three ministries with their line bureaus at regional levels, its translation into practice remains to be seen. Some respondents noted that 'things do not seem to be taking place as expected' and 'leadership is solely borne by the MoWR' (interview fragments, 2010). In addition, the preparation of the PIM—a requirement towards implementing harmonisation— had already taken a few years. Some respondents expect delays in the process and foresee that the completion of the PIM will take more time.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section covers the learning points and reflections drawn from the Triple-S scoping study in Ethiopia, which primarily examined the challenges faced by the country in moving toward a harmonised sector.

The overall findings of the study are:

- The sector's harmonisation programme (known as One WASH) that started in 2006 has successfully obtained widespread commitment, and is gaining momentum. There is commitment from the government for the harmonisation of different approaches as signalled by the MoU between the three Ministries of Water, Health and Education, and in the opening of WASH Coordination offices at the national level. The challenges faced by this change process, however, require greater scrutiny and constructive discussion within the sector. There continues to be a lack in awareness on harmonisation, what the approach entails, and how this will impact at intermediate levels and on NGO sectoral contributions.

- Sustainability is a major issue and one that is now receiving more attention. Despite this, there continues to be strong emphasis on new construction and infrastructure building. Levels of non-functional schemes are high, while coverage remains relatively low. Post-construction support for community management is extremely limited.

- Monitoring and planning (based on monitoring) remain weak. Rolling out of a standardised national approach to M&E is a key sector priority for 2010, with the potential to improve sector planning and implementation significantly. However, linking monitoring objectives to targets (e.g. coverage) and achieving consensus on methodological and analytical frameworks is important to achieve credible results. Based on data gathered from improved survey data forms for instance, it

may be possible that results will reveal significantly lower coverage than what is currently being reported. Improvements in M&E systems are expected to gather credible and more accurate data, thereby making sector planning more realistic.

- There remains a lack in capacity at local level. This serves as a major challenge towards the implementation of harmonised approaches. Capacity constraints are further exacerbated by the rapid and high turnover of experienced staff, unfilled posts and/or an overstretched staff base in some areas. In moving away from a fragmented project approach towards a single programme, harmonisation ought to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of service delivery and reduce administrative burdens, the duplication of efforts, and transaction costs. All these, however, have yet to be proven in practice.

- There is some concern that harmonisation may reduce the potential for innovation through the standardisation of approaches across different implementers. This should be mitigated through investments in research to allow space for innovation, the piloting of new approaches and learning. A new research strategy being developed by the MoWR may contribute to this need.

- There are also concerns that under a harmonised approach it will be challenging for donors to track their contributions (and impact) since most resources will be put in one basket of funding, and allocations will be made without knowing which donor's money has gone where. The requirements for harmonisation will especially be a challenge for NGOs and some bilateral donors where flows of funds from donors or taxpayers depend upon communications that illustrate attribution and how their specific contributions have made a difference.

In order to implement a harmonised approach in the sector, the following key recommendations are suggested for stakeholder uptake:

- Awareness creation on the One WASH approach at all levels is required, especially below the national level and amongst NGOs. One WASH needs to be internalised by all through advocacy, learning and sharing information (e.g. documentation), the publication of materials to clarify the concept, project piloting and, following rigorous testing, scaling up the approach if positive results are obtained. All this may be facilitated, coordinated and implemented by existing platforms in Ethiopia like the Multi-Stakeholder Forum (MSF) and other learning forums in the sector including the Forum for Learning on Water Supply and Sanitation (FLoWS), the Water and Sanitation Forum (WSF) and the WASH Ethiopia Movement.

- Capacity building and strengthening, especially at the local level, is necessary to achieve the benefits that accompany a harmonised approach. Technical training on planning, budgeting, reporting, data base management, etc. must evolve into a significant component in sector planning (e.g. Guided Distance Learning currently being piloted by SNV/RiPPLE). Capacity building and strengthening initiatives will also need to include the development of manuals that, for example, identify the minimum standard for the implementation of each model to guide the work of sector practitioners.

- Government needs to continue providing leadership in taking forward harmonisation and change processes. With the support and facilitation of colleagues in the Triple-S project, constant dialogue with different levels of government structures is essential to provide the necessary linkages (from federal down to the district level) supportive of the visions of One WASH.

- A clear action plan for the implementation of harmonisation policies is required based upon a step-wise implementation approach. The development of an action plan may form as one of the primary activities for collaboration between WASH Coordination offices and the Triple-S project. Following evaluation of the pilot testing of the proposed action plan, scaling these up to different regions through different learning and sharing platforms like FLoWS, WSF and WASH Ethiopia Movement may then take place.

- In addition to plans to fund innovation programmes, some of the risks to harmonisation may be mitigated by conducting action-oriented research that supports innovation. The Triple-S project together with different partners working in the sector can feed into this process by conducting different studies that investigate and nuance the practical problems arising from the implementation of different models in the sector. The current policy of the government to use self supply, for example, is one area that lacks sufficient understanding.

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ANNEX 1: ACRONYMS

ACSI	Amhara Credit and Saving Institution
AfDB	African Development Bank
BoFED	Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
CCRDA	Consortium of Christian Relief and Development Association
CDF	Community Development Fund
CDM	Capacity development model
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
CFT	Community facilitators
DAG	Donor Assistance Group
DFID	Department for International Development
EoF	Embassy of Finland
FGD	Focus group discussion
FLoWS	Forum for Learning on Water Supply and Sanitation
GDL	Guided distance learning
HEW	Health extension workers
HSDP	Hygiene and Sanitation Development Program
IDC	Italian Development Cooperation
IRC	IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre
IWRM	International water resource management
JBAR	Joint Budget and Aid Review
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KI	Key informant interview
KWT	Kebele WASH Team
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MSF	Multi-Stakeholder Forum
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoWR	Ministry of Water Resources
MUS	Multiple uses of water services
NWSC	National Wash Steering Committee
PIM	Program Implementation Manual
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
PBS	Protection of Basic Services
RiPPLE	Research Inspired Policy and Practice Learning in Ethiopia

RWSEP	Rural Water Supply and Environment Program
SDMs	Service delivery models
SNNPR	Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples Region
SWAPs	Sector-wide approaches
TSG	Town Support Groups
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UAP	(Accelerated) Universal Access Program
WAE	WaterAid Ethiopia
WB	World Bank
WASHCOs	Water Supply Sanitation and Hygiene Committees
WSF	Water and Sanitation Forum
WSDP	Water Sector Development Program
WSG	Woreda Support Group
WSP	Water and Sanitation Program
WWT	Woreda WASH Team

ANNEX 2: GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR INTERVIEWS ON HARMONISATION AND ALIGNMENT

1. How do you understand the One WASH programme? What do you think are the major changes/differences required from current practice?

2. What are the advantages of harmonisation under the One WASH programme from your organisation's perspective?

3. Are there any disadvantages?

4. The transition to a One WASH programme involves major change: what are the biggest obstacles/barriers to reaching the goal of harmonised One WASH as you see them?

5. How can these obstacles be overcome, what are the opportunities, triggers that can encourage change?

ANNEX 3: DESCRIPTION OF SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

DESCRIPTION OF SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS					
	Service delivery models		Adaptations/ emerging approaches		
Aspect	Self supply	'Conventional/ mainstream' community water management	NWaSH	MUS	CDF
Technology	Household-level, generally hand-dug wells with pulley/ bucket, with rope and washer pumps being promoted by some NGOs but not yet used at scale.	A range of options (in choice of cost/ preference): • Springs (without and with network) • Hand-dug wells • Borewells/handpumps (Afridev up to 45 m… but now less popular) and India Mark II (deep borewells). Shallower borewells from 30–60 m known as shallow wells • Borewells/pumped piped systems (diesel) Technology choice depends on local water resource availability, made by external experts (govt/NGO) with community input (limited).	Emphasises low-cost option primarily hand-dug well and other piped systems if dug wells are not feasible.	Includes all for community water but more options like water harvesting (sand dams, roof and rock catchments). Sand dams/ Haifer dams in pastoral areas. Links made to watershed management. Human and livestock and other productive uses.	Simpler/lower cost technologies, mainly hand-dug wells and springs (without piped systems).
Implementa-tion	Families take initiative and dig own wells. Traditional practice which happens everywhere (including urban areas). Mass mobilisation to promote in Oromia with some subsidies (cement to construct headwork/pulley, etc.) led to widespread uptake. This pre-dated official recognition of approach in A-UAP.	Agreed roles and responsibilities (commu-nity/external contributions). Usually small contribution to capital costs (10–15% mainly in kind). Level of community involvement in construction depends on type of scheme (greatest with hand-dug well) and location (less in pastoral areas). Well-digging may be by community but most construction (headworks/ drilling) by govt enter-prises/ private contractors (growing)/ NGO construction division.	Implemented in those *woredas* supported by WB and AfDB. The communi-ties are expected to contribute up to 5% of the investment cost and additional contribution in kind and labor.	Restricted to NGOs piloting more integrated approaches. Similar approaches to community water manage-ment but community contribution may be higher (revolving fund HCS).	Procurement and implementation by community (community contracting). Microfinance innovations to route funds to communities. Otherwise similar to community water management.

DESCRIPTION OF SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

	Service delivery models		Adaptations/ emerging approaches		
Aspect	Self supply	'Conventional/ mainstream' community water management	NWaSH	MUS	CDF
Operation	Households operate and maintain their own systems. Households can upgrade and improve over time, e.g. protection of wells and pumping arrangements. People may share or sell water to neighbors.	Users choose WASHCOs (different names) to manage system (timing, etc.), undertake repairs, collect fees and deposit in bank. Where additional water produced, responsible to uses (livestock, irrigation) and users. Caretaker (voluntary) trained and provided with basic tools. Set tariffs, monthly for hand-dug well and spring, and per container for boreholes/piped systems (varies a lot according to scheme type, no users, etc.). Poorest may be exempted or have to rely on other sources.	Households are responsible for operation & maintenance.		The community are responsible for operation and maintenance represented through WASHCOs.
Post-construction external support	None. Some NGOs may supply chlorine for treatment (on small scale).	Minor repairs are the responsibility of the community/WASHCO. Major repairs are addressed by woreda, zone or regional level. Woredas carry some spares, and typically take 2–4 weeks to respond. Woreda water desk/office refers to zone (and then to district) by letter when they cannot deal with the problem. Many problems (with professionals, more equipment/spares) get referred to region and it may take 3–6 months or even a year. Around elections there may be a faster response. Training (O&M, financial management, organisational issues) tends to be one-off and insufficient due to inadequate capacity at woreda level (regions partly fill gap but still insufficient). There is no formal link between kebele (and their development committees and WASHCOs (e.g. support in dealing with vandals). Water/desk office supports in other way,s e.g. letter to get bank account, etc.	Ditto	Ditto	There is support given by RWSEP program until the WASHCOs fully manage the system.

DESCRIPTION OF SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

Aspect	Service delivery models		Adaptations/ emerging approaches		
	Self supply	'Conventional/ mainstream' community water management	NWaSH	MUS	CDF
Policy	Recognised officially in 2009 A-UAP as first priority/ preferred option. Policy is not yet translated into support programmes by regions. Crucially, such water points are not yet captured in coverage statistics (so there is less incentive for regions to support)	This is the main model recognised in key policy documents (e.g. 1999 water resource management policy etc….check when it became norm in policy)…. still supported, still norm in policy.	It is accepted by the government since 2006.	Recently mentioned…. very brief/ shallow.	Not yet adopted/ recognised outside Amhara/ BSG.
Key issues	How are regions going to promote and support? How will water points be captured in monitoring (which water points will meet a minimum standard and which not)? Will rope and washer pumps be taken up wider? Water quality risks and ways to make it safe? How vulnerable are sources to climate variability and change? Where will approach not work, e.g. where is there a lack of shallow ground-water in lowlands/rift valley?	Sustainability remains a major concern with high levels of non-functioning systems, spare part supply chain problems, legalisation of WASHCOs. Costs are too high and capacity still too low to reach ambitious A-UAP targets under this model.	Cash contribution by the community.	Water quality	Application to other techno-logical options? Is it restricted therefore, like self supply, to areas with shallow groundwater?

ANNEX 4: ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

OVERALL CONCLUSIONS — ETHIOPIA

- Formally recognised service delivery models are:

  — Self supply (recognised in policy only in 2009 and not yet captured in sector performance statistics),

  — Community management by WASHCOs (main model). This includes water boards for multi-village schemes (with representatives from sub-committees/WASHCOs for individual villages), and

  — Municipalities (with Town Water Boards) in small towns.

- UAP targets are more ambitious than MDG goals. Aim is to provide access (defined as 15 lpcd potable water within 1.5 km) to 98% by 2012. Target includes reducing non-functionality rates to 10% in 2012 (officially 33% in 2007).

- Decentralisation has made woredas directly responsible for the provision of a range of services, including water.

- Capacity at this level (manpower/skills, and recurrent budgets) is one of the major sector challenges.

- Sustainability is also a major issue and one that is now receiving more attention, although the emphasis remains on new construction. Levels of non-functional schemes are high, while coverage remains relatively low. Post-construction support for community management is extremely limited.

- Monitoring and planning (based on monitoring) remain weak. The roll out of a standardised national approach to M&E is a key sector priority for this year, and has the potential to improve planning and implementation significantly. However, linking monitoring to targets (e.g. coverage) and achieving agreed and credible results will be important. It is possible that the results (based on new survey data) will also reveal much lower coverage than currently reported.

- A sector harmonization programme (known as One WASH) started in 2006, has widespread commitment, and is gathering momentum. The focus of this harmonisation drive is ongoing to scale and puts down very ambitious coverage targets. There is the danger that this drive for achieving scale is not addressing some critical aspects of service delivery. The challenges faced by this change process require greater scrutiny and constructive discussion within the sector.

- Because of very low starting point in terms of coverage there is an underlying emphasis or centre of gravity towards construction and implementation, which is done relatively well, but with much less focus on the concept of providing a long-term service. This is reflected in the way in which a range of issues are supported or not, including accountability, regulation, post-construction support and monitoring (similar to Mozambique).

- Strong drive towards harmonisation with development partners and donors at national level, particularly on funding mechanism—this push is still towards investment or implementation rather than around a service delivery approach.

- Push towards harmonisation also runs the risk of stifling innovation and piloting—need to ensure that past and exiting lessons are not lost and that there is some space for innovation under a more unified approach (One WASH).

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Principle	Explanation	Findings
Status of sustainability		• Rural coverage was most recently reported as 61.5% in 2009 (WWD speech, 2010) compared to 15.5% in 1991. Recent JMP figures report rural water users of improved sources as 26% (for 2008). • National and JMP statistics, however, need to be treated with significant caution. Both are subject to (different) major method-ological challenges. There is understandably a lot of political pressure to improve and coverage is the main indicator used. The reality is probably somewhere between these values. • UAP targets are more ambitious than MDG goals. Aim is to provide access (defined as 15 lpcd potable water within 1.5 km) to 98% by 2012. Target includes reducing non-functionality rates to 10% in 2012 (officially 33% in 2007)—significant that there is a target for functionality even if it is perhaps unrealistic. • Systems are categorised as functional, non-functional (due to mechan-ical, construction, quality, source) or abandoned. There are some good efforts (e.g. in SNNPR) to use functionality data to improve responses. • In 2007, non-functionality was officially reported as 33% (MoWR, 2007). Detailed RiPPLE case studies have locally reported similar levels. • Functionality and concerns with sustainability is a growing concern. (Is there a working group, task force or platform to research/discuss this?)
Enabling environment at national level:		
1. Definition of service delivery models and modalities in policy and laws	This element refers to the way in which water service delivery is formally defined in the national policy and legal framework, and the extent to which different sector stakeholders align to that. This includes, for example, a vision of the sector (targets and goals) and its broader position in development policy (PRSP). A second aspect is the definition of the various levels of service (in terms of quantity, quality, distance, MUS, rural, small-town, urban, definitions of functionality, etc.). Finally, this element refers to both the main paradigm(s) that exist on service delivery and the modalities through which these can be provided, i.e. the definition of institutional framework for service delivery. Asset ownership is an important part of that; if there are doubts about where ownership lies, lever-aging the financing for maintenance and asset replacement may be problematic.	• AnMoU between Water, Health (with responsibility for sanitation, health centres, hygiene promotion) and Education (responsible for WASH in schools) was signed in 2006 and was an important step to improve governmental coordination (the national WASH coordination office established in 2008 with responsibility to coordinate MoU implementation). Especially below national level there is a lot to do to yet implement its undertakings. • The MoWR is providing sector leadership with strong support of donors. • The government's universal access plan (2006 with accelerated UAP adopted in 2009) is the main policy document for the sector. Sets targets and includes strategies. • The PRSP (known as PASDEP) which runs from 2006-2010 included the same targets. • Decentralisation has placed woredas firmly in the frontline of service delivery. It is the responsibility of council to prepare a WASH plan setting out how resources will be used locally. Zones, regions and national levels have supporting roles. • A harmonization programme (known as One WASH) started in 2006, has widespread commitment, and is gathering momentum. • Formally recognised service delivery models are: — Self supply (recognised in policy only in 2009), — Community management (main model), — Water boards for multi-village schemes (with representatives from sub-committees/WASHCOs for individual villages—tend to be more professionalised), and — Municipalities (with Town Water Boards) in small towns. • Community management of systems constructed by government, contractors or NGOs and handed over to WASHCOs (WASH committees) is the main service delivery model in rural areas.

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Principle	Explanation	Findings
1. Definition of service delivery models and modalities in policy and laws (Continued)		• There are differences in implementation modality. In World Bank or ADB woredas (which usually only cover some kebeles) more support is provide pre- and during implementation (e.g. Woreda support groups, Community Facilitation Teams) are established. The NWASH pilot has now morphed into the OneWash national level programme NGOs similarly provide additional capacity e.g. in facilitation, implementation etc. –
		• WASHCOs own the assets transferred to them, but are not yet legally recognised (in most regions) and efforts have been ongoing for some time to address this issue. Assets/infrastructure is 'handed over' although legal transfer process is not quite clear. Is it giving legal right to operate and maintain (long-term concession)? Or real transfer of the assets?
		• Post-construction support is very limited under all service delivery modalities and this contributes to low sustainability; elements of post-construction support are addressed in the model, but de facto does not operate in any systematic way plus there are usually very little resources or capacity.
		• A number of large multi-village schemes (normally linked to INGO programmes) have been successful with economies of scale and higher levels of professionalisation.
		• In the case of multi-village systems, community management is arranged through elected water boards that may employ scheme operators.
		• Service levels are clearly defined; however, linking monitoring (including estimation of coverage) to these levels is very problematic and many figures are contested.
2. Decentralisation policy for water sector	This element refers to the extent and way in which decentralised service delivery is carried out, in terms of the roles and responsibilities and resources, as well as the programmatic structures for that. For example, there may be one national water supply programme, guided from national level but carried out at decentralised level. Or, each local government may have its own programme. It also refers to the extent to which development partners contribute or not to this policy and programme. For countries where decentralisation is in process, it also refers to the way that process is structured and how decision making, assets and staff are owned and/or transferred to the decentralised level. Four facets of decentralisation are commonly seen: financial, political, functional and administrative.	• Broader decentralisation process down to regional level is reasonably complete (decision making, financial and human resources), but much weaker down the chain to woreda and kebele levels which are very poorly resourced.
		• Under a highly decentralised model, woreda's are clearly responsible for service delivery, but often lack capacity, especially operational budgets. Donor-supported programmes and NGOs provide the vital finance for constructing new schemes (service authority).
		• Levels of local government include kebele, woreda and zone (below regional and national levels).
		• Most schemes are handed over to WASHCOs who own the assets.
		• Woredas are responsible for providing support, but refer to zone or region where they are unable to, e.g. due to degree of complexity, capacity, etc.
		• Regions are a key level and regional offices with deconcentrated presence of the Ministry (e.g. Bureaus of Water Resources Develop-ment - BoWRD), but this unit is more closely accountable to the devolved regional cabinets than central line ministries within Ethio-pia's federal structure.
		• There is tension over certain issuesbetween the regional and central parts of the Ministry.

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Principle	Explanation	Findings
3. Oversight (regulation) and accountability	With decentralisation of responsibility for service delivery to intermediate levels, national government plays an increasingly important role in oversight, regulation and enforcement, so as to ensure accountability from service providers to users and to national governments, including elected branch of government. This is an element that looks at the frameworks, tools and mechanisms that have been put in place for this. This could include for example sector monitoring and reporting at an aggregate level. It may also include more innovative approaches to service provider accountability to national government, as well as the mutual accountability between governments and development partners.	• There is no regulator of water services, even in urban areas. • Woreda water offices report to the woreda council which in turn reports to regional councils. • In parallel (although this channel in practice is weaker) there is reporting from the woreda water office to the zonal water department and the regional BoWRD. • Systems and structures of accountability and regulation are focused on implementation and construction and much less so (or not at all) on long-term service provision. • Regional agencies answer to the regional council but also with an upward link to the line ministry at federal level. Accountability is first and foremost at regional level and to the regional cabinet. • Reporting focuses on input-output type reporting, and not service on delivery. Money spent, systems constructed and highly problematic (and contested) coverage figures are key indicators. • Although periodic woreda inventory exercises are undertaken to monitor access in some regions, there is not yet a regularly updated M&E system. Figures also tend to be contested between woreda, zone, region and national levels. • Rolling out an agreed national approach to M&E is the main sector priority for 2010. Will improve data availability on sector performance, although calculation of coverage to achieve agreed results will still be a major challenge. • Regional bureaus provide quarterly reports to the federal ministry and there is discussion between regional and national level on the levels of the progress of implementation, challenges faced, etc. (involving bureau heads and chaired by minister or vice-minister). • Users can report problems to their WASHCO (where present) or where there is no supply to the Kebele office which is the lowest level of local government. • There is a process of WASHCO legalisation underway. • CDF programme/approach includes WASHCO doing community contracting, which is one way of improving quality/accountability and cost-effectiveness.
4. Mechanisms for coordination, learning, support and technical assistance to intermediate level (sector learning)	In many countries, decentralisation is not only about the formal policies and frameworks that guide it. Many local authorities need and will continue to need support, in many forms, ranging from access to information, capacity to learn and reflect, to technical assistance, etc. This element refers to the mechanisms that exist at sector level for such learning and support, both at national level and then downwards to the intermediate level. It would include elements such as presence and use of sector information systems, resource centres, inclusion of water in university curricula, etc.	• The annual multi-stakeholder forums (third forum held in 2009) for the WASH sector provide a mechanism to coordinate at national level (all regions are involved). Specific undertakings set priorities for the sector in implementing policy, e.g. to improve monitoring and evaluation. Good first step in bringing together all players as is joint sector review process. • The WASH Ethiopia Movement (and its regional chapters) is a multi-stakeholder body involved in advocacy and learning-focused meetings. • The Water and Sanitation Forum (WSF) is a national forum engaging civil society hosted by CCRDA (Consortium-Christian Relief and Development Association) involved in capacity building, policy advocacy, and sharing information with its members. Improving the coordination among NGOs working in the water sector—work in progress, but good initiative, including support to the new M&E. • The NWASH programme supports regions through Regional WASHCOs and WoredaWASHCOs. These offices are responsible for coordinating implementation of the MoU and providing technical support.

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Principle	Explanation	Findings
4. Mechanisms for coordination, learning, support and technical assistance to intermediate level (sector learning) (Continued)		• Development partners are investing in capacity building with a focus on regional and woreda levels (e.g. UNICEF, JICA, World Bank through WSG) although there is still a huge un-met demand. TVETs provide most of the manpower at woredalevel. NGOs active in providing training in the sector include SNV, WaterAid and many others. • The Public Sector Capacity Building Programme (PISCAP) managed by Capacity Building Bureaus is weak on water with few links to the sector. • Arba Minch University, recently Addis Ababa College of Development Studies (with new MSc) and others provide graduates at degree and masters level. • FLoWS provides a mechanism for learning at national level which links different networks and forums and includes a strong research emphasis. (RiPPLE have also promoted learning and practice alliances in 3 regions and in 6 woredas to encourage learning at these levels).
5. Sector financing	This element refers to four aspects: 1) the sources of financing (taxes, transfers, tariffs, donors funds, community contribution, private sector), 2) the way in which financial flows in the sector are earmarked, for example the per-centage of grants to be dedicated to CapEx, OpEx, CapManEx, direct support costs, etc., but also what would be needed at sector level for indirect support costs, 3) the ways in which these financial flows are coordinated and managed at national level (SWAps, five-year expenditure frameworks, off-budget, project-based), but also downwards to the intermediate level (annual disbursements cycles, conditional grants, unconditional grants, project-based), and 4) an indication of the relative size of financial flows and routing, if available, would be important.	• Channel 1A: On-budget government expenditure is most easily identified. Regions make a block grant allocation to woredas using money from various sources (federal subsidy, regional tax income, woreda tax income). Woredas decide how to spend this money on various priorities (WASH is one of the poverty reduction priorities that it is government policy to address). Are there pre-set amounts or % which have to be spent on certain sectors or activities – how much flexibility is there? • Channel 1B: All donors now route their money via this channel (MoFED-BoFED-WoFED) which is essentially the same as 1A except that money comes from donors rather than the government treasury and there are no other sources. This is a new arrangement (repre-senting progress in alignment) which was previously more complex with funds flowing through line ministries. It is hence hard to access data on this channel in previous years, but data are now expected to be available. Certain donor financing streams are earmarked for certain geographic areas and activities. • Channel 3: Finance by NGOs is routed via NGO offices for local spending. This is the most problematic to assess since it is off-budget and data is not consolidated. • The most recent breakdown of contributions for the water sector is: Government 51%, donors 29% and NGOs 20%—More work is needed to define what percentage of 'government funding' of 51% is actually double counting of DBS. • Total annual investment in sector US$67 million—about US$1/person/year. • Even though donor finance is now all through the same channel, there are separate accounts kept for each donor. • There is SWAp mechanism in place, neither a basket nor a pool fund although this is intended. • IDB/AfDB/DFID (silent partnership) are using government procedures (e.g. in procurement) and UNICEF is similarly aligning. • Some costs figures are reported and used in the UAP. The overall national average per capita cost of construction was Birr 181 (UAP, 2009) (being Birr 87 for low-cost technologies and Birr 252 for high-cost technologies). This figure is used to calculate the requirement (for construction) of 6.5 billion Birr. • Debate about whether the current approaches and technology choice will allow for meeting ambitious targets—hence the drive for self supply as a priority policy.

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK		
Principle	**Explanation**	**Findings**
5. Sector financing (Continued)		• There are no figures reported on other costs, e.g. government staffing costs, planning and facilitation costs, capacity building, costs of monitoring and reporting, support costs, etc. The assumption appears to be that O&M costs will be met by communities or other government budgets. • Communities also contribute to costs of construction (money, labour or in-kind, e.g. materials), generally between 5–15% but can be higher in some NGO projects. • WASHCOs are responsible for minor repairs for which they charge a tariff to users (usually a fixed monthly amount). Major repairs are by (and funded by) woreda, zone, region. • In Amhara and BenishangulGumuz, microfinance institutions are now used to route money to communities. ACSI for example in Amhara channel money via its regional and sub-branches (rather than via woreda's). This financing modality is being recognised (e.g. in PIM) and may be scaled up. **Financial planning:** • CapEx from grants and donors (channels 1A, 1B or 3). • OpEx—through community/user tariffs. • CapManEx—again, relies on grants from national government or donor funding—the distinction between large scale repairs or complete rehabilitation is not clear. Further work is required to check on who is actually addressing this. (Woreda? In better-run multi-village schemes can they also meet the CapManEx costs—are there examples?). • Low utilisation or absorption capacity. • Government expenditures against planning is higher (75%) than for donor grants (47%) and loans (27%).
6. Organisational culture and behaviour	This element refers to cultural and individual attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values of an organisation at international, national and intermediate levels. It refers to the particular set of values and/or norms that are found within groups and people in an organisation and that direct the way in which they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organisation. Why are agendas set as they are? Why are decisions made to fund in a certain way? What are the attitudes of donors to more aligned funding? Why do governments have certain attitudes to donors/NGOs, etc.? Why do NGOs want to work alone? Why don't people pay their water bills?	• Talk of harmonisation, integration and alignment has dominated sector rhetoric in recent years, but progress is actually slow. Why? • Awareness is part of the issue. It is not yet exactly clear what being aligned means, especially for NGOs, which leads to uncertainty. The details are still missing. • NWCO (National WASH Coordination Office) has a transition plan towards 'One WASH'. Very specific objectives: national harmonised WASH program framework and PIM (Programme Implementation Manual) ready by June 2010. Framework and PIM to be jointly appraised by Nov 2010. New harmonised program in full effect by 2011 (after period of alignment)—basis for all WASH agreements and activities sector wide. The sector is therefore on the threshold of 2 years of major change. • The details in this framework and manual will be vital, and subsequent awareness raising needed. • The change process is donor driven and some people are sceptical about what will be in the PIM (e.g. very inflexible World Bank type procedures as compared to UNICEF for example). • Some donors and NGOs are sceptical about putting money into a basket for fear of unintended use of funds. Under a more harmonised approach it may be more difficult to track contributions. This is a major problem for some donors and NGOs in order to meet their own reporting requirements. This needs to be overcome to move away from the project and programme implementation model.

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK		
Principle	**Explanation**	**Findings**
6. **Organisational culture and behaviour** (Continued)		• There is also a concern that harmonised approaches will reduce innovation. This could be mitigated (e.g. through research and piloting new approaches. The MoWR are developing a new research strategy for example). • The rapid transition is questioned: would it not be better to more gradually align, e.g. initially bigger donors rather than all regions and all actors at same time? • While noting slow progress to date, these kinds of 'process' challenges were notably not seriously highlighted in the recent MSF. However, the lack of adequate alignment by NGOs was acknowledged by civil society in a substantive contribution. • We are still some distance away from a One WASH program. Some of the identified issues are need for advocacy, better sense of identify and ownership, common systems and tools and vision/ passion. It is recognised that change needs champions (has support from top and all regions advocating, MoFED showing leadership for harmonised WASH programme, donors and CSOs). A series of high level meetings were planned as next step (but appear to have been delayed?).Further work is required to check on capacity development and OneWash—how much of this is set aside for systemic support to improving the sector carrying capacity? • Capacity at local levels is very low, and capacity is needed to make the transition from a project/programme approach to One WASH. A pool fund to support capacity building in the sector has not materialised. • Civil society organisations cannot, in practice, work on governance, rights, accountability issues.
Governance over services delivery at intermediate level		**Note:** Intermediate levels include regions, zones, woredas and kebeles.
7. **Institutional responsibilities for the different stages of the life cycle of service provision**	This element refers to the definition of roles and responsibilities for different functions (planning, construction, post-construction support, operations and maintenance, monitoring, training, etc.), who should fill these functions whether all different functions that are necessary are covered by these agencies.	Overall the roles and responsibilities are relatively well defined and clear—but again, with a focus or emphasis on the initial construction and implementation phase and not with a service delivery approach. Regional level bureaus: • Relatively large staff at regional level (e.g. 100 to 200 staff??)—with transport and IT resources; mandate does include support function to Woredas, but not always systematic (Further work is needed to determine extent of this). • Presence and capacities at zonal level, mandate? (Further work is needed to clarify this). • Planning: The woreda is a key unit for planning and where annual woreda WASH plans/budgets are prepared. Usually, however, there is little government money to implement. It generally only covers salary costs. The allocation of donor money between woredas is mainly made at regional level, e.g. decisions taken on which woredas various programmes and NGOs will operate (coordinated by BoFED). Communities are involved in typical participatory planning processes, but results will be depending on available financing. • Ability to actually construct based on planning is linked to whether or not a donor programme or NGO programme will be available—in this case planning is really driven by donors.

ELEMENTS OF SUSTAINABLE SERVICES AT SCALE: ETHIOPIAN ANALYSIS USING TRIPLE-S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Principle	Explanation	Findings
7. **Institutional responsibilities for the different stages of the life cycle of service provision** (Continued)		• Construction: Communities have a key role in relation to low-cost technologies, e.g. well digging (by themselves or employing artisans). Technical support is provided (usually government staff from zonal, regional levels or NGOs). Well drilling, spring-works and distribution systems are primarily undertaken by a government-owned company (water works construction enterprise present in all regions), NGOs (who may have own rigs) and private contractors (few but increasing). Formal role for communities in oversight of construction is not clear.
		• Post-construction: very limited and ad hoc. International Rescue Committee are involved in scheme rehabilitation and training although there are few other examples. The emphasis is nearly always on new construction; again reflects a focus on new system construction or repairs, rather than long-term support for capacity, preventative maintenance, etc.
		• Involvement of local private sector for post-construction support is limited—not really much support yet for entrepreneurial culture? Issue is now starting to be raised and discussed in the sector, but still is in very nascent stage.
		• O&M: minor repairs are the responsibility of the WASHCOs. Major repairs can be referred to the woreda, zone, or region, depending on their severity. The capacity of woredas, zones and regions to respond is low and repairs may take a few weeks up to two years. The system does not work well and even minor repairs can be reported to the region. Spare parts distribution is problematic with very weak private sector supply chains, e.g. for handpump spares. There are inadequate efforts to develop/support supply chains (some isolated examples).
		• Monitoring: is generally very poor (due to low capacity and lack of allocated budget). Most woredas do not maintain proper records, e.g. on functionality, even when they could do this at low cost. Most do not update woreda inventory results (which they are involved in collecting) as this is mainly seen as an exercise to provide data needed at higher levels. Woreda inventories have not been regular and a lot of coverage data is based on assumptions and incremental addition of new schemes as constructed. Methodologies to calculate coverage/access remain weak and have not been addressed adequately. Roll out of a standardised national M&E approach is being undertaken in 2010 (initially in emergent regions, from November in other regions).
		• Training: Most training is before handover of schemes to communities, e.g. on O&M. Some donor-funded and NGO programmes may provide more training (e.g. CDF). Limited occasional post-construction training for WASHCOs on O&M, bookkeeping, etc.

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Principle	Explanation	Findings
8. **Coordination mechanisms and platforms at intermediate level**	Apart from a definition of the roles of each stakeholder in services provision, there is a need for coordination mechanisms between them. Under this element, the mechanisms (platforms, bodies, etc.) for such coordination are described and analysed in terms of their effectiveness. Coordination would refer to all stages in the life cycle, from coordination of efforts to address capital investment needs, to the identification of needs to provide post-construction support. Typical issues would include coordination between NGOs active in the district, but also mechanisms for coordination between those having governance functions and those having service provision roles. Coordination between different government bodies may also be an issue, particularly where some functions are decentralised and others are deconcentrated.	• At lower levels, coordination between Water, Health, Education is weak. At woreda level, the council structure provides some coordination (quarterly meetings), but interaction at regional level is limited. • Woreda level—Further work is needed to check on whether there is an open platform for the water sector. For Woreda officials, NGOs, etc.? • At regional level, BoFED organizes an bi-annual or annual GO/NGO meeting, but learning between NGOs and government and between NGOs remains limited. RiPPLE has piloted learning and practice alliances at regional and woreda level but these are project-based. • Ripple—set up regional and woreda level learning alliances—fairly unique structures and more focused on learning rather than operational. • Coordination and division of labour between donor programmes and NGO programmes is largely done at regional level—quite effective.
9. **Monitoring and information systems for full service delivery (accountability)**	This element refers to mechanisms and systems in place for collecting all kinds of information on water systems (schemes) in the districts, and access to these for use by different stakeholders in planning process. It is also closely related to issues of access to information and accountability, both upwards and downwards to communities.	• Significant differences in figures for coverage even between central and decentralised levels within the sector—political issue which is not easy to address. • Use of data at lower levels is very limited—mostly it is channeled upwards to fulfil reporting requirements; significant gap; experience from Ripple shows that even with some basic analysis and support it is possible to improve resource mobilisation at woreda level. • A reliable M&E system is recognised as a major gap, and there is a major ongoing effort (budget 60 million Birr) to address this. A standard approach (M&E manual) and woreda inventory surveys of all water sources in 2010/2011. • It is unlikely that data will be made widely available unless there is a public commitment to do this. Data from previous woreda inventory surveys (undertaken on a regional basis) is hard to access with only processed results (e.g. coverage figures) being widely published. • Updating of a new system (planned) will be important but has been poor in the past. Improving use of data at woreda levels (not just sending upwards) might lead to improved quality of data and more updating.

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Principle	Explanation	Findings
9. **Monitoring and information systems for full service delivery (accountability)** (Continued)		• In the past there have been major deficiencies in the methodology (e.g. a weak link between what was measured and the target which includes quantity, quality and distance elements) and figures have regularly been contested between levels (woreda, zone, regional, national). Systematic ways to count users accurately and to allow for non-functional schemes have yet to be found (tending to lead to inflation of data).
		• Self-supply is now a recognised approach, but such sources are not counted within existing surveys (leading to undercounting of coverage).
		• Citizens (e.g. in absence of WASHCO, or poor performance of WASHCO) and WASHCOs can complain/make reports to Kebele Chair or WASH office at woreda level, but only at regional level can significant resources be unlocked (but this is 4 tiers away from people). This short route to accountability (consumers-providers) is generally weak. Kebeles are directly involved in WASHCO activities (i.e. these are not fully independent).
		• Perhaps more important over the long term is the long route to accountability via government (politicians and officials). There are demands from people to government to provide access and during elections water can be one of the top political issues.
10. **Strategic planning for full life cycle for service delivery (capital projects, operations and post-construction support) at intermediate level**	Under this element, the focus is at medium-term strategic planning approaches and mechanisms for the full life cycle of delivery of services, according to the defined norms and standards, so entailing both capital investments, ongoing provision and post-construction support for the entire area of jurisdiction at intermediate level. This also refers to how priority setting and targeting of investments is done to different groups within the area of jurisdiction. For example, are specific measures in place to target the most vulnerable and poorest groups—are there pro-poor policies or criteria? Are investments biased to certain areas?	• Planning processes include both top-down through communication of block grant allocations to individual woredas and bottom-up from woreda planning processes that are channeled to regional level.
		• But again, this planning process is very much based on infrastructure and not on a service delivery concept.
		• For communities without an improved systems, capital contribution is ensured (mainly in labour/in-kind contribution).
		• In World Bank-supported woredas with the support of WSGs (Woreda Support Groups) there is now preparation of WASH strategic plans (looking over 3–5 years), but otherwise strategic planning is weak. Woreda WASH plans are only annual and supply-driven, e.g. number of new hand-dug wells, shallow wells, etc. to be constructed. Woredas have longer term (five-year integrated plans), including targets for new construction, although practice is not strongly linked.
		• There is little systematic planning for post-construction support although there are examples, e.g. SNNPR used results of a 2009 inventory of waterpoints to reclassify non-functional sources according to the type and severity of problem, which has given new impetus to efforts to repair non-functional sources.

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Principle	Explanation	Findings
11. Financial planning for all life-cycle costs	This element refers to the financial component of strategic planning (see previous element). Such planning should consider all costs: CapEx, OpEx, CapManEx and direct support costs. It includes all income, and sources of income including tariffs, transfers (from national government), taxes, donor grants, and both public and private investments. It also refers to the consistency between planning and availability of sources of funding (grants, direct investments, customer tariffs and contributions) to cover these costs, including both public and private financing mechanisms. Of particular importance is the clarity and consistency in terms of expected contributions of different customer groups, and inversely the targeting of subsidies, if any. Although this element is part of the previous one, it is so crucial, yet often not done properly, that it is a different element here.	• This does not happen and is a major weakness affecting sustainability. Financial planning is limited to construction. • Woreda budgets mainly go to recurrent costs (staff), and operational budgets may be also absent (e.g. 1%). • In the financial planning, there is no division of costs along these lines (OpEx, CapManEx, CapEx and direct support costs,etc). • Unit costs exist for planning purposes but are limited to actual hardware or construction—do not include facilitation costs, CapManEx or direct costs, etc.? • More work is needed to check on guidelines for CapEx. Are there set budget lines and amounts or % for the spending of funds; for hardware, software, direct support etc.?
12. Project implementation approaches	This refers to the approaches followed by actors at intermediate level, both in capital projects and ongoing support. Of particular importance is the standardisation of aspects such as creation of demand for improved services, health and hygiene promotion, but also the use of supporting tools, such as manuals and guidelines. Another aspect is how these approaches are articulated in short-term (annual) planning cycles, as well as in project cycles.	• There is a common implementation approach formally documented in a Ministry document, but with important differences between government-woredas, woredas supported by the World Bank, AfDB (bring in capacity building for woreda staff) or UNICEF (emphasis on schools, children, etc.), or NGOs (tend to have higher/longer processes of participation). • The major differences in emphasis are level of community participation, level of community contributions, level of capacity building, etc. There is recognition that NGO project cycles are often of higher quality, e.g. in prioritising problems, feasibility studies, design and implementation, but this requires capacity and there are issues around scaling up. • Self-supply is now just starting to emerge as a somewhat different approach—promoting and supporting the conditions (local artisans, microfinance etc.) looking into subsidies. • A genuinely different implementation modality is CDF (Amhara, BSG) where communities are responsible for contracting construction leading apparently to greater ownership and better sustainability (as well as lower costs).

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Principle	Explanation	Findings
13. Capacity (resources, supply chain, structures, systems and procedures, etc.) to fulfil functions during the entire life cycle of service provision and to carry out governance functions	Apart from clear responsibilities, there must be capacity at the intermediate level for both service provision and governance functions. Capacity refers to human resources (management, technical assistants, private operators, hardware shops, etc.) within the area, as well as material (computers, vehicles, etc.). The type of capacity required differs along the stages of the life cycle and types of system. In the post-construction support phase, spare part supply chains are relevant for example, while during capital investment projects, hardware and machines are needed, alongside expertise in software.	• The lack of capacity at woreda level is widely acknowledged. Most woredas have a few, often junior, staff with TVET qualifications. Motivation tends to be low due to low pay, management, limited capacity-building support, low budgets, etc. Computers may be available but skills to use them (e.g. maintain data records, prepare report cards, etc.) are often weak. • Better capacity at regional levels but still problems of high-turnover linked to low pay and many other factors. • Capacity tends to be better amongst NGOs, which creates some differentials with woreda staff—quality of local partnerships between NGOs and woredas is probably variable. • Supply chain issues are widely neglected. Some projects (WaterAid, CDF, PLAN, etc.) are, however, addressing supply chain issues. • Private sector capacity is low, but now receiving more attention, including contractors (e.g. drillers) and spare part retailers, etc. Interest and support for private sector is likely to increase with expansion of self-supply. • Capacity constraints reflect broader context of extreme poverty, low cash-based economy, large physical distances and a political system that has not encouraged/restricted entrepreneurial culture.

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| Principle	Explanation	Findings
14. Embedding water services delivery in framework for IWRM	Sustainability of rural water supply services is affected more and more by increased competition over water resources. Rural water supply services therefore need to take into account water resources issues, and in that being based on the principles of IWRM (Dublin principles). This implies that at levels above the community (sub-catchment, district, etc.) an assessment is made of available resources and how these affect service delivery. Both strategic planning at intermediate level and planning of capital works needs to be done within such a framework for IWRM. In addition, efforts need to go into promotion of representation of the rural water supply sector in platforms for water resources management. Under this element, an analysis should be made on how this is taken into account in services delivery. In many countries, this implies looking at the interface between local government and water resources institutions.	• Largely absent but recognised as a gap. Some pilot efforts made to link to watershed development approaches (e.g. in Amhara and Tigray regions). The A-UAP also recognises the need to develop local water resources beyond basic needs (MUS). • Levels of rural water utilisation are generally low and resources underdeveloped, but little conflict or competition with other users—not a major factor in sustainability of rural drinking water. • Many sources are seasonally vulnerable and impacts of climate change are a serious concern, particularly in certain geographic areas.

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Principle	Explanation	Findings
15. Appropriate technology options	Technology options must be appropriate for the physical and socio-economic environment. Under this element, the focus is on the range of options available to communities to support full coverage, sustain-ability and the ability to respond to changing demand for higher levels of service. A key issue is finding a balance between the development and use of innovative technologies and standardisation to allow economies of scale, in for example the supply chain.	• In a context where coverage levels are extremely low, relatively low-cost technology options such as hand-dug wells and borewells fitted with handpumps are the focus. Afridevhandpump (up to 45 m) and Indian mark II for deeper boreholes.(Further work is needed to check if these are the only two 'approved' handpumps). Springs are also important. There is some innovation on other technologies such as rainwater harvesting. (Further work is needed to check what the processes and opportunities are for innovation to explore, test and document alternative technologies). • There has also been quite some emphasis on large gravity fed and pumped systems that serve multiple villages, and some schemes are widely cited examples (e.g. Hitosa, Dalocha). • Self-supply and MUS are now recognised in policy and there is a recognition that more appropriate and lower-cost technologies should get more attention (the A-UAP target is that 35% of expenditure should now go to such approaches). Rope pumps are becoming more popular for example. The practical steps to support lower-cost technologies require attention (e.g. how self-supply sources are captured in coverage statistics, what is an adequate self-supply source?). Guidelines and 'how to' for self-supply are not yet clear, much less documented and disseminated systematically. Few pilot NGO projects to promote household water treatment, and fluoride treatment (due to high F levels in rift valley) is receiving some attention (e.g. in SNNPR).
Service provision level		

16. Institutional arrangement for service provision	At community level, effective service providers need to be in place to manage the service. This can either be CBOs, under the community-management approach, or other service provision management models (private operators, etc.). This element focuses on the type of providers that exist legally, as well as the type of contractual arrangements and regulations in place (service agreement, lease contract, etc.). Much of this should reflect national policy, but there is frequently local innovation and variation.	• Main service models in rural areas are:
		
		  — Self-supply,
		  — Community management (WASHCOs),
		  — Water boards for multi-village schemes (with representatives from sub-committees/WASHCOs for individual villages), and
		  — Municipalities (with Town Water Boards) in small towns.
		
		• WASHCOs who are responsible for scheme O&M generally have poor capacity to handle funds (so cost recovery is weak), lack O&M skills and access to spares and are largely dependent on woredas. Absence of legal recognition of WASHCOs compounds problems.

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Principle	Explanation	Findings
17. Mechanisms and approaches for customer participation in the full life cycle of the service	The basis for sustainability is laid during capital works projects. During such works, demand is created for services and capacity is developed at community level to operate and manage the services, in the form of CBOs or other local operators. Ample evidence shows the importance of participatory planning tools and approaches in this. The same applies to other phases in the life cycle. During the operation and maintenance this can come in the form of mechanisms for customer relations and feedback to service providers. Under this element, the focus is on the mechanisms and approaches for customer participation, and the quality of this, during the full life cycle.	• Communities participate by providing labour during construction and in operation and maintenance (within their capacity), which is the responsibility of WASHCOs. • In the CDF model, communities are more strongly empowered as they directly control funds for implementation and are responsible for procurement. • NGOs are generally able to give more attention to problem assessment and to adapt implementation to meet local requirements (See hierarchy of consumer options above in 9). • (More work is needed to check on mechanisms for sharing water for self-supply and traditional agreements).
18. Financial arrangements for water services provision	This element looks at the financial arrangements for water services provision. A first aspect is clarity on expected customer contributions in different stages of the life cycle, including initial contributions to capital works in the case of CBM, or other upfront investment arrangements. Another aspect are the arrangements in place for sound financial management, such as the possibility for CBOs to open bank accounts, have access to commercial loans, billing software or audits by independent auditors.	• It is normal practice that a tariff (more so in cash, but very low generally) is paid for use of water sources, although poor families may be exempted by the community—payment either as a monthly flat fee or by jerry can. • WASHCOs are not yet legally recognised (progress made recently in some regions), so they can face difficulties in opening a bank account (then an individual, e.g. WASH cashier, or woreda office, may look after the money). There are greater risks of mis-use in this case. Audits are generally absent. • In the CDF model, communities do have a bank account, in fact two (one for investment and one for saving for operation and maintenance). • Some multi-village schemes have been able to successfully recover costs (Wateraid studies), but probably still not enough to cover major replacements, etc. • What are the guideline tariffs? Flexibility in setting tariffs? Are these determined by technology type?
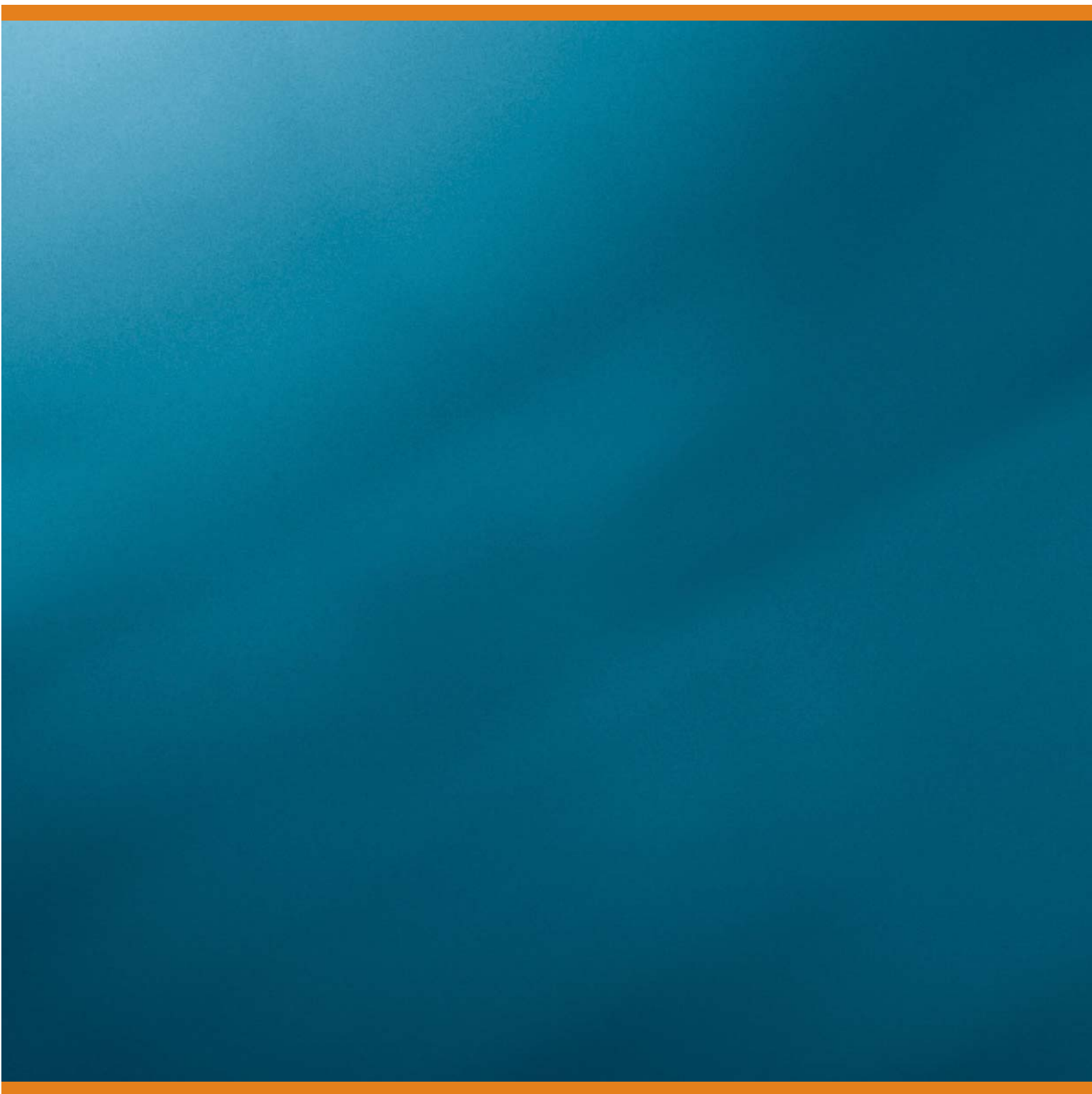
About Triple-S

Triple-S (Sustainable Services at Scale) is an initiative to promote 'water services that last' by encouraging a shift in approach to rural water supply—from one that focuses on implementing infrastructure projects to one that aims at delivering a reliable and indefinite service. The initiative is managed by IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre in the Netherlands in collaboration with agencies in different countries and with funding from the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.

About *Ethiopia: Lessons for Rural Water Supply—Assessing progress towards sustainable service delivery*

This study, commissioned by Triple-S, seeks to shed light on the progress in achieving scaled-up sustainable rural service delivery. It examines a number of service delivery models currently being implemented in Ethiopia, by identifying their strengths, challenges and limitations. The study also identifies key conclusions for achieving more sustainable service delivery in Ethiopia. It is one of 13 country studies done as part of a broader international study.

For more information and access to the other country reports, literature reviews, and the synthesis document please visit http://www.waterservicesthatlast.org.

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