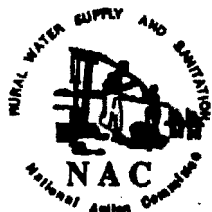




ZIMBABWE

GOVERNMENT OF ZIMBABWE



**NATIONAL ACTION COMMITTEE
FOR
RURAL WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION**



REVIEW OF THE IRWSSP

VOLUME II

**EVOLUTION OF THE INTEGRATED RURAL WATER SUPPLY AND
SANITATION PROGRAMME IN ZIMBABWE**
A Background Report to the IRWSSP Sector Evaluation



**Institute of
Water and
Sanitation
Development**



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ABBREVIATIONS

ADF	African Development Fund
Agritex	Agricultural, Technical and Extension Services
BADC	Belgian Agency for International Development
CDW	Community Development Worker
CADEC	Catholic Development Commission
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CBM	Community Based Management /Maintenance
DA	District Administrator
DANIDA	Danish Agency for International Development
DDF	District development Fund
DWD	Department of Water Development
DWSSC	District Water and Sanitation Sub-committee
EHT	Environmental Health Technician
ESAs	External Support Agencies
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
IDWSSD	International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade
IRWSSP	Integrated Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme/Project
IWSD	Institute of Water and Sanitation Development
JICA	Japanese International Co-operation Agency
LGPO	Local Government Promotion Officer
LWF	Lutheran World Federation
MCDWA	Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs
MEWRD	Ministry of Energy, Water Resources and Development
MLGNH	Ministry of Local Government and National Housing
MLGRUD	Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development

MNAEC	Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operatives
MOHCW	Ministry of Health and Child welfare
NAC	National Action Committee
NCU	National Co-ordination Unit
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NMWP	National Master Plan for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation
O & M	Operation and Maintenance
PA	Provincial Administrator
PDSP	Pilot District Support Project
PWSSC	Provincial Water and Sanitation Sub-committee
PHHE	Participatory Health and Hygiene Education
PHAST	Participatory Hygiene and Sanitation Transformation
RDC	Rural District Council
RWSS	Rural Water Supply and Sanitation
SCF(UK)	Save the Children Fund (United Kingdom)
Sida	Swedish International Development Agency
SWU	Shallow Well Unit
TCWS	Training Centre for Water and Sanitation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VBCI	Village Based Consultative Inventory
VCW	Village Community Worker
VIDCO	Village Development Committee
VIP	Ventilated Improved Pit Latrine
VLOM	Village Level Operation and Maintenance
WADCO	Ward Development Committee
ZIMCORD	Zimbabwe Conference on Reconstruction and Development

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Integrated Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme (IRWSSP) in Zimbabwe has been going on since the mid-1980s. During this period more than 47 districts have either implemented or are in the processes of implementing an integrated water supply and sanitation project. The programme has been managed by the National Action Committee (NAC) and co-ordinated by the National Co-ordination Unit (NCU).

District projects have been evaluated as part of the mid-term reviews or as end of projects evaluations. However, the national programme has never been evaluated in its totality as a programme, although the National Action Committee (NAC), through the National Co-ordination Unit (NCU) has organised annual reviews at which progress reports are discussed, and new plans presented to stakeholders.

Recognising the need for such an evaluation, in the light of the changing operating environment and the inclusion of new actors such as the Rural District Councils, the NAC, with financial assistance from the Water and Sanitation Programme-East and Southern Africa (WSP-EA) called for tender submissions from local Zimbabwean consultancy firms active in the water and sanitation sector. The tender was won by the Institute of Water and Sanitation Development (IWSD). The IWSD was formally contracted by the Ministry of Local Government and National Housing (MLGNH) on behalf of the National Action Committee in early January, 2000.

1.1 Purpose of the Report

The IWSD recognises that the IRWSSP has not been evaluated since its birth more than 15 years ago. These years constitute the most dynamic years of the programme growth. Lessons were learnt and new operating methods were initiated. In order for a clear analysis of the current issues to be done the context within which historical issues and events were taking place needs to be understood.

The purpose of this report is to provide a background description and context within which events were taking place. It would not be fair to claim that all events which took place in the last 15 years of the programme will be captured in this report, neither is it claimed that the influence of every event on the “then current” and subsequent processes will be analysed. What is important is that as much of the influencing events as possible are described.

This background report provides a framework within which the thematic papers on institutional arrangements, financing/funding arrangements, operational arrangements, outputs and programme impact on environment are discussed and understood.

1.2 Purpose of the Evaluation

The purpose of the evaluation was to:

- evaluate and document performance and experiences in the program,
- identify use to which outputs and experiences have been put,
- identify opportunities utilised or lost,

- lessons learned from the first phase of the IRWSSP, and,
- determine what will need to be done, where, how and when to meet the targets for water and sanitation development set in the 1985 National Master Plan and any subsequent amendments.

The evaluation focused on five areas of institutional arrangements, financing/funding arrangements, operational arrangements, outputs of the program and program impact on the environment.

1.3 Evaluation Methodology

1.3.1 Approach

The evaluation was carried out by a 12 member team (9 from the Institute of Water and Sanitation Development and 3 from outside). In the team were economists, engineers, social scientists, health and environmental scientists. Between them they have experiences in institutional, community participation and community training, operation and maintenance systems, sanitation, environment, water supply engineering, water resources management, research, health epidemiology, economic financial, capacity building and consultancy on services issues relating to rural water supply and sanitation development in Zimbabwe and the Africa region.

The evaluation activities included literature review, field visits, interviews with communities, NGOs, ESAs and other actors, discussions with district, provincial and national level personnel and questionnaires.

A selection criteria was established for districts that were to be visited and this was based on:

- those reported to have completed implementing water and sanitation projects,
- those still under implementation,
- those which had never had a chance of implementing integrated projects,
- those wholly funded by Government,
- those funded by NGOs,
- those jointly funded by GOZ and NGOs,
- the mode of implementation (e.g. Inter-ministerial, Decentralised (RDCs), Government, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Government in partnership with NGOs was considered),
- to pick at least a project funded by each of the External Support Agencies,
- those which piloted decentralisation,
- geographical representation, by province, and
- those districts that have been recently evaluated by IWSD.

On the basis of this criteria 14 districts were selected for intensive field work and these were Beit Bridge, Bikita, Buhera, Hwange, Kadoma, Lupane, Makoni, Mberengwa, Mount Darwin, Murehwa, Mutoko, Mwenezi, Shamva and Shurugwi. Kadoma was largely used as a testing ground for tools that were to be used for subsequent field data collection. In addition to these 14 IWSD has carried out evaluations in 13 districts since 1997. These include Bubi(1999), Chiredzi (1999), Masvingo (Backstopping, 1999), Mazowe (Backstopping, 1999 and also Mbetu & Klaassen, 1999), Mutare (1999), Gokwe North and South (1998), Gwanda (1997), Kezi (CBM, 1997) and Kwekwe (CBM, 1997).

1.3.2 Products

The results of this evaluation have been presented in seven reports and thirteen self standing annexes. The 13 self standing annexes contain the evaluations of the districts visited. The seven reports are:

- Volume I: Executive Summary
- Volume II: Evolution of the IRWSSP in Zimbabwe
- Volume III: Institutional Arrangements
- Volume IV: Financing/ Funding Arrangements
- Volume V: Operational Arrangements
- Volume VI: Outputs of Program
- Volume VII: Program Impact on Environment

2.0 ZIMBABWE'S DEVELOPMENT PHASES

The development processes in Zimbabwe can be grouped into 3 main phases, notably the pre-independence period (up to 1980), the socialist phase (1980- 1990), the economic structural adjustment programme (ESAP) phase (1990- present). While there is a distinct end to the pre-independence phase (1980) there is an obvious overlap between the socialist and ESAP phases. It has to be noted that there are several ways in which development processes may be phased in Zimbabwe, depending on the subject matter. For example the development of local government institutions may have a pre-independence phase, a pre-amalgamation phase and a post amalgamation phase (Helmsing, 1991). DDF Water Division phased the growth of the Operation and Maintenance systems into 3 phases:

- (a) the pre-1986 period
- (b) the 1986 to 1990 period
- (c) the post 1990 period

In general, the three phases are respectively characterised by free for all maintenance, government directed maintenance and anticipated or planned (community management) maintenance developments (Source: DDF Operation and Maintenance Section, 1992).

2.1 Pre-independence

Zimbabwe got her independence in 1980. One way of understanding the development processes prior to independence is to analyse the governance systems obtaining during this period. Helmsing (1991) describes the local government in the late pre-independence days as characterised by considerable imbalance and inequalities. Three types of local government were evident: the municipal or urban councils, the rural councils and the African councils. The municipal government had over the years acquired its own specific colonial features especially with regards to Africans. Rural councils administered small rural centres on the same lines as the urban councils. Helmsing (1991) notes that the European owned commercial farms were for some time without any form of local government and the farmer was his own local authority. The African Councils, previously known as Native Councils partly overlapped authority with chiefs. Chiefs had powers to allocated land, conserve land and preside over courts. The geographical area of African councils were small (by independence there were approximately 242 African councils, while some areas of the then Tribal Trust Lands were not covered by this system), and their revenue base very little, making them ineffective as suppliers of much needed services in their areas of jurisdiction. The government provided small grants for the development of roads, bridges, water supply, dips and in some cases schools and clinics. In 1972/73, the African Councils had a local revenue base of Rh\$1.18 per capita per year and a grant aid of Rh\$1.42 per capita per year (Helmsing, 1991). The African Councils were managed by a separate department from that which managed the urban and rural councils. While the urban and rural councils were fairly autonomous, the African Councils were basically under the tutelage of the District Commissioner, a government extension worker based at the district level.

Government departments were structured to facilitate separate development between races. For example in 1949 the African Development Fund was created to maintain infrastructure in the Tribal Trust Lands, and funded from levy raised on African grain

sales¹. On the other hand the Irrigation Department was created to facilitate and support large scale commercial agriculture. The African Development Fund was to become the District Development Fund, while the Irrigation Department was to become the Department of Water Development. Both of them now fall under the Ministry of Rural Resources and Water Development. The major role of the Irrigation Department in African Council area was in the provision of dams, so as to open up vast tracks of land in the low lying areas of the Zambezi, Limpopo and Save valleys, which had for years been inhabitable due to the presence of tsetse flies. With the growing pressure for allocation of land for commercial uses and the consequent need to relocate the African population, these otherwise uninhabitable areas had to be opened. Dams were seen as the main option to supply water given the difficult groundwater potential in these areas (Mudege, 1977).

The pre-independence phase was therefore characterised by development based or “fiscal apartheid”, uncoordinated development in African Council areas, weak resource base, poor institutional capacity and a general state of neglect of the communal areas. In contrast, the latter part of the pre-independence phase was characterised by a strong desire to provide appropriate technologies for both water supplies and sanitation. While financial support was given for the development of these technologies (through research) their promotion was hindered by the weak government support system to the communal areas, the prevailing armed conflict, the lack of awareness among beneficiaries and the general breakdown of extension services.

It was in these difficult environments, that the most successful Zimbabwe hand pump technology evolved – the Bush pump, so called because it had to operate in Bushy terrain with minimum back-up support. The experiences with the bush pump during this period, supports the observations made much latter by Cairncross (1980) and Glenmie (1983) that serious problems with rural water supply programmes are of an organisational rather than technical nature. The pre-independence era, saw the successful development of other home grown water and sanitation technologies in

Box 1: The state of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation at independence

At independence, the rural water supply and sanitation had:

- Low water and sanitation service coverage in communal areas
- Inadequate and ineffective funding mechanisms
- Uncoordinated delivery mechanism, where it existed,
- A potentially effective but largely untested or weakly promoted technology base
- A ravaged or non-existent maintenance system
- A strong bias towards curative rather than preventive health
- Weak institutions for community participation, and
- An infrastructure destroyed by the armed struggle for independence.

Zimbabwe. Among those that made an impact locally and internationally is the Ventilated Improved Pit Latrine (VIP) (see Box 1).

¹ On the contrary during the Socialist Phase attempts by Gokwe RDC to have a crop levy of Z\$1 per Z\$250 of marketed output (0.4%) introduced, which would have raised Z\$800 000 annually to be channelled to rural road construction could not be sanctioned by Government despite it having been approved by the farmers associations (World Bank, 1992b page 18).

2.2 Socialist Phase (1980 – 1990)

The Zanu (PF) government came to power in 1980, on the strong promise that it will address the pre-independence imbalances. Riding on a massive wave of support from both communal and urban areas and huge financial injection from external support agencies, the government strengthened its socialist stance through the redirection of available resources towards communal area development. In the first seven years, government largely maintained its inherited local government structures, but replaced the African Councils with 55 District Councils. The District Councils had responsibility over the development of communal areas. The African Development Fund was renamed the District Development Fund in 1981 and one of the main avenue of channelling grant aid for basic infrastructure in communal areas. There was a rapid presence of government in communal areas, expansion of primary health care services², redirection of agricultural state services towards peasant farmers³, expansion of roads and water supplies and the formulation of a policy on growth points.

The expansion in District Council revenue base per capita, from Z\$9.48 to Z\$19.00 in 1980/81 was largely due to government grants (Helmsing, 1991). The revenue base per capita in the Rural Council areas fell from Z\$16.00 in 1980/81 to Z\$14.50 in the subsequent years. The taxation of communal area people was not enforced and generally any new imposts or increases in levies had to have the approval of the centre, initially by the Ministry of Local Government and then by the Ministry of Finance.

The immediate post independence “boom”, supported by a highly motivated civil service, generous external support agencies, and receptive communities provided a good ground for the promotion of Zimbabwean grown technologies. “We got to a stage where everything worked in favour of the rural water supply and sanitation sector” (Dr P. Morgan, personal communication). NGOs were very active in communal area development thus further strengthening government commitment to correcting the pre-independence imbalance.

By 1985, the Lutheran World Federation, Christian Care, CADEC, World Vision, Africare, Unicef to mention a few had water and sanitation projects in Chivi, Chiredzi, Mwenezi, Buhera, Lupane, Beitbridge, Tsholotsho, Matopo, Makonde among others. The NGOs were supporting the development of Operation and Maintenance systems including the establishment, equipping and training of pump minders. In some cases they paid them (Christian Care in Buhera, LWF in Mwenezi and Matobo). In 1989 LWF donated a fleet of 5 Toyota Landcruisers for field O&M activities in Masvingo province where they were active. There was generally a strong desire by the NGOs to play their full role in the provision of water supply and sanitation facilities. Activities of NGOs were largely unco-ordinated.

² personal communication with Ministry of Health and Child Welfare officials revealed that the plan was to have a Village Health Worker in every village and an Environmental Health Technician for every ward.

³ lines of credits were opened up to the peasant communal farmers, and access to grain marketing facilities was improved.

Ironically, the DDF which as said earlier was one of the major vehicles for providing government grant aid to communal areas, had by 1987 not been a major player in primary water supply maintenance. Despite having had its drilling capacity enhanced in mid-1980s, effective mechanisms for enhancing this potential had not been worked out (see Box 2).

Box 2: Limitation of DDF's effectiveness in the Rural Water Sector

Emphasis on Roads:

Although the provision of water supplies is one of DDF's major functions, in practice the largest part of DDF's money, equipment and personnel has been devoted to roads. Water being the "poor relation" has been allocated approximately one quarter of the funding that has been provided to roads.

Inadequate resources for maintenance

DDF's primary supply maintenance performance has not always been satisfactory, owing to being allocated insufficient resource for the large number of the existing supplies.

..... Between 1982/3 and 1984/5 DDF's annual allocation for water supply maintenance was reduced by 32%, while the number of institutions continued to increase and unit costs increased significantly.

..... DDF's new water division, with its newly-acquired drilling ability and its strengthening dam building capacity, is basically a strong, centralised organisation with its own stores, offices and workshops.

Source: National Master Plan for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation, 1985; Volume 6 pages 11-13.

In the pre-1986 period, which is called the Free for All Period, ... the District Development Fund did not have a specific section to carry out the management of these (primary water supplies) services. The same officers could be called upon to carry out the maintenance of roads, which was a priority.

Source: Sustainability of the Operation and Maintenance System for Rural Water Supply; DDF O&M Section, September 1992, page 3 (IWSA Library reference 206.11)

The maintenance of primary water supply in DDF did not effectively benefit from the independence "boom" as much as did other sectors within DDF. By the time the water section was strengthened government was beginning to feel the effect of a supply driven approach and questions were being asked on how to readjust the economy. Helmsing (1991) gives the real per capita expenditure for DDF in the period 1980/81 to 1985/86 for selected districts (see Table 1).

Table 1: DDF, real per capita expenditure, (ZS) by category

	1980/81	1981/82	1983/84	1984/85	1985/86
Reconstruction of water supplies	1.48	1.46	0.32	-	-
New water supply projects	0.01	1.28	0.49	0.59	0.43
Maintenance of water supplies	0.05	0.15	0.11	0.07	0.08

Adapted from Table 16.5, Helmsing (1991) page 460

The sanitation programme, driven by a highly committed new EHT cadre and supported by a freshly awakened VIP technology rose with the independence "boom". The agreed principles were that there should be material subsidy for the VIP toilet and that a more durable toilet be built – one that would last at least a generation (Dr

P. Morgan, personal communication). This saw the birth of the brick toilet, moving away from the spiral reinforced hassen toilet which was common in the pre-independence era. The success of the sanitation/latrine construction programme was hailed internationally and in 1987, the country commemorated its 100 000 latrine in Makoni district. The material subsidy was to become the major constraining factor towards the end of the socialist era, as cement became unavailable.

The socialist phase was characterised by a strong sense of “supply” by government, with government presence being strongly realised by the visibility of the District Administrator’s (DA) office in developments taking place in rural areas, especially communal areas. Even the food – for work programme had to be managed by the DA’s office and not by the District Council.

This phase saw a massive increase in both water supply and sanitation services. The enthusiasm in extension workers was to soon wane down, however, as essential subsidies (such as cement could no longer be guaranteed), importation of commodities became difficult without foreign cash (in 1988, the water programme tried to reduce this problem, by importing cement from Zambia, but soon it was realised that this was not sustainable). Moves were made to look for alternative supply systems, including revising the subsidy levels.

Key professionals left government departments towards the end of this phase as conditions became unbearable. Cost recovery measures in which communal people would pay for services (especially water) could not easily sell within the political structures of the ruling party. Departments such as DWD, started talking about privatisation in order to retain professional staff through the improvement of working conditions. These processes were delayed due largely to the inconsistency that they created with the government’s socialist philosophy and approach, the commitment to party supremacy and the redressing of colonial imbalances (*Mudege, 1997 page 15*)

2.3 Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP)

The Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) phase came with calls for reduction in government expenditure, the liberalisation of the economy and reduction in the size of the civil service. The programme which had central components of budget deficit reduction; external trade liberalisation; and domestic deregulation, was launched in February, 1991. At the time of its launch a number of opportunities could be identified (see box 3). The water and sanitation sector, which had gained some momentum in the previous phase (on the strength of donor support), however continued to expand in geographical coverage. By 1991, 21 districts had been covered by the IRWSSP, up from 15 in 1989 and 1 in 1987.

While this expansion took place, government service all round was reducing. Support to Operation and Maintenance (O&M) shrunk further. The O&M budget changed

Box 3: ESAP: Opportunities and Threats for the Water and Sanitation Sector

The ESAP centred around budget deficit reduction, external debt liberalisation, and domestic deregulation. Also include were sectoral initiatives and actions to ameliorate the impact of the adjustment on the poor and the disadvantaged. It provide an improvement in the environment in which rural water supply and sanitation was to be implemented, through the rationalisation of roles, increasing efficiency, upgrading skills and tackling excessive centralisation of decision making (World Bank, 1992).

There was to be support for public sector reform paving the way for greater decentralisation and local accountability, further enhancing sustainability. The role of the private sector was to be recognised in the ESAP actions. Of significance was the opportunity to provide infrastructure at growth points and rural service centres, which were to become the hubs for rural development.

The transitional effects of economic adjustment was undoubtedly going to have negative welfare effects on the poor and the disadvantaged groups.

The change of land tenure systems (the land reform bill was debated) was also undoubtedly going to make more communal land available, with no title deeds, making it difficult for private investors.

Farm workers continued to be disenfranchised, and continued to slow down gains in the improvement of basic water and sanitation services.

The government's ability to contribute to social welfare issues (the RWSSP was basically addressing the social and health well being of communal area dwellers and not productive water – the principle of treating water as an economic good had not been fully explored).

from \$300 per water point in 1991 to \$360 per water point in 1995. When correcting for inflation this is an effective decline in funding of 55% (Taylor and Mudege, 1997 page 21). Sustainability issues became even more prominent.

3.0 WATER AND SANITATION DEVELOPMENT LANDMARKS

The water and sanitation sector development landmarks have been divided into distinct periods notably

- Before the Master Plan
- From the Master Plan to Mount Darwin
- From Mount Darwin to Kadoma
- From Kadoma to Present

It is not the intention of this section to provide a detailed analysis of events that occurred during each period but rather to mention some of the important events that occurred.

3.1 Before the Master Plan

As described earlier prior to independence the rural water supply and sanitation programme in Zimbabwe was very weak. Zimbabwe's independence coincided with the United Nations General Assembly declaration making the 1980s the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD). The aim of the decade was to improve the accessibility of the poor to safe water supply and appropriate sanitation in the developing world.

The government of Zimbabwe, driven by the desire to improve infrastructure in communal areas organised the Zimbabwe Conference on Reconstruction and Development (ZIMCORD) in 1981. The purpose of Conference was to mobilise resources for the country's reconstruction and development programme. Among the sectors, for which resources were required was the water supply and sanitation sector. One of the areas that needed support was the development of a Master Plan for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation. The Norwegian government, through NORAD, agreed to finance the development of the Master Plan which was published in December, 1985.

The rural water supply and sanitation had long been regarded as one dimension of primary health care (Mutizwa-Mangiza, 1988). As such primary water supply and sanitation was logically seen as a domain of the Ministry of Health.

Prior to the Master Plan, therefore, the Ministry of Health chaired the provincial and district sub-committee that dealt with primary water supply and sanitation issues. As Mutizwa-Mangiza (1988), puts it "most of the rural water supply and sanitation programmes were, prior to the completion of the National Master Plan, very uncoordinated".

Resulting from this, were inevitable overlaps of roles between agencies. These included the overlapping role of DDF and DWD over the drilling of boreholes, the overlapping role of DDF and Ministry of Health and Child Welfare over the sinking of wells, the overlapping role of Community Development Workers (CDWs), Local Government Promotion Officers (LGPOs) and Councillors over community mobilisation, and the unclear roles of all over piped water supply schemes.

The Master Plan was developed in an environment of fast government system growth. New departments were being formed or others refocused. For example, the department responsible for mobilisation was once in Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs (a logical placing during the drafting of the Master Plan) and then moved to the Ministry of Political Affairs (which by virtue of its location gave the mobilisation process a political identity - understandable during the socialist political era) and is now in the Ministry of National Affairs Employment Creation and Co-operatives).

3.2 From the Master Plan to Mount Darwin (1985 –1987)

The National Master Plan for Rural Water Supplies and Sanitation (NMWP) was developed by Interconsult, under the management of the Ministry of Energy, Water Resource and Development (MEWRD). The NMWP defined the goal of the rural water supply and sanitation sector as:

“ Providing the entire communal and resettlement area population with access to safe and adequate (drinking water and sanitation) facilities by the year 2005”.

The general objectives of the national programme are to improve health conditions and quality of life of rural population in the communal and resettlement areas through:

- Improved provision of safe and adequate water from primary water supplies
- Increased provision of improved excreta disposal facilities through the construction of Blair VIP latrines

The specific objectives of the programme are:

- To provide adequate and safe protected drinking water supplies for all,
- To ensure that every household has at least a Blair VIP latrine,
- To rehabilitate all existing water points to national standard including the provision of head-works,
- To promote Health Education and Community Participation so as to encourage safer use, care and maintenance of the facilities provided,
- To ensure sustainability through the development of a 3-tier operation and maintenance system, based on Community Management and preventive maintenance of every water point,
- To strengthen decentralised planning and co-ordination of rural water supply projects

Source: **Project Management Handbook NAC, 1996**

The NMWP proposed a two phased approach to achieving these objectives:

Service level 1: Considered achieved when.

- All people in communal and resettlement areas are supplied with safe water from a protected primary water supply,
- strengthen the 3-tier maintenance system for O & M
- 50% of households have at least a Blair VIP latrine.

Service level 2:

- Everyone has access to safe drinking water supplies from a primary water supply within 500m of home
- Every household has at least a Blair VIP latrine.

The NMWP made several key recommendations, but of major significance was the introduction of the Integrated, inter-ministerial water and sanitation programme. The IRWSSP was to be implemented under the specific leadership of an inter-ministerial co-ordinating committee called the National Action Committee.

3.2.1 Establishment of the NAC / NCU

The NAC was established in 1985 and was made up of the Ministry of Local Government Rural and Urban Development (MLGRUD) now Ministry of Local Government and National Housing (MLGNH) as Chair, the Ministry of Health (now Ministry of Health and Child Welfare), the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs (now Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operatives), the Ministry of Energy, Water resources and Development (now the Department of Water Development in the Ministry of Rural Resources and Water Development), the Ministry of Finance Economic Planning and Development (MFEPD, now Ministry of Finance) and the District Development Fund. The mandate

Box 4: NAC Mandate

The Terms of reference of the NAC were originally defined by the National Master Plan for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation as follows:

- (a) to examine the programme and plans formulated by National Co-ordinator paying particular attention to modifications proposed by him(sic) to provincial plans to ascertain if reasons for changing the Province's own plans are justified.
- (b) to modify if necessary and approve the National Co-ordinator's proposed allocation of duties and funding. The NAC will be a Steering Committee without any official decision making authority and its recommended plans will not be binding on the Minister of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development (MLGRUD). However MLGRUD having chaired the meeting will normally be expected to adopt NAC programme and plans.
- (c) making recommendations on policy issues for RWSS sector
- (d) keep all ministries and donors informed about progress in all areas of the sector.
- (e) advice MEWRD in its continuous processing of data for updating the National Master Plan for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation
- (f) Co-ordinate training and education within the sector.

Source: NAC. 1997

of the NAC fell short of a truly autonomous and accountable body (see box 4).

However, without this firm mandate and associated power, the NAC met regularly and was well respected in government ministries, NGO and donor fraternity. During these formative years its authority and mandate was, by and large, not publicly questioned. However, after the failure of the Master Plan to be adopted by Government, some authors began to question its relevance. Mutizwa – Mangiza

(1988) argues that NAC was not itself a national body⁴ that could encompass or act on inter-sectoral plans coming from districts and provinces. Who or what legal authority or body at National level was the NAC linked to? The successes of the NAC went beyond the Zimbabwe borders, but as is discussed elsewhere (see Volume III of this evaluation) the level of attendance gradually shifted to junior officers in the sector agencies and has become inconsistent and erratic (Chakaipa, 2000 personal communication).

The NAC created Sub - committees to spearhead specific areas and these included the Planning and Budgeting Sub – committee, the Donor Co-ordination Sub – Committee, the Technical Sub – Committee, the Training and Research Sub – Committee (which latter included Human Resources development). In addition steering committees such as the one on Cost Recovery were set up.

The National Co-ordination Unit (NCU) provided secretarial services to the NAC and facilitated meetings and workshops to make stakeholders aware of the importance for

Box 5a: Leaders of the NAC / NCU

Chairpersons of NAC

1985 - 1990	Dr M. Nzuwa, Snr. Secretary, MLGRUD
1990 - 1996	Mr C. Matumbuke, Dep. Secretary, MLGRUD
1996 - 1998	Mr A. Mapamhanga, Dep. Secretary, MLGRUD
1998 –1999	Mr C. Matumbuke, Dep. Secretary, MLGRUD
1999 - present	Mr S. Chakaipa, - Dep. Secretary, MLGNH

National Co-ordinators (NCU)

1985 – 1987	Mr K. Haukland
1987 – 1989	Dr. S. Stoveland
1989 – 1992	Dr. S. Wangen
1992 – 1993	Dr. R. Mbetu
1993 – present	Mr. G. Nhunhama

collaboration and co-ordination (see also figure 5a and 5b). In April, 1987 the first of a series of awareness generating meetings were held for Provincial Administrators in the Meikles Hotel, Harare. The second meeting organised by the

NCU for PAs was held in Nyanga, the same year. The purpose of these meetings was for consensus building among the many actors and it was realised by the NAC that PAs then formed a very influential group of stakeholders.

The NAC expanded in membership to take on board new issues of importance among these was the issue of land use planning, which saw the inclusion of the Department of Agricultural, Technical and Extension Services (Agritex). At its inception the key mandate of the NAC was to approve and become a checking mechanisms for district projects. In its growth the NAC established Provincial Water and Sanitation Sub – Committees in each province.

⁴ In 1990 Government published the Guidelines for Provincial Planning following the establishment of the National Planning Agency (NPA) in 1988. Within the Planning Agency, a Regional Planning Division was set up (world Bank, 1992b).

3.2.2 Provincial, District Water and Sanitation Sub - Committees

In each province a Provincial Water and Sanitation Sub – Committee (PWSSC) was created. The PWSSC was made up of the representatives, at Provincial level of the ministries and departments who were members of the NAC at national level. The PWSSC was chaired by the Provincial Administrator. The terms of Reference of the PWSSC were:

Box 5b: Functions of the NCU

The functions of the NCU include:

- (a) to prepare sector plans and budgets based on district, provincial and national plans and updated Master Plan information, for presentation to the National Action Committee
- (b) To act as the secretariat to the National Action Committee
- (c) To assist in providing overall co-ordination in programming, planning, design and construction with all Government departments and other organisations involved in the sector and to maintain a rational division of responsibilities
- (d) to assist in securing funding for sector by preparation of applicants for donor assistance

Source: NMWP Volume 1 page 44 1985

Objective: To co-ordinate planning and assist in the management of rural Water and Sanitation Activities in the Province.

Membership:

- Ministry of Local Government Rural and Urban Development
- Department of Physical

Planing

- Ministry of Health and Child Welfare
- Ministry of energy, Water Resources and Development
- Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operatives
- Agritex
- District Development Fund

The Sub – Committee had the power to co-opt members from districts with active projects, representatives from NGOs involved in Rural Water Supply and Sanitation implementation in the Province and other members as required.

Reporting to: the Sub – committee reported to the Provincial development Committee

Duties:

- Co-ordinate the activities of all agencies involved in Rural Water Supply and Sanitation implementation in the province, including NGOs,
- Ensure that Provincial Rural Water Supply and Sanitation projects are planned and implemented in accordance with national policies,
- Co-ordinate the preparation of provincial plans for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Development ,
- Review district project proposals, implementation plans and progress reports, and monitor Rural Water Supply and Sanitation activities in the districts

- Regularly reports to appropriate national authorities on provincial progress in Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Development , and
- Co-ordinate the Maintenance of updated inventories of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation facilities in the province

During the period before the Mount Darwin, Integrated Water and Sanitation, District Water and Sanitation Sub – Committees were being established only in districts where projects were to start. As indicated earlier, District Water and Sanitation Sub – Committees were established in Makoni, Chipinge and Chimanimani at the beginning of the Integrated Water and Sanitation Projects in those areas, managed by the Ministry of Energy, Water Resources and Development (MEWRD).

The District Water and Sanitation Sub – Committees had the following terms of reference:

Objective: to co-ordinate planning and assist in the management of Rural Water supply and Sanitation activities in the district.

Membership: The committee comprised of:

- Ministry of Local Government Rural and Urban Development
- Ministry of Health and Child Welfare
- Ministry of Energy, Water Resources and Development
- Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operation
- Agritex
- District Development Fund

The Sub – Committee had the power to co-opt representatives from NGOs involved in Water Supply and Sanitation projects implementation in the district and other members as required.

The Sub – Committee reported to the District Development Committee

Duties:

- Co-ordinate and monitor the activities of all agencies involved in Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Project Implementation in the district including NGOs.
- Ensure the planning and implementation of district Rural Water Supply and Sanitation projects are in accordance with provincial and national policies,
- Co-ordinate the preparation of district plans for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Projects are in accordance with provincial and national policies,
- Co-ordinate the preparation of district plans for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Development
- Regularly reports to appropriate provincial authorities on district progress in water and sanitation projects
- Co-ordinate the maintenance of updated inventories of all water and sanitation facilities in the district.

3.2.3 Operational Arrangements

From the Master plan to “*the what is regarded as*” the first Integrated Water Supply and Sanitation project in Mount Darwin District, the management of the IRWSSP was in a phase of transition and was largely characterised by a mixture of uncoordinated ministerial / NGO programmes and the inter-ministerial programme. After the Mashonaland Crash Programme of 1984⁵, the drilling activities ended up in Makoni district, where an Integrated Water and Sanitation Project⁶ was started in 1985. The Ministry of Health which at that time, chaired the Water and Sanitation Committee at province, was in the process of trying to combat an outbreak of cholera in the Eastern Districts of Chimanimani and Chipinge. It was therefore agreed that the IRWSSP should extend to cover these districts. “The ZIB 006 – Crash programme had only one technology option –drilled boreholes with hand pumps. During the ZIB 006 – Manicaland Programme there was a choice of technologies” for primary water supplies, notably “hand dug wells (LWF), drilled boreholes (MEWRD), hand dug shallow wells (MoH). In addition the standard type VIP Blair latrines were constructed under the sanitation programme”(NORAD Evaluation Report 7.89, hifab and Zimconsult, July 1989).

In October 1984, Christian Care began its Water Supply Project in Buhera District, but due to lack of experience in large well-sinking projects it sought the assistance of the Lutheran World Federation (LWF), which at that time was establishing an office in Manicaland. The LWF had been active in Masvingo, the Midlands and Matebeleland provinces, and their experience in deep well sinking was needed in the Makoni project. The LWF was then contracted by the MEWRD to carry out the deep well construction in Makoni district. The contract was to be managed by DDF in 1988. Although the projects were designed, not as inter-ministerial projects initially, they saw the active participation of a number of players from NGOs, government departments and private consultants. The Makoni, Chimanimani and Chipinge projects produced instruction materials such as Training guides for caretakers, Water point committees and Latrine builders. These augmented on-going material development by Blair Research Institute, DDF and UNICEF, among others.

Before the launch of the Inter- ministerial integrated rural water supply and sanitation projects, primary water supply and sanitation issues fell under the Health and Social Welfare Sub- committee of the District Development Committee, in accordance with the Prime Ministers Directive of 1984.

⁵ a borehole drilling programme funded by NORAD, and implemented by the then MEWRD, through Interconsult. NORAD project ZIB 006 which was within the overall drought relief objective to construct 400 boreholes with hand pumps, and encourage community participation.

⁶ NORAD ZIB 006: Manicaland Integrated Programme, within the general objectives recommended by the NMWP to (i) gain experience with inter-ministerial co-ordination, and (ii) achieve defined operational targets for water supply, sanitation and community training.

3.3 From Mount Darwin to Kadoma (1987 – 1992)

Mount Darwin was the first inter-ministerial, integrated rural water supply and sanitation project, whereas Kadoma, together with Mberengwa and Nyanga, were the first group of districts to pilot the implementation of projects through Rural District Councils (RDCs). The Project Development Support Programme (PDSP) in Gokwe (see Box 6), had provided vital lessons for inclusion in what was referred to as the decentralisation process.

Box 6: GOKWE: PILOT DISTRICT SUPPORT PROJECT

A Pilot District Support Project (PDSP) is being carried out in Gokwe – Chizeya District, Midlands Province funded by the UK/ODA. Its overall objectives is to support the Government's efforts to improve planning and implementation of development activities at provincial, district and local levels in line with the Prime Minister's 1984 Directive and the subsequent Provincial Councils and Administration Act. The project is supported by technical assistance at the Provincial and District Levels and aims to strengthen local institutions in several key areas.

Through a process of continuous refinement, the district has adopted a participatory planning process which begins with village (VIDCO) plans indicating prioritized needs. In preparing these plans technical support is provided by line ministry extension workers at village level. VIDCO plans are consolidated and prioritized by WADCOs before being submitted to the district for incorporation into a medium term (5 year) plan and a three year rolling plan. The district development team prepares annual plans based on the budget allocation and, on selection of projects, prepares project documents and implementation plans which are appraised by provincial staff. The recipient community signs an agreement, which may include commitment to maintenance of facilities and supply of various materials and labour necessary for project completion. A review of priorities at VIDCO, WADCO and District level clearly placed water projects.

The PDSP block grant a key element of the project. The grant, which is used at the discretion of the district council, is allocated intersectorally based on priorities identified through the planning process. Additional local revenue is generated from a development levy, collected with the assistance of the traditional leaders (village headman). Seventy percent of these funds are ploughed back into the collection of origin for use on projects identified in ward plans. The close links between revenue collection and expenditure on community priority needs has increased revenue collection success from 10% to 70% of target. Communities are being encouraged to allocate some of these funds for maintenance. Funding raised from the sale of game licenses (CAMPFIRE) is also channelled back to supporting communities. Self help initiatives are being encouraged to raise additional revenues required for improved services (such as piped schemes).

The process of PDSP implementation is one of continually building on experience through refinement of methods and procedures. Several instruments have been developed for financial control and project monitoring and evaluation. Project inspection and completion forms are now used to monitor progress and certify quality of completed works and/or to hand over completed works to communities responsible for operation and maintenance. The PDSP has not been without problems, some serious such as elite domination in the council. There are many lessons, both positive and negative, from this experience which could aid in the successful implementation of the RDC Act and in ensuring the responsiveness of rural services to community demand.

Source: Rural Community Infrastructure: Building on the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme, World Bank, April, 1992

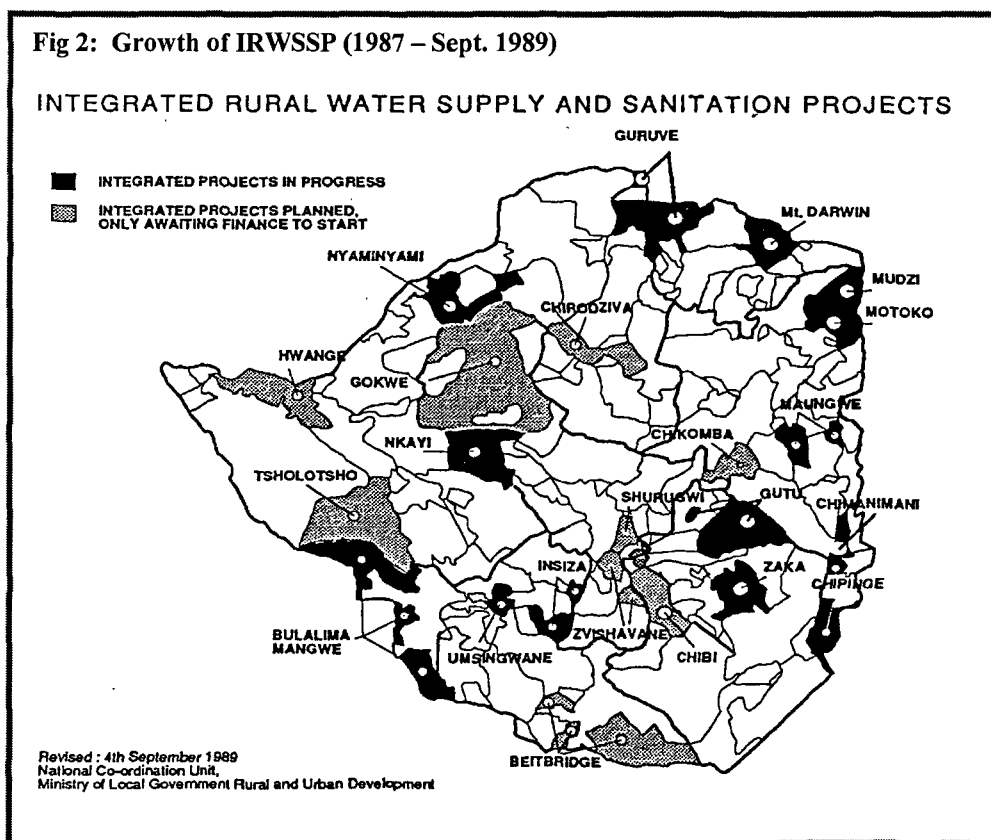
3.3.1 Growth of programme

The growth of the programme can be viewed in terms of the geographical coverage with projects, during the period, the new organisational arrangements, funding arrangements, technology growth, operation and maintenance systems and other systems.

3.3.1.1 Geographical coverage

While the majority of the projects on primary water supply and sanitation were integrated and inter-ministerial, some projects such as the water supply rehabilitation and sanitation projects for Chikomba, Shurugwi, Mvuma and Hwange were not. These projects, funded by Danida, contained most of the elements of an integrated project, (just like Mount Darwin) but were managed by DDF and Ministry of Health. These were latter brought into an integrated, inter-ministerial programme. By 1989 (two years after the programme launch in Mount Darwin) there were 15 districts in 7 provinces (Midlands province still had to implement) implementing the IRWSSP along the lines of Mount Darwin district and 9 districts were awaiting funding. It can be noted that the Danida Funded projects were not yet regarded as integrated rural water supply and sanitation projects.

Figure 2 below show the geographical growth of the IRWSSP between 1987 and 1989.



Supply and Sanitation projects the following are given as the roles and responsibilities of the sector agencies.

AGRITEX	Land use planning, Land use scanning
DDF	Siting, Borehole drilling, Well sinking, Head-works construction, Rehabilitation, Maintenance
DWR	Siting, Borehole drilling
MLG&NH	Co-ordination, Convening and chairing of meetings, Production of agenda and minutes, Project monitoring and, Compilation of reports
MNAECC	Community mobilisation
MOF	Donor co-ordination, resource mobilisation
MOH&CW	Water quality monitoring, Promotion of Blair latrine construction, Promotion of family/shallow well upgrading and protection, Health and hygiene education/promotion
NEPC	Consolidation of national plans (Source: Decentralisation of the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme; B. Majaya, NCU, undated)

The role of the RDCs was latter added to include opening ceremonies⁷. This was a very weak function, with a budget that was controlled by the ministry responsible for Local Government. The RDC did not have a decision making role and was naturally a weak link between the community, project and eventually project sustainability.

3.3.1.3 Funding Arrangements

Prior to Kadoma, project funds were passed through line ministries. The NAC Co-ordination Handbook for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation provided an annual planning and budgeting cycle in which four stages are indicated:

- ✓ holding of half-year and end-of-year workshops

⁷ Opening ceremonies were social events organised to signify the completion of the activity (complete well, borehole or toilets) and the hand-over of management to the user communities.

- ✓ preparation of annual implementation plan and budget
- ✓ quarterly call-ups of projects
- ✓ preparation of quarterly, half-yearly, and annual reports

While the call up figures were indicated, and worked out jointly by all agencies, it was up to each agency to make a formal call-up to the Ministry of Finance. The money was transferred to the Ministry that requested (see box 7). Once the money got into the ministry then the ministry procedures were followed. In Ministry of Health for instance, district expenditures were endorsed at the provincial levels, while that of DDF were endorsed by the District Administrator at district level.

Box 7: Call-ups

Treasury Circular No. 3 of 1984 is the document that controls the use of donor funds in Zimbabwe. This stipulates that all donor funds coming into the country must be deposited with the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development (MEFPD). Funds are deposited after country -to- country agreements have been signed, following annual negotiations between Government and donors at which level of support are agreed.

in accordance with normal government procedure, funds for IRWSS projects must be called up in quarterly basis. MEFPD requires that call-up figures be forwarded to treasury two weeks before the end of the the current quarter, to ensure that funds can be released in time for the next quarter. In order for call-up figures to reach MEFPD by the required deadline, districts must prepare their requests in plenty of time.

Source: NAC Co-ordination Handbook (1990)

Components of the IRWSSP were also funded directly to ministries. For example Sida supported the sanitation activities of the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare directly. In the case of Manicaland province the sanitation, health and hygiene components in Chipinge and Chimanimani districts were funded by Sida and the rest of the IRWSSP components were funded by NORAD. Similar arrangements between Sida and JICA were latter made for the projects in Marondera, Hwedza and Uzumba Maramba Pfungwe.

There were noticeable reporting problems, which may have led to inaccuracies with national coverage for both water and sanitation facilities. In the early years, the water and sanitation programme reported more on IRWSSP that were "integrated" by the Mount Darwin project definition. This left out activities such as those by Danida (in DDF), Sida (in MoHCW), JICA(in MEWRD), even those provided through the PSIP and numerous NGOs. On the other hand project officers, responsible for these projects in the agencies did not link well with the NAC and its structures (very few meetings of the NAC were attended by the Sida funded project officer in MoHCW).

Other funding arrangements included the use of Counterpart Value Funds. This was more common with the Dutch funded projects in Nkayi, Plumtree and Guruve. In this case the government of Zimbabwe released local funds generated from payments made to the state by local industries who would have benefited from the foreign procurement loans advanced to pay for goods and services.

Other mechanisms employed included direct funding from donor. Unicef handled funds from the Belgian Agency for Development Co-operation in which Unicef officers were directly involved with the provision and payment for services on behalf of DDF and in some cases MoHCW. Unicef also used the option of transferring funds

to the Ministry of Finance to be called up by DDF and other ministries.

Among the weaknesses were:

- late disbursement of funds (it took more than six months for funds to get to Masvingo RDC, despite the Dutch Embassy having made an early transfer to the Ministry of Finance),
- the uneven disbursement of funds. This resulted from some agencies receiving money while others did not. This can be expected as disbursements were a function of the internal ministerial efficiencies, something which was outside the control of the water and sanitation programme
- the finance departments of the ministries were not fully involved/trained in water supply and sanitation issues.

Due to the delays in disbursement it was agreed within the NAC that disbursements should be done every half-year. While this appeared like it was a reasonable time frame problems of late disbursements continued. Among some of the reasons for the continued delays were the late submission of statements of expenditure to the Ministry of Finance, the poor call-up co-ordination between ministries and the general inefficiency in the government systems. Alternatives were discussed and these included a suggestion to put in place a special account. Other options used were to involve NGOs. Although the latter was not widespread, the initial support to Masvingo RDC went through the IWSD. This had its own problems including the lack of clarity of roles, weaknesses and political power games at the RDC level, acceptability (can the local NGO speak on behalf of the Embassy?) and resistance to change within the agencies.

3.3.1.4 Operation and Maintenance

As indicated by DDF the development of Operation and Maintenance systems in Zimbabwe can be put into 3 phases, notably;

- (a) the pre-1986 period, characterised by free for all maintenance,
- (b) the 1986 to 1990 period characterised by government directed maintenance,
- (c) the post 1990 period characterised by anticipated or planned (community management) maintenance developments (Source: DDF Operation and Maintenance Section, 1992).

The after independence pre-1986 period is referred to as the free for all period

Box 8: 3-tier Maintenance System

The three-tier maintenance system adopted by DDF around 1987. The first and second tiers had been introduced soon after Zimbabwe's independence by NGOs, involved primarily in communal deep well construction activities in communal areas. The first tier of the three tier system consists of a water point committee, one of whose members is a pump caretaker, responsible for preventive maintenance and cleanliness of the pump surroundings. The second tier is a mechanically trained pump minder selected by the community, and paid by DDF as a casual worker responsible for the general maintenance and repair of the pump. The third tier is a DDF maintenance team made up of water supply operatives, supported with vehicles and carrying out major repairs. DDF recognised major failures of the system in its strategy paper of September, 1994 as:

- (i) system is expensive in the face of dwindling financial allocations due to ESAP. In 1988/89 the maintenance allocation per pump was Z\$90,23 compared to the 1994/95 allocation of Z\$47,09 at 1990 base. Allocations do not reflect the true cost of maintenance, and are below future replacement costs.
- (ii) long down times for pumps were recorded in several studies carried out (DDF, 1989; Cleaver, 1990). Although these down times varied from district to district due to other factors such as pump age, spares, efficiency of reporting system and capacity to repair, these studies recorded down times of between two to eight weeks and in some exceptional cases as much as six months.
- (iii) there is very little involvement of the stakeholders and marginalization of user groups were reported during the NAC sponsored evaluations of Makoni, Mt Darwin, Mutoko, Chivi and Kariba districts.
- (iv) (i) the supply of spares depends on the efficiency of the central and district levels (DDF Water Division, 1994).

The quest for a more sustainable operation and maintenance system continued and led to the pilot testing of a

because there was no central maintenance player for water supply services. NGOs such as the Lutheran World Federation trained their own pump minders in the areas they operated. Usually these were handed over to the DDF maintenance “gang”⁸, who were paid from the water supply vote (DDF Vote D3). Due to lack of proper management, the water maintenance vote at district level ended up paying for casual workers at district level irrespective of the work they did.

The NMWP recommended the adoption of the three tier maintenance system (see box 8) with the first two tiers having been introduced by NGOs especially the LWF. The O&M section of DDF split up the D3 vote so that the salaries of pump minders could be accommodated. This enabled the pump minders to have a guarantee that they could work throughout the year without the usual threat of dismissal. However, the position of DDF remained that the pump minders were casual workers until such time that a detailed evaluation of their effectiveness would have recommended otherwise. Independent evaluations carried out in 1989 indicate the lack of clarity on the role of the pump minder (see boxes 9 and 10).

Box 9: Maintenance of PWS

The DDF district based organisation has so far been lacking capacity to undertake preventive maintenance. The role of the second tier (pump minders) is not yet clear and must be related to the types of installations existing in any given area. The same applies to the first tier. Moreover, the relationship between the community and DDF based maintenance needs to be clarified. The role of the pump minders as conceived in the 3-tier maintenance system is questionable. They can do only a limited part of the maintenance on deep boreholes, due to the need for heavy equipment which they are unable to carry on their bicycles. Much of the work that they do, could also be carried out by the community based caretakers, particularly if the latter were given more extensive training.

Source: NORAD Evaluation Report 7.89; hifab and Zimconsult, July, 1989

These and other reviews gave the DDF operation and maintenance section the conviction that the process of introducing pump minders should be carefully monitored so that DDF does not take on a huge salary bill but gets very little (work output) in return. The question “*will pump minders have enough work per day to justify their being employed as permanent workers*” had to be addressed. Arguments were later presented (refer to P. Robinson’s paper at the Annual Sector review in 1992- see section 3.3.2.4) that in the context of the government expenditure (at this time the government of Zimbabwe was involved in the war in Mozambique) the rural water supply maintenance allocation (including payment for pump minders salaries) which stood at Z\$1 366 000 in 1986/87, Z\$ 1 287 000 in 1987/88 and Z\$ 1 485 000 in 1988/89 (DDF records) was insignificant. These issues led DDF to make its own initiatives in trials for maintenance systems for water supplies. With the support of UNICEF, DDF went on a parallel path to the rest of the NAC in trying out different maintenance systems.

⁸ although this is the term that was used to describe them in the districts, technically speaking it was a group of trained casual workers who were pump fitters

Maintenance of sanitation facilities has always been regarded as a family responsibility. There has never been any significant change in the approach.

Box 10: Evaluation of the pump minder system

The present state of hand pump maintenance is of a dual nature ie pump minder/caretaker and DMT (district maintenance team). There is often confusion of responsibilities between DMT and PM. The DMT handles about 15 to 20 breakdowns subject to transport availability while a pump minder is typically doing three breakdowns a month which increases to about 20 breakdowns per month when there is pressure. So the pump minder is having a similar production as the DMT, given the necessary support. In districts with few pump breakdowns this increase of breakdown repair capacity has led to competition between DMT and the pump minders on who should do the work. Too many people then look after too little work, even to the extent that preventive maintenance is taken over by pump minders from the caretakers.

Source: Evaluation Study of the Pump minder system.: DDF August 1989

Evaluations carried out found out that the toilets were well maintained (TCWS, 1991; Sida 1992). However the Ministry of Health was responsible for the installation of Blair pumps or bucket pumps on shallow wells. These were not maintained by the DDF's 3-tier system, although water committees were established at some of these water points. Pump minders were not trained to repair bucket pumps, instead training in the repair of these pumps was targeted at the Environmental Health Technicians (EHT).

3.3.1.5 Technologies

Zimbabwe is recognised for its contribution to appropriate low cost water and sanitation technologies. In 1933 the Murgatroyd pump was designed. This pump was developed and modified over the years to produce a very robust model of the bush pump. By 1988 there were at

least six versions of the bush pump (Mutizwa-Mangiza, 1991). This included the LWF modified bush pump for wells. LWF had earlier introduced the Nsimbi pump, an adaptation from the one they had used in Malawi. The DDF and DWD had their own modified versions of the bush pump.. However the basic principles of these pumps were the same. The major differences were on the "above ground components" especially the way the pump was secured to the casing. Spares were common and easily interchangeable. Excluded from this group was the chain and wheel Turner pump, manufactured at DDF-Manyame premises. This pump did not have a wooden block bearing, a major feature of all breeds of the bush pump.

It was noted that most pump repair or maintenance jobs (about 65%) on the conventional Bush pump are undertaken on "the down the hole" components where it is essential to remove the pipes to inspect the parts underground (Morgan, undated; DDF, 1989).

Recognising this challenge the bush pump was further modified to include the "hook and eye" joints. Dr. P. Morgan, who was behind most of the refinements to the bush pump during this period indicated that "over the last few years models of the bush pump which employ "open top" cylinders have been developed and tested. In this system the piston and its seals can be extracted through the cylinder and up through the steel rising main to the surface". This was an attempt to make the bush pump easy to maintain. Installations of this pump were made in Bikita and Goromonzi districts. Mvuramanzi Trust was latter to become an active NGO training school children in the repair and maintenance of extractable piston bush pumps.

Other attempts to make the bush pump easy to maintain included the development of the SIWILL in Masvingo, through the efforts of two officers, Mr. Sibanda (a DDF Provincial Field Officer) and Mr. Williem (an advisor to the Provisional Water and Sanitation Co-ordinator). The SIWILL is a small device that is used to lift pipes, without the use of shear legs. This was supposed to solve the problem of transporting shear legs for pump minders, which was observed to be a major constraint (see box 9). However, this did not have the expected backing of the NAC, or at least no attempt was made at the national level to properly test and promote it. DDF now feels that one of the reasons why there went on "a parallel development line, with hardly any information getting to the NAC" (see section 3.3.2.5 below) was that they realised that they were hardly supported by the NAC when they brought out new ideas or tried new experiments. "We felt people were interested in jumping onto our successes rather than participate with us in the development process" (DDF personal communication).

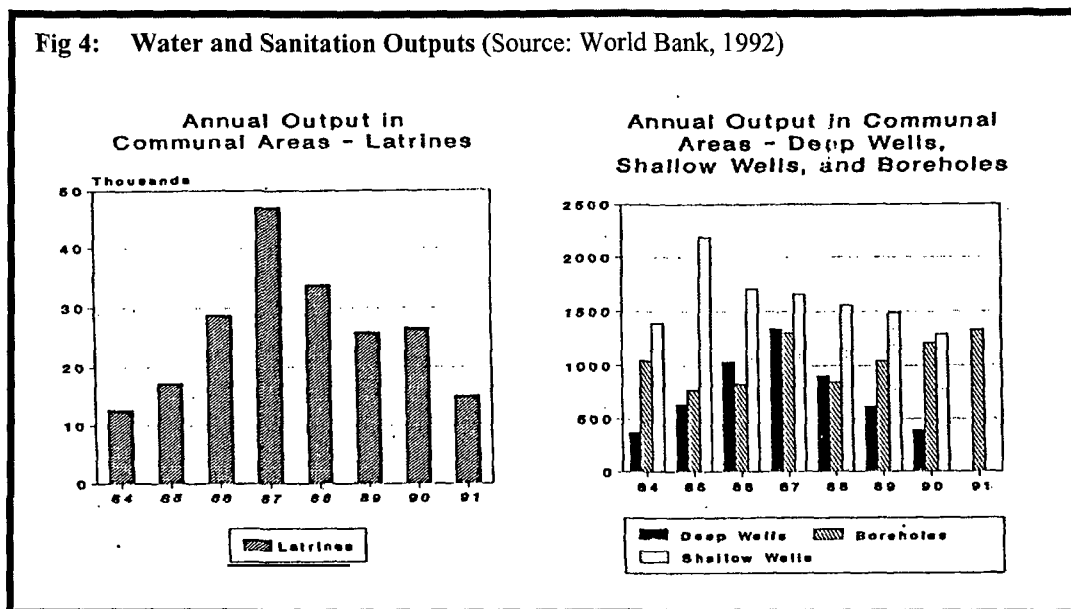
The technical sub-committee of the NAC continued to support the modification of technologies especially the bush pump. It was this committee that spearheaded the standardisation of the pump and the adoption of the Model B bush pump, which is the recommended pump for the rural water supply and sanitation programme in Zimbabwe. In this standardisation process the sub-committee worked closely with the private sector especially with V & W Engineering. Although there is little evidence to support this, it has been recognised that the sub-committee paid a significant amount of attention to the standardisation of the bush pump at the expense of other low cost pumps that were already in the system. Examples of such pumps are the Blair and the bucket pumps.

Both the Blair and the bucket pumps were developed by the Blair Institute as appropriate pumping technologies for shallow wells. The Blair pump is a simple direct suction pump with a pvc rising main. This pump had by the mid-1980s been marketed in the region, especially to some parts of Zambia. The Bucket pump is another simple pump based on the bucket and windlass principle. The NAC made a recommendation that the bucket pump be the standard pump for all shallow wells and the bush pump be installed on all boreholes (Nzuzu News, March/April 1988). As highlighted earlier the maintenance of the bucket pump was not integrated into DDF, neither was there a system for community maintenance. As was later observed during the first Mount Darwin evaluation in 1991: "whilst the replacement or repair of the valves could probably be easily carried out at community level, it appears that the training for this had not been carried out. Moreover, the need for the proper repair of the valve may not be evident to the community as long as water can be drawn. Invariably, the water drawers would simply hold the bottom of the bucket and pour out the water, this contaminating the bucket and consequently the source" (TCWS, 1991). In addition to the pumping systems, the Ministry of Health supported the protection of springs especially in the Eastern Highlands. These augmented the water supply situation in communal areas.

The Blair Research Laboratory was the origin of the Blair Ventilated Pit Latrine. The latrine was designed before independence and experimented with on farms and other outlying areas which could be easily accessed during the war. Different shapes of toilets were tried using different materials, but retaining the basic shape of a superstructure, a lined pit and a vent pipe with screen. At independence the health inspectors of the Ministry of Health resolved that "there is need to build a toilet that

could last a generation” (Morgan, 1999). The brick VIP was therefore designed. Towards the end of the 1980s cement, which is an important subsidy on the VIP toilet was in short supply. The latrine construction programme was facing a significant decline (see Figure 4).

Fig 4: Water and Sanitation Outputs (Source: World Bank, 1992)



This decline was recorded despite the increase in the number of IRWSSP that occurred between 1987 and 1991 (refer to Figures 2 and 3). It is not clear whether or not the approach (IRWWSP) had an influence on the performance of the MoHCW. With the shift towards hygiene education and behaviour change, improvements were made to the brick VIP. The mukombe or gourd was introduced as a hand washing facility. This technique was to be changed later as the hand washing facility was made a part of the toilet.

3.3.1.6 Support Materials

The rural water supply and sanitation sector regarded training and promotion as key to the empowerment of all stakeholders. In this regard training manuals, guidelines, evaluation reports were seen as a sure way of disseminating information (see Table 3, which includes materials developed after 1992). This list is not exhaustive and does not include evaluation reports of districts. It contains only those reports that were deliberately produced to provide guidance to the water and sanitation sector personnel.

Among the support materials was the District Co-ordination Handbook, which provided a planning framework for districts (it included the concept of Shallow Well Unit (SWU)⁹ which was the first time such a concept was being used to calculate water point requirements in a district. The Handbook also contained formats for preparing and presenting project proposals, funding arrangements, call-ups and roles

⁹ Shallow Well Unit is a concept based on the carrying capacity of the different water supply types. A shallow well can support 50 people (1 SWU), a deep well 150 people (3 SWU) and a borehole 250 people (5SWU). Using appropriate planning ratios a planner can allocate the projected SWU requirement (calculated from projected population) to the different types of water supply systems.

and responsibilities of sector agencies. It became the single most important document for the management of the IRWSSP. However, while this was meant to be a guide the major criticism that was put forward was that the document was taken by districts as a rule. This resulted in district proposals that were very similar despite the large spatial differences in geology, water table conditions, resettlement patterns throughout the country.

Another important vehicle for information exchange (not included in table 3) was the Nzuzu News. The Nzuzu News was a Water and Newsletter produced and managed by the Research and Development Sub-committee of the NAC under the chairmanship of the Ministry of Health. However, after key staff (including expatriates) left the ministry the capacity of the Department of Environmental Health to produce the newsletter was severely curtailed. After the failure to produce the issues it was agreed that the TCWS (now IWSD) take up the project and produce the newsletter instead. The IWSD now produces a newsletter called IWSD NEWS.

Table 3: Some Manuals and Guides produced by the Water and Sanitation Sector before 1998.

No.	Item	Produced By	Date
1.	Hand Pumps in Zimbabwe	Blair Research laboratory	1986
2.	The Bucket Pump Manual	Blair Research Laboratory	1988
3.	The Double Compartment Blair Latrine Builder's Instruction manual	Ministry of Health	1988
4.	National Monitoring System for wells and springs	DDF, Ministry of Health	1988
5.	DDF Guide to the Selection and training trainers	J. Sanderson – DDF, UNDP	1989
6.	Blair Latrine Builders Manual	Blair research Laboratory	1989
7.	District Co-ordination Handbook	NAC	1989
8.	Upgraded well Manual for Field Workers	P. Morgan – Blair Research Laboratory	1989
9.	Blair Latrines implementation Manual	Republic of Zimbabwe Co-ordination Agricultural and Rural Development	
10.	How the Latrine works	P. Morgan – Blair Research Laboratory	1986
11.	Well sinking Manual	UNICEF	1988
12.	Community Participation Handbook	B. Mardsen	1989
13.	Bucket Pump Manual	P. Morgan	1990
14.	Raising Water with different pumps	Blair research Laboratory	
15.	The Blair Latrine Builder's Manual for the 3 bag Model	P. Morgan – Blair Research Laboratory	1992
16.	Learn to Maintain your Bucket Pump	Blair Research Laboratory	
17.	Design and Training Manual for Piped Rural Water Supplies in Zimbabwe	Department of Water Development	1993
18.	The Blair Latrine: Adding a hand washing facility	Mvuramanzi Trust	1994
19.	A Ventilated Improved Pit Latrine Builders Manual	NRSP, MOH	

20.	Upgraded well Manual for field workers	Mvuramanzi Trust	1995
21.	The Blair Latrine: a Builder's Manual for the 4 bag Model and Hand washing tank.	P. Morgan – Mvuramanzi Trust	1995
21.	Management of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Systems	P. Taylor, G. Woek, N. R. Mudege	1995
22.	Design and Training Manual for Piped Rural Water Supplies in Zimbabwe	Department of Water Development. Ministry of Lands, Agriculture and Water Development	1995
23.	Guidelines for Community Management of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Systems: A Contribution to Africa 2000	P. Taylor, N. R. Mudege	1996
24.	Operational Guidelines for The Control of Water Resources Pollution in Zimbabwe	IWSD, DWD	1998
25.	ZINWA: Operational Guidelines for The Control of Water Resources Pollution in Zimbabwe	IWSD	1998
26.	Community Action Project: Operational Manual	Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare	1998

3.3.2 Concerns for Sustainability

Issues of sustainability became of major concern after the world wide experiences revealed that IDWSSD efforts were not yielding the desired results due, largely to problems of Operation and Maintenance, poor or no cost recovery measures and inadequate consultations with user communities. Internationally, during the late 1980s, Village Level Operation and Maintenance systems (VLOM) were being promoted or seriously discussed.

The debate also started in Zimbabwe, but reflected the divergence of opinion and approach (see Box 11) and in some cases fear to propose issues that were contrary to government's position on supply of water to communal lands. The MEWRD's

Box 11: Other views on Sustainability

"The issue of sustainability of water supplies has been discussed in detail in various circles. Problems have been identified and "sensitive" solutions based on other people's experiences in different countries ie Kenya, Tanzania, India and Peru have been suggested and implemented but to no avail. Does this mean that these water supplies including hand pumps are therefore unsustainable or is the technology chosen too advanced or inappropriate for the grassroots? Maybe we should return to the traditional rope and bucket system. Very little or no effort at all has been made to go back to the users of these water supplies for solutions to the problems. All the solutions have been derived from the unpracticable wishes of high ranking officials at district, provincial and mostly National level and yet these are the persons who hardly use any pumps or boreholes..."

Source: *Paper presented by Lutheran World Federation (LWF) at a workshop on Cost Recovery for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation, 3 - 4 May, 1989 (IWSD library reference 150.37)*

"The National Action Committee for Water and Sanitation Sector has looked at the continuous increase in the development of the new facilities and related it to the government's capacity to sustain the huge maintenance requirements and to ensure continuous real increases in the maintenance funding namely:

- (a) cost sharing or cost recovery
- (b) active Local Authority involvement in the Operation and Maintenance of water systems

The DDF has however, felt very uncomfortable when the issue of sustainability is limited to these two elements, as it views these as an end in themselves and more legal than technical issues..."

Source: *Sustainability of the Operation and Maintenance for Rural Water Supply Systems, DDF O & M Section, September 1999, page 11*

"... To emphasize the point once again, in every Zimbabwean society education was seen as an investment. Every parent who sent a child to school hoped that one day the child would become a teacher or a doctor be able to look after him/her in his/her old age. The pump must therefore be seen not only as producing water but money. ...

It is my opinion, Mr. Chairman that it is not necessary for each water point to have a standby bank account for maintenance but rather that money is collected for spares if and when required. Major breakdowns are often few and far in between. In this connection therefore it is my honest opinion that the pump minders be adopted not by Central Government but by Councils and be paid from part of the levy collected by Councils or alternatively, Mr. Chairman, pump minders should not be part of anybody's payroll in the final stage, but that quite a large number of them should be trained in each district and they will respond to breakdowns in their areas and be paid by communities for every repair..." **Presentation by N. Mudege (O&M Engineer, DDF) at the Workshop on Cost Recovery** : Source: *Proceedings of the Workshop on Cost recovery, Harare 4-5 May, 1989 (IWSD library ref. 150.19)*

"...The Ministry was not concerned with cost recovery as such but rather with the issue of sustainability. This relates to the issue of sustaining the sanitation programme for Zimbabwe which aims at providing 1.4 million Blair latrines for 8 million people by the year 2005. Thus, since for sanitation, the maintenance of the latrines is the full responsibility of the householder, the issue as mentioned above is to keep the programme running..." **Presentation by P. Cross (Ministry of Health) at the Workshop on Cost Recovery** : Source: *Proceedings of the Workshop on Cost recovery, Harare 4-5 May, 1989 (IWSD library ref. 150.19)*

"... the present policy followed by MEWRD for rural water supplies is that water is free of charge. Only in some instances has MEWRD collected revenue from the 120 rural water supplies the ministry presently is operating. MEWRD has collected revenue in some cases from business premises. In 84/85 MEWRD spent Z\$ 458 000.0 and collected Z\$ 11 000.00 in revenue, in 85/86 MEWRD spent Z\$500 000.00 and collected Z\$35 000.00 in revenue. **Presentation by M. Tumbare (Deputy Director, MEWRD) at the Workshop on Cost Recovery** : Source: *Proceedings of the Workshop on Cost recovery, Harare 4-5 May, 1989 (IWSD library ref. 150.19)*

position as reflected in Tumbare's comments in box 11 was a common position of government during the socialist phase. The MEWRD set a flat rate system for consumers in rural areas, enabling it to cross subsidise from those water works that were self-sustaining (operated under a working account) and those that were not financially self sustaining (operated under an Appropriation Account). After the RDC

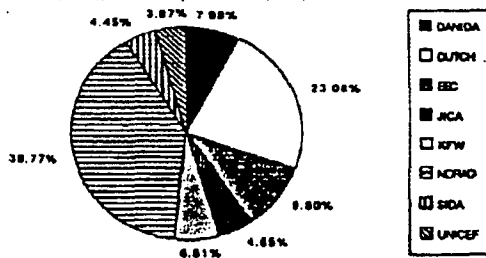
Act of 1988, there was a genuine move towards addressing issues of cost recovery. Examples of such moves was the establishment of a Steering Committee for Cost Recovery within the NAC which spearheaded the discussions on cost recovery. Among the results of this initiative were the Cost Recovery Workshop (NAC, May 1989), the Conceptual Framework note for revenue collection (N. M. Lenneye, December 1990), the draft cabinet paper on cost recovery (NAC, 1990a) and the Sustainability Workshop (NAC, 1990b).

External Support Agencies in the RWSS Sector

The major change in sector financing that has occurred through the 1980s has been the growth of sector financing through external agency support. It is estimated that in 1982 donor financing accounted about 20% of total capital sector financing, by 1985 this figure reached 35% and in 1989 this had increased to 90%. This is shown graphically in Table 1 in the text.

ESA commitments to RWSS projects between 1987 and 1992 are estimated to be ZW\$120.2 million. Of this ap

ESA Support to District Projects 1987-1992

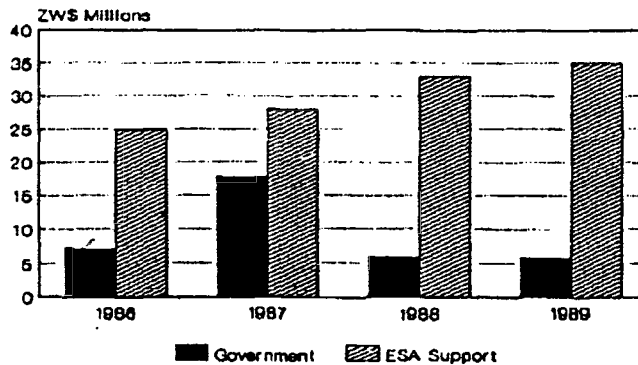


proximately ZW\$64.5 million is earmarked for district projects from bilateral and multilateral agencies, about ZW\$48.3 million for Governmental agency support and ZW\$18.4 million constitutes NGO contributions.

The Figure indicates percentage support to district projects by bilateral and multilateral agencies. The considerable support from ESAs has enabled the sector to take on a great many activities it would not have had the capacity to undertake reliant on its own funding. The assumption with which most donor agreements are made is that the Government will within a 2 to 6 year period eventually take over the project activity. The level of activities supported by ESA activities is clearly well above that which could in the near future be taken over at a similar level of output. Also there are many activities which have been initiated through ESA support which Government could not manage on their own resources: arguably these include DDF borehole drilling, the MEWRD computer-aided Water Data Base and the NCU.

ESA contributions were in the early 1980s for the most part obtained through agreements with single implementing agencies. Following the publication of the NMPRWSS and the creation of the NCU, greater potential for sector co-ordination enabled the NAC to embark upon a series of intensive, district-based integrated water and sanitation projects. To date 10 intensive integrated projects are underway and these are the focus of the greater part of bilateral aid to the sector at present.

Total Capital Development Rural Water Supply and Sanitation



Major problems faced by the NAC sub-committee on cost recovery¹⁰ by 1988 were the delay in the formal adoption of the NMWP and the financial resources (Mutizwa-Mangiza, 1991). The NMWP expected government to increase its investment in water supply and sanitation from Z\$25 million to Z\$57 million (at 1985 prices) in the

¹⁰ this steering committee is sometimes referred to in literature as a sub-committee of the NAC

financial year 2004/5 with donor contribution being reduced from its 1985 value of 60% to 50% (1995), 40% by 2000 and 35% by 2005 (NMWP Volume 1, 1985 page 38). By 1990 it was clear that this could not be achieved and the NAC admitted that “the decade has seen a substantial increase in dependence upon donor finance. This increased dependence has limited the government’s control over the sector and enabled the development of the RWSS programme to proportion not sustainable through government’s own resources. If sector funds were limited to those from government it is unlikely that the sector could keep up with the rate of population increase let alone provide the unserved population” (NAC, April 1990). Figure marked confidential Draft 5/90 above indicates the observed problems.

3.3.2.1 RDC Act of 1988

The Rural District Councils Act provided for the amalgamation of the Rural Councils and the District Councils. Under the Act, powers and authorities of councils include development functions, enforcement of conditions of title, service charges, rents and deposits (by resolution), powers of entry and inspection and compulsory acquisition of property.

Among some of the more specific functions include promoting development, formulating long and short term policies, preparation of annual and development plans and monitoring of the development plans (World Bank, 1992).

At the 1989 Cost Recovery Workshop, MLGRUD outlined the following:

- that in the development of a sustainability policy the meeting should not cling to the Act alone,
- that in the case of Communal Lands and Resettlement areas, no taxation has been collected since independence, only voluntary contributions were collected
- in the new Act people in Council and resettlement areas will be taxed
- In section 88 RDCs will start to collect revenue from owners of properties.
- in section 97 special levies can be imposed.

(Presentation made by Mr. A. Mpamhanga, Under-secretary, Legal section MLGRUD at the Workshop on Cost Recovery for Rural Areas 4-5 May, 1989)

The RDC Act of 1988 provided an avenue for effective decentralisation and the build up of issues of sustainability.

3.3.2.2 Sustainability Workshop of 1990

The Sustainability workshop for rural water supply and sanitation was held on 16th August, 1990 at the Oasis Hotel in Harare. This time the workshop was held at the initiative of the Water and Sanitation Studies Fund Steering Committee. The Water and Sanitation Studies Fund was chaired by the Ministry of Health. This steering committee was latter renamed the NAC Research and Development Sub-committee (NAC, 1999). This workshop, after presentation of papers on development of hand pump maintenance (by Muzamhindo), technology development and future maintenance requirements (by Morgan), social mobilisation for sustainability (by Sandaramu and Hwata), cost recovery in RWSSP (by Wangen), community maintenance of hand pumps (by Cleaver) and issues in sustainability (by Mudege), discussed sustainability in broad terms. Box 12 provides some of the conclusions

Box 12: Conclusions of the Sustainability Workshop 16th August, 1990

Is the 3-tier maintenance system the most appropriate for Zimbabwe?

- (a) 3 tier maintenance system needs to be applied more flexibly. It is appropriate in some areas, particularly dry areas, but may be top heavy in areas with less felt need.
- (b) the lower tiers need strengthening and communication routes and responsibilities clarified to ensure that the maintenance team is not carrying out work that should be done by lower tiers.

Should maintenance be solely the responsibility of DDF?

- (a) DDF should continue to have sole responsibility for maintenance. This might have to include MoH procuring spares for bucket pumps and handing them over to DDF

Is cost recovery necessary or desirable?

- cost recovery is necessary to reduce costs
- after a political decision has been taken, development of the actual system should be phased, maybe starting with purchase of spares
- spontaneous local initiatives should be used for piloting potential cost recovery systems
- levies by Rural District Councils and local collection at water point level both have major disadvantages, but neither means of collection should be ruled out
- a privatised pump minder system would be very difficult to supervise, particularly if there is no competition between pump minders.

Is the subsidised sanitation sustainable?

- ✓ Current targets are not attainable, there is an imbalance between demand and output
- ✓ if no subsidy were given output would be drastically reduced. Reduction of subsidy is inevitable and continued development and testing of lower cost structures is required.
- ✓ the use of Blair latrines is well established in most areas and is part of the school curriculum.

Is mobilisation for water supply and sanitation producing the desired results?

- this is difficult to measure, but changes in behaviour such as using protected water sources and latrines indicates that results are being achieved. However, this varies considerably from place to place.
- there is often conflict between targets set and the mobilisation of the people.

Can sustainability be achieved without formal transfer of ownership of the water point and pump to community?

- ✓ formal transfer of ownership of the water point is not possible as the community does not own the land. Other methods of enhancing the users' sense of responsibility towards the water point should be encouraged, an opening ceremony to signify completion of work by the sector ministries for instance.

Source: Sustainability in Rural Water Supply and Sanitation: Workshop held at the Oasis Hotel, 16th August, 1990, NAC Subcommittee for Research and Development

arrived at.

Although the workshop brought back some of the issues that had been discussed at the 4-5 May, 1989 workshop on cost recovery, there was still the fear of not pushing the cost recovery measures until a political position had been taken on the subject. The role of the RDCs was still vague and the suggestion that an opening ceremony be held for all completed projects was later to become a budget item for the RDCs.

With time, it was realised that the cost recovery issues were not going to be easily pushed before cabinet and hence the need to revisit some of the issues. The Decade Consultative Meeting was to provide such an avenue.

3.3.2.3 Decade Consultative Meeting

The meeting held from November 23 to 30th, 1990 made the following resolutions:

1. The future responsibility and authority for planning, financial control, implementation and operation and maintenance of rural water supply and sanitation, including decisions relating to technology choice, must be increasingly borne by the local authorities and community members, ultimately leading to complete management through established local structures.
2. In order to accomplish, this particular attention needs to be placed on human resource development, especially at a district level, ward and village levels.
3. The financial responsibility for direct operations and maintenance should, in future, be borne by communities and local authorities.
4. The existing duplication of functions within the sector, particularly in the areas of borehole drilling, well sinking, community mobilisation and operation and maintenance, need to be resolved as a matter of urgency.
5. Government's role in the promotion of improved water supplies and sanitation for the previously neglected commercial farming sector should be strengthened.
6. The main thrust of central government's role should focus on overall sector guidance and promotion, training, information dissemination and support to communities and local authorities.
7. The contribution of the private sector and non-governmental organisations in the sector, will in the future assume greater importance and should be encouraged and co-ordinated.
8. Existing plans covering various parts of the water and sanitation sector should be supplemented by development of an overall policy framework for the entire sector.
9. Health and hygiene education within the sector must be strengthened through the participation of community members in the identification of problems, messages and target groups and in the development of training and promotional materials.
10. Recognising that community mobilisation and health and hygiene education are essential components of the programme, all agencies need to support these activities. Village Community Workers have an essential role in hygiene education and all efforts should be made to encourage their involvement in this activity.
11. Recognising the central role of women in water supply and sanitation, their active and full involvement in all community activities, and at all levels of programme management, must be achieved.
12. Additional emphasis need to be placed on measurement of less quantifiable activities such as behaviour change.
13. The range of technology options recommended for water supply and sanitation must be expanded to provide to sustainable and affordable options for all areas of Zimbabwe. Where feasible, family facilities should be promoted.
14. The success of the rural programme is largely due to the development of standardised, indigenous technologies, and this policy should continue to be followed.

15. The technical and policy issues delaying further provision of services in District and Rural Service Centres need to be resolved as a matter of agency to ensure continued development of a sustainable water and sanitation infrastructure in these areas.
16. In recognition of the high urban growth rate, increased attention should be paid to provision in these areas. Standards for urban areas need to be reviewed.

(Source: Mudege & Taylor, 1994; World Bank, 1992)

There was a significant shift towards the recognition of the RDCs as vital players in the delivery of water and sanitation services. In addition there was a strong move towards regarding water and sanitation issues in their totality, hence recommendation 16 on urban centres and growth point. This move was latter recognised during management of the 1992 drought in which NAC was given the mandate to address water supply issues in urban areas.

3.3.2.4 Vision 2000

The NAC, as part of its planning process conducted annual review workshops to discuss progress and to map out the way forward for the water and sanitation sector. At these meetings, NAC members, external support agencies, representatives from provincial and district water and sanitation sub-committees, NGOs and other water and sanitation sector professionals are invited. The 1992 annual sector review was unique in that prior to the workshop, 8 background papers were commissioned on key thematic issues by water and sanitation experts (see Box 13). These papers formed the basis of detailed discussions on how the water and sanitation was to be reformed to

Box 13: Papers Presented at the 1992 Nyanga Sector Review Meeting

- Human Resources Development and Capacity Building by Paul. Taylor, Ngoni Mudege and Evans Kaseke
- Government and Rural Institutions by Derek Gunby
- Health Aspects by Mary Basset, David Sanders and Charles Todd
- Economic and Financial Aspects by Peter Robinson and Amanda Hammar
- Water Resources and Supplies by Zebediah Murungweni
- Technology by Peter Morgan
- Community and Women in Development by Mavis Chidzonga
- Planning and Management of the WS&S Sector by Mungai Lenneiye

Papers were submitted as drafts to the NAC in January 1992.

Source: **Rural Community Infrastructure: Building on the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme, World Bank, April, 1992, page 3**

meet the challenges of decentralisation. Two major results were achieved:

- (a) the Vision 2000
- (b) the review document called **Rural Community Infrastructure: Building on the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme**, which contained a strategic project development analysis for rural Zimbabwe built on the experiences of the Water and Sanitation Programme. This further analysis was facilitated by the Infrastructure and Operations Division of the World Bank.

Vision 2000 was thus:

INSTITUTIONAL

Organised communities: Aware, active and self organised communities, with strong participation of women, able to influence local authorities, playing a central role in planning and setting priorities, and managing some local services.

Effective Rural District Councils: Accountable RDCs responsible for:

- development of strategic rural development plans, including management of land
- ensuring the delivery of primary services, including water and sanitation
- supporting community initiatives, including community management of RWSS

Streamlined Central Government: Streamlined but crucial roles, including national planning and budgeting; financing; policy formulation and regulation; technical assistance and training; management of national resources (e.g. water) and trunk services (e.g. bulk water supplies); research and information exchange.

Private sector: A widespread small and large scale private sector (both formal and informal), including community business, delivering goods and services in rural areas.

NGOs:

Active NGOs supporting community initiatives within RDC development plans and national policies.

FINANCING OF RWSS:

RDC capital investment financed by a mix of Central Government allocations (from revenues and coordinated donor funds) and local revenues, with the mix determined by type and level of service. Most recurrent costs for RWSS raised locally, with the community managing funds for basic services and RDC's other services. RDCs allocating special grants for operation and maintenance to disadvantaged communities to ensure equitable and sustainable basic services.

MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

RDCs having trained and experienced management, and technical teams with access to competent advisory services of central government, and a qualified private sector capability at national and community levels. Community members, and especially women, having social, organisational and technical skills.

(NAC, April 1992)

3.3.2.5 Community Based Management (CBM)

The responsibility for maintaining primary water supplies in country was placed on the DDF. As outlined earlier, the major focus of DDF in the early to mid-1980s was on rural road development and maintenance, leaving the maintenance of water supplies to a group of "pump fitters", largely made up of casual employees led by a

lorry driver. These were latter to be promoted to supervisors and some even to Field Officers. In 1987, the Operation and Maintenance section was set up in the Water Division. The Operation and Maintenance was built on a very weak human resources base, with the majority of the field officers not having the requisite educational background to carry out the responsibilities assigned to them. However, some of them were practitioners who had the skill to repair hand pumps, hence the competition for work between the third tier (the DMT) and pump minders (see boxes 9 and 10).

Box 14: DDF's parallel initiatives

Information flow between DDF and the NAC weakened after 1990. While recording successes in the development of wells and boreholes at the district (where the DDF officer was under the direct control of the District Administrator), DDF undertook a programme of trying out new O&M systems.

- In early 1990, DDF organised a training workshop for all senior Field Officers at Seke DDF Training Centre to formulate a strategy for Community Based Maintenance. The workshop noted the need for a policy statement endorsing community management. They worked out the structure of a community based maintenance system. An opportunity was lost in that there was no further follow-up and no policy commitment was made and the NAC did not make active interest in it (it is not clear whether this was due to lack of information on the part of NAC or not).
- In 1992 DDF with support from UNICEF piloted the Community Based Maintenance project in Chivi. This was purely an in-house DDF system. A good move but then it lacked the involvement of other actors with specialist skills in community organisation, development of principles (for scaling up) and health and hygiene education. NAC was not involved, although this is what the Decade Meeting resolutions and the Vision 2000 were calling for.
- In September 1992, while continuing with the expansion of the CBM, DDF O & M section produced one of its most notable stance on Sustainability of Water Supplies (**Sustainability of the O&M system for RWS**) in which they advocate for community management. It is no evidence to show that this recommendation was picked up in the new projects that were adopted by the NAC (neither did DDF push for this in the IRWSSP projects).
- In 1993 the CBM expanded in Lucky Dip Resettlement area in Mutoko. While this was taking place in the resettlement area, the government funded IRWSSP was continuing in the rest of Mutoko district on the basis of the 3-tier maintenance system.
- In September 1994, Senior members of the DDF O & M section met at the Fairmile Motel in Gweru, with support from UNICEF and produced a paper on Community Based Management. The meeting resolved that "CBM be promoted as a viable approach for sustainable maintenance of water supply services and that strategies for its implementation be refined to take into account the pivotal role of RDC".
- In 1997 the DDF with support from Unicef commissioned the documentation of lessons and experiences with CBM and developed the principles upon which CBM should be based (**Mudege, Chirisa, Mawunganidze and Chimucheka, 1997**). These were not officially discussed at the DDF directorate level. A presentation was made at the sector review in Kariba (in 1998), but it was only in 1999 that the NAC had the opportunity to discuss these fully and make CBM a component of the water and sanitation programme.

Although faced with a weak staffing situation, the operation and maintenance, with support from Unicef started on parallel initiative to try out different maintenance systems (see box 14 and the staffing situation in tables 4 and 5).

Table 4: Qualifications of supervisor and Field Officer grades as compared with their responsibilities and the currently required qualifications (Source: Kaseke, Mudege and Taylor, 1993)

Post	Responsibility	Required Qualification	Highest academic qualification of present staff					Professional Qualification	
			<Gr7>	ZJC	O level	A Level	Degree	Tech	Other
PFO	Management Supervision Budget Control Planning Design Monitoring Reporting	Degree and experience	Nil	1	5	Nil	1	1	2
FSO	Supervision Planning Co-ordination Monitoring Reporting	A level and experience	NIL	1	5	NIL	1	1	2
FO	Planning Supervision Record keeping Budgeting Operation Maintenance	O level and experience	NIL	2	6	NIL	NIL	1	2
SUPERV	Supervision Stores control Record keeping Operation Maintenance	O level and experience	15	15	23	2	NIL	NIL	NIL

Table 5: Comparison of DDF grades with qualifications of technical Ministry staff at similar salary levels (Source: Kaseke, Mudege and Taylor, 1993)

Post	DDF annual salary scale (from "Yellow Book" 90/91)	Post in MEWRD with similar salary	Post in MOH with similar salary
PFO	\$30 400	Senior engineer or senior hydrogeologist; degreed with about 5 years experience. Qualified Technician grade II	Principal Environmental health Officer, Grade 1; "A" level plus diploma in Environmental Health, long experience.
SFO	\$22 800	Junior engineer or junior hydrogeologist; degreed with little or no experience. Qualified Technician grade IV	Environmental Health Officer, Grade 1; "A" Level plus diploma in Environmental health, experience
FO	\$12 600	Unqualified technicians with wide experience, 5 '0' levels	Entry level for Environmental Health Officers, "A" Level plus diploma in Environmental Health
Sup	\$ 8 320	Cadet technicians still studying 5 '0' levels	Environmental Health Technicians; 5 "0" levels, certificate in environmental health from the Ministry of Health Training schools

The development of CBM was therefore a process of serious determination but very little information outreach. The NAC lost an opportunity by not quickly assuming a co-ordination and leadership role in the process.

3.3.2.6 Community Mobilisation

From the beginning of the IRWSSP, community mobilisation was the responsibility of the then Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs (now Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operatives). Community mobilisation was largely labour based and built around the philosophy that by providing or contributing their own labour the community will assume full responsibility of their water and sanitation facilities. Labour and time contributions were set as:

- communities meet to elect a committee (which committee had invariably three women and a man . The man, in most cases, was the chairperson and one of the women was the caretaker),
- communities selected three sites for a communal water point and the final point was determined by the geophysical investigations done by technical personnel from the sector agencies,
- for deep wells communities dug the first 3 meters and then contracted well sinkers would take over (in some cases communities provided food and accommodation for the well sinkers).
- for both boreholes and deep wells communities provided sand, concrete stones, bricks and participated in the construction of head-works, and
- for sanitation households dug pits, provided bricks and paid builders.

The problem highlighted in districts reports during this period was one of over-mobilisation (district reports, various). The mobilisation rate was higher than the delivery capacity of the technical ministries (MoHCW, DDF DWD) such that there were more pits dug for toilets than there was cement available, the time between siting and drilling was long and there were a lot more wards mobilised than covered by projects (district reports, NAC annual reports, TCWS 1991). This problem still persists even now as observed during the field visits to Bikita, Mberengwa, Shurugwi (see annex 2, 7 and 12) and Gokwe (Taylor and Mujuru, 1998). This is despite the usual assertion that the Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Co-operatives has limited capacity. What it points to is the fact that communities are committed and regard water and sanitation sector as an important sector addressing their really needs, but the support service for sector agencies is weak.

This mobilisation strategy did not include mechanisms for community ownership of facilities, devolution of power to the user groups. With the introduction of decentralisation and community based management, new community management strategies needed to be adopted.

3.3.2.7 Health and Hygiene Education

Although improvement in health was recognised early on as a major output of the water and sanitation programme health and hygiene education was never seen as an important vehicle for achieving this. It was not until the early 1990s that serious attention was given to the area health and hygiene education. Even then during the early part of the programme, health and hygiene education was presented in projects as budget lines with no sub-activities to describe how the task was to be achieved. There were no real indicators of how health and hygiene was to be measured. To a large extent health and hygiene education was equated to awareness generation.

The main focus of the water and sanitation projects was mainly on achieving physical targets. The terms of reference provided to the consultant for the evaluation of the Mount Darwin District (TCWS, 1991) does not even mention health and hygiene education. Since this was the first IRWSS project to be evaluated, health and hygiene education could have been an evaluation area if it had received any prominence during project implementation (as did all other issues including O & M, women, and training). The training methods for health and hygiene education continued to be didactic (although some posters were developed), despite the introduction of participatory training processes in the late 1980s.

The SARAR¹¹ methodologies, for effective participatory training were introduced in the country and formed the basis for the improvement in participatory training. It became a major tool for facilitating health and hygiene behaviour change.

Box 15 provides an explanation of some the attributes imbedded in the SARAR techniques. The major challenge for the health sector was to transfer these tools from the social mobilisation context to health and hygiene education and the promotion of good behaviour change. This was achieved in the early to mid 1990s when the Participatory Health and Hygiene Education (PHHE) programme was launched. As described elsewhere, Zimbabwe retained the use of PHHE, while the rest of the sub-continent and elsewhere refer to this as PHAST (Participatory Hygiene and Sanitation Transformation).

Box: 15 Principles of Participatory Learning

Self –Esteem

The self esteem of the individual rises when they realise that their ability to identify and solve their problems is openly recognised

Associative strengths

When individuals form groups, their capacity to act effectively grows and at the same time individuals gain support from being a group member. The methods seek to promote group interaction.

Resourcefulness

Individuals and community groups are resources that can be tapped for community improvement. The method seeks to promote community resourcefulness through interactive and analytical activities.

Action Planning

Planning for action is central to enabling communities to change their behaviour. When communities develop their own plan, they are likely to implement it.

Responsibility

Community are encouraged to take responsibility over their actions. Community initiated plans can only be implemented by community.

Source: L. Syrivasan, 1983

¹¹ SARAR is an acronym for Self-esteem, Associative strengths, Resourcefulness, Action planning and Responsibility. It is a participatory process which recognises these five community attributes.

3.3.3 From Kadoma to the Present (1992 -)

The period around 1992 was marked by a few major historical events in the development of the rural water supply and sanitation. The first was the drought, which was recorded as the worst in the living memory. This occurred at a time when government was moving away from the socialist philosophy to the economic structural adjustment programme. The second was decentralisation process. Soon after the RDC Act of 1988 was passed preparations got under way to harmonise systems in preparation of the combined council elections. The decentralisation process was a move by central government to devolve power, authority and responsibility to the lowest levels possible (with a logical level for government being the RDC). The NAC for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation took advantage of this policy shift and its own Vision 2000 (developed in Nyanga in 1992) to pilot the implementation of projects through the RDCs. The third was a refocus by the sector agencies on issues of sustainability. This included the development of extensive health and hygiene education, commonly called Participatory Health and Hygiene Education (PHHE) in Zimbabwe and Participatory Hygiene and Sanitation Transformation (PHAST) in Southern Africa region and elsewhere), the introduction of Community Based Management (CBM) and significant shift from communal water supplies to the more traditional upgraded family well.

As working conditions became increasingly difficult in government (eg poor supply mechanisms for cement subsidy, with ESAP the cement saga shifted from availability to supply/delivery logistics for the water and sanitation programme). Mvuramanzi Trust (developed out of the WaterAid project in Blair Research Institute) is an example of professionals in the water sector were trying to get round problems in government supply system. The Mvuramanzi subsidy supply systems has brought considerable success, which unfortunately have not been copied or adopted by the NAC.

3.3.3.1 Drought and ESAP

In the 1991/2 rain season, Zimbabwe received its lowest rainfall in living memory, leading to the worst drought ever recorded. In order to cushion the effects of this drought, the country mobilised a lot of resources both from within and from outside and set in place actions that included the supplementary feeding programme for children under five years and those in primary schools, food distribution to communal and resettlement area people, relocation of livestock and game, importation of food, rehabilitation of water points and construction of new water points in the country. The NAC was made the focal point for water supply and may have gained its most significant political recognition when it was asked to expand its mandate to include urban areas. This saw some NAC members, who in the past had little to do with urban water supplies (such as DDF drilling in Mutare) being actively involved with urban water supplies. A study was commissioned to draw lessons from the previous drought of 1984 and the lessons were pointing to a repeat of the earlier weaknesses encountered especially that the drilling operations would be in full gear when the drought is almost ending (Taylor and Mudege, 1992). ere

A significant number of activities were implemented as part of the drought recovery programme. While borehole drilling continued with both DWD and DDF, a new

component to the drilling programme was introduced: - hydro-fracturing. Hydro-fracturing units were procured as part of the Drought Recovery and Drought Preparedness Programme sponsored by the Belgian Agency for Development Cooperation and administered through Unicef. It was noted that “the contributions that the Drought Recovery and the Drought Preparedness programme made to the water and sanitation sector in general is tremendous. This is measured not in terms of the number of physical facilities constructed¹², but rather through the injection of new ideas into the sector. To most implementors flushing and hydrofracturing, CBM, the use of participatory tools in hygiene education, the concept of consultative inventories and data management, family well upgrading were all new concepts”(Mudege, Musabayane and Chabot (1996)).

Despite the fact that ESAP was constraining full government participation in the water and sanitation sector, opportunities were presented when, due to the drought, the need for increased investment in the water and sanitation field was enhanced. The drought following, as it did, from a period in which serious discussions had been held by the NAC to improve the sustainability of the water and sanitation, provided yet another avenue for mobilising resources to try out new systems.

3.3.3.2 Decentralisation

The RDC Act of 1988 was one of the few instruments that paved the way for decentralised planning in which the RDC would play a significant role. The Prime Minister’s directive of 1984 had created local channels for “popular participation through a hierarchy of representative bodies at the village, ward, district and provincial levels, which were specifically oriented towards development” (World Bank, 1992b). The water and sanitation sector took advantage of the move towards effective decentralisation and in 1992 started piloting with the districts of Kadoma, Mberengwa and Nyanga. For these districts, funds were channelled to the RDC directly. The NAC’s role was to vet and submit the district proposals for possible funding and once the funds have been secured the NCU would submit a formal request to the Ministry of Finance for a transfer to be effected. At the district level, the DWSSC was reorganised so that the RDC would chair. This was a significant role change, given that in the other projects the RDC was only responsible for opening ceremonies.

At national level the then Ministry of Local Government Rural and Urban Development, now MLGNH, embarked on a capacity building programme for the RDCs. The process of decentralisation raised a lot of hope for the effective implementation of the water and sanitation projects. However, a major challenge was on Government staff at all levels (especially provincial and district levels), who had to find new ways of operating in relation to the RDCs. The RDCs themselves lacked capacity to implement, latter alone handle so many projects and programmes.

Recognising the weaknesses and also drawing lessons from the Gokwe PDSP pilot, a recommendation was made that districts should be given the first year as a preparatory

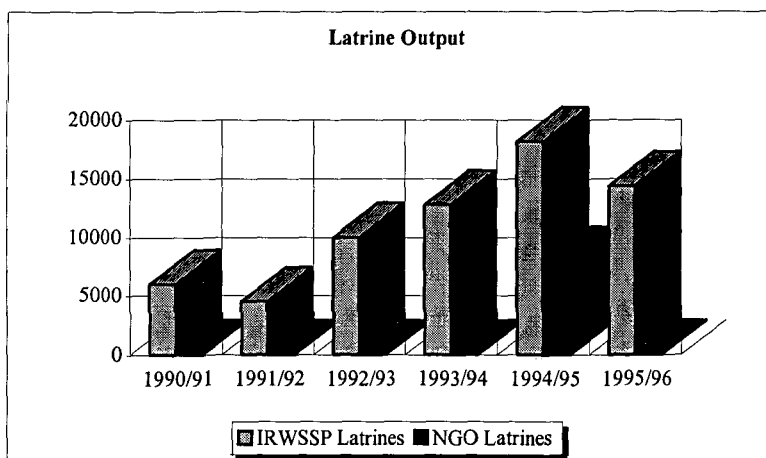
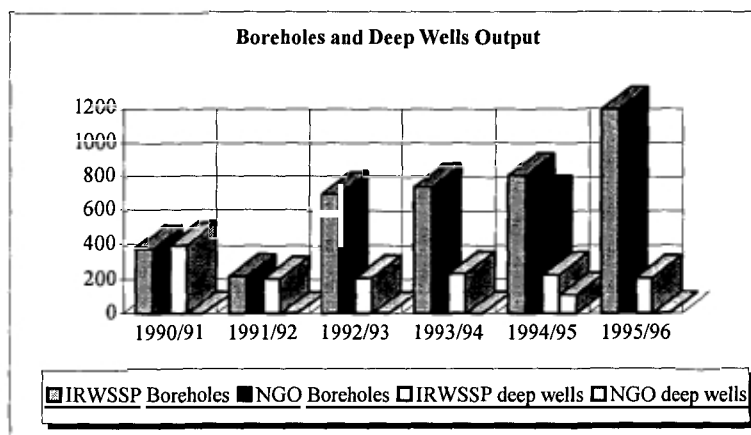
¹² the Drought Recovery and the Drought Preparedness programme achieved close to 31% of target for borehole flushing, 61% of target for hydro-fracturing and close to 80% of target for drilling and water point rehabilitation

year before embarking on the fully fledged proposal (Conyers and Hammar, 1992 page 15). This recommendation was not taken up nationally except in the case of Masvingo RDC. Even in this case the RDC felt it was under pressure from both the provincial and district levels to move quickly into a fully fledged project and satisfy the political requirements of all wards.

3.3.3.3 Programme Growth

The water and sanitation programme almost doubled its geographical coverage of districts between 1991 and 1998 (see Table 6). This phenomenal increase was not accompanied by an increase in the number of officers in the National Co-ordination Unit. In fact the NCU shrunk and lost some of its most experienced officers during this period. The monitoring and reporting processes remained centralised and this became one of the most severe bottlenecks in programme as reports did not reach their intended destinations on time and support to districts became weak.

Fig 6: Outputs of Water points and Latrines after 1990/91
(Source: Taylor and Mudege, 1996 page 14)



There was a steady increase in the number of borehole outputs after the drought, boosted in 1994 by the acquisition of 30 drilling rigs by DDF. The sanitation component showed a steady increase after 1991/92 financial year. This sanitation success was however short lived as the sanitation outputs began to show a decline after 1994/95 financial year (see figure 6).

Table 6: STATUS OF THE IRWSSP AS AT MARCH 1998:

Source: Proposal for new agreement between the Governments of Zimbabwe and Norway on Support to the IRWSSP: July 1998-2001: Volume One

PROVINCE	DISTRICT	DONORS	PROJECT PERIOD	NGO SUPPORT	MODE OF IMPLEMENTATION
MANICALAND	CHIPINGE MAKONI CHIMANIMANI MUTASA NYANGA MUTARE BUHERA	NORAD / SIDA NORAF / UNICEF NORAD Plan Int. / GOZ DUTCH / SIDA Plan Int. / GOZ DUTCH	92 to 95 to 97 Complete 92 to 95 to 97 Ongoing Complete Ongoing 1992 to 1998	LWF/WV/Plan Int./MT Africare/LWF/MT/ZIM LWF/CC Africare/ Plan Int. CC ARDA / Plan Int. CC / MT	Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Inteminist./CB./VBCI Inteminist Inteminist.VCBI
MASH EAST	MUDZI MUTOKO UMP WEDZA MUREHWA CHIKOMBA GOROMONZI MARONDERA	NORAD GOZ/UNICEF JICA/SIDA JICA/SIDA NORAD DANIDA JICA JICA/SIDA	92 to 95 to 97 Complete Complete Complete 92 to 95 to 97 Complete 1995 to 1999 1995 to 1999	RB/WV/FFH MT RB/WV/Africa 2000 MT WV/MT WV/MT	Decentr./VBCI Decentr./CBM/VBCI Inteminist./VBCI Inteminist./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Inteminist./VBCI Inteminist./VBCI Inteminist./VBCI
MASH CENTRAL	MT DARWIN GURUVE RUSHINGA CENTENARY MAZOWE SHAMVA BINDURA	NORAD DUTCH DUTCH NORAD DUTCH	Complete Complete Complete 92 to 95 to 97 1995 to 1999	WV WV.MT WV/CADEC MT MT	Decentr./CBM/VBCI Inteminist Inteminist./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI VBCI VBCI
MASH WEST	KARIBA CHIRORODZIVA HURUNGWE KADOMA CHEGUTU ZIMBA	DUTCH DUTCH DUTCH NORAD NORAD DUTCH	Complete Complete Complete 1998 to 2001 New District	SCF(UK) WV/CADEC WV/CADEC MT MT CADEC	 Decentr./Orient./VBCI/CBM Decentr./VBCI
MIDLANDS	SHURUGWI ZVISHAVANE GOKWE North GOKWE South MBERENGWA KWEKWE CHIRUMHANZU VUNGU	DANIDA NORAD EU EU NORAD Plan Int./GOZ Christ. Care/GOZ	Complete 92 to 95 to 97 1995 to 2000 1995 to 2000 92 to 95 to 97 Ongoing Complete	MT LWF MT/RCS MT Africare/LWF WV Africare/WV/MT MT	Inteminist./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./Orient. Decentr./Orient. Decentr./Orient./VBCI Inteminist./VBCI Inteminist./VBCI
MASVINGO	ZAKA CHIVI MWENEZI CHIREDDZI BIKITA MASVINGO GUTU	NORAD NORAD KfW KfW ODA DUTCH	92 to 95 to 97 92 to 95 to 97 1993 to 1998 1993 to 1998 1995 to 2000	CADEC/IREDEP LWF/WV Plan Int./LWF/CC Plan Int./RB/LWF/MT MT LWF MT	Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI/CBM Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI VBCI VBCI
MAT. NORTH	NKAYI HWANGE TSHOLOTSHO BINGA BUPI LUPANE UMGUZA	DUTCH DANIDA DUTCH IRISH AID ODA	Complete Complete Complete 1996 to 1999 1998 to 2002 New District	 CADEC/WV/MT/Plan Int. JICA/SCF (UK) WV MT	Inteminist.VBCI Inteminist.VBCI Inteminist.VBCI Inteminist.VBCI Decentr./Orient./VBCI Decentr./VBCI
MAT. SOUTH	BULILIMAMANGW UMZINGWANE INSIZA MATOBO BEITBRIDGE GWANDA	ECC/DUTCH/ECC ECC ECC UNICEF UNICEF	Complete Complete Complete Complete 94 to 97 to 99	LWF/RB/WV/Africa 2000 WV MT WV LWF	Inteminist./VBCI VBCI/CBM VBCI/CBM Decentr./VBCI/CBM

DANIDA -Danish International Development Agency

EU - European Union

JICA - Japan International Co-operation Agency

SIDA - Swedish International Development Authority

ODA - Overseas Development Authority (UK) IRWSSP

VBCI - Village Based Consultative Inventory

NGO - Non-governmental Organisation

CADEC - Catholic Development Commission

LWF - Lutheran World Federation

SCK (UK) - Save the Children Fund (UK)

MT - Mvuramanzi Trust

FFHC - Freedom From Hunger Campaign

GOZ - Government of Zimbabwe

DUTCH - Government of the Netherlands

KfW - German Development Agency

NORAD - Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation

UNICEF - United Nations Children Fund

IRWSSP - Integrated Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme

CBM - Community Based Management

ADRA - Adventist Development and Relief Agency

CC - Christian Care

RB - Redd Barna

WV - World Vision

Plan Int - Plan International

RDC - Red Cross Society

3.3.3.4 The Strategy Paper

In order to ensure the sustainability of the water and sanitation sector and to provide a full framework within which the programme operates the NAC has adopted the sector strategy. The strategy describes the desired institutional arrangements, the funding mechanisms, technology, sanitation, operation and maintenance, community mobilisation, health and hygiene, human resources development, gender and the environment (see Annex 1)

A significant contribution to the planning for water and sanitation facilities is the concept of the Village Based Consultative Inventory (VBCI). VBCI involves detailed data collection at village level as a basis for determining needs. A VBCI process outline has been compiled into a handbook for use by district and provincial water and sanitation sector personnel.

3.3.3.5 Participatory Health and Hygiene

Since the beginning of the IRWSSP, Community Training has focussed on providing Communities with information on the importance of drinking safe water and the use of appropriate waste disposal systems. The combined effort of the Environmental Health Technician and Village Community Worker¹ resulted in knowledge being passed to communities on the relation between water, environmental sanitation and health.

Participatory planning tools (community mapping, 3-pile sorting, pocket charts, etc) were extensively promoted after 1992 and the further reinforced community awareness and management. However, these tools had not yet been fully integrated as part of the health and hygiene education. "At a regional workshop in Harare in 1994, the Department of Environmental Health Services (DEHS) of the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare (MOHCW) expressed concern that although knowledge and information on hygiene had been successfully disseminated to the community, the rate of behaviour change practices was not proportional to the knowledge gained". (Mudege, Musabayane and Chabort, 1996).

Participatory tools were adapted to suit community training for health and hygiene behaviour change. One element of the drought recovery and drought Preparedness Programme, funded by BADC, through UNICEF, was the promotion of good hygiene behaviour practices. SIDA had earlier supported (through the sanitation programmes) health and hygiene education, but here an opportunity was presented to focus on behaviour change. With a focus on diarrhoea² participatory tools were developed covering issues such as water transportation and storage, kitchen hygiene, food hygiene acute respiratory infection and malaria control. Tools such as Nurse Tanaka, Sanitation Ladder, Johari's windows and many others were categorised into those that brought about community awareness, those that were planning and action oriented,

¹ The village Community Worker (VCW) started off as the Village Health Worker with special responsibility for educating villagers on environmental Health issues. The VCWs were later transferred to the MCDWA and assumed a more wider responsibility for community development.

² The Management of diarrhoea has been the major focus of health and hygiene education. Posters on Oral rehydration therapy were developed in the mid-1980s.

those that imparted knowledge, etc. A complete training tool kit, with 11 sets of tools was developed for, and with the participation of the MOHCW. These tool kits were distributed to all provincial sub-committees in all the 8 provinces. With a fairly flexible financing management (through UNICEF) the capacity to train was enhanced.

The idea of hand-washing to waste³ is one very positive outcome of the health and hygiene education programme. Evidence of this is seen at gatherings (funerals or weddings), in households and in new VIP toilet designs that include hand-washing facilities. Schools sanitation has also included these ideas in their curricula.

New initiatives emanating from this include the setting up of Health Clubs within communities. These clubs are meant to provide peer support in the health and sanitation programmes (see volume III of this evaluation for a detailed analysis of their institutional strengths and weaknesses).

As PHHE was strengthening regional initiatives involving PHAST (Participatory Health and Health transformation), were underway. Zimbabwe has hosted the last consecutive workshops on the use of PHAST methodologies.

3.3.3.6 Up-Scaling of CBM

After the piloting in Chivi district, CBM was introduced in Beitbridge and Mutoko. With this growth, the concept gradually shifted from the Community Based Maintenance to Community Based Management although it started only in 2 wards in Chivi and focussing primarily on hand pumps went on to cover other technologies such as piped water schemes. A meeting of the DDF Senior Water Division staff in Marondera resolved to try out CMB in at least one district in each province. CBM was then regarded as a pilot in which Village Pump Mechanics are trained and VIDCOs are equipped with basic maintenance skills. A major departure from this philosophy occurred in Lucky Dip Resettlement Scheme in Mutoko district. Here communities after training, were responsible for the rehabilitation of their water points (establishing water point regulations, setting and collecting user fees) and creating management structures for subsequent maintenance and water use.

In 1997, a documentation of lessons from the pilots was done. This covered areas where CBM was introduced for hand pump maintenance (Mutoko and Beitbridge) areas where CBM was for piped water supply maintenance (Mutoko), and areas where CCBM had been introduced by NGOs (Kwekwe by Plan International). The documentation resulted in the drafting of key guiding principles (see Box 16)

³ The washing to waste is a major shift away from a shared bowl method that was the practice in most households and at gatherings.

Box 16: CBM Principles.

1. Communities are responsible for the development, operation and maintenance of their own primary water supplies
2. DDF and support agencies hand-over existing and future water points to the community of users or their appropriate management structures
3. RDC is the custodian of water supply development process and will assist the less able communities or those in crisis
4. Operation and Maintenance cost shall be met by the community of users. Users pay principle shall apply.
5. Government and support agencies provide a basic service at full cost for communal facilities
6. For all higher levels of service community provides at cost

Source: Mudege, Chirisa, Chimucheka and Mawunganidze (1997)

The principles and the documentation process had a lot of support at the lower levels of DDF. However no concrete steps were taken to have the principles endorsed by either the NAC or DDF Directorate. In 1999 the NAC then discussed the principles and refined them for the consumption of all stakeholders. Proposals were drawn by Mount Darwin, Makoni, Nyanga and Nkayi to mention a few to introduce CBM in their districts.

3.3.3.7 Technology change

Promotion of appropriate, affordable technologies continued to be an area of focus for the water and sanitation sector. Of significance was the move towards the family as a management unit. The upgraded family well was the first step towards achieving this. The family well was the brainchild of Blair Research institute and as staff moved out of the Blair Institute into Mvuramanzi Trust the technology was further developed. The NAC was hesitant to adopt this technology as a technology of choice.

While the major focus for the NAC has been on the development of hand pump based water supplies, piped water schemes have also been developed especially by the DWD and DDF. The major challenge has been on the maintenance of the schemes. Most of the piped schemes that are currently being run by the DWD are not sustainable. With the coming in of ZINWA their continued survival is questionable. Evidence from areas like Shurugwi district point to a situation in which some piped water schemes are already collapsing.

4.0 BEYOND THE BORDERS

The Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme has had an influence that went beyond the borders of Zimbabwe. There are some positive things that have been copied to other countries in Africa and beyond. Among these is the concept of co-

ordination and internal networking. The Water Supply and Sanitation Collaborative Council recognised this potential and has drawn lessons from Zimbabwe for dissemination to other countries. The first country level collaboration workshop for East and Southern Africa was held in Mutare in recognition of Zimbabwe's own achievements in the area of country level collaboration. Both the National Co-ordinator and the chairman of the NAC have been on the Africa regional steering committees.

Regional initiatives on Participatory Health and Hygiene Education or alternatively PHAST have centred around the contribution of the Zimbabwean experiences. However, the Zimbabwe is learning from the interaction with regional professionals. Some expatriates who end up supporting the Zimbabwean counterparts have experience from other areas of the sub-Saharan region, further facilitating the flow of information and the sharing of experiences.

The challenge for the NAC is to remain active and ensure a sustainable programme.

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ANNEX 1: POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

The guiding sector policy is for a sustainable decentralized program in which water and sanitation facilities are made accessible to the poor in communal and resettlement areas. A national sector strategy has been developed and adopted by the NAC.

The strategy

General Objective

The overall objective of the sustainability strategy for the National Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Program is to ensure:

- program continuity and momentum
- that communities continue to enjoy program benefits and outputs

Institutional Arrangements

The existence of viable and effective institutions articulating issues, making decisions within an empowering legal framework is a fundamental basis for a sustainable program.

NAC AND NCU

The NAC, and its structures, has so far made immense contribution to management of the water and sanitation sector and its continued existence is critical to the sustainability of program momentum, outputs and benefits. NCU shall continue to be the secretariat to NAC, operating as an autonomous institution. However both the NAC and the NCU shall be reoriented to enhance their capacity in the light of the new challenges. In this respect an evaluation of the program shall be carried out to focus on:

- The institutional needs of both the NAC and NCU in the light of dwindling financial resources.
- The mandate of the NAC and subsequently the role of the NCU
- The institutional position of both the NAC and the NCU viz. the development structures of government
- Its financing mechanisms and responsibility over water and sanitation funds (donor and government) and
- The legal instrument necessary for the NAC to realize its mandate, among others

RDC

The ultimate responsibility for the provision of water and sanitation facilities rests with the Rural District Councils. To enable RDC to execute this task the NAC shall work closely with other Capacity Building initiatives to build the technical, financial and managerial capacity of the RDCs.

Sub-district structures

While the program recognizes developmental structures set by government (WADCO and VIDCO), the community shall determine any legal structures to follow for specific activities, which structures are backed by the RDC by-laws.

The water and sanitation program shall also establish a system to strengthen the management capacity of the local institutions (such as water point committees and health clubs) and to this end close collaboration with other RDC Capacity Building initiatives shall be formally established.

Program management

While the overall program management shall remain the responsibility of the National Action Committees, the project management rests with the Rural District Councils. National Action Committee through its sub-national subcommittees shall advise and facilitate the smooth running of the projects, with special emphasis on community empowerment and management.

The program realises monitoring and evaluation as one of the major handicap. In this regard, National Action Committee shall strengthen the existing system by building capacity in monitoring and evaluation and promotion of participatory evaluation at sub-national and community level. The program shall establish elsewhere a comprehensive sector database at the NCU, taking cognisance of similar initiative elsewhere.

Funding Mechanism

While National Action Committee continues to facilitate the mobilization of program resources, the ultimate responsibility for project financing shall rest with the local authorities, taping local resources with emphasis on cost sharing and boosting of local inputs so as to reduce the current high subsidy offered by the program. The possibility of establishing a revolving fund shall be explored, the modalities of which shall be worked out in the evaluation referred to. Subsidies shall be gradually phased out.

Where external funding is involved, government contractual agreements shall be adhered to. National Action Committee shall, as a matter of urgency, investigate alternative mechanisms for channelling of funds.

Technology

The objective of water and sanitation technologies, in terms of physical structures such as latrines and water points, is to provide affordable and appropriate technologies. To that end a qualifying criteria which takes into account community concerns and choices shall be developed emphasizing the implication of the various technologies on operation and maintenance. A system shall be developed to inform communities on the appropriateness of technologies in their areas. Furthermore, the NAC shall promote the research, development and promotion of lower and cheaper technologies (such as family

wells, low subsidy toilets). In all these cases the Council will provide legal support through enacting by-laws.

Sanitation

The sanitation component of the program shall be reactivated. To this end the program shall:

- Promote self reliance
- Take cognisance of ground water pollution possibilities when siting latrines
- Promote research to come up with affordable alternative latrine designs which use locally available material that will not compromise set quality and standards
- Decentralise project funds to RDCs and to speed up procurement
- Gradually decrease latrine subsidy to increase latrine coverage

Operation and Maintenance

The water and sanitation program has successfully managed to put physical infrastructure on the ground but the area of operation and maintenance remains a major weakness. To address the operation and maintenance problems the following shall be implemented:

- The community shall be responsible for operation and maintenance for both sanitary and water facilities.
- The user community shall be encouraged to establish O & M funds for spares and tools.
- The Rural District Council shall build the capacity of community both technical and managerial so that they are able to operate and maintain their facilities in a most effective and efficient manner.
- All water points belong to the user community.
- RDC shall formulate by-laws to legalize water point management committees at community level.
- Government, NGOs and the private sector shall continue to provide technical assistance to the Rural District Councils on O & M issues.
- NAC shall support the current efforts at establish CBM, while DDF reviews the 3-tier maintenance concept.

Community Mobilisation

Mobilisation approaches shall focus on giving the communities the necessary education, managerial and technical skills that empower them to be able to plan, implement, manage, operate and maintain their systems. In addition, the mobilisation strategy shall focus on community ownership of projects. Participatory approaches shall be enhanced.

Health and Hygiene

The current momentum on participatory methodologies should be maintained and intensified with emphasis on behavioural change. This shall be achieved by allocating more resources and skills development to all supporting institutions and making health and hygiene a programmed component of all water and sanitation projects. To ensure continued propagation of messages more women and school children shall be targeted and community initiatives shall be encouraged.

Human Resources Development

The Human Resources Development shall be focused on developing skills of the RDC and its lower tier structures to effectively manage projects. Strong emphasis on training should be placed on the lower structures, as these are responsible for community ownership and management of water and sanitation projects. To this end, the NAC shall liaise with other institutions to build financial, managerial and technical skills of the RDCs and their communities.

Gender

The existing institutions in the water and sanitation program shall be sensitised on gender issues particularly on those social and cultural beliefs that inhibit the involvement of both men and women in projects.

The program shall put in place mechanisms to address the equipping of both men and women with the necessary managerial and technical skills to ensure that water and sanitation projects continue bearing the intended benefits. The program shall have a bias towards the training of women.

Environment

All new and existing water and sanitation projects shall be subjected to Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) before approval. To this end NAC shall intensify training on EIA techniques at all levels.

The sector shall also embark on conservation measures before, during and after project completion. The RDCs shall be encouraged to enforce the by-laws. The Ministry of Mines, Environment and Tourism (Department of Natural Resources) shall be made active member of the NAC, as custodians of the environmental issues.

The problem of sustainability must be perceived as one that is of common and equal concern to all support agencies and communities. The realisation of this would foster the development of genuine partnership and will assist in unblocking obstacles standing between the goal of sustainable developments and its achievements.