Water, Sanitation and Schools: Exploring Policy and Good Governance Practices in Rural Primary Schools, Arua District-Uganda.

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This document represents part of the author's study programme while at the Institute of Social Studies. The views stated therein are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Institute.

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Dedication

To my wife Juliet and my children: Edgar, Salaam, Dedan and Elizabeth, who endured the absence of my fatherly love, as I was away for studies.

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List of Acronyms

ADNGON	Arua District NGO Network.
CAO	Chief Administrative Officer
CEFORD	Community Empowerment for Rural Development
CEGED	Centre for Governance and Economic Development
CEW-IT	Citizens Election Watch- using Information Technology
CEG	Central Government
CLTS	Community-led Total Sanitation
CBO	Community-Based Organisations
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DEO	District Education Office(r)
D/LG	District/ Local Government
DWO	District Water Office(r)
FY	Financial Year
LeaPPs	Learning for Practice and Policy in Hygiene and Sanitation in Primary Schools and Households.
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MoES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoWE	Ministry of Water and Environment
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
O&M	Operations and Management
PDF	Parent's Development Fund
PSR	Pupil's Stance Ratios
PTA	Parent Teachers' Association
RWH-Tank	Rain Water Harvesting Tank
School-WaSH	School Water Sanitation and Hygiene
SCWSCC	Sub County Water and Sanitation Coordination Committee
SFG	School Facility Grant
SMC	School Management Committee
SNV	Netherlands Development Organisation
UGX	Uganda Shillings
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UWASnet	Uganda Water and Sanitation NGO Network
VIP Latrine	Ventilated Improved Pit- Latrine

WaSH	Water Sanitation and Hygiene
WUC	Water User's Committee
Yodeo	Youth Development Organisation

Abstract

The study explores water and sanitation governance, management and practice issues in rural primary schools, Arua District. The issues and practices reflect and determine and shape children's access to safe water and sanitation. The study reflects on the role of school stakeholders such as: the SMCs, the PTA, the School Administration; the central government, the local government and the CSOs in '*good*' school-WaSH governance. The study used qualitative approaches. It thus adapted techniques such as; in-depth-interviews, document reviews and non-participant observations (for facility study). The study received views on water and sanitation governance issues from an array of stakeholders during a regional WaSH sector review and capacity development workshop conducted by UWASnet. The research findings show that government commitment and the will to embrace school-WaSH services delivery is improving. At community level, key governance aspects ('software issues') noted included; formation of water-user committees and payment of user-fees, maintenance of facilities, sensitisation on ownership among others. This showed a shift and improvement from the previously dominant focus was on infrastructure or *hardware*. However, much of the literature is either on water sanitation and very few treat the two concepts co-currently.

Community participation in school-based water facility management was rather low, shown by poor facility safety, protection and maintenance. The study found out that, pupils' participation in school-WaSH is increasing through child-led SHC; this is significant in shaping children' WaSH behaviour and management practices. The findings also show that, there is increasing investment in latrines and a few in water facilities. The district local governments' capacity to deliver WaSH services is inhibited by sole reliance on central government funding. The district funds less than 15% of its budget. The funding remains inadequate and often delayed. The district also lacks adequate staffing particularly at lower local governments. There are different reporting lines on community WaSH issues: one health, second education and third by community development departments, yet some issues remain cross-cutting. The CSOs are making significant contribution to the school-WaSH sub sector and have strengthened their working relations with the local government through joint coordination meetings, field monitoring visits and cross-learning.

Keywords

Water governance, management, children, pupils, school-WASH, rural primary schools, maintenance, district local government, central government, parents, and civil society organisations.

Chapter One: Background, Motivation and Research Design

1.1 Introduction

Globally over 1.2 billion people remain without safe water in the required quantities, lack adequate sanitation, 'instead, they practice open defecation: in the bush, the forest, by riverbanks and lakes, near train tracks and by the side of the road,' (Bongartz et al. 2010:19, 51); and 80% of illnesses are waterborne related accounting for the death of up to 1.8 billion children every year, Bongartz et al. (2010:19,51), Holmberg et al. (2012:304). Water and sanitation service delivery in many rural primary schools in Arua district fall below standards, MoES (Ministry of Education and Sports), MoES (2012). The standard requires in part: an accessible and safe water source within 0-1Km range; PSR (pupil-to-stance ratio)[1] of 40:1; provision of wash-rooms for girls; and hand washing facilities. There is also a growing debate that: 'despite continued national and international efforts, access to improved water and sanitation remains limited in many developing countries,' (Fink et al. 2011:1-2). Arua district's access to safe water stands at 78%, while latrine (sanitation) coverage remains at 65%[2].

1.2 Background and Motivation

School-WaSH (school water, sanitation and hygiene) facilities such as, boreholes, RWH (Rain water harvesting) and latrines have received little school management attention in terms of maintenance and operations, facility safety and sufficiency for pupils' use. Facilities costing millions of shillings have been put to waste, for instance frequent break downs, vandalism, damages or just left unrepaired, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:432). Scenes of dilapidated or filled-up latrine stances with overcrowded pupils are evident, Juuko et al. (2007:32-35). Male and female teachers and pupils commonly share latrines. During the dry season (summer) pupils are forced to loiter searching for drinking water during school time, as schools can hardly provide safe drinking water. These incidences seem to show weak governance: poor ownership and buy-in practices, thus increasing researchers urge to question, explore and inquire into the seemingly abandoned issue of 'good' school-WaSH governance in rural primary schools.

In Uganda, children have to struggle with several water related learning obstacles, for instance: collecting water from distant sources, cooking family meals, and cleaning the homestead before leaving for school. Carter et al. have

[1] PSR is the total number of pupils divided by total number of latrine doors or stances
[2] District water department Annual report, FY 2012/13

elaborated on the 'water and sanitation problems in developing countries' that include: distant water sources that sees loss of time and energy in the search for water; inadequate amounts of water for consumption; unreliable sources with faecal contamination that have high risk of water borne diseases; difficulties in affording reliable human waste disposal facilities such as latrines; lack of privacy for women and girls; and lack of water to enhance the necessary sanitary requirements, Carter et al. (1999:1). These reflect scope of the study discussed later.

1.3 Justification for the Study

Access to safe water, sanitation and environment is a human right, Assembly, UN. (1989). Water is used for human consumption, enhancing hygiene and sanitation, and preparing food among others, (Gleick 1996:2-4, Gleick 1998). Without accessible source of safe water, particularly in poor countries, families can spend long hours searching for alternative source of water, which affects children's school attendance, (Golooba-Mutebi 2012:432). Water has potential to make high impact contribution to realizing other MDGs (Millennium Development Goals), Franks et al. (2007:292). This study therefore contributes to strengthening the link between investments in school-WaSH infrastructure or *hardware* and the social component of education or the *software,* development of conceptual and theoretical framework to guide debate within the sector, Franks et al. (2007:291-292). Further, investments in school facilities costing millions of shillings have been made in a number of rural schools, (MoES 2012). Yet, the use of the facilities, its protection and maintenance are either neglected or given little attention. This study documents school-WaSH governance (management) practices, learning and innovative practices to school-WaSH constraints. Through this, it thus makes a contribution to the existing body of knowledge. It adds to stimulate (school) WaSH policy dialogue between DLG/LG (district/ local government) and the CSOs (civil society organisations) in the sub region. Thus it may add value to practitioners in the field in improving school-WaSH practices.

1.4 Statement of the Research Problem

Weak governance in the school-WaSH service delivery is limiting pupils' access to water and sanitation services in rural primary schools. Progress has made in expansion of learning facilities in primary school since the introduction of UPE (universal primary education) in 1997. This has resulted in improved pupils' learning space and teachers' wellbeing, MoES (2012). However, issues such as, poor school facility maintenance, failure by end-users to own (school) facilities, poor security and safety of the facilities, misuse of funds meant for water and sanitation, and inequitable distribution of resources, remain key constraining factors. Parents think, school facilities "belong" to the government

and therefore remains 'responsible' for its maintenance, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:441), Juuko et al. (2007). It is argued that the main constraints derailing access to safe water 'is not lack of technical solutions' or absence of natural water sources but rather 'dysfunctions' in the governance systems that include: 'inadequate institutions for maintenance,' (Holmberg et al. 2012:304-305).

1.5 Main Study Objectives and Questions

The objective of the study is to explore, describe and understand water and sanitation governance issues in rural primary schools in Arua district and how this influences school-WaSH service delivery. Broadly, the study seeks to explore the role of different school stakeholders in 'good' school-WaSH governance.

The study has three sub objectives:

i. To explore and analyse school-level water and sanitation management in rural primary schools.

ii. To review and understand the district local government's responsiveness in planning, budgeting and implementation of school-WaSH service delivery in the schools.

iii. To analyse and describe the role of non-governmental organisations in enhancing school-WaSH service delivery.

1.6 Main Research Question

What are the key dynamics in the governance of school-WaSH delivery in the rural primary schools in Arua district?

There are also three sub-questions:

i. What 'good' water and sanitation management practices can be found in the rural primary schools relating to the use and maintenance of school-WaSH facilities?

ii. What is the role and function of the district local government in school-WaSH service delivery?

iii. How do the CSOs influence and contribute to policy and practices changes in the school-WaSH service delivery in the district, and what lessons can be learned from these engagements?

1.7 Case Study Description

1.7.1 Scope and Area of Study

The study explores school-WaSH governance, specifically management practices of the end-users. It documents patterns of knowledge, and management practices relating to the study topic as suggested by Banda et al. (2007:1). School level issues, the role of the DLG, CSOs and the CEG (central government) are explored. The study was conducted in Arua district, one of the districts that stills struggles with full access to water and sanitation coverage. Detailed district profile is provided in appendix 1.

1.7.2 Selection of the Study Schools

This study selected 5 out of 283 schools for closer exploration of water governance related issues. These included; Ewava, Ayiova, Driwala, Etori and Nyio primary schools. The smaller number was dictated by time and resource limitations; besides the study findings are not generalised. The selection was purposefully done, based on: the researchers' knowledge and familiarity with the area; the ease of accessing the schools; the availability of the required information; and the knowledge of the local language. The field and desk study were conducted for five weeks, from July to August, 2013. The study also interviewed selected officers of the district LG staff; to establish priority issues in the school-WaSH planning, budgeting and implementation and related constraints.

1.8 Study Methodology, Research Techniques and Ethics

Qualitative methods of data collection and analysis were used. The selection of the method was based on its in-depth ability to generate data, O'Leary (2009:114). It was useful in summarising information collected from review of documents and interviews. Data collection techniques such as field and desk study were applied. In reviewing school-WaSH governance practices, the study was guided by the basic requirements and minimum standards, MoES (2002). A limited quantitative technique of data collection and analysis was applied in deriving meaning out of school profile for instance: pupils' enrolment, pupils-stance ration, proportion of district budget for education and amount of school resources mobilised for improving school-WaSH. This helped to enrich the quality and strength of qualitative data analysis. Comparisons in participant's responses were made after different interviews. Three main research techniques were used: in-depth interview, secondary document review and non-participant observation.

1.8.1 In-depth Interviews

In-depth interviews were used to extract responses from respondents relating to their views, experiences and perspectives on school-WaSH, Isham et al. (2002:667-691). The technique allowed clarification on issues encountered during document review; it proved flexible in asking a range of questions based on the situation and circumstances. Secondary visits or telephone calls were made to participants for additional information or clarification. In all, 5 head teachers, 14 teachers, 48 pupils, and 07 members of SMC (school management committee) and the PTA (parent teachers' association) were interviewed. Additionally, 05 district staff (03 technical staff and 02 political heads); 06 staffs from three members of the district CSO network were interviewed. An interview guide was developed for the various categories.

1.8.2 Secondary Data Analysis

Secondary data sources such as: printed and electronic data, previous research reports, scholarly journal articles and newspaper articles relating to the study topic were reviewed. These strengthened the conceptual and theoretical framework for the study and establish current debates on the subject and issues that needed further investigation. School plans, district reports and annual budgets were reviewed to establish school-WaSH issues in programing and budget allocations. Reports from nongovernmental organisations were reviewed to establish the roles of non-state actors.

1.8.3 Non-Participant Observation

This technique was used to study physical conditions of facilities such as latrines, boreholes, RHW tanks among others. An observation check-list was developed to ease its administration. The method proved useful in obtaining 'first hand' data, O'Leary (2009:95, 99). Second and unannounced visits were made to schools to minimize and narrow variation in the state of facilities between planned and unannounced visits as well as to clarify any pending issues in the previous visits.

1.8.4 WaSH Review Meeting and Radio Talk-Show

Initially this method was not planned. However, two important events took place during the study that provided relevant information for the study. First, a regional WaSH stakeholder review meeting was held, in which the researcher participated. It provided an opportunity to listen to the issues discussed, to speak to members of CSOs and the DLG staff to clarify any pending questions. Secondly, a live radio talk-show took place on a local FM station. The talk-show involved CSO-network staff and hosted DWO (district water officer(r)). It featured the state of water and sanitation in the district. Listeners

made calls asking questions. The researcher listened carefully to the talk-show, recorded and transcribed it to inform the district level findings.

1.8.5 Data Processing and Analysis

Good (water) governance was used as the main theoretical and conceptual framework to guide data analysis. Focus was put on identification of related themes, establishing trends and patterns, looking at relations and differences, and making comparisons, Miles et al. (1994:92). Therefore; 1) Raw data was organized; 2) meaning established per research questions; 3) interpreted; and 4) conclusions drawn, O'Leary (2009:256-257). Thus field notes were read through, recorded interviews transcribed, organised and summarized according to sub-topics and based on research questions; to derive meaning and to determine whether research questions were sufficiently answered.

1.8.6 Ethical Considerations, Risks and Limitations

Prior permission was sought from the CAO (chief administrative officer), facilitated by an introduction letter from ISS, before conducting any field study. The permission facilitated access to schools and district administrative data relevant for the study. To allay fears and concerns of revealing information, confidentiality guarantees[3] were put in place. Prior appointments (physical or by telephone) were made with responsible officers for conducting interviews and accessing official documents. Limitations such as poor information storage and retrieval, peak rainfall season in the region that worsened road conditions, delayed appointments, interruptions during interviews, funerals, absence of respondents affected data collection processes.

1.8.7 Organisation of the Study

The report is organised into six chapters. Chapter one provides the background and motivation for the study, the justification, main research questions and the research methodology used. Chapter two discusses relevant theories and reviews the related literature on the research problem. Chapter three discusses the school-level findings, while chapter four focuses on the role of the district in WaSH service delivery. Chapter five discusses the findings relating to CSO roles and finally chapter six provides reflections, summary and overall conclusion.

[3] Use of pseudo-names and purpose of the study-for academic use.

Chapter Two: Water and Sanitation Governance: The Conceptual and Theoretical Framework.

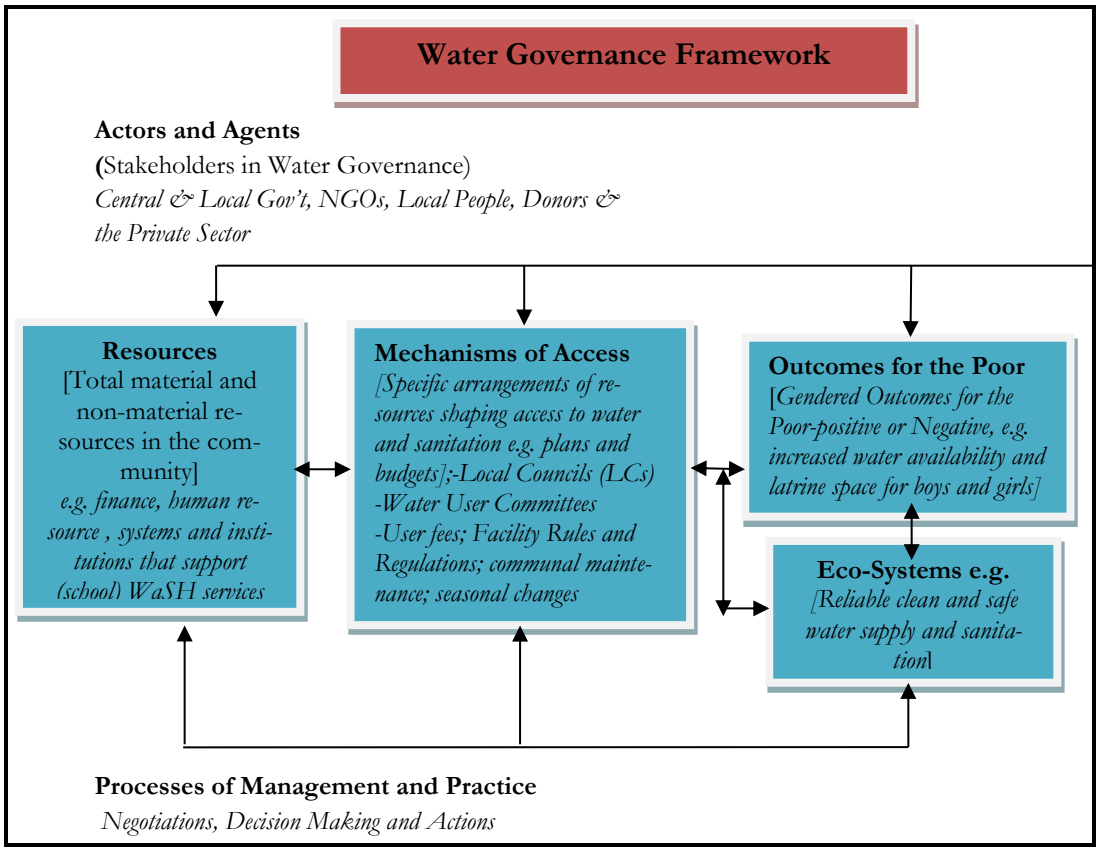
2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the theoretical grounding and practices relating to a 'good' school-WaSH governance model. It discusses the related concepts, and reviews the relevant literature on (school) WaSH governance. It draws interconnections and relationships between the concepts and actors in school-WaSH service delivery. The 'rural primary school' is the focus and centre of analysis while the pupils and the teachers form the unit of observation.

2.2 The School-WaSH Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is the 'current version of the researcher's map of the territory being investigated', it is important in outlining key variables in a study, it describes and shows the key relationships between variables and the type of data to be collected and analysed, Miles et al. (1994:17-20). Figure 1 below illustrates a water governance model this study adapted for its analysis.

Figure 1: School Water Governance Framework



Adapted from (Franks and Cleaver 2007:294, 299)

The model presents several actors in the water and sanitation sector, sector led by the EEG that is responsible for policy framework, legislation and funding. The DLG is responsible for implementing the national policy. It takes charge of 'planning, co-ordination, supervision and monitoring' while it enhances sector stakeholder participation through the 'district water and sanitation co-ordination committee meetings,' (Golooba-Mutebi 2012:434-435). Through this, regular progress reports and accountability for resources are made, and compliance to quality standards enforced.

The civil society is positioned to engage with local and central government bodies in policy advocacy and lobbying and influencing policy planning processes for improved school-WaSH services. They conduct information dissemination, awareness campaigns on safe water & sanitation practices, capacity development on effective school-WaSH service provision. They respond to unmet community needs through: meeting facility installation costs, enhancing sustainable use and capacity development of water users; while the private sector (contractors) add to the critically needed human resource and technology within the LG, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:437). CSOs have conducted monitoring of service delivery to report any breakages; and created platforms where leaders interface with grassroots population to resolve service gaps. In such, leaders are put to task to explain issues that demand accountability and transparency.

At school level, parents must maintain the facilities and show responsibility, through ownership practices, local initiatives and innovations to support school functioning that result in improved school learning environment including improved latrine stances for pupils, improved operations and maintenance and an overall reduction in water and sanitation related sicknesses. The expected result is improved safe water supplies and better learning spaces for pupils, Miles et al. (1994). These outcomes are difficult to measure, but important in attaining pupils' learning achievements.

2.3 Key Principles and Practices

2.3.1 'Good' School-WaSH Governance Principles and Practices.

Although several writers treat water and sanitation separately, in this study, the two concepts are treated as reinforcing one another. The theories that apply to water are assumed to apply to sanitation.

There are several contested meanings and competing theories of government and good governance. This study is concerned with governance and specifically 'water governance'. Franks has distinguished 'government' from 'governance'. While the former is used to mean state dominated functions such as control, enforcement and service delivery; the later (good-governance) goes beyond traditional state roles to include non-state actors. Its ingredients in-

clude accountability, transparency, responsiveness among other, Franks (2006:2-3). The ingredients of 'government' and 'governance' are often used to mean one another. This adapted the following definition;

> Governance is the process by which stakeholders articulate their interests, their input is absorbed, decisions are taken and implemented, and decision makers are held accountable, (Franks 2006:4)

The definition is seen as progressive, dynamic and flexible. It includes grassroots role that goes beyond the traditional theory of that makes governance as a preserve of the state. In light of water and sanitation service delivery, the definition is all-encompassing in that; it incorporates the views and needs of water users, actions based on users decisions are reached and includes elements of accountability of those responsible for water and service delivery.

The 'governance' issue in the delivery of clean water and sanitation service, has received little attention compared to infrastructure (*the 'hardware'* or *'cutting the tape'*), possibly due to the more visibility of the later. Banda et al, have argued that increasing investment in infrastructure alone, without building the capacity of the end-users to appreciate, own and operate the facilities is likely to be a waste, Banda et al. (2007:1127).

In Uganda, pressure on water resources, is increasingly leading to governance problems, brought about by capacity (human resource) constraints and a host of other related problems. As a result, many households have a limited access to clean water and sanitation. Therefore, improving institutional and management systems, application of multi-sectoral approaches (education, health, water and CSOs) to enable poor people access clean water and sanitation services is crucial. Capacity development and partnership building with other sectoral stakeholders offer better opportunities in water and sanitation service delivery. These potentials could be attained through good water governance practices.

2.3.2 The Concept of Water Governance

The study adapted definition of water governance by Frank and Cleaver as adapted from Rogers and Hall;

> The range of political, social, economic and administrative systems that are in place to develop and manage water resources, and the delivery of water services, at different levels of society, (Franks and Cleaver 2007:292)

This definition goes beyond the conservative role of water engineers confined to water resources management. Water is a resource that is competitive, requires proper governance procedures for its allocation and sustainable use. Some elements of 'good governance' theory are selectively used and ap-

plied to inform the conceptualization of the study, as water and sanitation falls within the broader framework of governance mandate.

Moriarty et al have provided five basic principles of water governance that are useful in conceptualizing local water governance issues: 1) Openness and transparency in water policy decisions and resource use; 2) Inclusive and communicative that takes into account participation of and dialogue with users at all levels; 3) Coherent and integrative approach that lays emphasis on the role of political leadership and water institutions; 4) equitable and ethical consideration with inclusion of the poor women while actions taken on the corrupt; and 5) accountable and efficient water service delivery; and being responsive and sustainable in water service delivery, Moriarty et al. (2007:24). These are important benchmarks, although it is not clear how they can be reached in action. The principles also highlight World Bank definition of good governance with elements such as: 'greater transparency, efficiency and accountability, institutional capability…' in service delivery, Kjaer (2004:172-173). A more adaptive principle to LG is given below;

Figure 2: The Seven Principles for Local Water Governance

1. Local water governance should be based upon the integrated participation of all stakeholders and end-users at all levels
2. Local water governance requires that special efforts are made to include vulnerable groups.
3. Locally appropriate solutions and tools should be developed through the use of participatory research and action.
4. Capacities of stakeholders should be developed at different levels to enable them to participate in water resource planning and management.
5. Water information should be considered a public good; and access to information be enabled for all citizens
6. Awareness must be developed for informed participation in water governance
7. The efforts of all actors (government, partners in development, civil society) should be harmonised and contribute to achieving agreed and locally owned visions and strategies.

Adapted from Moriarty et al. (2007:33)

The study finds these principles both relevant and applicable in the management of rural water service delivery. Emphasis on developing, strengthening and institutional functioning of WUCs (water-user committees); training and capacity development; payment of user fees among others are preferred model for enhancing high impact results. It enables institutional capacity development and functioning rather than relying on individuals.

A study conducted in Sri Lanka and India shows contrasting models of 'good' and less successful water governance. Issues such as: government effectiveness in formulation of sound policies and its and implementation; a bureaucracy free of corruption; citizens' 'voice and accountability'; citizen participation in decision making and monitoring elected leaders, form key principles

in improved governance and service delivery, Holmberg et al. (2012:15-17). It is further argued that;

> Access to water is clearly related to government effectiveness as well as control of corruption. High government effectiveness and low corruption are related to good QoW for humans. However, good water quality is also strongly related to economic development and democracy. Rich and democratic countries tend to have better water for humans than poor and autocratic countries, (Holmberg et al)[4].

Funding constraints, lack of logistics and poor technology, weak community involvement in facility construction, low support from sub county extension staff, low sense of community responsibility and weaknesses in sector coordination are said to be key constraints in providing clean water and sanitation services in Uganda, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:438). As Moriarty et al suggest, capacity development of school management, training in planning and budgeting, has potential to provide institutional strengthening, Moriarty et al. (2007:33).

Further studies have shown that, rural water and sanitation service delivery models that work based on an established community management system, have yielded results that are more sustainable and owned by the community; and that effective water governance at community levels, through a systematically programmed community WaSH actions that integrate operations and management issues; a planned and regulated user-fee management that is fully accounted for, have a positive impact in community participation in local water resources management. There is also potential for reduction in water related sicknesses and time saved for other activities; and thus translates to improved access to clean water, Isham et al. (2002). Experience and practice shows that, this is significant; better access to water saves time wastage that can be used on other productive work for example for pupils to study.

In contrast, non-involvement of the community, failure by the LG (local government) to take charge of monitoring and supervision and community mobilization are said to result in poor service delivery; this is manifested in breakdowns and non-repair of facilities, dishonesty from the local development agency, Isham et al. (2002). Also, effective monitoring of social service delivery, including participation by end users is one sustainable way of keeping utilities operational. During such, issues are identified, responsibility centres determined and solutions are jointly sought. 'Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms in Uganda have been a model of good practice in Africa with Joint Sector Reviews having been held since 2000' (UNICEF 2011:2).

Further, strengthening LG and CSO partnership is seen as key in delivering improved water and sanitation services to the community. LGs cannot af-

[4] QoW refers to Quality of Water

ford to reach every community but rather strengthen its cooperation with civil society and the private sector, Allison (2002:1, 3). This body of argument highlights the fact that, joint CSO and LG monitoring of WaSH service delivery plays a crucial role. It is further observed that joint stakeholder working in thematic groups and quality performance reports enhance 'access to water and sanitation; functionality; equity; and value for money,' (UNICEF 2011:2). The demand for services by the community motivates their participation and contributions; and that sustaining community efforts works best if established local institutions are kept effectively, operational and governed by their own rules of accountability and transparency.

2.3.3 Dublin Principles on Water Governance

Principles highlight the importance of participatory approaches that involves beneficiary community, implementation team for example the district LG. The principles thus: provide for water development and management based on a participatory approach, involving users, planners and policymakers at all levels; and inclusion of women who play a central part in the provision, management and safeguarding of water Moriarty et al. (2007). For the rural based water services in the district, this implies end-users taking responsibility, their participation in problem identification and seeking solution to local water problems. Joint decision making and actions are vital elements and suitable in water resources management. Holmberg et al, reinforce this argument by suggesting, that good water governance enhances access to safe water, and that there is a correlation between good governance and environment protection (water and sanitation); while bad water governance leads to poor access to safe water which impedes 'human wellbeing and people' health'. They therefore suggest that, government must support community water management institutions such as WUCs 'to enforce accountability' between WUCs and the water-users, Holmberg et al (2012:303-305)

2.4 Benefits of a Good School-WaSH Governance Practices

Available literature shows that, access to water and sanitation comes with immense results. Yet, effects of water and sanitation related diseases have caused 'a major impact on school attendance,' while it estimated that, '273,000 days of school attendance per year would be gained' with improved sanitation services, Bongartz et al. (2010:28). Fink et al have argued that investments in safe water and sanitation come with immense benefits for children; for example, reduction in water borne diseases, and better health outcomes Fink et al. (2011:8). Phaswana-Mafuya et al have shown that 'regular water supply, provision of sanitation facilities, stakeholder participation and improvement of consumer sanitation knowledge are factors which can motivate people to adopt safe hygienic practices' Phaswana-Mafuya et al. (2005:1).

Therefore lack of adherence to hygiene standards (in school) has the danger of putting pupils' lives at risk of preventable diseases. In another study, Amedon argues for educated and the elites to lead by example in showing good hygiene and sanitation practices in the community through 'hand washing'. He calls for taking responsibility in sanitation and hygiene, and making use of locally appropriate and sustainable solutions. He concludes that; 'unhygienic practices affect quality of life' (Amedon 2005:3). Kalyan Banda et al, conclude that, introduction of hand washing facilities in schools at an early age could lead to 'long term behavioural change' and prevention of water related diseases, Banda et al. (2007:1128)

Further, a school based water and sanitation research project in Kisumu, Kenya shows that: acquisition of good 'health and hygiene practices' by pupils while in school can positively be used to influence similar practices by their parents and the community; that good hygiene/health practices acquired by pupils are transferred among fellow pupils; and that improvement of school-WaSH facilities including those targeting girls, getting pupils involved through building their leadership roles through club related activities can build their sense of responsibility and links to improving pupils' learning achievements. Therefore, good school-WaSH policies and practices has outcomes such as '…educational and health benefits of providing cost-effective WaSH facilities in schools…' it helps to keep children in school. For instance, girls are more likely to be in school with provision of better latrines and other sanitary facilities, Freeman et al. (2012:380-382), Bongartz et al. (2010:37). These arguments point to important policy and practice implications for WaSH service delivery. It follows that facilities such as separate and adequate latrines for girls and boys, installation of water facilities, washrooms and counselling rooms are critical for pupils particularly girls to keep in school.

2.5 The Importance of Ownership and Participation

The importance of end-users "taking-the-lead" in a development program cannot be overstated. It is argued that interventions targeting a community without involving them yields low results. Investments in WaSH facilities are less worthy if end-user is not ready to own and use it, Banda et al. (2007:1127). Participation and involvement creates feeling of 'ownership'. This is clearly emphasized by Chambers et al in CLTS (community-led total sanitation) programming, Bongartz et al. (2010:42-43); end-users do not want to miss-out on something for which they have 'sweated' for. Local governments are obliged to provide every platform that enhance community participation through needs identification, planning and implementation processes, Enzama (2008:18). In addition, community cash or in-kind contributions, supervision and monitoring are among the elements that characterize community buy-in.

Sustainable development practice 'calls for a joint effort by community members and government staff in service design, coordination, and construction, monitoring and follow-up and in O&M (operations and maintenance), Isham et al. (2002), Bongartz et al. (2010:53). Although Uganda's LG service delivery model puts emphasis on community participation, the current SFG (school facility grant) system is detached from Jonathan's argument. Facility construction works are nearly 100% contract based and community's participation is minimal with little feeling of ownership. Thus efforts should be directed at 'ensuring that participation is genuinely representative, and that key groups are not excluded, and that participatory process is allowed to impact on decisions, Moriarty et al. (2007:19).

Whereas this argument makes sense, community in practice fail to participate for various reasons: poor programming; social issues, the mind-set that "government-does-it-all" and failure to value education. Hence, over reliance (assumption) on the strength of community participation are many times frustrating, can produce mixed results, than positively anticipated for. This assumption thus needs re-examination. The socio-economic circumstances of the community must be properly assessed before total reliance. Weaknesses within participation in water related interventions such as malfunction of WUCs, poor collection and payment user-fees, claims of poverty, collections only limited to times of breakdown, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:439).

Mixed and contradictory messages to the community on service delivery obligations, access to alternative water sources with no payment obligations, poor management and accountability for funds collected by WUCs, have reduced community participation. Many WUCs have weak knowledge of their roles, seemingly due to lack of training, a role which the DLG is supposed to undertake. This role is limited by financial and logistical constraints, the urge for remuneration by WUC members, conflicts over enforcement of water point rules and regulations as well as over-stay in office, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:439).

2.6 Civil Society Role in WaSH Sector in the District

The current trend of CSO work has moved from direct service delivery in 1990s to include policy advocacy, influencing policy processes and monitoring public service delivery. Globally and within local governments, there is a growing influence of CSOs through networks, partnerships and movements. CSOs have called on governments and multilateral organisations to show transparency and social accountability; CSOs have pressed governments to demonstrate and exercise good governance in their operations, Kjaer (2004:183-187). Lessons and experiences from Bongartz et al show the tremendous impact CSO-government collaboration can make in improving water and sanitation sector,

Bongartz et al. (2010). However, whether, CSOs are accountable themselves, or have the mandate to 'represent community interests' is questionable. The study explores and analyses the specific roles played by selected CSOs and CSO-networks in the district in improving rural school-WaSH service delivery.

2.7 Preliminary Conclusion

The chapter has discussed good water governance practices. It highlighted the importance of accountability and transparency; responsiveness to community needs; and putting in place mechanisms for community participation. At local levels, interface between LGs and CSOs is unfolding as a better model of water and sanitation service delivery. It discussed CSO roles and showed that there is a growing contribution through policy advocacy, influencing policy processes and monitoring public service delivery, networks and partnership building in water and sanitation service delivery.

Chapter Three: Findings in School-WaSH Governance and Management Practices

3.1 Introduction

The first research question focused on school level management practices and experiences in school-WaSH facilities in the rural primary schools. This included the role of SMCs and school administration, how the bodies mobilize resources locally to put in place school-WaSH facilities. It also looked at pupils' and teachers' practices relating to sanitation facility use and management. This chapter presents the findings on experiences and practices of the school stakeholders.

3.2 The General State of School-WaSH Facilities

Each of the five schools was visited twice. The first being the initial visit, the second being a follow up visit. The findings showed that, at least every school had a five-stance VIP-latrine (ventilated improved pit latrine). The latrines were constructed by the DLG with funding from the CEG in the last 3-5 years. In addition, each school had at least one 5000-6000 litre RWH tank either from UNICEF or the DLG through SFG program or NGO support. All the schools had least six permanent housing units with permanent latrines for the teaching staff. Pupils' enrolments were very high compared to the available water and sanitation facilities, leading to congestion in facility use. Table 1 below shows pupil enrolment in all the rural primary schools in the district.

Table 1: Arua District Pupils Enrolment, 2013

P.1		**P.2**	**P.3**			**P.4**		
B	**G**	**B**	**G**	**B**	**G**	**B**	**G**	
34,461	35,211	20,147	20,391	18,356	18,356	17,194	15,914	
P.5		**P.6**		**P.7**		**Sub Total**		**G/Total**
B	**G**	**B**	**G**	**B**	**G**	**B**	**G**	
13,301	15,640	8,556	7,691	5,534	3,504	120,110	116,106	238,124

Source: EMIS Arua District

As of 2012, the national PSR stood at 58:1, compared to the desired PSR of 40:1. Many schools were reportedly operating with PSR of 100:1 or more, an undesirable situation, MoES (2012).

Data from the district EMIS report[5] 2013 indicated that, a total of 2,080 latrine stance (1,415 permanent or concrete floor) and 655 semi-permanent or mud floor stances) were available, against total pupil enrolment of 238,124 giving PSR of 116:1; indicating that, at the time of data collection, the district PSR was three times as high as the national standard. There were 323 urinal shelters for boys, meaning a school on average had one urinary shelter for boys. The findings are close to MISR's (Makerere Institute of Social Research) 2008 report for the district that had PSR of 140; described as 'desperate', and worst for female pupils, with mud floors, and 'demotivating' to pupils, MISR (2008). The implication is that pupils are learning under unsafe and congested environment, with potential for disease outbreaks.

Table 2: Showing Pupils Enrolment, Latrine Stances in the Five Study Schools.

School	Boys	Girls	Total	No. of Stances			PSR
				Boys	Girls	Total	
Ewava	496	548	1,044	13	8	21	1:50
Ayiova	461	531	992	3	5	8	1:124
Driwala	488	544	1,032	5	5	10	1:103
Etori	648	626	1,274	5	5	10	1:127
Nyio	533	585	1,118	8	8	16	1:70
	2,626	2,834	5460	34	31	65	1:84

Source: Author's own construct

The table shows that, PSR for boys is 77:1 while PSR for girls is 91:1. This is double the standard required PSR of 40:1. The highest PSR was 127:1 found at Etori PS, while the lowest PSR was 50:1, found at Ewava PS. Although Ewava PS had the lowest PSR, and eight stances each for both boys and girls, the structures were semi-permanent, and the latrines lacked doors, an issue that particularly affected girls most. The average PSR for both boys and girls was 84:1. This meant that, access to latrine facilities for pupils in all the five schools remained insufficient, congested and below the required standard.

With girls having high PSR (91:10 compared to boys (77:1), it is obvious that girls are worse affected, congested, and more likely to delay in easing themselves than boys, yet, girls need more spacious sanitary facilities than boys. This could impact negatively in the girls' safe-stay at school as adolescent girls need more safety, as Bongartz et al have put it 'Lack of a private and safe space is even more of a problem during menstruation'; and that 'Girls may not be allowed to attend school (or choose not to go) if there is no toilet or no separate and clean facility for them,' (Bongartz et al. 2010). This calls for district's policy review towards a gendered development planning and prioritisation including special program for girls and deliberate expansion of school-WaSH facilities.

[5] EMIS is education management information system.

Regarding teachers' latrine, Etori and Nyio PS provided separate latrine-stances for female teachers while in the rest of the schools, female and male teachers shared latrines, were using part of pupils' latrine blocks or private latrines in the staff residences. This mix up raised privacy concerns among teachers; it had potential of breeding indiscipline and disrespect for teachers among the pupils. However, the administration responded that, its hands remained financially tied. Thus attaining the required operational standards in terms of water and sanitation provision remains an uphill task to achieve for many rural schools. It requires multi-stakeholder engagement: donors, government, civil society and the private sector.

3.3 Functionality of Water Sources and Storage of Drinking Water.

The main types of water sources observed were: boreholes (majority); protected wells and springs; and shallow wells, *see for instance* MISR (2008). A number of schools had some good practices of enabling pupils access to water and sanitation as Bongartz et al have observed that, 'community-led approaches to sanitation have been demonstrated to rapidly improve sanitation,' (Bongartz et al. 2010:20). Etori PS (primary school) had a good innovative practice of rainwater harvesting system, where facilities are installed on the compound and adequately protected. While Nyio PS had plans to acquire a 200 litre-drum, so as to store water for pupils. Good and worse (worse-off) case scenarios of school-WaSH facilities appear in Pictures 1&2 below;

Picture 1: Good Case of School-WaSH Facility Provision

Rainwater Harvesting at Driwala PS; a sustainable Water Source for Schools in the district. Pupils and Teachers are able to access safer water in less time.

Pupils accessing a hand washing facility after visiting toilet at Driwala PS. Pupils are able to learn good WaSH practices and gain better attitudes.

Picture 2: Worst Case of School-WaSH Facility Provision

A latrine for all pupils at Lionga PS, adolescent girls are likely to face privacy constraints and drop out. Source: MISR Report, 2008

Inside of an abandoned 500 litre hand-washing tank at Etori PS: abandoned facilities are a common site in most schools, an indication of poor O&M practices.

No school visited had access to pipe or tape water, as piped water seemed to be limited to urban and few peri-urban areas. The cost factor was the key reason, meaning that rural schools could not afford the cost of extending piped water, let alone footing the utility bills. It also was observed that schools shared water sources such as boreholes with the neighbouring community. This was good in building school-community relations. But in some instances, this created some conflicts over water use. Some community members seemed inactive on school WUCs, making the committees non-functional.

The community around the school want to fetch water from school borehole, but they are not prepared to clean around it, pay user-fee for its maintenance and repair works (interview with head teacher, Driwala PS, dated 23rd July, 2013)

The interviews also revealed that, WUC meetings were not held, cash collected for managing water sources were poorly accounted for, and community responsibility in maintaining water sources were neglected, *see for example* Golooba-Mutebi (2012:439). In Ewava PS, it was reported that, surrounding community failed to contribute for maintenance, saying the 'the borehole 'belongs' to the school'. This kind of perception was partly blamed on the government in its (political) messages for instance saying that, UPE is 'free' hence the community tend to take that every facility is free and government takes responsibility for care and safety. In policy and practice however, this is not the case as parents have to partly foot some school expenses including water and sanitation services.

Increasing water and sanitation awareness creation through pupils has potential for immediate and long term results. For instance, Bongartz et al argue that, CLTS provides 'new opportunities for their engagement in community development,' (Bongartz et al. 2010:37). Interviews with pupils revealed that, their water and sanitation preferences focused on: acquisition of safe containers

such as buckets and drums for storage of drinking water; pupils' water be kept separate from the teachers; providing pupils (boys and girls) with adequate latrine stances; and put in place water and hand washing facilities. All the schools reported having adequate drinking water for pupils, a point verified by the pupils during interview. This indicated better water security. It was also reported that availability of water reduced substantially in the dry season particularly due to reduction in borehole yields and a period of sustained drought that results in water scarcity. Discussion with teachers showed that, this did not substantially affect pupils' school attendance as earlier envisaged.

As regards storage of drinking water for pupils and teachers, it was observed that, all the schools had at least one method of keeping water: jericans, pots and buckets were used. The management of safe water chain looked compromised, as pupils would dip the already used cups with dirty hands into the pots or buckets. The drinking water storage containers seemed insufficient in size to store water for 1,000-1,200 pupils. This did not however deter the will to make water available;

We try our best to make sure there is available water for all pupils during school time. Duty teachers and prefects are in charge. The only challenge is that, our containers are insufficient and water sometimes gets scarce during dry seasons as borehole yield goes down, (an interview with deputy head teacher, Nyio P/S dated 26th July, 2013).

Discussions with head teachers indicated that shortage of containers for drinking water often forced pupils to drink water directly from the source. Such practices should not be encouraged, as these are often dirty and contaminated from upstream by human faeces, washing clothes, animal waste and other human activities. Treatment of drinking water for pupils was not reported as water sources were often assumed to be 'safe'.

3.4 Access to Hand-Washing Facilities and the Practice of Hand-Washing with Soap

The practice of hand washing with soap and access to hand washing facilities are an important aspect of hygiene and sanitation, Bongartz et al. (2010:10). When pupils are introduced to this practice at an early age, it has an enormous benefit. All the schools visited acknowledged the importance of the above. It was observed that, every school attempted to place facilities on the school compound or near the latrines. However, the hand-washing tanks only numbered 2-3, which apparently looked insufficient for the whole pupil population and teachers. This was close to district EMIS data, 2013 that indicated a total of 721 hand washing facilities in 283 schools, (three per school), Arua (2013). Almost all the hand washing facilities were not functional due to non-availability; for instance, MISR Report, 2008 found that lack of water, made several hand washing facilities non-functional; and that most children do not

wash their hands after latrine use MISR (2008). Further, in a number of schools, tanks and drums installed for hand washing in schools were damaged and full of waste matter, indicating either negligence or lack of attention paid to the safety of the facilities, a situation described by Banda et al, as facilities not seeming meeting community interest,(Banda et al. 2007:1127). Cases in point included Driwala and Etori primary

Nyio PS had plans to put in place a hand-washing tank for girls' latrine as girls feared to share the only tank, which was situated near the boys' latrine. There was however no concrete step in place to realise this. Schools used platforms such as morning assemblies, departmental meetings, duty teachers' weekly health parade, and classroom lessons to pass messages on the importance of hand washing with soap. Good practices such as use of soap (detergents and liquid soaps) to encourage pupils to wash their hands after toilet use were noted, particularly in Driwala, Ayiova and Etori primary schools. These were supplemented by compound messages (compound talk) such as:

'Don't defecate in the open'; 'use latrines'; 'don't drink unclean water from the river, boil it first before you drink to avoid cholera and typhoid'.

The messages were targeted at encouraging safe sanitation and hygiene practices among the pupils. These practices were however often limited by financial constraints and theft of such items (soap and detergents) as the schools are open without any fencing. This seemed to indicate a 'free-riding' attitude propelled by the "free" supposed primary education.

3.5 Maintenance and Repair of school-WaSH Facilities

The study found that, most of the facilities were shared with the neighbouring community and the general public (passer-bys). As a result, careless use, break downs were common. An interview with head teacher at Ewava PS revealed that a borehole in the school that broke down, took two months to get fixed. Review of school plans revealed that only two out of five schools included WaSH issues in their three-year development plan. This is mainly indicated as 'sinking of new latrine' either for teachers or pupils. Issues such as water and maintenance of facilities were not seen in many of the school plans. This determined prioritisation of funding for repairs and maintenance works in schools.

Further, discussion with head teachers and SMCs revealed that, only one school had sub-committee for O&M. This committee is responsible for overseeing the use and maintenance of all school facilities. Few schools took initiative to fix water facilities using PDF (parents' development fund)

and part of UPE grants; save for Driwala PS that installed two tanks (6000 litres each). This provided a better water source for pupils and teachers. In the other four schools visited, maintenance of water facilities was poorly done particularly RWH tanks. Frank and Cleaver have shown that, it is difficult to sustainably use and maintain facility with little or no user community interest and that it is harder to 'change from "free" water to some system of cash payment,' (Franks et al. 2007:294). Smaller and bigger RWH tanks were put to waste, just because fewer and less costly spare parts were not bought and these are expected from the district.

'We were not taught how to clean the tank and the gutters by the contractor; we have less power to make water problem a priority since it's installed by government and NGOs, (an interview with Deputy Head Teacher, Etori PS dated 25th July, 2013).

Yet, it was obvious that, this could only take a personal initiative to clean and fix the broken facilities. Another facility (a borehole in Driwala PS), looked dirty and bushy, indicating that, water user committees were either not functional or the community did not pay adequate attention to the maintenance of water facility. Similarly, pupils had no option but to drink running water considered unsafe from the nearby stream once the borehole broke down.

3.6 Financing for School-WaSH

The main source of funding for school-WaSH services, (repairs and maintenance) are UPE grants and PDF collections. It was established that schools voted money out of UPE grants for conducting repairs and maintenance. However UPE grants were reportedly meagre and often delayed. It also requires prior approval by the DEO (district education office(r)). What the schools did was to prioritise and do a phased maintenance works. From the discussion with head teachers and SMCs, it was reported that very few parents paid PDF. For example, in Ayiova and Ewava PS, total PDF collections for 2013 with over 1,000 pupils did not exceed UGX (Uganda Shillings)100,000[6] out of the expected UGX. 1,000,000.

All the school committee members agreed that sensitizing the community on the importance of drinking clean and safe water, payment of user-fees, protecting water sources from being vandalized, making monthly contributions to undertake repairs and making sure the surrounding environment of water sources are kept clean, were important. This reflects the importance financing water governance, as Moriarty et al have put it, 'proper financing is essential,' (Moriarty et al. 2007). It also reflects the importance of community engagement through expanding awareness raising programs in schools and community.

[6] 1 Euro= UGX 3430 at the time

Such engagement has the potential of making citizens part of local water policy and decision processes. A practice of two institutions cooperating in joint management of water services was seen at Nyio PS where the church teamed up with the school to conduct repairs and maintenance a borehole, a practice that is worth emulating. The head teacher of the school showed exemplary leadership in the management of school water services during this interview;

> *I will be there to collect the money and get their names; we will unite with the church to manage the water and decide how much each will pay. We had the will from the community but died. The attitude needs to change, to better manage our water facility,* (an interview with Ms Rita Maturu, Head Teacher, Nyio PS, dated 30th July, 2013)

In a few schools like Ayiova, teachers took personal initiative to regularly clean the RWH tanks and gutters, an indication of good ownership. Etori PS planned to hire a school nurse, who together with health teachers are expected to stimulate hygiene and sanitation practice in the school.

One key difficulty experienced by the schools in WaSH services management was poor soil texture. This mainly affected schools located in sandy areas that collapse more easily. It was apparent that many of the communities used low-cost technology, where a pit is sunk and a house constructed over it, rather than lining with concrete wall. The collapsing of pits particularly during rain seasons has increased the management cost and constrained the sinking of pit latrines, as latrines collapsed a few years after sinking.

> *An innovative solution was put in place by parents in which, a pit latrine measuring 11 meters is partitioned into smaller pits of 2 metres separated by a portion of one metre left undug that stabilises the soil. A house is then constructed on the overall pit length.* (Interview with Head Teacher Ewava PS, dated 16th July, 2013)

This signals the importance of innovation, through use of local skills and resources that are less costly, for 'sustainable solutions,' (Banda et al. 2007:1129, Moriarty et al. 2007:31). The innovation in Ewava PS helped to save costs and kept the school running, unlike in many other schools where the collapse of latrines in many cases leads to closure of schools. This is an innovation worth developing and replicating.

Training and capacity building of SMCs and PTAs is an important indicator of school-WaSH governance. From the discussions and interviews held, training and capacity development in school-WaSH management seem to attract little attention, and was attributed to 'lack of funding' similar to the findings of, Golooba-Mutebi (2012) Yet, this is a crucial element for better management performance. It clarifies roles, makes tasks clear and motivates duty holders to perform better. It is argued that, community participation is important for sustainable (continued) water resource use. It requires capacity development to own facilities 'education in health and hygiene, training in maintenance and the handling of cash, and involvement of women in commu-

nity institutions and decision-making, are key activities which are needed to create 'local-capacity to manage,' (Carter et al. 1999:295)

Although the district claimed to have trained all SMCs and PTAs, discussion with the school management bodies revealed that they did not receive any tailor-made or specific training in school-WaSH management. Water and sanitation issues are commonly lumped as 'school facilities'. For instance, a study conducted by CEW-IT[7], in West Nile found that 54% of the WUCs and school authorities did not receive any training in water source management. As a result, management of water user fees, environment and water safety was found to be at stake and compromised, Citizens Election Watch (2012). It appeared that, water and sanitation issues take precedence only when disaster occurs for example, collapse and break down of latrines among others.

3.7 Safety of School-WaSH Facilities, Access and Functionality

In all five schools, water facilities were functional, less congested and found within a distance of 0.5-1km as required by MoES' institutional standards. This enabled pupils to have reliable access to safe water. Some head teachers' notice boards even carried messages such as '*Keep Water Sources Clean",* although these did not correspond to the physical conditions of their own water facilities. The efficiency of (water) facilities varied from one school to another. Observations from Ayiova and Ewava PS, showed that, the yield from the nearby shallow-well and borehole were poor.

There were several facility safety issues in schools under study. First, no evidence was in place to show the DEO or DWO[8] conducted deliberate water quality testing, or inspection of water quality and sanitation facilities in the schools in the last six months or so. Secondly, Ayiova, PS reported conflict over ownership of the land on which the borehole is sited after a local resident near the school, claimed ownership of the piece of land. Third, a latrine was dug on the upper side of the borehole less than 50 meters, contrary to MoWE Ministry of Water and Environment) regulations. This led the growing concern that, this was likely to affect water quality, yet over 1,200 pupils relied on the source. It has been argued that that, community powerlessness over 'land rights' constraints their efforts to access clean water, Holmberg et al (2012:303-305). Nothing yet had been done at the time of the study to fix this concern. Finally, all the schools visited had no protection mechanism for their premises:

[7] CEW-IT is Citizens Watch-Information Technology, a national coalition of CSOs in social accountability.

[8] DWO liaises with DEO's office to conduct school quality water testing.

the schools lacked fencing, failed to recruit guards, and the facilities were left exposed to the public. In addition, nearly all schools had trespasses/paths on the school compound. Thus, facilities such as water taps and RWH tanks were in many cases vandalised.

Every water point must have WUCs, a body set-up to over-see the management of a water-point. Its functionality is measured by the number of water-point meetings held, payment of water user fees and the number of households actively supporting the water source. The water-user fees are used for meeting cost of spare parts, technical fee charges by pump mechanics. In all the schools, WUCs were formed but the committees were virtually non-functional. In Driwala PS, the head teacher did not have a slight idea of how the WUCs function, how the fees is collected and utilized. Yet, the borehole is a key source of water for the school.

In some schools, WUC meetings were called but not well attended; as a result, cleaning around water sources remained poorly done. It was acknowledged that, the monthly water user fees of UGX 1,000 were acceptable and affordable, but, this remained poorly paid and in many cases not properly accounted for. This is when for example Carter cautions on over reliance on community participation as 'modernization' has weakened the traditional structures that motivated community participation; and the bureaucratic government systems that fail to adapt and respond to the changing needs of the community, (Carter et al. 1999:295)

With exception of Ayiova PS, cases of vandalizing latrine doors were common. In Ewava primary school alone, three out of five door shutters for girls' latrine were vandalized, while all the eight doors of boys' latrine in the same school had no door shutters. In Etori PS, more than half of door-shutters for boys' and girls' latrines were also vandalized. When head teachers were tasked to explain this scenario (of theft and vandalism), they attributed it to: open public access and trespass on the school compound; and the public's practice of wanting to use the facilities without due regard. This is what some theorists term as 'free rider' problem in developing countries particularly when access to a public service is free at the point of delivery. While services should be delivered fairly and freely to the poor rural pupils and schools, the issue of responsibility for minor maintenance, its funding and governance remain in dilemma. Certainly, no government wants to create dependency but rather, provide conditions to let people live independent life. User responsibility counts and is important for safe and sustainable facility use. Such laxity is partly attributed to mixed and contradictory messages sent by politicians and technocrats on the user's obligations to pay, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:439).

Poor income levels in the community, lack of value for education in the community, and lack of funds to recruit school guards were pointed as a cause of insecurity. Also, land conflict with some community members and destruction by animals that freely roam on the school compound, animals sharing wa-

ter sources with the population, termite infestation added to the insecurity of school facilities. In Ewava PS, it was observed that, the girls' latrine was quite distant (about 300 meters) from the classrooms. This made it easy for community to access the facility as they pass-by but proved to be inconvenient for the girls. In Ayiova PS, the security of the water point (borehole) could not be guaranteed because, it was located outside the school land; while in Nyio PS, residents felt they should 'freely' use the school facilities without restriction as they were reported saying 'the school is in our land'. These kinds of scenarios do not provide a healthy ground for pupils' learning and also raises the question of parents' commitment to maintain school assets for the benefit of their children. Some schools were able to prioritize improvements such as security of school property through recruiting school guards, increasing parents' mobilization and PDF contributions. This is a very important practice as World Bank study, 2003 has shown that: If users take charge of 'oversight and accountability roles' in service delivery, are committed to pay 'user fees', it can lead to better service delivery outcomes. It cites for example that: a) parents' associations or local communities could improve learning outcomes by visiting schools and monitoring teachers; and b) when clients pay to obtain the services, such as user fees for certain health and education services, Kochendörfer-Lucius et al. (2004:146).

3.8 Teachers' school-WaSH Practices and Experiences

Group interviews were conducted with senior female and male teachers, science, health and environment teachers. The purpose was to discuss their experiences and practices of providing school-WaSH services to pupils and related issues that affect them as teachers and the pupils. Teachers were requested to explain in some detail how they get school-WaSH messages and practices across to pupils and among fellow teachers as part of broader and better school-WaSH management.

Packaging information on water and sanitation education for pupils was an important issue. All the teachers reported at least one method of enabling pupils to practice good hygiene and sanitation practice. These included: emphasis on personal and environmental hygiene, passing key messages through weekly school assembly and; provision of IEC[9] materials such as leaflets, posters, newspaper extracts that carry water and sanitation messages. Schools also provided pieces of soap and other detergents to pupils to encourage them to wash their hands after toilet use; and teachers' commitment to keep pupils healthy was affirmed in all the schools. However, observation and discussions

[9] IEC is Information Education and Communication materials.

with some other teachers showed an attitude of little personal care for facilities. There was a clear lack of motivation to take personal initiative to fix relatively smaller water related issues such as broken water gutters and taps. This practice was partly influenced by the feeling that, teachers are 'temporary staff' will soon be on transfer. As a result, there seemed to be more expectation of the government and school authorities 'to fix the problem' than taking a personal initiative by actual users.

Privacy concerns for girls also formed part of the issues raised by teachers. It was noted that, all the schools under study did not have washrooms, nor were there any counselling rooms. Yet, the provision of washrooms is important element in every primary school to support girls who experience monthly menstruation while in school, Bongartz et al. (2010:37). Instead, private residences of senior female teachers were used as 'washrooms' to respond to acute needs of adolescent girls.

Data from DEO's office indicated that there were only a total of 294 washrooms for girls in the whole district, implying that every school on average had one washroom for girls, Arua (2013). But the data did not clearly specify the category of washrooms mentioned. Another privacy issue found was in Ewava PS, three out of eight doors of girls' latrine were removed; as a result, adult girls preferred to use latrine of a neighbouring institution (the church) that the girls found to be more private and hidden. This however put their security into question as it was outside school compound. It was also noted that teachers were shy to openly talk about private needs of the girls, such as response to menstrual often referring to it as 'the thing'. This only left one to imagine how girls are left to seek whatever help they can afford; and the difficulty some adolescent girls could be going through in school. Such taboos must be confronted head-on, as Chambers et al asserted in CLTS principles, Chambers et al (2009) in Bongartz et al. (2010). Nevertheless, there were no reported cases of girls dropping out of school due to lack of water and sanitation facilities including washrooms and latrines.

3.9 Preliminary conclusion

The chapter has presented mixed findings; it included 'good' practices and 'worst case scenarios' that may need policy improvement. Teachers and pupils school-WaSH practices, the role of SMCs and PTAs in maintenance, repairs and financing of school-WaSH facilities and privacy concerns for girls were discussed. Teachers' efforts to improve school-WaSH practices were discussed and need to be scaled up in coordination with parents' efforts. The findings show that, there is low LG supervision, safety of school-WaSH facilities is still low, trainings are insufficient, and pupil facility ratios are high and inconsistent with national requirements. This has led to congestion in facility

use among the pupils with potential of disease out-breaks and infection. This requires more investment in infrastructure but also efforts to enable the community to own and make sustainable use of the facilities.

Chapter Four: The Role and Function of the District in Enhancing school-WaSH Service Delivery

4.1 Introduction

The second research question sought to understand the role and functional elements of the district LG in enhancing school-WaSH service delivery. This chapter presents district level findings. It focuses on the departments of education, water and sanitation, and works. It explores the common between the departments, in the provision of water and sanitation services to the schools.

4.2 The District Education Office

4.2.1 The State of School Water and Sanitation Provision

Arua district education department supports a total of 246 government grant aided rural primary schools. It also supervises an additional 45 private/community schools excluding nursery schools. Documents such as head teacher report, inspectors' reports, the EMIS among others were reviewed to establish key information and understanding on the study subject. In-depth interviews were then held with the senior education officer, inspector of schools and chairperson for social services committee (political) who supervises education and health issues in the district local council, to complement document reviews.

Interview with inspector of schools showed that; the department has put in place plans to enable every school to have a clean water source and basic sanitation facilities as required by MoES. He however pointed to community-based constraints in utilisation and operations of facilities such as boreholes and RWH tanks. These have resulted in frequent break-downs that are on the increase. Cases of major breakdowns[10] are referred by the individual schools to DEO's office that are then addressed to DWO for further management. Minor repairs are handled by WUCs. The report also revealed that, the district's PSR has progressively improved standing at 87:1 during the time of this study. This information however contradicted the district's EMIS report, 2013, which showed PSR of 115:1, somewhat close to the PSR of 84:1 found in the five schools under study. This revealed inconsistency in the department's education information management.

[10] Breakdowns costing over UGX, 400,000 and that need replacement of equipment.

Further, district reports indicated that cases of latrines collapsing due to heavy rains and storms, poor soil structures were on the increase. Poor workmanship under contracted works partly contributed to this, as contractors have tendency of compromising quality in return for profits. This corroborated information obtained from the schools. The department forwards information on such emergencies to the district executive committee; however, the district seems to lack an emergency response plan and funding. Information from inspectors and engineering departments indicated that, once a latrine or a classroom collapses or is blown-off by storm, such a school has to wait for the next planning year to put right the situation. The government's budget procedures and award of contracts are bureaucratic and complex. This was also reportedly compromised by lack of resources, poor technology and high expectation of parents from the government[11]. Response to emergency situations in middle of the budget year is therefore a constraint. As a result, many such cases reportedly seemed to have received no action. Instead, parents were expected to step in to construct temporary latrines to arrest such situations within their available means.

In this dilemma, Carter et al argue that, government lacks the resources to maintain facilities, hence the call for community participation. Yet the communities do not have the capacity (technical and financial) to meet the obligations as demanded from them. He calls for continued government and CSO support to communities in O&M even if full community participation in water and other interventions must be upheld as a norm, Carter et al. (1999:295). Pressing rural communities to step in is good in principle to enable them to show ownership, but it may result in pushing them off-limits and beyond their means; as many of the communities are impoverished, and do not have the technology that can sustain a structure to last.

4.2.2 Monitoring and Supervision of Water and Sanitation Facilities

Moriarty et al argue that 'monitoring systems should be set up so that the resulting information is readily accessible to all stakeholders' as basis of finding situation specific alternative solutions and decision making, Moriarty et al. (2007:32). According to the authors, monitoring plays a crucial role in water and sanitation governance. The study however revealed the contrary. Although there were routine school inspections which looked at looked at: numbers of latrine stances in relation to pupils enrolment; maintenance of facilities (latrines and water); provision for disabled children and rubbish pits; daily cleaning, washing and sweeping; provision of urinals for boys and wash-room for girls, these were done only three times in a whole year. There was no systematic monitoring of school-WaSH services. Where inspection reports are critical for decision taking as hinted by Moriarty, actions were rarely taken, according to

[11] *See for example* Golooba (2012: 438) on DLG's constraints.

the findings. The district expected schools to allocate some funds from within the UPE grant for maintenance works, but interview with head teachers showed that; the grant is often insufficient in responding to increasing pupils WaSH needs.

As a department, our inspections monitoring and supervision is limited to routine school inspection. Due to funding, staff and logistical limitations, we do not conduct specific inspections relating to water and sanitations issues (Interview with Mr. Dinya Joseph, Inspector of School, DEO's Office, Arua dated 4th August, 2013).

There was little evidence of head teachers' reports to the education office. This seemed irregular, yet they are supposed to detail school-WaSH situation. It was discovered that such reports are only received during situations of emergency. Further, discussions with inspectors also showed that, many communities around the schools are not 'responsive' in using water and sanitation facilities within the schools premises, feeling they should be left 'freely to use' the facilities. This corroborated with school-level findings that showed that gutters and taps were not functional and many destroyed, pointing to apparent lack of community buy-in.

4.2.3 The Political Oversight Role

The political (elected) leaders are an important policy making body in the district as mandated by the country's constitution (1995) and the local government act, 1997. They play an oversight and supervisory role over the technical team in planning, budgeting and implementation processes. The district is headed by an elected Chairperson who reports to the District Council[12]. The council consist of 49 elected members from across the lower LG. The council has several committees among which include social services committee (for education and health) and well as works and technical services committee.

Interview with the chairperson of social services committee indicated that, the district has elaborate plan for service delivery that covers all the sectors. The Five-Year Plan, 2010-2015[13] is based on the needs from the grassroots community and the manifesto of the government in power[14]. However, the district is in dire need of funding. As a result, service delivery including school-WaSH has suffered. It was revealed for example that the budget for education department was reduced from UGX, 48 million in FY (Financial Year) 2012/2013 to UGX 23 million in the FY 2013/2014. Yet, the district has 246 schools and the available money could only at best construct two 5-stance VIP

[12] Review of Arua district management and administrative structure, 2013.
[13] District Planning Unit.
[14] NRM Party of President Yoweri Museveni.

latrines, leaving other sectors deserving and severely affecting school-WaSH service delivery in the district, as stated;

> *'The school situation in terms of latrines and water facilities is worsening and we are doing badly, with 'stubborn' pupil stance ratios of over 200:1, for example, Jojoyi PS in Okollo sub county has only 5 stances for the whole pupil population of over 1,000, in which, girls are sharing latrine stances with boys. Cina PS in Oriama Sub County ceases to operate in dry season due to lack of water facility for pupils. Pupils are forced to roam around searching for water during school hours'* (interview with Hon Saka Wilfred, Chairperson for social services, Arua District Local Council, dated 19th August, 2013).

As a result of funding constraints, the education committee meetings were reduced from three to one in six months, while field monitoring by the committee were no longer possible as this required transport, fuel and field allowances for the councillors. It was reported that, only pre-examination monitoring (for candidate classes) was done to mobilize pupils who dropped out to sit for examinations. The larger monitoring visits were not specifically tagged to school-WaSH but general, many with support of NGOs and other private arrangements.

4.3 Works, Water and Sanitation Departments

The department is one of the most important service delivery points. It is headed by a secretary (cabinet member) for works and technical services. The department has a chairperson for the district council committee that oversees its operations and with whom interviews were conducted. The purpose of the interview was to examine: funding flow to the district in relation to the district development district plan; district priority and funding for works; implementation and how monitoring is done. The department supervises engineering works such as road and bridge construction and rehabilitation; construction of school facilities (classrooms and latrines); and enforces compliance and adherence to contracts.

Discussion and document review revealed that, the district's main funding source is from the CEG, under (SFG)[15] program and PRDP [16](peace recovery and development program). These are referred to as conditional grants, meaning that the funds are disbursed for specific targets and hence cannot be diverted. The releases are based on submission of a costed district plans and budgets. The allocation of funding during planning, budgeting and actual works for education and other sector for is guided by a 'ceiling' (or a planning figure) determined by the CEG. Once the ceiling is determined, the engineers have to prioritize (rank) the schools based on 'worse-off conditions' that is predeter-

[15] SFG is an infrastructure expansion program by ministry of education

[16] PRDP is a post conflict and recovery program-northern Uganda.

mined. The CEG then releases funds based on the ceiling and the priorities. Funding constraints that included budgets cuts and delays were reported to have affected water and sanitation services: First, there is a huge gap between ceiling allocated and what is actually released, as this is not commensurate to the actual needs on the ground. The ceiling for works for example reduced from UGX, 800 million in FY 2012/13 to about UGX, 520 million in FY 2013/14.

> *The ceilings are very meagre, that's why the schools are still needy. Our hands are tied and we build on credit. Once money is released, a large chunk of it is used to clear-off roll-over works and debts of contractors for the previous years, leaving us with barely little to start. Secondly, the money is released in quarters and usually the last quarter comes late forcing the district to return it by end of Financial Year once it's not utilized,' (*an interview with Mr Charles Oryema, Engineering Officer, MoES/Arua District dated 20th August, 2013).

The second constraint was that, there was no plan or funding allocated for school-level emergency issues. A school whose classroom or latrine is destroyed in one planning year has to wait for the next planning cycle. A case in point was classroom block blown-off by storm in Zabu PS in Okollo Sub County; and a latrine that collapsed in Ragem PS, Oluko Sub County. Discussion with engineering staff indicated that, it took close to a year to get the two schools considered to rectify the situation.

4.3.1 Water and Sanitation Department

Water and sanitation department falls under works and engineering, and is critical in delivering the district's mission of universal access to safe water and sanitation. The water department has a Five-Year Operational Plan (2010-2015). It includes O&M policy to ensure safe water and sanitation provision in rural areas. The department supervises over 2000 water sources in the district. It was reported that, functionality of facilities stood at 83% while district access to water stood at 78%. There was however variation in access rates across the district, from 45% in Rigbo Sub County (Nile belt) to 95% in Pajulu Sub County, partly peri-urban with piped water connection. Protected spring accounted for the most accessed source of water (46.6%); followed by deep-wells/ borehole (43.6%); shallow wells accounted for 7.6%; and RWH tanks accounted for paltry 0.1%. It was surprising that, schools with huge roof surface have not taken the advantage of tapping the free, excess roof water. Yet, the district receives close 8-9 months of rainfall. This lack of embracing rainwater was attributed to the issue of 'funding'. But in reality, the practice of rain water harvesting has not been well embraced in the region, in addition facilities being vandalised.

> *People see rain water as less important compared to water from the springs and wells that are considered "tasty"; that rain water is not 'good' for bathing as it is slippery* (interview with SMCs and PTA Members, Ayiova PS, dated 18th July, 2013)

The statistics also showed that Nile belt remains water stressed; implying that children and teachers have to invest extra efforts to have water at school, at the expense of teaching and learning. Functionality rate[17] stood at 83%, while 17% non-functionality was attributed to: low-dry yields, technical breakdowns, poor water quality including silting, leaking, fetching from alternative water sources[18]. The issues are mainly technical and physical in nature that may be beyond community's capacity. This where the private sector can add their expertise, Golooba-Mutebi 2012: 439-440)

It was also revealed that education[19] department oversees water and sanitation issues in schools, while health department oversees the same in health centres. These different mandates were found rather confusing, overstretching human and financial resources and limiting impact. Despite the different mandates, the DWO continued to give technical support to schools and health centres through construction and engineering services. It handled specific school water and sanitation cases treated as 'exceptional and needy'; for instance breakdowns and rehabilitation works and allocation of new boreholes. One good practice seen was that, the two departments of education and works sit on water and sanitation coordination meetings to harmonize operations.

4.3.2 The Role of Water User Committees

> *Water department is responsible for over 2000 water sources. Due to financial and logistical constraints, it is expensive to monitor all the sources. We need to reactivate and train all the water user committees. It is also more feasible to form sub county water and sanitation coordination committees who can build their capacity and monitor them. We also need to facilitate sub county extension staff for monitoring functionality of water sources* (District Water Officer, on Radio Talk-Show, hosted by MACCO-Voice of Life, dated 26th July, 2013)

WUCs are an important tool in enhancing user participation as the water policy requires a 'demand-driven' approach in water service delivery. As a result, encouraging participation and ownership are key principles. WUCs are established with support of extension staff. This must take place before or after a facility is put in place[20]. The WUCs are responsible for: collection of user fees, enforcement of regulations for facility use, enhancing hygiene at local water points, ensuring safety of water facility and paying for cost of maintenance and repairs. Whilst most of these guidelines are not adhered to, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:434, 436-437), they inculcate community responsibility. The findings show that, 55% of WUCs executives were women. The regulation provides that members of the community must attend school-based water-user's meet-

[17] The userbility condition of a facility.
[18] MoWE, 2010-Arua Report.
[19] Interview with Letaru Mercy, (Senior CDO) DWO Arua, dated 14th August, 2013.
[20] Guidelines for operations and maintenance of community water sources.

ings and contribute user fees for its maintenance. This practice this was reportedly not adhered to.

DWO is mandated is to train the WUCs for new water points. The WUCs take charge of water facilities. This is mainly done through sub county extension staff. The training is guided by critical requirement and minimum standards[21] . The training must be done before a project takes-off with specific requirements such as: securing a signed MoU (memorandum of understanding) between a contractor, water users committees and the district, making co-funding obligation and the formation and training of WUCs. The training features O&M and must be in pre-construction mobilization exercise. The set of activities must be done three months before a facility is put in place. The committee must also have an O&M plan for the facility, at least 50% membership of the committee reserved for women elected to key positions such as chairperson, secretary or treasure.

In practice however, detailed analysis and discussion with DWO, school management and WUCs indicated that: many of the above procedures are not adhered to and are flouted; training are not organised at all or are organised and funded only for one day; the committees are formed and training done after a facility is already in place contrary to the procedure-prior to establishing a facility; there is less community consultation done and the trainings remain insufficient to handle all O&M issues at community water community water points. Facilities are in many cases delivered with a limited community preparedness to receive them. Further, training and funding for old facilities are not prioritised unless such a facility is doing 'badly' in the management of water points. As a result the functionality of WUCs is very low at 26%. In this regard, the district has partnered with CSOs that have actively supported the training of WUCs. On this note, there is urge for inclusion of private sector role in water and sanitation service, as the private sector has the advantage of delivering services on time, have the required skills and technology, Golooba-Mutebi (2012:439-440). Golooba however cautions against full involvement of the private sector in water and sanitation service. According to him, when private sector is left unsupervised, they can compromise on the quality service and ethical standards, driven through flouting procurement regulations, the profit motive, failure by contractors to devote time to prepare the community to own the facilities and lack of supervision by the end-users, (Franks 2006:6).This kind of scenario may significantly influence the level of facility ownership.

[21] Set by MoWE for operating a community water facility.

4.4 Preliminary Conclusion

This chapter has argued that, the district has elaborate five-year development plan, including water and sanitation. There're is a very active political oversight role played by the district council. However, limited funding from the CEG remains a major constraint in water and sanitation service delivery. This has led to limited allocations for new water and sanitation facilities. Areas along the Nile belt remain water stressed due to its unique geographical characteristics. Also weak soil texture in some locations is affecting establishment of new water facilities. While unforeseen circumstances like heavy storms have caused extra cost to putting facilities. Although the district has disaster preparedness and management unit, there is no funding and staff to make it effective to respond to disaster situations. Many WUCs remain inactive and untrained, while management of funds at most water points remain at stake.

Chapter Five: The Role of Civil Society Organisations in School-WaSH Service Delivery in the District.

5.1 Introduction

The final research question focused on how the CSOs are influencing and shaping school-WaSH governance through policy and practices changes in the district. This chapter discusses the role of the CSOs in water and sanitation policy dialogue and formulation in the district. The wider WaSH service delivery by CSOs is discussed while close references are made to the school-WaSH as the main study subject.

In this paper, the definition of CSOs includes local and international NGOs, CBOs (community-based organisations), the media, research institutes, networks, advocacy and lobbying groups. CSOs are key partners to the district in finding solutions to safe water and sanitation challenges. Key CSOs in the district include: SNV, World Vision, Ceford, Ceged, Yodeo and Caritas among others.

Franks in his study has provided as "Consensus on the Propositions of Water Governance" which this study adapted and draws heavily to discuss CSO contribution in water sector in Arua district.

Figure 3: Consensus on the Propositions of Water Governance

1. Citizens have rights and entitlements to water: reflections from right-based approaches to development
2. Participation of stakeholders is an essential component of governance: enhancing user's voice, input and ownership
3. Women are key users and managers-in-practice of water: their voice, inclusiveness in decisions.
4. There is a need for partnerships to deliver water services: local, international
5. Water is an economic good and has an economic value in all its competing uses: not free, involves cost.
6. Water is becoming scarce: power relations, allocation, and resolution of water conflicts.
7. Water should be managed at the basin level: integrated water source management, land, environment and sanitation.
8. Shared knowledge is an essential basis for good water governance: networks, partnerships for new learning and innovation.

Adapted from Tom Franks (2006:5-6)

ADNGON (Arua district NGO network), is the main umbrella organisation through which CSOs and other sector working groups find an action platform and contribute to improved service delivery in the district. Moriarty et al call this 'public-private coordination and cooperation' model in water governance, Moriarty et al. (2007:21). Using Frank's model above and Moriarty et al,

new CSO role is directed at improving service delivery through: engaging local government; demanding for effectiveness and efficiency in service delivery; and enhancing transparency and accountability in public resource use. CSOs are engaged in capacity building of the community to participate in policy planning and implementation processes at the local levels. There is urge to packaging of service delivery that is 'effectively within an open social structure which enables broader participation by civil society, private enterprises and the media, networking to support and influence government'(Moriarty et al. 2007:21, Franks et al. 2007, Franks 2006:5-6).

5.2 The District Local Government-CSO WaSH Service Delivery Model.

The district water and sanitation coordination committee meeting is a key platform to map out CSO activities in WaSH service delivery. It is a reporting space for CSOs, used to mainstream and harmonized its work into the LG programming. Implementation constraints and service delivery issues are shared and discussed in the platform; *see for instance* Bongartz et al. (2010:54). This fits into a water governance model that enhances 'creation of coordinating mechanisms' among stakeholder, '…structured planning process to underpin these mechanisms' and building working relations among stakeholders, Moriarty et al. (2007:25).

During the study, discussions with district staff indicated that, the district fully appreciates CSO collaboration in this arrangement. Training of WUCs, conducting sanitation promotions and strengthening the capacity of SSWSCC (sub county water and sanitation coordination committees) were among the capacity enhancement works done by the CSOs in the district. As a result, the LG-CSO working relations were reportedly improving, while the district started adapting some of the models used by CSOs for its work. Joint monitoring of WaSH service delivery was conducted in the last 12 months by the time of the study.

> *Sub-counties where they (CSO) operate, are actually doing a lot, they are reactivating WUCs that have been inactive for long* (engineer Obitre, during radio talk-show dated 26th July, 2013).

As Tom Franks has shown the importance of 'shared knowledge' best achieved through: networks, partnerships for new learning and innovation. In light of this, CSOs and LG started LEAPPS[22] (Learning for policy and practice), an innovative learning platform. It was evident that, practice changes[23] were slowly taking place, for instance: registered improvements were reported

[22] LEAPS targets improved household and school sanitation.
[23] Interview with Executive Director YODEO, dated 2nd September, 2013.

in the way LG and C SOs relate and coordinate in WaSH service delivery; CSOs regularly interfaced with DLG staff for dialogue and experiences sharing on WaSH service delivery and; the community identified needs were taken up by CSOs and presented to LG for action, thus influencing resources to flow to the poor. WaSH or education platforms are used to discuss the issues raised; and follows ups are made to make sure services are received. The effectiveness of these initiatives and how it's exactly done remains unanswered.

Several reports indicated that, some schools started initiating parent's dialogues meeting on school feeding, tracking drop out pupils. CSOs also engaged indirect service delivery; drilling boreholes, repair of water sources and construction of latrines. The greatest hindrances among CSOs in service delivery though remain: weak CSO collaboration with the district; feeling of suspicion between and amongst CSOs particularly resulting from shortage of funding and competition for resources from same donors; and weak CSO internal capacity. These directly impact on CSO effectiveness in water and sanitation governance. Further, duplication of services, limited research capacity for evidence-based advocacy; and inability to effectively influence policy design and practice changes within the district; accusation of NGO 'limitation' to *software*[24] issues whose impact is not easily 'seen' remain concern within DLG circle regarding CSO ability to 'fulfil' their 'mandate'. Some CSOs were accused of their failure to share program reports with the district. It was reported[25] that, efforts are under way to build a regional coalition to address these constraints.

5.3 Donor Support as a Stimulant to CSO Action

A joint partnership program funded by Netherlands Embassy and UNICEF; implemented by SNV and its local partner CSOs is making considerable contribution to school-WaSH programs. Interviews with SNV and its partners indicated that 74 schools received support in the region reaching out to over 75,000 children and 1036 teachers. Also, latrine stances were improving and schools were putting in place hand washing facilities. For instance, Urugbo PS that had only 4 latrine stances for 1,220 pupils (boys and girls), PSR of 305:1 received an additional 5-stance VIP-latrine. This was made possible through donor support and CSO advocacy, Uganda (1999:15). This was expected to reduce the schools' PSR from 305:1 to 1:135.

Further, child-led SHC (school health clubs) have spear-headed the promotion of hygiene and sanitation in the schools. The findings revealed that, the platforms for pupils' participation enhanced children's voice in managing school-WaSH issues. An orientation on 'safe water chain' delivered for club

[24] Software: used to mean awareness creation and capacity development outside engineering works.
[25] Interview with Lillian Nabirye, WaSH Advisor, and SNV West Nile dated 23rd July, 2013.

members and teachers, resulted in improved storage of drinking water for pupils. There was also reported improvement in the working relation between teachers in-charge of health/environment and pupils; the SHC helped to develop work-plans for school-based sanitation activities. For example: cleaning of school compound and inspecting younger pupils; ensuring that all pupils wash their hands before and after eating food and after visiting latrines[26]. The report also revealed that, after receiving sensitization on the importance of improved water storage, members of SHC in Oguvu PS successfully engaged the school administration to acquire an improved water storage facility[27].

5.4 Training and Capacity Building Support to Schools and Parents.

Training of all pupils and parents on operations and maintenance of school facilities, use of *tippy-taps,* a local hand washing facility*, and* girls on how to make re-usable pads, were reported and evident. In addition, NGOs supplied chemicals such as *Inno solution,* used for treating smell/odour and breaking faecal waste, *see for instance* Golooba-Mutebi (2012:437) on NGO contribution in capacity development in water. In schools where CSOs are active, members of SMC & PTA showed clarity in understanding their roles in school-WaSH-facilities management; water points looked maintained and parents seemed to have started paying user fees; formation and functioning of school-based WUCs started although less slowly.

The above successes though impressive, had a number of huddles for instance, some sections of the community preferred to fetch water from sources that demanded less user responsibility. The sub county hence directed that all water sources must have WUCs and members registered[28]. This minimized the avoidance of responsibility in water source protection and management. Further, CSO support at sub county level include: strengthening WaSH coordination committee, capacity building and training of pump mechanics and extension staff in reporting and referral of cases to DWO. This is in line with local water governance principles number four (participation), and seven (partnership and harmonised work including pulling resources), Moriarty et al. (2007:33), Franks (2006:5-6). The benefits of this approach are four fold: first, it results in increased impact; secondly, it concentrates scarce resources and minimises over-stretching of human resources; and lastly it avoids duplication of resources. In the above case, the pump mechanics play a key role in assessing functionality of water facilities, repair and report to the DWO. The

[26] Quarterly Report, CEFORD 2013.
[27] Interview with CEFORD
[28] Interview with Juliet Obiru, Program Assistant CEGED dated 23rd August 2013

DWO has introduced use of mobile phone technology[29] for reporting functionality and incidences of break-downs. This has resulted in improved response rate, saved costs in terms of transport, human resource and logistics. It is worth scaling up such cost-effective practices to increase water services access.

Interviews[30] and documents reviews revealed that, trainings and capacity building by CSOs resulted in the following: schools started incorporating O&M activities into their plans; construction of latrines and wash-rooms for girls were visible; mobilization of local construction materials and parents' to support the schools were evident; introduction of *'hand-washing after toilet use'* through establishing local initiatives such as *tippy-taps* and hand washing facilities were also evident. This enabled children to adapt 'handing washing' practice after toilet use. These progresses however remain unquantified as regular recording of the 'hand washing behaviour' were not tracked.

5.5 Children's Voices in Water and Sanitation Governance.

There is little evidence in water governance theories and concepts that position children as actors. However, Bongartz et al, drawing from Chambers' principles of CLTS, the authors acknowledges children's important role in "triggering" good sanitation practices in their own community, Bongartz et al. (2010). The findings show that pupils are adapting to new facility management skills, hygiene and sanitation practice. For example: adapting to the use of locally available 'soft-tissue' (for anal-cleansing), *see also* Moriarty et al. (2007:33) on local innovations and solutions. The pupils have learnt safe-water-chain management; and are practicing to keep drinking water in clean containers as opposed to drinking directly from the water source. They have learnt and are practicing hand-washing with soap after latrine use. Through the SHC, children are making conducting community sanitation visits to sensitize parents on WaSH issues, and that individual pupils are 'taking-home' WaSH practices learnt at school. For example, adolescent girls are teaching their mothers how to make re-usable menstrual pads. Pupils' absenteeism and drop-outs rates are also reported to have reduced, although some of the information could not be verified.

> "*adapting use of re-usable pads has made life easy for the rural mothers"* (interview with Ms Obiru Juliet, Program Assistant, Ceged, Logiri Sub County dated 23rd August 2013).

[29] Interview with district water officer, dated 26th July, 2013.

[30] Interview with Lillian Nabirye, WaSH Advisor, SNV West Nile dated 23rd July, 2013.

It must be noted that, whilst some quick results may appear immediately after training and capacity building; attitude and practice change takes time and cannot realised entirely through teaching new skills, Bongartz et al. (2010:29). The geographical scope of these good practices remains narrow, less sustainable as many are NGO-incentive based and less entrenched within the LG structures.

5.5 Preliminary Conclusion

The chapter discussed the role of CSOs in school-WaSH service delivery. It highlighted Tom Frank's 'Consensus propositions on governance' seen influential in CSO work. It discussed the concept of shared knowledge and learning, and found that the concept is growing. The study concluded that, donor support is stimulating CSO work in the district. Trainings and capacity building improved clarity of role and functions among school committee. But it concludes that incentive based community participation is not sustainable. Through SHCs, children are learning good sanitation practices and 'influencing' their parents and the community.

Chapter Six: Summary, Reflections on Policy and Practice Changes and Conclusion

6.1 Summary, Reflections on Policy and Practice Changes.

The key ingredients of water and sanitation governance have been summarized as: community participation; First, delivering water and sanitation service as a right, from human rights based approach perspective; Secondly, focus on local innovations, solutions and shared learning. This goes along with awareness creation and capacity development of local leaders and stakeholders. Thirdly, it looks at management of water as a scarce resource, as an economic good that attracts costs (resources); Fourthly, it focuses on inclusion of women in positions and structures that take decision on water; Fifth, emphasis on partnership building across players; and Finally water information management that guarantees transparency and accountability within water resources management, *see also* Moriarty et al. (2007:5-6), Franks (2006).

Bongartz, drawing from Chambers et al (2006), places emphasis on sanitation governance, pointing to: the belief that people can do it themselves with less external support; emphasis on local solutions and innovations; capacity development to enable people perform on their own. This is done by facilitating and empowering people to arrive at their own conclusion; and dealing carefully but firmly with cultural norms, taboos and practices that tend to derail progress in achieving total sanitation, Bongartz et al. (2010:29).

One important lesson that can be learned in (school) WaSH governance is documentation, networking, sharing and learning that involves cross-field learning. These are important in itself and organizational reflection to draw lessons from past and focus on the issues ahead. Cross-learning involves learning from different organization and countries with similar experiences. The district and CSOs have taken to this practice already, but is still limited in impact. How this learning can be done is not yet clear.

Water and sanitation governance in LG-CSO interface requires effective partnership at all levels: interface between (local) government bureaucrats, members of the local CSO network, elected leadership and traditional leaders who command respect. Partnership brings synergy in resources (human, financial and technology); it saves time and puts resources where it is most needed. In practices, the good intentions of partnership in the districts-CSOs model have been ruined by: feeling of suspicion among CSOs, competition for resources (from same donors), unclear mandates, lack of technical and human resources capacity at the district and within NGOs body. These issues need to be jointly addressed if greater impact is to be seen in the school-WaSH sector, Bongartz et al. (2010:57)

The media can be an important tool in achieving development results when used well. The district has a host of local media (Radio FM stations,

newspapers and TV). These can be used to create awareness and deliver information on water and sanitation. The regular radio appearance by the district water officer interfacing with social accountability and anti-corruption coalition team is a practice worth emulating. It has benefits of allowing listeners (water users) to call-in; prompt responses are made as well as follow-up actions. This practice has been scaled up by the use of mobile phone technology, used by field teams to convey information on water and sanitation facility functionality to a central server at DWO. This has improved response time, cut costs of operation and improve access to services. The slow coverage and pace of training and adaptability to new technology is still a constraint, but can be gradually addressed.

Community participation is seen as a key ingredient of water and sanitation governance. It has the capacity to hold service providers accountable. Experiences of community participation in sub Saharan Africa aligned to CLTS principles by Chambers, et al, (2009) is largely seen as a successful model, and recommended by UNICEF and governments for scaling up, Bongartz et al. (2010:53). Literature and practice in water and sanitation show that, participation increases ownership, it saves time and builds on community resources. It comes with '…sense of pride and ownership and the potential for sustainability,' (Bongartz et al. 2010:60)

However, participation alone is counterproductive; it needs policy support from CEG, LGs and external support to be effective. It must only build on what the community is able to do. The success of one participation model can be used within a school, can be transferred and used in other policy initiatives such as school feeding program, tracking drop-out children, girls' education, improving teachers' accommodation as suggested by Chambers (2009). The findings show that, school-feeding is already an emerging issue on which parents are building consensus. A draft district school-feeding policy is in place, and all forms of feeding are acceptable. Policy directive is in place to ensure that all primary schools have female teachers posted; the schools have sanitary facilities for girls; and accommodation for female teachers so as to improve girls' retention and completion rates.

Scholars such as Golooba have however cautioned against excessive reliance on community participation within LG system, as results are limited. He suggests capacity enhancement for improved coordination, and accountability enforcement as a solution for better service delivery' (Golooba-Mutebi 2012:429-430).

Literature on the voices and potential of children as actors in enhancing school-WaSH is limited. Nevertheless, children have the potential of creating results in school-WaSH and community water and sanitation. Cases from schools in Logiri Sub County (under CSO support) showed that: children can act as leaders; form community pressure groups; conduct short plays, poems

and stories that are educative to parents, government bureaucrats with potential to change attitude and practices. Steps that enable children to stay in school are important through an integrated school-sanitation management; for instance, allocation of fund for sanitary kits and facilities such cotton textile, disposable pads, washrooms, soap and washing basins, for girls. Field findings showed that CSOs have supported training of adolescent girls in making reusable pads, and this attracted interest of some mothers, improved girls' self-esteem and school attendance. Although the results are impressive, focus should now go beyond the present to tackle the issue of sustainability.

6.2 Key Issues in the Study

a) CSO and LG work gave little room for local learning and innovation: using peoples own 'existing tools, indigenous knowledge and synergies gives room to build on their experiences through participatory water governance approaches, Moriarty (2007:25). Too much subsidy and incentives can kill community initiatives

b) b) Secondly, partnership building, alliances and experience sharing were found key, should be emulated so as to shape service delivery. This gives voice and strengthens CSO and LG accountability; it pulls resources so as to create greater impact. Thus regular documentation, lesson learning, experience sharing and innovation to improve policy and good practices in water and sanitation among actors, is encouraged, Bongartz et al. (2010:20). There was so suspicion among CSOs. This needs to be addressed.

c) Successful application of participatory approaches, seen in some schools could be used to explore other policy options such as children's nutritional needs, school feeding, immunisation campaigns as fronted for example in CLTS, (Chambers 2009)

d) Finally, capacity development of LGs and CSOs in water and sanitation management are key; technical and financial capacity (internal CSO governance, strengthening CSO capacity for evidence based advocacy) to enhance elements of good governance and improving service delivery.

6.3 Conclusion

This study's conceptual and the theoretical framework was guided by and explored the concepts of good governance, ownership (and participation) in the management of school-WaSH service delivery. The study started by raising the question of school management practices in water governance, the role of LG and CSOs in planning, implementation and monitoring of school-WaSH service delivery were explored. The study concludes that, there is strong political will in the LG to deliver services to the population and schools; policy instruments such as plans and budgets are in place. However, achievements of

results are still limited by; funding constraints, delayed releases from the CEG, inadequate staff, and low participation in school water and sanitation management. As a result, PSRs have remained high and water facilities remain in adequate. Within the school setting, the paper also reviewed pupils' behavioural practices in using school-WaSH facilities. It concludes that through child-led SHC, children have received a meaningful platform to voice their concerns, for learning and action and enhanced in them better practices of school WaSH facility management.

Finally, the role of civil society was reviewed. The study found immense contribution by the CSOs to the sector in the district, as this was applauded by the district. CSOs had more reliable information as they had resources for data collection and analysis as well as smaller coverage. Overall, the study concludes that, school-WaSH governance and management in the district is improving. Sensitizing the community and pupils the importance of drinking clean and safe water is crucial, yields results and saves the cost of treating water related sicknesses. Similarly, it is important for water users to protect water sources from being vandalized, make monthly contributions to undertake repairs and maintenance; and ensure the surroundings of water sources are kept clean.

The security and safety of the facilities is paramount. Many of the facilities observed during the study were vandalized. Whilst this was mainly attributed to lack of security, more could be done to protect school facilities. Similarly, the district needs to consider putting in place emergence response policy, capacity development and funding to avert increasing cases of collapsing latrines from floods and storms. Strengthening school inspection and monitoring with particular focus on school-WaSH would yield immense results. Strengthening participatory community monitoring can be a key tool to complement the work of inspectorate department. Revitalizing and strengthening WUCs would be a promising action: enhanced collection, good funds utilisation, putting in place order at water points, can add value. Capacity building of DWO to institute regular measures for testing school water quality, conducting surveillance and assessment of water yields are proposed. This guarantees the required water consumption standards for pupils and teachers in school. Members who misappropriate water user fees could be made to account, or face the law.

6.3 Future Directions and Policy Advice

At broader level, building CSO capacity in advocacy, increasing community awareness raising and pro-active policy engagement with DLGs and CEG, to ensure compliance with water and environmental regulations are worth the results. Improving designs of latrines in collapsing soils; enabling children to adopt and improve their own of hygiene practices; putting in place funds to sink more latrines are empty existing ones; laying emphasis on safety, care, protection and maintenance of exiting drinking water sources enhancing stakeholder action are important steps in the future of water and sanitation governance in Arua District.

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Appendix 1: Arua District: The Main Physical and Socio-economic Features.

a) Physical Features

Arua district lies to the north-western part of the country, about 540 km from the capital Kampala. It comprises of five counties. It is bordered by Maracha district to the north, Yumbe district to the north east, Amuru and Nwoya districts to the east, Nebbi and Zombo districts to the south and Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) to the west.

The district has a total arable land area of 4,274.13sq or 87% while the rest 13% is water bodies, hilly or forested areas. The key existing sources include; underground water, rivers and streams, wells and protected springs as well as gravity flow schemes. Much of the district has adequate and sufficient access to natural water sources. Wetlands cover about 2.8% of the land area. Madi-Okollo County is the most water stressed part of the district due to its semi-arid nature. River Nile, a major natural water source in the district, remains untapped for human consumption due to funding and technical constraints. As a result, access to safe water remains worst in Madi Okollo County

b) Socio-economic Characteristics[31]

Socio-economic indicators of the population have a high bearing in determining the extent to which a population has access to (school)-WaSH services. The district's 2012 population is estimated to be 751,900 as projected from 2002 population census; this is projected to reach 880,567 by 2015. The population growth rate is 3.3%, one of the highest in the country. The high growth rate is attributed to high fertility rates[32]. Persons under 18 years constitute 56% of the population, while only 4.6% of the population is above 60 years. The population density is 179.60 persons per square kilometres. This means, social facilities are strained; and need for additional investment in social infrastructure such as schools, health centres and water facilities. Majority of the population (85%) lives on subsistence agriculture. Family members form the key source of labour; as such children are taken away from school during planting and harvesting seasons. Tobacco is the major cash crop while food crops include; cassava, millet, potatoes, beans, ground nuts, sim-sim and maize among others. Public sector employments, formal and informal trade, constitute other means of livelihood. The incidence of poverty remains high while

[31] Arua District Profile

lack of access to good sanitation, land and water are cited among the key poverty indicators.

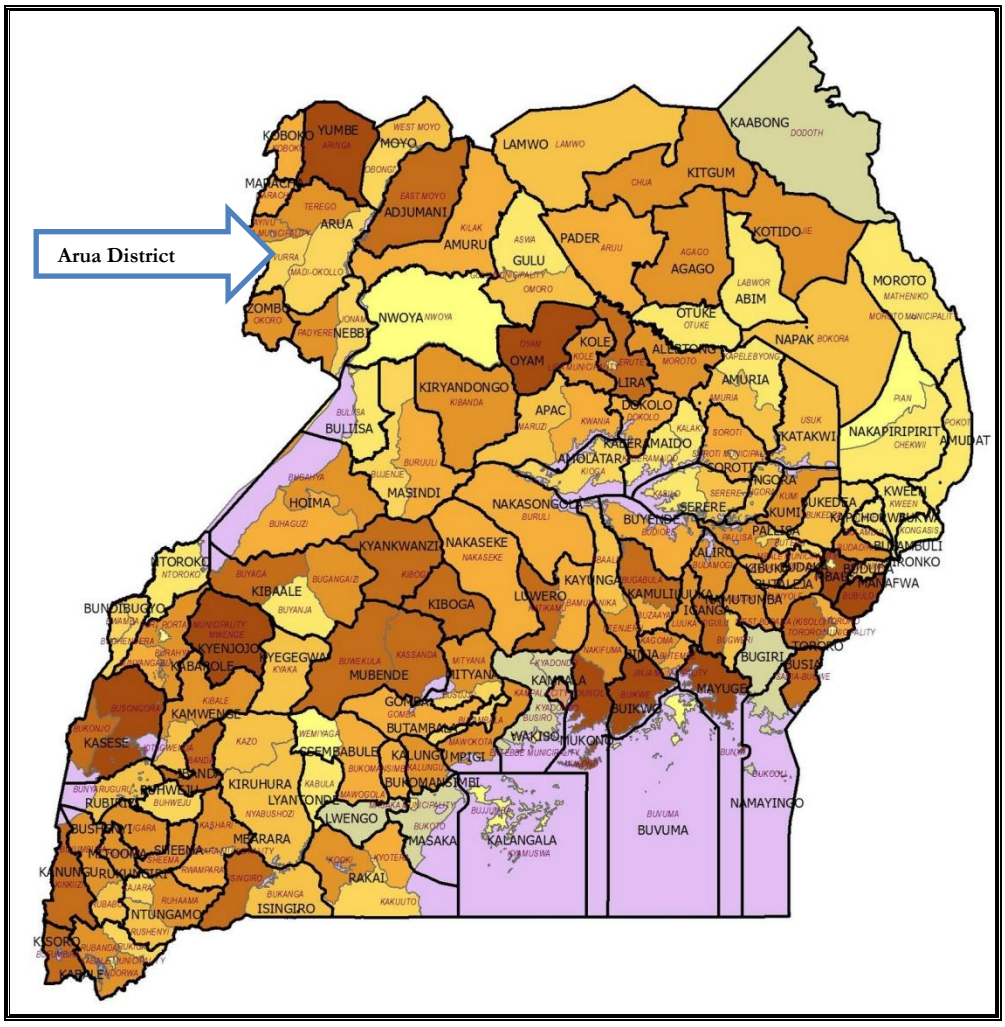
Administratively, it is one of the 111 districts in Uganda. There are 25 sub counties (Lower Government Units units).

Appendix 2: An Overview of Uganda's Water Policy

The provision of water and sanitation provision is a decentralised service guided by *demand-driven approach*, good management, appropriate technology and involvement of women. The DLG is responsible for overall planning, co-ordination work, resource allocation within the district, supervision and monitoring of implementation water and sanitation services, (MoWE 2001:10). This mandate must be executed with participation of sector stakeholder such as the CSOs (civil society organisations), and the media through a platform known as 'district water and sanitation co-ordination committee meetings'. The partners are required to furnish DWO (district water office(r)) with regular progress reports and adherence to quality standards. Further, the community must channel their unmet water and sanitation needs through a set procedure that are prioritized and integrated into district plans. Resources are then identified for implementation. The community is obliged to make cash or in-kind contribution to support the intervention as a show of ownership. Ownership of water sources and its management is vested in the user-community represented by WUCs (water user committees) (Uganda 1999), thus shifting the service delivery model from *supply-driven* to *demand-driven*. (Golooba-Mutebi 2012:435-436). The framework provides for citizen's right to 'clean and safe water'. In addition, the Constitution of Uganda: 1) obliges the state to take all practical measures to promote a good water management system; 2) calls for public accountability in public resources management; and 3) provides a framework for environment (including sanitation) management (Uganda 1995).

The policy also affirms the need for: 'wise use' and sustaining water resources, political will and commitment and sense of responsibility among water users, (Uganda 1999:1-2). It targets: a) an integrated and sustainable approach to management and stakeholder participation; b) sustainable provision of clean safe water within easy reach and good clean hygienic sanitation practices, including management responsibility and ownership by the users; c) improvement of coordination and collaboration among the sector stakeholders; and d) awareness creation and capacity development for the sector players, (Uganda 1999:1-2). The policy positions should in essence result in optimum and sustainable local and national water and sanitation resource use and increased access to the least served (rural) areas.

Appendix 3 : Map of Uganda Showing the Position of Arua District.



Source: http://www.google.co.ug/imgres?

Appendix 4: Questionnaires and interview Guide used

A.	**An interview guide for district education officer** Date: 14th July, 2013 Venue: DEO's Office, Arua. Thank you very much Mr. DEO for hosting me and granting me permission to have an interview with me at this time. My name is Kennedy Ayeyo, an MA (Development Studies) student of International Institute of Social Studies (in The Hague) of Erasmus University Rotterdam. My research is about understanding issues that determine water and sanitation governance in rural primary schools in the district. Information obtained during this interview will be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes. The results may be useful in informing water and sanitation policy decision in the district. 1. What is your take on the state of school *WaSH?* [specifically pupil: stance ratios, accessibility to water 2. How do you conduct school *WASH* monitoring and supervision in you department and how are the results used in the departments planning? 3. What kind of information on school-*WaSH* and sanitation are head teachers required to include in the monthly reports to your departments? How are these reports used for taking follow up action 4. How do you rate the financing (budget) for school-*WaSH* in relation to the need on the ground? 5. What is your experience about ownership [by SMC, PTA, community] of school WASH facilities delivered by the government? 6. How does the department respond to acute or in emergency sanitation needs for example when latrines collapse? I thank you very much Mr. DEO for taking your time to have an interview with me.
B.	**Guiding Questions for Focus Group Discussions with Pupils** 1. Tell me your experiences of using latrines and other sanitary facilities in the school. 2. Are you satisfied with provision of water pupils in the in the school? If yes what makes you satisfied? If no what are the issues you are not happy with? 3. What good things (sanitation practices and behaviors) have you learnt in school? Can these practices be taken home? Why is it important? 4. 'If you were the Sanitation Officer of this School, how would you maintain school-*WaSH* facilities'?

	Guiding Principles • Permission will be sought from school administration; and the choice of schedule for FGDs will be flexible not to interrupt but fit within convenience of the normal school routine. • 12 pupils per school (6oys, and 6 girls) selected with assistance of senior female and male teachers from P5-P7 classes; the choice will freely include prefects and other adolescent pupils. • An average discussion will last from 45minutes to 1 hour, giving a pupil an average of 5minutes to speak. • The discussion will not follow a linear pattern as planned, but will be made flexible to adopt semi-structured interview style so as to explore points of interest and concerns as discussion takes shape. • An effort will be made to ensure that key concepts are simplified for ease understanding by pupils e.g. What 'school-*WASH facilities'* mean. • Free talk and discussions, and possibly in the classrooms. • Key preliminaries such as Mutual introductions, outline of the topic of discussion, time taken, ground rules (one speaking at a time); valuing everyone's' contribution, will be communicated. • The proceedings of focused FGDs will be recorded as well as taking additional notes on issues such as non-verbal expressions will be done. • As a way of opening up, the facilitator will ask pupils to describe their experiences of using WASH facilities in the school • Agreements on key issues will be summarised, grouped for presentation.
C.	**Interview Questions to SMCs and PTA Chairpersons** 1. What specific role(s) do you play that are different from the government in ensuring adequate school WASH services? Have you received any training on school water and sanitation management? 2. How can the school best maintain water and toilet facilities? 3. What factors (causes) account for toilet and water facilities to be vandalized in the school if any? 4. What efforts have the community put in place to rehabilitate and put in place additional toilets? 5. What aspects of school plan and budget are included for water and sanitation in your school? 6. What kind of support do you receive from the government and CSOs if any to strengthen water and sanitation sector in your school?
D.	**E. Guiding Questions for Districts Leaders**

	This section does not cover specific questions; however the focus will be on the district leaders understanding of their roles, knowledge and experiences in planning and budgeting for school WASH service delivery, achievements and progresses made in the sector, unmet needs and constraints that ought to be addressed 1. What policy is there in place to govern management of school WaSH needs 2. How are school-*WaSH* budgeted for in the district? What proportion of the planned and committed funds from the central government does the district receive for school water and sanitation services? 3. How does the district respond to emergence water and sanitation situation in schools? 4. What mechanisms has the district put in place in working with civil society organisations in the WaSH sector? How do CSO plans and budget fed into overall district plans and budget? 5. How is school WaSH monitoring done in the district/ sub county and how do information from monitoring feed into operational plans for action and response? The targeted persons include; 1. District Chairperson and Secretary For Education (Political Head), 2. Chairperson of the Social Services Committee in the District Local Council. 3. District Water Officer, 03 Sub County Chiefs and; Three (03) Community Development Officers

Appendix 5: School Level Guiding Questions

School .....Sub County.....

Date..... Head Teacher.....

General Questions

1. *Does the school have functional water source? What is the number of latrine stances for boys, girls and teachers? Is each of the categories having separate latrines?*
2. *How does the school raise local revenue to put in place additional latrines and repair water and latrine facilities?*
3. *Does the school have O&M plans for sanitary facilities? Are these included in the over-all school development plans? Is it being implemented?*
4. *Is the school implementing O&M plans for water facilities?*
5. *Does the school have a hand washing facilities?*
6. *Is there evidence to show pupils are practicing safe water chain while at school?*
7. *Are the teachers and pupils (girls) being trained on RUMPS (Reusable Menstrual Pads)?*
8. *Does the school have wash room for girls? How is it helping girls? What kind of sanitary kits are being kept for emergency uses?*
9. *Does the school have a child-led school health club? How is it contributing to good hygiene and sanitation practices among pupils in the school?*

Specific Guiding Questions

1. Do hand washing facilities exist near the latrines?	
1. Do they have water and soap, how many children are practicing hand washing after visiting the latrine?	
2. What are we doing to encourage hand washing practices among pupils?	
3. Does the school have safe and clean storage containers for drinking water?	
4. Is the school that treating drinking water (e.g. using *Sodis* or *Aqua safe)?*	
5. What is the school doing to ensure girls have access to RUMPS while at school?	
6. What is the feedback from girls, teachers and parents (mothers) about use of RUMPS?	
7. How can the school ensure sustainability of hand washing and RUMPS in schools?	
1. What is school health club doing to bring about improved hygiene and sanitation in schools? What O&M plans do schools have?	
2. What sustainability mechanisms have been put in place to ensure continuity of school health clubs?	

3. What sustainability mechanisms have been put in place to ensure continuity of O&M of sanitary facilities?	

1. How many pupils have access to safe drinking water?	
2. Does the school have broken down facilities and have they been repaired?	
3. What is the source of water? How far is it from school?	
4. What mechanisms have been put in place to ensure sustainability of water supply systems in the schools?	
5. What is the level of adequacy of water and latrine provision for teachers in the school and residences? If inadequate, how does this affect their program for teaching?	

Functional water points means:

1. Time taken at the water source (long queues)
2. No contaminating risks around the water source
3. Reliable through year
4. Adequate water (not exceeding 30 strokes to fill 20 litre container, not exceeding 1 minute to fill 20 litre container for others)

Functional rural service provider associations means:

Refers to association of Sub County pump mechanics whose, rate of response to make an assessment of broken down sources should be within 48 hours

Functional water user Water User Committee means;

Has O&M plan and implements it. It collects user fees, keeps records - users, minutes and finances; has accountability mechanism)

Safe drinking water means:

- Pupils and teachers fetch water from a protected water source
- The school is using clean & covered storage containers for drinking water
- The School has clear drinking water without colour, insects and smell

Practicing safe water chain means:

1. The school is using clean containers for collection & transportation of drinking water from source.
2. The school is using clean & safe options for storage of drinking water (e.g. pots with taps)
3. The school with treatment options for drinking water e.g. SODIS

Appendix 6: List of People Interviewed

SN	Category	Office	Number of Persons		
			M	**F**	**T**
1.	Pupils (P5-P7)	Five (05) Schools: Ewava, Ayiova, Etori, Driwala and Nyio PS	27	21	48
2.	Head teachers	Five (05) Schools: Ewava, Ayiova, Etori, Driwala and Nyio PS	04	01	05
3.	SMC & PTAs	Five (05) Schools: Ewava, Ayiova, Etori, Driwala and Nyio PS	07	0	07
4.	Hon Saka Wilfred	Chairpersons Social Services, Arua DLG	01	0	01
5.	Hon Hamza	Chairperson Works, Arua DLG	01	0	01
6.	Mr. Wadri Henry	Senior Education Officer, Arua DLG	01	0	01
7.	Mr. Dinya Joseph	Inspector of Schools, Arua District/ Incharge EMIS	01	0	01
8.	Ms Letaru Mercy	District Water Officer/Community Mobilization.	0	01	01
9.	Ms Lillian Nabasirye	Advisor, WaSH/ SNV West Nile.	0	01	01
10.	Mr. Yikii Francis Kefa	Assistant Program Officer, CEFORD Arua	01	0	01
11.	Mr. Arubaku Godfrey	Lead Community Facilitator, CEFORD Arua	01	0	01
12.	Mr. Abdu Moses	Program Coordinator, CEGED Arua	01	0	01
13.	Mr. Acadribo Henry	Program Coordinator, CEGED Arua	01	0	01
14.	Ms Juliet Obiru	Program Assistant, CEGED Arua	0	01	01
15.	Odama Oscar Lee	Program Coordinator, YODEO Arua	01	0	01
	Totals		**47**	**25**	**72**

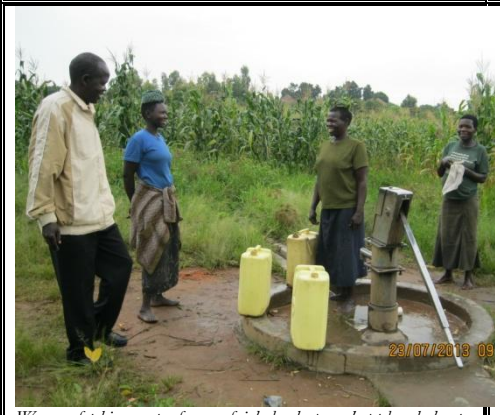
Appendix 7: List of Schools under Study/Visited

Sn	Name of the School	Sub county	District
1.	Ewava	Vurra	Arua
2.	Ayiova	Vurra	Arua
3.	Driwala	Pajulu	Arua
4.	Etori	Pajulu	Arua
5.	Nyio	Adumi	Arua

Appendix 8: Pictures Showing the State of Various School-WaSH Facilities

A Good Case of Girls latrine AT Driwala PS

A well-kept compound at Etori PS. Such management practices are one e way through which children's access to good sanitation can be enhanced.



Women fetching water from a fairly bush, poor-kept borehole at Driwala PS. Many communities around the school were more willing to fetch water from the school, but less ready to take responsibility for it.

An abandoned latrine at Etori PS due to the removal of all its door shutters. Such inicences were common in all schools.