



An AMCOW Country Status Overview

# Water Supply and Sanitation in Niger

Turning Finance into Services for 2015 and Beyond



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The first round of Country Status Overviews (CSO1) published in 2006 benchmarked the preparedness of sectors of 16 countries in Africa to meet the WSS MDGs based on their medium-term spending plans and a set of 'success factors' selected from regional experience. Combined with a process of national stakeholder consultation, this prompted countries to ask whether they had those 'success factors' in place and, if not, whether they should put them in place.

The second round of Country Status Overviews (CSO2) has built on both the method and the process developed in CSO1. The 'success factors' have been supplemented with additional factors drawn from country and regional analysis to develop the CSO2 scorecard. Together these reflect the essential steps, functions and results in translating finance into services through government systems—in line with Paris Principles for aid effectiveness. The data and summary assessments have been drawn from local data sources and compared with internationally reported data, and, wherever possible, the assessments have been subject to broad-based consultations with lead government agencies and country sector stakeholders, including donor institutions.

This second set of 32 Country Status Overviews (CSO2) on water supply and sanitation was commissioned by the African Ministers' Council on Water (AMCOW). Development of the CSO2 was led by the World Bank administered Water and Sanitation Program (WSP) in collaboration with the African Development Bank (AfDB), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the World Bank and the World Health Organization (WHO).

This report was produced in collaboration with the Government of Niger and other stakeholders during 2009/10. Some sources cited may be informal documents that are not readily available.

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## Strategic Overview

Since the end of the 1990s, the water supply and sanitation sector in Niger has undergone a large number of reforms; these have had a profound effect on both the institutional landscape and the means of intervention of the relevant ministries and the state's technical departments. As in many countries in the subregion, the decentralization process has placed the communes at the heart of the sector even though communes do not yet have the capacity to carry out their newly allocated roles, particularly that of acting as the contracting authority for the construction of infrastructure.

When current access rates are compared to targets, it is evident that the overall pace of infrastructure construction still needs to be accelerated, despite considerable efforts having been made in the urban water supply (UWS) and the progress in the rural water supply (RWS) subsector. The situation in the sanitation and hygiene subsector needs particular attention as access rates are exceedingly low, especially in rural areas.

According to the figures provided by the government, achieving the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) targets will require providing services to an additional 514,000 people per year for drinking water and an additional 1,361,000 people per year for sanitation. According to

the Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) figures, meeting the MDG targets will require that services are provided to an additional 855,000 people per year for drinking water and an additional 1,248,000 people per year for sanitation.

The target for drinking water remains achievable, but only if the government makes this a national priority and provided that this priority is supported by a robust investment program. However, it will be far more difficult to achieve the target for sanitation by 2015.

The prospects for investment are mixed, as the RWS subsector is severely underfunded. To address this, major financial commitments will need to be obtained from development partners through the National Water Supply and Sanitation Program (PNAEPA: *Programme National d'Alimentation d'Eau Potable et de l'Assainissement*), which is a central tool for the sector. However, to accelerate mobilization of the financing required to implement the PNAEPA, the country's political situation will first need to be seen to stabilize.

This second AMCOW Country Status Overview (CSO2) has been produced in collaboration with the Government of Niger and other stakeholders.

## Agreed priority actions to tackle these challenges, and ensure finance is effectively turned into services, are:

### Sectorwide

- Continue the transfer of water supply and sanitation related competencies to communes, with back-up support from deconcentrated technical departments.
- Clarify the institutional context for sanitation and hygiene and, in particular, the leadership role of the Directorate of Basic Sanitation (DAB: *Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*).
- Revitalize the National Water and Sanitation Commission, increase the frequency of meetings, and reinforce the secretariat.
- Ensure dialogue is maintained between stakeholders within the water supply and sanitation sector, notably through the consultation framework.
- Continue to use the objective-based program budget/Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (BPO/MTEF) tool by improving the way in which this is linked to the financial planning carried out at the commune level.
- Develop financing strategy within the sanitation and hygiene subsector, as both rural and urban areas are currently suffering from severe underinvestment.
- Improve the way in which nongovernmental financing is taken into account in the monitoring tools developed within the water supply and sanitation (WSS) sector.
- Develop the monitoring and evaluation framework for sanitation and hygiene (both in rural and urban areas) on which work is currently at a standstill.
- Harmonize the JMP and government approaches and identify areas of similarity between the two.

### Rural water supply

- Monitor the new 2009 indicators, which provide a much more refined analysis of the progress and issues associated with providing sustainable access.
- Actively seek new financing to overcome the funding deficit which is currently preventing both the MDG targets from being achieved and the PNAEPA from being properly implemented.
- Develop a common financing tool for the subsector, as per the recommendation of the 2010 joint sector review.
- Continue the Local Water and Sanitation Plan approach with a view to ensuring this becomes the principle tool used for concerted planning at local level.
- Widely distribute the *Guide to Water Supply Services within the Rural Water Supply Subsector* and supplement this with the targeted training of communes and operators.
- Develop a communication strategy for WSS in rural areas.
- Reinforce the monitoring of indicators at the commune level, ensuring this is aligned to the monitoring and evaluation approach used at the national level.
- Expand the use of the technical, accounting, and financial monitoring undertaken by the SAC-SPE (Back-up Support Structure for the Public Water Service) to all water service operators in rural areas and delegatee communes.

## Urban water supply

- Based on the recommendations of the current pricing study, establish how the urban sector can regain the financial viability it had attained in 2006.
- Complete the updating of the UWS master plan.
- Mobilize the funding required to achieve the targets set out in the PNAEPA, based on an expansion of the service area of the asset-holding company (SPEN: *Société de Patrimoine des Eaux du Niger*) and implementation of the new master plan.
- Maintain the quality of service to users and, particularly, the quality of the water distributed, including in secondary towns.
- Direct investment towards poor and disadvantaged users, particularly in the outlying settlements of Niamey and secondary towns.

## Rural sanitation and hygiene

- Ensure sanitation and hygiene in rural areas becomes a real political priority, which is reflected in the national budget.
- Reinforce the intervention capacities of the newly created Directorate of Basic Sanitation (*Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*).
- Develop pilot Community-Led Total Sanitation programs and scale up this approach should the pilots prove successful.
- Improve the way in which sanitation and hygiene is dealt with in nationally conducted household surveys.
- Ensure the recently approved national strategy is put into operation and seek financing for the subsector.

## Urban sanitation and hygiene

- Ensure sanitation and hygiene in urban areas becomes a real political priority, which is reflected in the national budget.
- Reinforce the intervention capacities of the newly created Directorate of Basic Sanitation (*Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*), who is also active in urban areas.
- Support the pit emptying service and set up sites that are equipped to deal with sludge disposal and treatment in Niamey and in the large towns.
- Improve the way in which sanitation and hygiene is dealt with in nationally conducted household surveys.
- Ensure the recently approved national strategy is put into operation and seek financing for the subsector.

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## Acronyms and Abbreviations

|        |  |         |  |
|--------|--|---------|--|
| AEP(A) | Water Supply (and Sanitation)<br>( <i>Approvisionnement en Eau Potable (et Assainissement)</i> )                       | DHPES   | Directorate of Public Hygiene and Health Education ( <i>Direction de l'Hygiène Publique et de l'Éducation pour la Santé</i> )                                |
| AFD    | French Development Agency ( <i>Agence Française de Développement</i> )   | DGSP    | General Directorate of Public Health ( <i>Direction Générale de la Santé Publique</i> )  |
| AfDB   | African Development Bank   | DP      | Development partner  |
| AMCOW  | African Ministers' Council on Water  | DRE     | Directorate of Water Resources ( <i>Direction des Ressources en Eau</i> )  |
| AMN    | Association of Municipalities<br>( <i>Association des Municipalités du Niger</i> )                                     | DRH     | Regional Directorate of Water<br>( <i>Direction Régionale de l'Hydraulique</i> )   |
| ARM    | Multi-sector Regulatory Authority<br>( <i>Autorité de Régulation Multisectorielle</i> )                                | EDS     | Population and Health Survey<br>( <i>Enquête Démographie et Santé</i> )  |
| AUE    | Water Users' Association<br>( <i>Association des Usagers de l'Eau</i> )  | EPEM    | Modern Water Point Equivalent<br>( <i>Equivalent Point d'Eau Moderne</i> )   |
| AUSPE  | Public Water Service Users' Association<br>( <i>Association des Usagers du Service Public de l'Eau</i> )               | GDP     | Gross domestic product   |
| AWF    | African Water Facility   | GNI     | Gross national income  |
| BCC    | Support and Control Offices<br>( <i>Bureau de Contrôle et de Conseil</i> )   | GoN     | Government of Niger  |
| BOAD   | West African Development Bank<br>( <i>Banque Ouest Africaine de Développement</i> )                                    | IRH     | Water Resources Inventory<br>( <i>Inventaire des Ressources Hydrauliques</i> )   |
| BPO    | Objective-based program budget<br>( <i>Budget Programme par Objectifs</i> )  | IWRM    | Integrated Water Resources Management  |
| CGPE   | Water Point Management Committee<br>( <i>Comité de Gestion de Point d'Eau</i> )  | JMP     | Joint Monitoring Programme (UNICEF/WHO)  |
| CLTS   | Community-Led Total Sanitation   | LIC     | Low-income country   |
| CNEA   | National Water and Sanitation Commission<br>( <i>Commission Nationale de l'Eau et de l'Assainissement</i> )            | MDG     | Millennium Development Goal  |
| CREA   | Regional Water and Sanitation Commission<br>( <i>Commission Régionale de l'Eau et de l'Assainissement</i> )            | MEE/LCD | Ministry of Water, the Environment and Desertification Control<br>( <i>Ministère de l'Eau, de l'Environnement et de la Lutte Contre la Désertification</i> ) |
| CREPA  | Regional Center for Drinking Water and Sanitation<br>( <i>Centre Régional pour l'Eau Potable et l'Assainissement</i> ) | MICS    | Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey  |
| CSO2   | Country Status Overview (second round)   | M&E     | Monitoring and evaluation  |
| CUN    | Urban Community of Niamey<br>( <i>Communauté Urbaine de Niamey</i> )   | MSP     | Ministry of Public Health<br>( <i>Ministère de la Santé Publique</i> )   |
| DAB    | Directorate of Basic Sanitation<br>( <i>Direction de l'Assainissement de Base</i> )                                    | MTEF    | Medium-Term Expenditure Framework  |
|        |  | MUH/C   | Ministry of Urban Development, Housing and Land Registry<br>( <i>Ministère de l'Urbanisme, de l'Habitat et du Cadastre</i> )                                 |
|        |  | NGO     | Nongovernmental organization   |
|        |  | O&M     | Operation and maintenance  |
|        |  | PANGIRE | National Action Plan for Integrated Water Resources Management<br>( <i>Plan d'Action National de Gestion Intégrée des Ressources en Eau</i> )                |

|         |  |        |  |
|---------|--|--------|--|
| PEADD   | Water and Sanitation Program for Sustainable Development<br><i>(Programme Eau et Assainissement pour un Développement Durable)</i> | SARAR  | Self-esteem, Associative strength, Resourcefulness, Action planning and Responsibility   |
| PDS     | Healthcare Development Plan<br><i>(Plan de Développement Sanitaire)</i>  | SDR    | Rural Development Strategy<br><i>(Stratégie de Développement Rural)</i>  |
| PEM     | Modern Water Point <i>(Point d'Eau Moderne)</i>  | SDRP   | Accelerated Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy<br><i>(Stratégie de Développement Accélééré et de Réduction de la Pauvreté)</i> |
| PHAST   | Participatory Hygiene and Sanitation Transformation  | SEEN   | Operating company for water utilities in Niger<br><i>(Société d'Exploitation des Eaux du Niger)</i>                                    |
| PLEA    | Local Water and Sanitation Plan<br><i>(Plan Local d'Eau et d'Assainissement)</i>   | SPEN   | Asset-holding company for water utilities in Niger<br><i>(Société de Patrimoine des Eaux du Niger)</i>                                 |
| PNAEPA  | National Water Supply and Sanitation Program <i>(Programme National d'Alimentation d'Eau Potable et de l'Assainissement)</i>       | TAT    | Theoretical access rate<br><i>(Taux d'Accès Théorique)</i>   |
| PSE     | Water Sector Program<br><i>(Programme Sectoriel Eau)</i>   | TD     | Service rate <i>(Taux de Desserte)</i>   |
| RGPH    | General Population and Housing Census<br><i>(Recensement Général de la Population et de l'Habitat)</i>                             | UCP    | Project Coordination Unit<br><i>(Unité de Coordination de Projet)</i>  |
| RSH     | Rural sanitation and hygiene   | UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund   |
| RWS     | Rural water supply   | USH    | Urban sanitation and hygiene   |
| SAC/SPE | Back-up Support Structure for the Public Water Service <i>(Structure d'Appui Conseil au Service Public de l'Eau)</i>               | UWS    | Urban water supply   |
|         |  | WHO    | World Health Organization  |
|         |  | WSP    | Water and Sanitation Program   |
|         |  | WSS    | Water supply and sanitation  |

**Exchange rate:<sup>1</sup>**

2009 average: US\$1 = 472.1863 CFA Francs.

2010 average: US\$1 = 496.6657 CFA Francs.



# 1. Introduction

The African Ministers' Council on Water (AMCOW) commissioned the production of a second round of Country Status Overviews (CSOs) to better understand what underpins progress in water supply and sanitation and what its member governments can do to accelerate that progress across countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).<sup>2</sup> AMCOW delegated this task to the World Bank's Water and Sanitation Program and the African Development Bank who are implementing it in close partnership with UNICEF and WHO in over 30 countries across SSA. This CSO2 report has been produced in collaboration with the Government of Niger and other stakeholders during 2009/10.

The analysis aims to help countries assess their own service delivery pathways for turning finance into water supply and sanitation services in each of four subsectors: rural and urban water supply, and rural and urban sanitation and hygiene. The CSO2 analysis has three main components: a review of past coverage; a costing model to assess the adequacy of future investments; and a scorecard which allows diagnosis of particular bottlenecks along the service delivery pathway. The CSO2's contribution is to answer not only whether past trends and future finance are sufficient to meet sector targets, but what specific issues need to be addressed to ensure finance is effectively turned into accelerated coverage in water supply and sanitation. In this spirit, specific priority actions have been identified through consultation. A synthesis report, available separately, presents best practice and shared learning to help realize these priority actions.

## 2. Sector Overview: Coverage and Finance Trends

### Coverage: Assessing Past Progress

The figures below give an overview of the development in the access rates to water supply and sanitation (WSS) services between 1990, 2008, and 2015. The figures use two sources: JMP figures and those provided by the Government of Niger (GoN). The 2015 target has either been calculated based on the 1990 access rate provided by the JMP or set by the government in the sector’s reference documents—in this case, the National Water Supply and Sanitation Program (PNAEPA: *Programme National d’Alimentation d’Eau Potable et de l’Assainissement*).

As far as access to drinking water is concerned, there is a significant difference between the Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) estimates and those of the GoN (as presented during the 2010 sector review). The situation is complicated by the fact that the GoN has changed the indicators used for the rural water supply (RWS) subsector following the establishment of an inventory of facilities at the end of 2009. The latest estimates made using this new indicator, utilized by the government to measure the coverage rate in rural areas (the ‘theoretical access

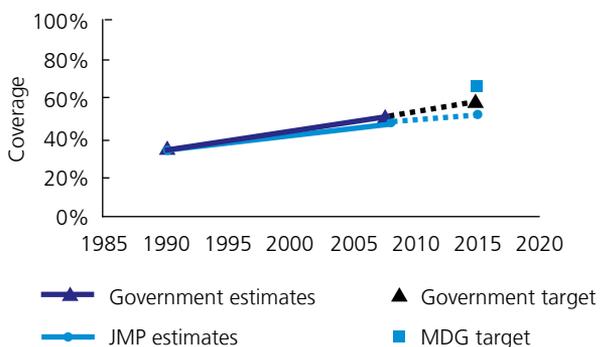
rate’), tend to be closer to the JMP estimates than those calculated from the previous indicator. For the urban water supply (UWS) subsector, however, there is still a considerable difference between the two estimates.

Niger is still a long way from achieving the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) targets for water supply and sanitation—in both subsectors, the effort required far exceeds that which the sector is currently able to provide. As far as water supply is concerned, the main bottleneck is to be found in the rural water supply subsector (80 percent of the population of Niger still lives in rural areas). However, the situation is most acute in the sanitation and hygiene subsector, where it will be impossible for Niger to achieve its MDG target.

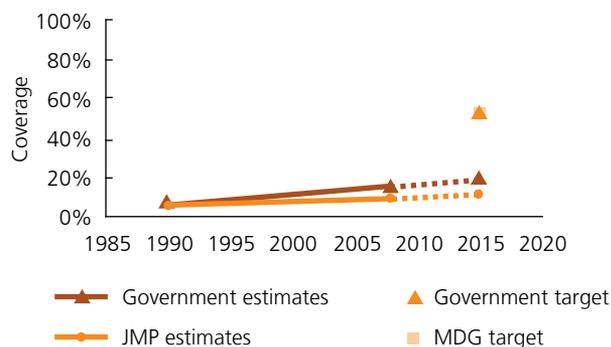
To illustrate the difference in access to drinking water and access to sanitation, the average number of additional people provided with access to sanitation and drinking water each year between 1990 and 2008 can be compared to the number of people to whom it will be necessary to provide access between 2009 and 2015 for the MDG targets to be reached. The results vary depending on the estimate used:

**Figure 1**  
Progress in water supply and sanitation coverage

#### Water supply



#### Sanitation



Source: JMP and the Government of Niger.

- If the JMP figures are used, the ratio stands at 3.64 for drinking water—which means that, between now and 2015, there needs to be an almost fourfold increase in the efforts made between 1990 and 2008 if the MDG targets are to be met. For sanitation, however, this ratio stands at 23.65—which will be a far more considerable challenge.
- If the figures utilized by the GoN for 2009 and 2015 are used, these same ratios equate to 1.89 for drinking water and 13.75 for sanitation.

The difference in these ratios can be explained by the fact that the MDG target for sanitation set by the GoN is slightly lower than the target calculated using the JMP data; in addition, the GoN’s MDG target for drinking water is significantly lower than the target determined using JMP data (58 percent compared to 68 percent). However, regardless of the target used, far greater efforts will be required for sanitation than for drinking water.

To achieve the MDG target for drinking water, access needs to be provided to an additional 855,000 (JMP) or 514,000 people (GoN) per year between 2009 and 2015. For sanitation, an additional 1,248,000 (JMP) or 1,361,000 (GoN) people per year need to be provided with access to an acceptable sanitation facility between 2009 and 2015—even assuming that sanitation facilities are to be largely self-financed by households, this remains an unattainable target given the current performance.

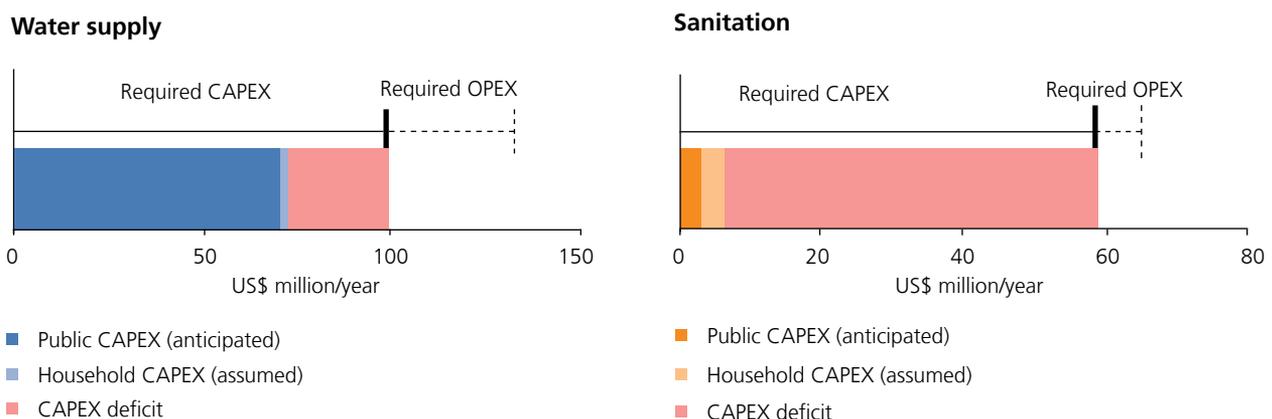
## Investment Requirements: Testing the Sufficiency of Finance

The CSO2 costing methodology also provides an estimate of the amount to be invested in each subsector and the proportion of this amount that corresponds to public investment. The anticipated financial flows for this estimate is based on the 2011–13 objective-based program budget (BPO: *Budget Programme par Objectifs*) which corresponds to the financing acquired and that which is likely to be obtained.

Based on the CSO2 estimate, investment of US\$100 million per year will be required to meet drinking water targets and US\$59 million for sanitation (see Figure 2 and Table 1). For the 2009–15 period, the total investment requirements stand at US\$1,113 million for drinking water and sanitation. Nearly 75 percent of this investment needs to be allocated to rural areas.

It is important to note that the investment considered in the calculation only relates to drinking water and household sanitation facilities that are to be constructed and rehabilitated to meet the MDG targets and exclude, for instance, studies and upfront investment required for mobilizing water resources, awareness-raising and hygiene education activities, as well as industrial sanitation and wastewater treatment plants.

**Figure 2**  
Required vs. anticipated (public) and assumed (household) expenditure for water



Source: CSO2 estimates.

**Table 1**  
Coverage and investment figures

|                           | Coverage   |            |            | Target      | Population requiring access | CAPEX requirements |          | Anticipated public CAPEX |           |          | Assumed HH CAPEX | Total deficit |
|---------------------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------|--------------------------|-----------|----------|------------------|---------------|
|                           | 1990       | 2009       | 2015       |             |                             | Total              | Public   | Domestic                 | External  | Total    |                  |               |
|                           | %          | %          | %          | '000/year   | US\$ million/year           |                    |          |                          |           |          |                  |               |
| Rural water supply        | 31%        | 48%        | 54%        | 376         | 71                          | 68                 | 0        | 25                       | 25        | 1        | 45               |               |
| Urban water supply        | 57%        | 73%        | 76%        | 112         | 29                          | 29                 | 0        | 46                       | 46        | 0        | -                |               |
| <b>Water supply total</b> | <b>35%</b> | <b>52%</b> | <b>58%</b> | <b>488</b>  | <b>100</b>                  | <b>96</b>          | <b>0</b> | <b>71</b>                | <b>71</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>28</b>        |               |
| Rural sanitation          | 2%         | 6%         | 50%        | 1023        | 45                          | 23                 | 0        | 3                        | 3         | 3        | 40               |               |
| Urban sanitation          | 19%        | 59%        | 75%        | 156         | 14                          | 7                  | 0        | 1                        | 1         | 1        | 12               |               |
| <b>Sanitation total</b>   | <b>5%</b>  | <b>15%</b> | <b>54%</b> | <b>1178</b> | <b>59</b>                   | <b>29</b>          | <b>0</b> | <b>3</b>                 | <b>3</b>  | <b>3</b> | <b>53</b>        |               |

Source: CSO2 estimates.<sup>3</sup>

**Table 2**  
Annual O&M requirements

| Subsector                 | O&M<br>US\$ million/year |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| Rural water supply        | 20                       |
| Urban water supply        | 13                       |
| <b>Water supply total</b> | <b>34</b>                |
| Rural sanitation          | 4                        |
| Urban sanitation          | 3                        |
| <b>Sanitation total</b>   | <b>6</b>                 |

Source: CSO2 costing.

The analysis clearly highlights the acute underfinancing of RWS in Niger, which represents the largest part of the sector (and 84 percent of the population in 2008). Even though the BPO is relatively conservative (as it only takes account of obtained or probable financing), there is a large discrepancy between the investment requirements and the financing forecast for the next three years; this gives an indication of the effort required on the part of the government and the development partner (DP) community over the years to come.

There is an element of uncertainty surrounding the proportion of the population to be provided with access in 2015, as this estimate is based on a relatively old census (2001). The results of the next General Population and Housing Census (RGPH: *Recensement Général de la Population et de l'Habitat*) due in 2011 could, therefore, lead to an upward or downward revision of population growth and so of the population to be provided with

access. This would, in turn, modify the funding deficit given above.

The 'overfinancing' of the UWS subsector is somewhat misleading, as the levels of financing required annually for the 2011–15 period have been estimated by extrapolating the amounts required over the first three years (2011–13) using the estimates given in the BPO.

In addition to the investment requirements presented above, US\$40 million per year will be needed to finance the operation and maintenance (O&M) costs of current and future infrastructure, with US\$34 million of this required for drinking water and US\$6 million for sanitation (CSO2 estimates, see Table 2). A large part of these costs is to be borne by households, either out of their own budget (for household latrines), through the tariff or via a fixed contribution (for water supply infrastructure in both rural and urban areas).

The availability of finance is only part of the picture. Bottlenecks can in fact occur throughout the service delivery pathway—all the institutions, processes and actors that translate sector funding into sustainable services. These bottlenecks can be caused by the low capacity of communes to assume their contracting authority responsibilities, the cumbersome nature of the public procurement procedures, and the limited capacities of the private sector in construction. The rest of this report evaluates the service delivery pathway in its entirety, locating the bottlenecks and presenting the agreed priority actions to help address them.

### 3. Reform Context: Introducing the CSO2 Scorecard

The CSO2 scorecard is an assessment tool providing a snapshot of reform progress along the service delivery pathway. This scorecard looks at nine building blocks of the service delivery pathway, which correspond to specific functions classified in three categories: three functions that refer to **enabling** conditions for putting services in place (policy development, planning new undertakings, budgeting); three actions that relate to **developing** the service (expenditure of funds, equity in the use of these funds, service output), and three functions that relate to **sustaining** these services (facility maintenance, expansion of infrastructure, use of the service).<sup>4</sup> Each building block is assessed against specific indicators and scored from 1 (poor) to 3 (excellent) accordingly.

Figure 3 shows the overall results obtained by Niger for these three criteria, which are compared to the average results of its peer group countries in SSA.<sup>5</sup> It can be seen that the overall results for Niger are lower than its peer-group average, except for the ‘development’ criterion where the results are similar. However, for the two other criteria (enabling conditions and sustainability), the performances of Niger fall below the average of other low-income countries.

As in many countries in the subregion, at the end of the 1990s Niger put in place a range of reforms that have significantly altered the institutional landscape of the WSS sector. Some of the most notable elements of these reforms are:

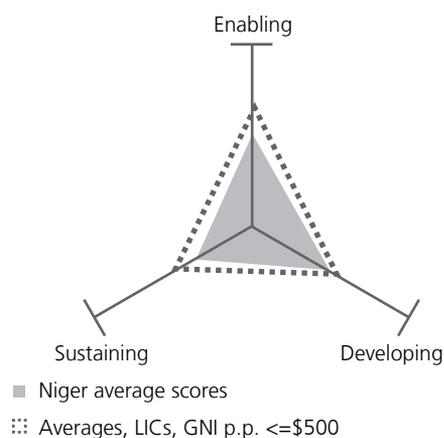
- The establishment of a public-private partnership in the UWS subsector, accompanied by a wide-ranging investment program (the Water Sector Program or PSE: *Programme Sectoriel Eau*).
- The reorganization of the ministry in charge of water, which took place during 2007 and which fundamentally redefined the state’s role within the sector.
- The gradual establishment of the conditions necessary for the development of a programmatic approach within the rural water supply subsector.

The two reference strategies for the WSS sector are:

- The Accelerated Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (SDRP: *Stratégie de Développement Accéléré et de Réduction de la Pauvreté*), which is the reference framework for economic and social development in Niger. Partners underlined their commitment to support the implementation of this strategy during the external support agency round table held in Brussels in October 2007.
- The Rural Development Strategy (SDR: *Stratégie de Développement Rural*): Adopted in 2003, the overall objective of the SDR is to ‘reduce the rate of rural poverty from 66 percent to 52 percent in 2015’. This is the only reference framework that exists for public intervention in the rural sector. It consists of 14 programs, one of which is the ‘water supply and sanitation program’ (No 8).

For policy and strategy, there are two reference frameworks in place: (a) the ‘water and sanitation policy and strategy document’ of May 2001; and (b) the ‘master plan for developing and managing water resources’, developed in

**Figure 3**  
Average scorecard results for enabling, developing, and sustaining service delivery, and peer-group comparison



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

1993 and updated in 1997. Two sector policies that needed to be added to these frameworks; these were adopted in 1999 and in March 2001 for urban water supply and rural water supply respectively. Despite the fact that they contain fundamental principles, these two policies have never been accorded regulatory or legislative status.

In the sanitation and hygiene sector, the basic texts are: (a) the sector policy for health, adopted in 2002; and (b) the 2005–10 Healthcare Development Plan (PDS: *Plan de Développement sanitaire*). A very precise and comprehensive operational strategy for hygiene and basic sanitation was adopted in 2009. This is due to be implemented in 2010 led by the Ministry of Water, the Environment and Desertification Control (MEE/LCD: *Ministère de l'Eau, de l'Environnement et de la Lutte Contre la Désertification*)—the Directorate of Basic Sanitation (*Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*) and other ministries concerned.

There are several reform projects in progress that relate to national policies and strategies. A major development within the institutional environment has been the effective establishment of a sector coordination and stakeholder consultation body, the National Water and Sanitation Commission (CNEA: *Commission Nationale de l'Eau et de l'Assainissement*), as well as the development of a National Water Supply and Sanitation Program (PNAEPA) for the 2010–20 period. The PNAEPA should become the reference for the whole sector with regard to the baseline situation (2009), planning, and strategic directions. A National Action Plan for Integrated Water Resources Management (PANGIRE: *Plan d'Action National pour la Gestion Intégrée des Ressources en Eau*) is in the process of being developed.<sup>6</sup>

Another important development within the political and regulatory framework relates to the decision to expand the use of Local Water and Sanitation Plans (PLEA: *Plans*

**Table 3**  
**Key dates in the reform of the sector in Niger**

| Year | Event  |
|------|--|
| 1999 | Sector policy letter for the urban water supply subsector, setting out the progression of the public utility ( <i>Société Nationale des Eaux</i> ) towards a public-private partnership.   |
| 2000 | A public-private partnership for urban water supply is established between a public asset-holding company (SPEN: <i>Société de Patrimoine des Eaux du Niger</i> ) and a private lessee (SEEN: <i>Société d'Exploitation des Eaux du Niger</i> ). |
| 2001 | The Water Sector Program for the UWS subsector is launched.<br>Sector policy letter for the rural water supply subsector.  |
| 2002 | Definition of a delegated management framework for small towns (Maradi workshop).<br>Law on the transfer of competencies to local authorities.   |
| 2003 | Adoption of the Rural Development Strategy, the new reference framework.   |
| 2005 | Communes effectively set up, election of the first mayors.<br>A roadmap for reforming the water supply and sanitation sector is adopted.   |
| 2006 | The National Water and Sanitation Commission (CNEA) is established.  |
| 2007 | The Accelerated Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy is adopted.<br>Creation of a Ministry of Water and the reorganization of services.  |
| 2008 | The National Water Supply and Sanitation Program is developed.<br>First annual sector review is held for the WSS sector.   |
| 2009 | Second annual sector review is held (June 2009).<br>Monitoring indicators (drinking water and sanitation, rural and urban) are defined.<br><i>Guide to Water Supply Services within the Rural Water Supply Subsector</i> is developed.           |
| 2010 | Promulgation of the new Water Code (April 2010).<br>Third annual sector review is held (May 2010).<br>Revision of the 2010–20 National Water Supply and Sanitation Program.  |

*Locaux d'Eau et d'Assainissement*) as planning tools at commune level. A pilot PLEA was devised at the end of 2009/beginning of 2010 and this initiative was deemed successful enough to be extended across the national territory.

Lastly, the development of a *Guide to Water Supply Services within the Rural Water Supply Subsector (Guide des services d'alimentation en eau potable dans le domaine de l'hydraulique rurale)* has led to clarification and definition of the roles, relationships, responsibilities, and mandates of those stakeholders involved in the construction of modern water points (PEM: *Points d'Eau Modernes*), in management and in monitoring and control by taking account of national decentralization and deconcentration strategic directions. This *Guide* to water supply services is currently in the process of being distributed.

Among the main texts governing the WSS sector, the Water Code, in preparation for a number of years and which has recently been adopted (April 2010), acts as a reference document not only for water supply, but

also for the Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) aspect. Nevertheless, there are a whole series of implementing provisions missing from this Water Code, although these are currently being developed.

It is also important to highlight the recent adoption of national drinking water standards (NN 03-02-002, February 2006) following the adoption of standards pertaining to liquid waste (NN 03-02-001, December 2004) developed by the Ministry of Public Health and the Ministry of Commerce.

Table 3 provides a summary of the main steps taken as part of the WSS sector reform process in Niger. Sections 4 to 6 then highlight progress and challenges across three thematic areas—the institutional framework, finance, and monitoring and evaluation (M&E)—benchmarking Niger against its peer countries based on a grouping by gross national income. The related indicators are extracted from the scorecard and presented in charts at the beginning of each section. The scorecards for each subsector are presented in their entirety in Sections 7 to 10.

## 4. Institutional Framework

### Priority actions for the institutional framework

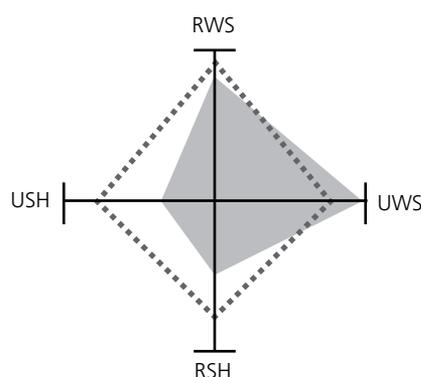
- Continue the transfer of water supply and sanitation related competencies to communes, with back-up support from decentralized technical departments.
- Clarify the institutional context for sanitation and hygiene and, in particular, the leadership role of DAB.
- Revitalize the National Water and Sanitation Commission, increase the frequency of meetings, and reinforce the secretariat.
- Ensure dialogue is maintained between stakeholders within the water supply and sanitation sector, notably through the consultation framework.

The Ministry of Water, the Environment and Desertification Control (MEE/LCD), in conjunction with other ministries concerned, is responsible for designing, developing, and implementing the national policy for water resources, as set out in the April 2010 decree that defines its roles and organization. MEE/LCD oversees the asset-holding company, *Société de Patrimoine des Eaux du Niger* (SPEN), which is responsible for water supply in urban areas. SPEN has signed a lease contract with SEEN (a private company whose majority shareholder is the Veolia group) who operates the water service in Niamey and in 51 other towns. The Ministry also has some responsibility for sanitation through its Directorate of Basic Sanitation (DAB: *Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*), created at the beginning of 2010.

In addition to MEE/LCD, there are two other ministries active in the sector:

- The Ministry of Public Health (MSP: *Ministère de la Santé Publique*) is in charge of hygiene, health education, and sanitation. Sanitation and hygiene responsibilities are entrusted to the Directorate of Public Hygiene and Health Education (DHPES: *Direction de l'Hygiène Publique et de l'Éducation pour la Santé*), which comes under the supervision of the General Directorate of Public Health (DGSP: *Direction Générale de la Santé Publique*).
- The Ministry of Urban Development, Housing, and Land Registry (MUH/C: *Ministère de l'Urbanisme, de l'Habitat et du Cadastre*), is in charge of sewerage and large facilities used for managing surface runoff.

**Figure 4**  
Scorecard indicator scores relating to institutional framework compared to peer group<sup>7</sup>



■ Niger average scores  
⋯ Averages, LICs, GNI p.p. <=\$500

Source: CSO2 scorecard.

This ministry is involved in the design, development, implementation, and monitoring of government policy for sanitation, housing, and land registry through the Directorate of Sanitation (solid waste, stormwater, wastewater) and Urban Infrastructure (public roads and various networks).

Whereas responsibility for drinking water is clearly centralized at MEE/LCD level, the situation is less clear for sanitation and hygiene, as the different ministries involved do not have prior experience of working together.

The decentralization laws recognize the local authorities as managers and regulators of natural resources, including water. As such, local authorities and, in particular, the communes are supposed to act as contracting authorities for water supply facilities. However, the communes have still not fully taken on this role as the transfer of competencies and resources has not yet taken effect.

The vast majority of communes in Niger (213 out of a total of 266 existing communes) are grouped together within the Association of Municipalities (AMN: *Association des Municipalités du Niger*). The aim of this association is to act as a link between the communes and the public authorities for all areas that come under the communes' remit. However, the AMN does not currently consider the WSS sector as an area for priority action.

Coordination of DPs is undertaken through a consultative framework that meets regularly and defines DP common positions to be upheld and defended vis-à-vis governmental partners. This coordination is currently being facilitated by Switzerland, which, in the past, was highly involved in the sector. One of the main features of state/DP consultation is the organization of the joint annual sector review.

For planning, the situation varies for each subsector. In general, the implementation of the objective-based program budget for water supply and sanitation has been a highly positive development, even though not all partners are yet required to use this tool, meaning that its impact on actual planning remains somewhat limited.

The fact remains that the communes are not currently in a position to carry out the planning that theoretically falls under their remit, either in rural or urban areas. The PLEAs are a useful measure but it will no doubt be necessary to wait several years before these plans are successfully adopted by the communes and their use expanded across the whole country.

There is currently no planning conducted within the sanitation and hygiene subsector, either in rural or urban areas. The PNAEPA has laid the foundations for a national planning structure, yet this is still to be implemented in the field. The capacity of the new DAB to assume its role as leader will determine the success of this planning approach.

Within the UWS subsector, planning has been considerably reinforced by the establishment of SPEN, the asset-holding company responsible for planning, as well as by the work carried out as part of the Water Sector Program (PSE) to

ensure planning is better aligned. The Project Coordination Unit (UCP: *Unité de Coordination de Projet*), set up as part of PSE implementation, has clearly contributed to the performance of the subsector. The UWS subsector now boasts a coherent action and investment plan and the master plan has recently been updated.

For the RWS subsector, the planning effort continues but is being hampered by several different factors: (a) the lack of capacity within communes to carry out this planning; (b) the lack of practical experience and resources within the decentralized departments to support the communes in this task; (c) the current weaknesses of the M&E framework (see Section 6); and (d) the absence of a planning framework at the national level to promote this approach. Here again, the foundations have been laid by the PNAEPA, but a lot more needs to be done to make this operational.

In 2006, the government set up a consultative body for policy and strategy within the sector: the National Water and Sanitation Commission (CNEA: *Commission Nationale de l'Eau et de l'Assainissement*). The CNEA's role is to help define the overall targets and directions of the national water supply and sanitation policy. The establishment of the CNEA is a sign that significant progress is being made in the sector.

The CNEA is composed of 55 members representing seven delegations: the state (20 members), local authorities (eight members), nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and sector associations (seven members), private companies from the commercial sector (seven members), users of the sector (eight members), national and regional specialist bodies (three members), and DPs (two members). It consists of a general assembly, an office, a permanent secretary, and workgroups.

The CNEA has held only two of its four statutory meetings since it was created. On each occasion, it has selected its own topics for discussion, but the decisions made and recommendations put forward have not been properly followed up. The CNEA is hampered by the fact that the secretary's role is carried out by the MEE/LCD (specifically by the Directorate of Water Resources [DRE: *Direction des Ressources en Eau*]), who does not have the necessary resources available to conduct this role successfully.

There is also a Consultation Framework in place in Niger aimed at promoting dialogue between water supply and sanitation sector stakeholders. This Consultation Framework, which previously focused mainly on rural areas, was expanded to include the UWS subsector at the end of 2009.

## 5. Financing and its Implementation

### Priority actions for financing

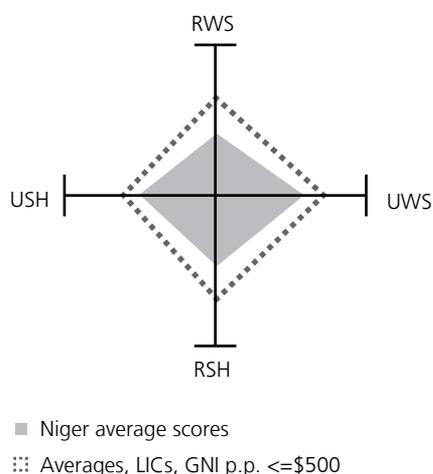
- Continue to use the BPO/MTEF tool by improving the way in which this is linked to the financial planning carried out at the commune level.
- Assist the UWS subsector to regain financial stability as part of the new financial cycle created as a result of the PSE.
- Increase funding efforts over the course of the next few years to finance the RWS subsector, which is still severely underfunded.
- Develop financing within the sanitation and hygiene subsector, as both rural and urban areas are currently suffering from severe underinvestment.
- Improve the way in which nongovernmental financing is taken into account in the monitoring tools developed within the WSS sector.

The WSS sector in Niger is highly dependent upon public development aid. Not including the operating costs of the ministries involved, it is estimated that over 90 percent of funding comes from bilateral and multilateral aid. The main multilateral external support agencies within the sector are the World Bank, the European Union, the African Development Bank, and UNICEF; the main bilateral donors are France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Denmark, Germany, Japan, Italy, and Saudi Arabia.

As far as the RWS subsector is concerned, the principle means of intervention is still the project, with coordination undertaken by MEE/LCD. The situation is rendered complex by the number of parts or components dealing with water supply and sanitation within predominantly agricultural, pastoral or rural development projects (for which MEE/LCD does not directly act as contracting authority). This traditional project-based approach has recently started to evolve due to the gradual implementation of a programmatic approach, whose main tools are the BPO and PNAEPA. The initial positive effects of this approach are beginning to become apparent insofar as the coordination of interventions has improved, but it has not yet had any real impact on the provision of aid or financing mechanisms.

One of the main characteristics of development aid in the WSS sector in Niger is the involvement of NGOs and

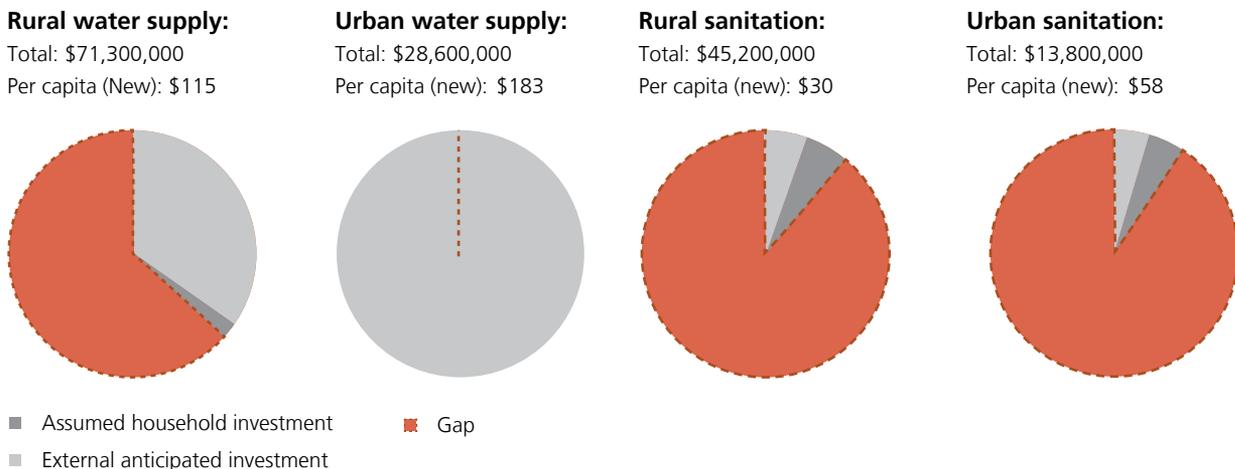
**Figure 5**  
Scorecard indicator scores relating to financing, compared to peer group<sup>8</sup>



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

decentralized cooperation<sup>9</sup> (several hundred of these are active in the country). The development of decentralization has reinforced decentralized cooperation activity, meaning that communes are emerging as partners at the local level. Several programs that have recently been launched by NGOs emphasize the contracting authority role of communes.<sup>10</sup>

**Figure 6**  
**Overall and per capita investment requirements and contribution of anticipated financing by source**



Source: CSO2 estimates.

The last review of public expenditure (which was restricted to the RWS subsector) was carried out in 2008 and related only to the 2001–07 period. Over this period, an average of US\$26 million was spent each year on the construction of water supply facilities in rural areas. Around 95 percent of this amount was mobilized by the GoN, mainly through development aid. The remaining 5 percent came from the users themselves. It is important to note that only one quarter of the sector's public expenditure comes from the national budget, and that a large part of this contribution is allocated to the ministry's operating costs (mainly for salaries—around US\$3 million per year). Approximately 70 percent of the national budget is executed each year (the annual budget is always frozen during the final quarter for accounting purposes). It is estimated that NGOs contribute 10 percent of total sector expenditure on investment.

As far as the UWS subsector is concerned, it is estimated that around US\$125 million was mobilized between 2002 and 2009 as part of the Water Sector Project (*Projet Sectoriel Eau*), with US\$3.4 million of this coming out of SPEN's own funds. This equates to an annual funding stream of around US\$15.6 million per year. In total, 600,000 additional people are estimated to have gained access to drinking water in urban areas between 2002 and 2009 (SPEN's perimeter remained constant throughout this period: 52 centers,

including Niamey). The average investment per new user over this period therefore stands at US\$190; this is in line with the costs used in the CSO2 scorecard methodology.

For sanitation and hygiene, the available data is fragmented and very imprecise. There are several reasons for this: a considerable part of the investment costs is currently being mobilized by households themselves; very little investment is committed from MEE/LCD or MSP funds; financing allocated to sanitation and hygiene is often integrated into larger projects; a large part of the funding is mobilized by other ministries or other stakeholders (NGOs, but also UNICEF, which is an important stakeholder within the subsector); and lastly, there is no M&E mechanism in place to measure either effort or progress made. It is therefore very difficult to estimate the level of funding that is currently being allocated to sanitation and hygiene.

Figure 6 shows the investment requirements for each subsector, as well as the prospects for financing over the next few years. Although all of the financing required has been committed to the UWS subsector, the anticipated financing for the other three subsectors is insufficient to cover requirements. The situation is particularly acute for the rural and urban sanitation subsectors, where the anticipated funding falls far below the level required.

## 6. Sector Monitoring and Evaluation

### Priority actions for sector monitoring and evaluation

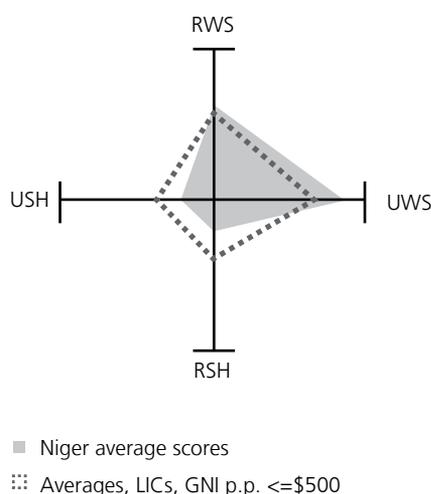
- Adopt the new, recently developed (2009) monitoring indicators for the RWS subsector.
- Develop the monitoring and evaluation framework for sanitation and hygiene, work on which is currently at a standstill both in rural and urban areas.
- Harmonize the JMP and Government approaches and identify areas of similarity between the two.

With the exception of the UWS subsector, there was, until recently, no real national M&E mechanism in place for the WSS sector in Niger. In the UWS sector there have been clearly and regularly monitored indicators since 2001, the year the lease contract was signed between SPEN and SEEN. In the RWS subsector the water point database (the Water Resources Inventory, IRH: *Inventaire des Ressources Hydrauliques*) was not regularly updated: there was no baseline in place and the indicators used (particularly those used for calculating coverage rates) were not considered relevant. Considerable progress was, however, made in this area over the 2009–10 period. As far as sanitation and hygiene is concerned, the subsector as a whole is still lagging behind. As a result, the current situation varies from one subsector to another.

As indicated above, the situation is satisfactory to highly satisfactory for the **urban water supply** subsector. The quality of data produced by both SEEN and SPEN enables monitoring to be carried out of the performance indicators listed in the contracts that links the state, SPEN and SEEN (a performance contract between the state and SPEN and a leasing contract between SPEN and SEEN). The presence of the Multi-sector Regulatory Authority (ARM: *Autorité de Régulation Multisectorielle*) has also had a positive impact on the monitoring and evaluation mechanism put in place within the UWS subsector.

For the **rural water supply** subsector, up until 2009 the lack of an effective M&E system made it difficult to obtain

**Figure 7**  
Scorecard indicator scores relating to sector M&E, compared to peer group<sup>11</sup>



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

information on the development of the subsector (notably in terms of facilities constructed and financial resources used). It was also difficult to assess progress against the targets set out in the subsector's reference documents, the SDRP and SDR, and MDG targets. The IRH database, managed by the ministry in charge of water (currently MEE/LCD), is not considered a particularly reliable tool and is cumbersome and costly to update.

Until 2009, the official indicator for water supply (the coverage rate), calculated annually, did not provide any real information on the population with access to drinking water and there were no indicators in place within the sector for evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness of these annual exercises. The calculation method used for this indicator explains the considerable difference in the access rate provided by the JMP and the rate obtained by the government. The 2009 review highlighted this issue and called upon the minister to implement emergency measures to rectify the situation. In 2009–10, two significant changes were made:

- A baseline was established at the end of 2009, which involved the participation of both the ministry's decentralized departments and the communes; this inventory enabled a comprehensive set of photographs to be obtained relating to the number and condition of water supply facilities, photographs that had not previously been available for a number of years.
- Three new indicators were defined and approved to replace the coverage rate indicator. These indicators provide a far more precise picture of access to the public water supply service; the baseline established at the end of 2009 enabled the validity of these three indicators to be established and this was presented at the 2010 review.

The establishment of these three indicators and of the baseline at the end of 2009 is a clear sign of progress. These indicators have been integrated into the PNAEPA and the ministry has requested that the logistical framework of the SDR also be revised to include them. Lastly, these indicators (and the new targets set out in the PNAEPA) have been incorporated into the SDRP mid-term

review. It still remains to be seen whether the ministry is willing to take full ownership of these new indicators, and whether the ministry has the necessary human and financial resources available to regularly update them.

As far as **sanitation and hygiene** is concerned, the only source of available data comes from the regularly commissioned household surveys; the last significant survey was conducted in 2006 (EDS-MICS). The RGPH planned for 2011, which includes a 'housing' section, should also provide a better understanding of the situation.

As the sanitation and hygiene subsector is currently in the process of being reorganized, it is not really in a position to influence which categories should be included in the next household survey, despite the fact that there are some interesting opportunities in terms of sample size (for instance, the new Population and Household survey that will take place in 2011).

The creation of a Directorate of Basic Sanitation within the ministry in charge of water is likely to lead to progress being made in the implementation of a monitoring and evaluation system. Again, it will be necessary for this Directorate to quickly find the resources to identify those indicators which are to act as reference for the subsector and to establish a baseline.

The 2010 joint review put forward the recommendation that, to improve monitoring of the national situation for sanitation and hygiene, household surveys (whether specifically related to sanitation and hygiene or not) should be conducted on a regular basis, every two years for instance, to enable the situation to be closely monitored.

## 7. Subsector: Rural Water Supply

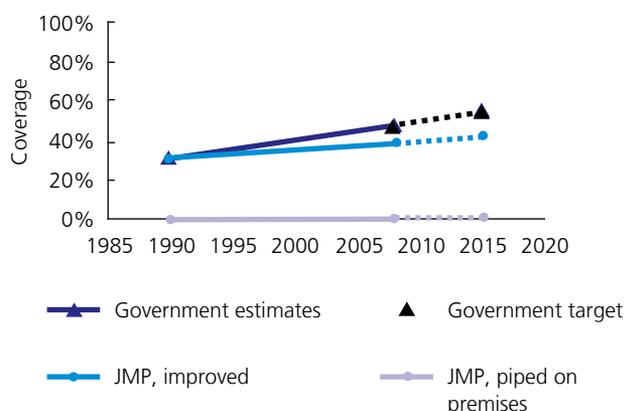
### Priority actions for rural water supply

- Monitor the new 2009 indicators, which provide a much more refined analysis of the progress and issues associated with providing sustainable access.
- Actively seek new financing to overcome the funding deficit which is currently preventing both the MDG targets from being achieved and the PNAEPA from being properly implemented.
- Develop a common financing tool for the sector, as per the recommendation of the 2010 joint sector review.
- Continue the Local Water and Sanitation Plan approach with a view to ensuring this becomes the principle tool used for concerted planning at the local level.
- Widely distribute the *Guide to Water Supply Services within the Rural Water Supply Subsector* and supplement this with the targeted training of communes and operators.
- Develop a communication strategy for WSS in rural areas.
- Reinforce the monitoring of indicators at the commune level, ensuring this is aligned to the monitoring and evaluation approach used at the national level.
- Expand the use of the technical, accounting, and financial monitoring undertaken by the SAC-SPE (Back-up Support Structure) to all water service operators in rural areas and communes that delegated the management of their WSS services.

According to JMP estimates, the number of people with access to an improved source of drinking water in rural areas rose from 31 percent to 39 percent between 1990 and 2008. This is a relatively large increase given both

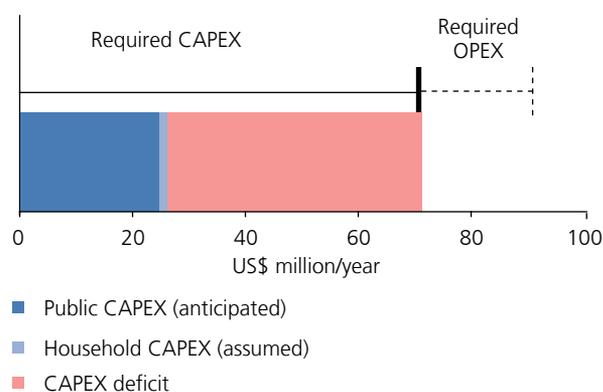
the high rural population (12.3 million inhabitants in 2008, or 84 percent of the total population) and the rate of population growth (which remains stable at around 3.4 percent per year in rural areas).

**Figure 8**  
Rural water supply coverage



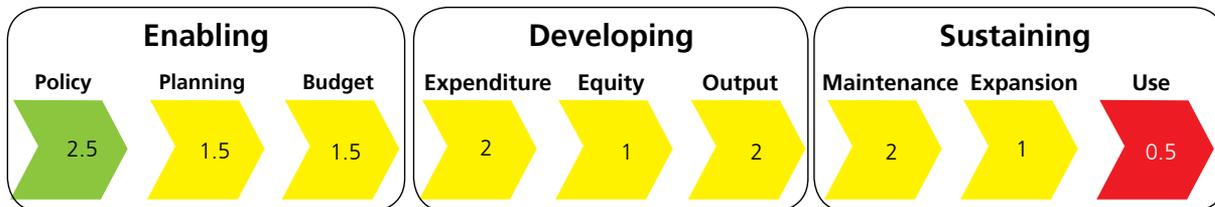
Sources: JMP and the Government of Niger.

**Figure 9**  
Rural water investment requirements



Source: CSO2 estimates.

**Figure 10**  
Rural water supply scorecard<sup>13</sup>



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

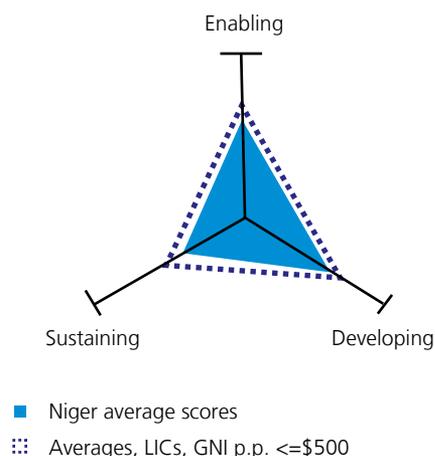
According to the government, the access rate in 2008 stood at 48 percent. This is higher than the rate estimated by the JMP as the calculation methods are different. Regardless of which figures are used, the current rate of development is too slow to enable either the 2015 target set by the government (54 percent) or the 2015 target calculated from JMP estimates (66 percent) to be achieved.

To support this effort, the public authorities need to mobilize far higher levels of financing than those committed to date (see Figure 9), which are mostly based on the average amounts invested over the course of the last few years (around US\$30 million per year for the 2001–07 period, US\$26 million of which came out of public funds). According to the CSO2 model, US\$71 million actually needs to be invested each year<sup>12</sup> for the 2015 target set by the government to be achieved. Around US\$20 million also then needs to be added to this to cover the infrastructure’s O&M costs.

The overall scorecard performance of the RWS subsector in Niger is slightly below the average for its economic peer group (see Figures 10 and 11).

As far as the breakdown of the rural water supply by type of service is concerned, modern cement-lined wells constitute the technical solution still used by half of those who currently have access to drinking water in rural areas. Although the use of small piped systems has developed rapidly since the publication of the sector policy in 2001, they still only represent one-sixth of supplies in rural areas. The prospects for development show that this segment of the RWS subsector is the one most likely to provide the highest increase in access to services over the next few years—it is also the segment in which financing can be most rapidly translated into services for rural users.

**Figure 11**  
Average RWS scorecard scores for enabling, developing, and sustaining service delivery, and peer-group comparison



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

From a statistical analysis of the data produced by the ministry in charge of water since 2000, it is estimated that 1,200 modern water point equivalents (EPEM: *Equivalentes Points d’Eau Modernes*) were constructed over the 1998–2008 period. There is, however, no way of establishing whether there has been a recent increase in this construction capacity. The latest version of the PNAEPA (July 2010) estimates that, to achieve the new targets set for the RWS subsector, 1,775 water points per year would need to be constructed, and around 1,139 water points per year would need to be rehabilitated. The targets set for the RWS subsector have been reworded to take the new planning and prioritization rules into account, as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4**  
**RWS targets and anticipated results for 2020**

| Targets                   | Anticipated results for 2020  |
|---------------------------|---|
| <b>Increase access</b>    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduce by more than half the population with no geographic coverage by increasing the geographic coverage rate from 74.64 percent in 2009 to over 88 percent in 2020.</li> <li>• Increase the national theoretical access rate (Tat: <i>Taux d'Accès théorique</i>) from 48.04 percent in 2009 to over 58 percent in 2020.</li> <li>• Increase the access rates in all communes.</li> </ul>                                    |
| <b>Reduce disparities</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ensure a minimum access rate of 50 percent in all communes by 2020 (145 communes had an access rates of &lt;50 percent in 2009).</li> </ul>  |
| <b>Sustainability</b>     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduce the breakdown rate of EPEM by half, from 19.5 percent in 2009 to less than 10 percent in 2020.</li> <li>• Renew assets by replacing all abandoned facilities or those rendered unproductive by climate change.</li> <li>• Construct small piped systems in all localities where the population will exceed 2,000 inhabitants in 2020.</li> <li>• Develop multivillage and intercommune water supply systems.</li> </ul> |
| <b>Accountability</b>     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Back-up support provided to communes to ensure the Public Water Service is operational: over 75 percent of communes using the procedures set out in the <i>Guide</i> to water supply services.</li> </ul>  |

Source: PNAEPA, draft version, August 2010.

Although the new targets set out in the 2010 PNAEPA seem more realistic than those previously in place (as laid out in the SDR), the achievement of these new targets nevertheless assumes: (1) a significant increase in the budget implementation capacity of MEE/LCD; and (2) a substantial increase in the financing available to the RWS subsector—around another US\$45 million is required according to the CSO2 model.

The financing currently available to the subsector (if using scenario 2 of the latest version of the 2011–13 BPO) is therefore not enough to enable the targets set by the PNAEPA to be achieved. The political situation of the country in 2010 means DPs are unwilling to commit large amounts of funding. The government, therefore, faces a considerable challenge.

In addition, the main obstacles hindering the proper utilization of funds are:

- The clear prevalence of the project/program approach, which leads to inconsistencies in those procedures used by external support agencies and national procedures.

- The poor capacities of MEE/LCD and, particularly, of its human resources; to improve budget implementation capacity, new staff will need to be hired with a different skill set (back-up support to communes), notably at decentralized level. This increase in capacities should also involve the redeployment of current staff to reflect these new assignments.
- The low capacities of communes, which are now expected to play a key role in the approach, including the role of contracting authority for investment.
- The cumbersome implementation process of national accounting procedures: short annual expenditure window, lack of training of MEE/LCD staff in public expenditure rules, complications arising from the public procurement Code.
- Lack of development of the private sector, which is intrinsically linked to the low levels of activity surrounding public contracts that has been observed to date.

The communes are becoming increasingly involved in planning through the PLEA. The methodology of these plans was piloted at the end of 2009/beginning of 2010

(with funding from the WSP), as result of which the MEE/LCD decided to expand their use. The communes were also involved in the development of the baseline study at the end of 2009. The PLEAs are developed in a participative manner with the communes and users. However, there is still a long way to go before communal planning is integrated into national planning, as set out in the PNAEPA and the MTEF.

The MEE/LCD has recently developed a method to determine which areas should be given priority when allocating public funds as part of PNAEPA implementation. This priority-setting method is based on the size of the locality (or group of localities) and current facilities, favoring those localities where there is currently no water point. This new method should theoretically introduce an equity criterion into planning; however, it is not yet being used.

The sustainability of the water service in rural areas has been the focus of renewed attention over the course of the last few years and there have been several notable developments in this area, most of which are contained in the government's recently published *Guide* to water supply services. Based on a rigorous analysis of the existing situation, this *Guide* and related regulatory tools has contributed greatly to improving the sustainability of water supply services in rural areas.

The development of a baseline at the end of 2009 showed that 20 percent of facilities were out of service; the reasons for this vary depending on the type of facility and the technology used. For handpumps, breakdowns can be attributed to the low ability of users to pay for the service, as well as to the fact that the maintenance supply chain is not attractive to private operators. Breakdowns to small piped systems are mainly due to the lack of proper management of certain systems, the remoteness of some localities, and the fact that some 'single-village' systems are not profitable, meaning that there are insufficient funds available for maintenance.

The MEE/LCD is well aware of the high development in demand for piped systems (whereas demand for handpumps is relatively low), as well as of the need to create profitable piped systems by connecting as many localities as possible to the same network. This planning principle is also clearly listed in the PNAEPA; its implementation, however, requires intra or intercommune support, which

is proving difficult to put in place. The MEE/LCD has been promoting public-private partnerships to manage piped systems and this approach has been highly successful. The basic tools (and notably delegation contracts) are in place and are generally well-managed by the ministry's decentralized departments.

The Water Users' Associations (AUE: *Associations d'Usagers de l'Eau*) have legal status and are fully recognized (notably by the Water Code). They are now also considered as IRWM implementation bodies—they group together users of the same water source. The Public Water Service Users' Associations (AUSPE: *Associations d'Usagers du Service Public de l'Eau*) represent the users of services under delegated management, while Water Point Management Committees (CGPE: *Comités de Gestion de Point d'Eau*) make up the community-based structures. The legal status of the AUSPE is under development, as is a review of the legal status of the CGPE.

Technical and financial assistance has also been put in place through the Support and Control Offices (BCC: *Bureau de Contrôle et de Conseil*) system—these are private and decentralized support structures, remunerated through the water tariff. Whilst it is clear that the BCC are useful, they still need to reinforce their (financial) sustainability. The MEE/LCD (both at central and decentralized level) also needs to learn how to use the data provided by the BCC to develop proper benchmarking of the water service in rural areas. The BCC has recently had its title changed to SAC/SPE: Back-up Support Structure for the Public Water Service (*Structure d'Appui Conseil au Service Public de l'Eau*), and its exact role is detailed in the *Guide* to water supply services.

The water resources inventory (IRH) has not been updated for several years and, until recently, inventories were not carried out on a regular basis. A new approach was introduced in 2009 with the development of a reference framework that uses a more commune-based method and which focuses more on the service than the facilities.

Apart from the rare exception, although mostly higher than those charged within the SPEN perimeter, the tariffs currently being applied are too low to cover either the cost of extending the water supply networks or the cost of major maintenance tasks (notably on pumping systems). However, they do enable the majority of operating costs to be met.

## 8. Subsector: Urban Water Supply

### Priority actions for urban water supply

- Based on the recommendations of the current pricing study, establish how the urban sector can regain the financial stability it had attained in 2006.
- Finish updating the urban water supply master plan.
- Mobilize the funding required to achieve the targets set out in the PNAEPA, based on an expansion of the SPEN perimeter and implementation of the new master plan.
- Maintain the quality of service to users and, particularly, the quality of the water distributed, including that within the secondary towns.
- Direct investment towards poor and disadvantaged users, particularly in the outlying settlements of Niamey and secondary towns.

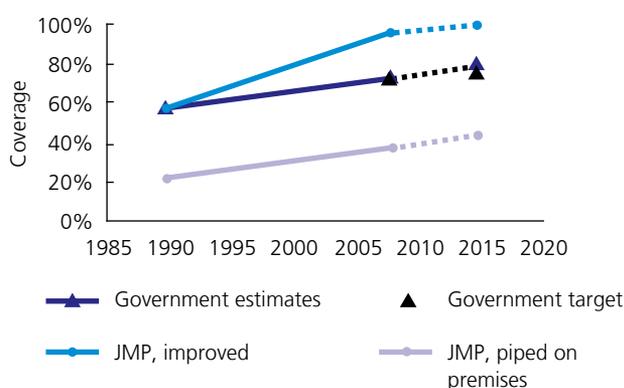
The statistics published by the JMP indicate that 96 percent of the urban population had access to drinking water at the end of 2008, compared to 57 percent in 1990 (see Figure 12). As far as the JMP is concerned, therefore, Niger has already reached the urban component of the drinking water MDG, which stood at 79 percent and was based on the 1990 access rate. However, it seems clear that the JMP overestimates the access rate for urban areas;<sup>14</sup> the same phenomenon was also observed in Mali.

Using the same assumption for access in 1990, the government estimates that only 73 percent of the urban

population had access to an improved service in 2008 and it has set the 2015 target at 79 percent (this is, in fact, an extrapolation as the target set out in the PNAEPA for 2020).

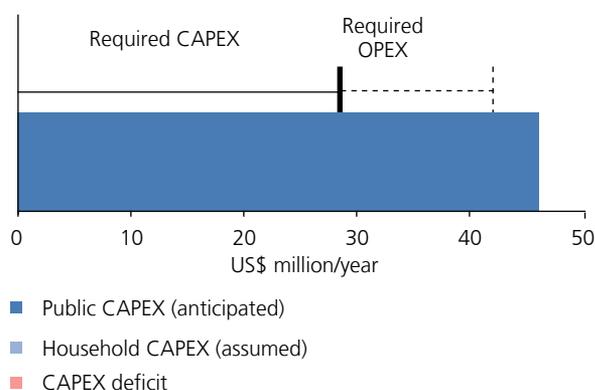
The service level has also improved as 37 percent of the urban population had a household connection in 2008 compared to only 21 percent in 1990 (JMP estimates, which are considered more reliable for this particular category). However, with only 37 percent of users having household connections, the level of service provided to users in urban areas could still be improved.

**Figure 12**  
Urban water supply coverage



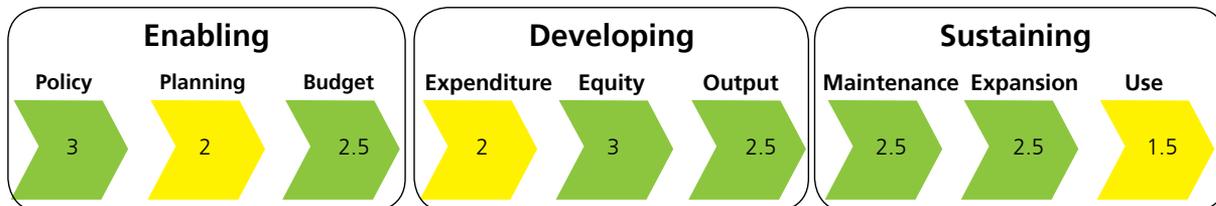
Source: JMP and the Government of Niger.

**Figure 13**  
Urban water supply investment requirements



Source: CSO2 estimates.

**Figure 14**  
**Urban water supply scorecard**



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

On paper, it would appear that the financing required for the UWS subsector in Niger has already been obtained, as the funding listed in the budget for the next three years (US\$46 million per year) as part of the new phase of the PSE exceeds the level required (US\$29 million) to meet the target set by the government.

Although the support of DPs in the UWS subsector in Niger is undeniably welcome, there is no evidence to suggest that budget implementation capacity is sufficiently effective to enable public investment to be mobilized at the level set out in the current finance plan (given that an average of US\$15 million per year was mobilized over the 2001–09 period within the PSE framework).

The UWS subsector is undoubtedly in a far better situation than the RWS subsector. Nevertheless, questions still remain over the overall financial stability of the sector and, particularly, over the contribution to be made by the tariff to financing this new 2010–20 investment phase.

Overall, the scorecard results for the UWS subsector are above the average of Niger’s peer-group countries (see Figures 14 and 15). The UWS subsector has sound foundations in place and its prospects are good.

Since the institutional reform of 2000, which led to the establishment of a public-private partnership, constant progress has been made in the subsector as reflected in the increase in access to services. The main performance indicators (see Table 5) show that progress has exceeded expectations.

There are clear contractual relationships in place between SPEN (the asset-holding company), the state (through the ministry in charge of water), and SEEN (the private operator whose main international stakeholder is the multinational

organization Veolia). There is also a regulatory agency (ARM) that ensures the agreements contained within the delegation contract are respected.

All donors active in the UWS subsector (notably the World Bank, BOAD, AFD and China) are brought together within the Water Sector Program (PSE), where coordination and monitoring is undertaken by a Project Coordination Unit that has been in place since the beginning of the decade of 2000. The PSE is financed through a combination of loans and donations. As stipulated in its contract, the lessee also contributes to financing investment.

Funding for the UWS subsector is clearly detailed in the triennial state investment program. Investment and related subsidies are easily identifiable in the budget headings. The urban water supply master plan is currently being rewritten. The urban water supply subsector has been included in the joint sector review since 2009.

Local authorities are formally involved in investment planning, notably through the development of the UWS master plan and the monitoring of its implementation. However, their actual participation is limited as they lack both human resources and competencies.

There are criteria in place that enable investment to be planned in such a way as to guarantee better access to the poorest users. There is also a strategy aimed at providing drinking water to disadvantaged neighborhoods; this is based on a policy of installing social connections and standpipes and includes a component to finance small extensions to the network.

National quality standards were adopted in February 2006 with which SEEN is obliged to comply. These standards are controlled on a regular basis.

**Table 5**  
Main performance indicators for UWS in Niger

| Indicators   | 2001   | Forecast |         | Actual  |         |
|--|--------|----------|---------|---------|---------|
|  |        | 2005     | 2010    | 2005    | 2009    |
| Average water production (m <sup>3</sup> /day)     | 97,413 | 110,000  | 110,000 | 113,959 | 143,546 |
| Overall distribution (m <sup>3</sup> /day)         | 75,377 | 82,500   | 88,000  | 92,579  | 121,163 |
| Number of centers managed                          | 51     |          |         | 52      |         |
| Water production (millions of m <sup>3</sup> )     | 32.5   | 40       |         | 41.6    | 52.39   |
| Overall distribution (millions of m <sup>3</sup> ) | 23.16  | 31.03    |         | 33.79   | 44.22   |
| Financing (billion CFA Francs)                     | 4.84   | 34       |         | 48.7    | 62.7    |
| Of which lessee (billion CFA Francs)               | 0.34   | 2.35     |         | 2.4     |         |

Source: SPEN presentation, 2010 annual review.

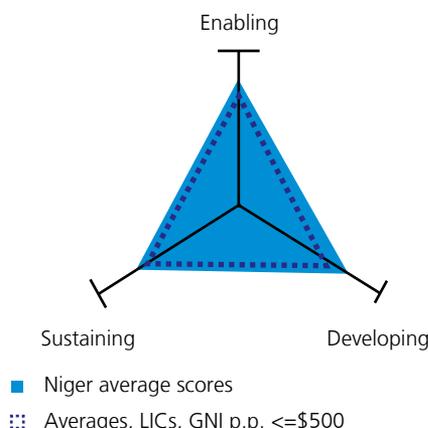
The accounts of the sole urban water supply operator (SEEN) are audited annually, as stipulated in the contract. The performance contract between SPEN and the state is regularly assessed using performance indicators defined when the reform was implemented in 2000. The percentage of nonrevenue water has remained stable, at under 17.5 percent, since 2002; this is an excellent achievement given the dilapidated state of the infrastructure prior to 2000.

SEEN (a private company) and SPEN (a state-owned company) both have autonomy for planning, managing human resources, financial management, and managing invitations to tender. SPEN has to report to its supervisory ministry (the ministry in charge of water). The public procurement procedures do not create any particular bottlenecks to implementing investment planned as part of the PSE.

SEEN has a detailed business plan in place that includes a summary of all investment required to ensure service continuity and development. The tariffs were revised upwards in 2002, 2004, and 2006. In total the sale price to the user increased by 30.5 percent between 2002 and 2006. The last pricing study took place in 2005; another study is in progress and the results of this were due to be published at the end of 2010. It appears that, although the UWS subsector achieved financial stability in 2006, this stability has since been lost. The arrears accumulated by the administration (over 500 million CFA Francs or US\$1 million) continue to impact heavily on SEEN's finances.

The new master plan that is currently being developed sets ambitious targets for the development of the UWS subsector, whose perimeter is to be expanded from 52 to 89 centers by 2020 (the date set out in the PNAEPA), with over 1.4 million additional inhabitants provided with access to drinking water.

**Figure 15**  
Average UWS scorecard scores for enabling, developing and sustaining service delivery, and peer-group comparison



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

Taking into account (a) the performances of the UWS subsector in general and of its two main stakeholders (SPEN and SEEN) in particular; (b) the targets set out in the new master plan; and (c) the financing that has so far been obtained for the sector, Niger is in a position to meet its MDG targets for urban areas. Nevertheless, it would seem advisable to align the MDG targets with the new master plan and the PNAEPA. On a more institutional and political level, the medium- to long-term performances of the UWS subsector are dependent upon continuing negotiations with external support agencies (and so upon the development of the political situation), as well as upon the continuation of the public-private partnership, the conditions of which are due to be renegotiated in 2010–2011.

## 9. Subsector: Rural Sanitation and Hygiene

### Priority actions for rural sanitation and hygiene

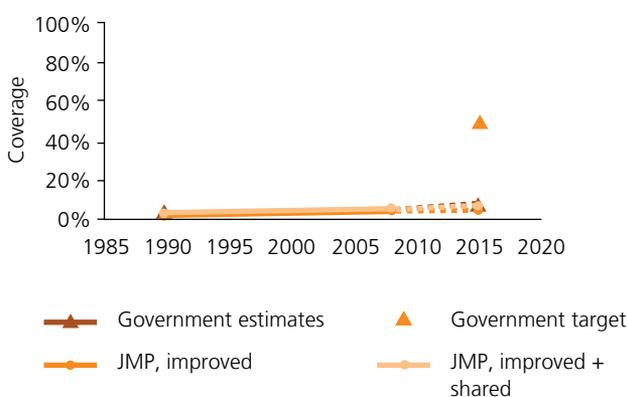
- Ensure sanitation and hygiene in rural areas becomes a real political priority, which is reflected in the national budget.
- Reinforce the intervention capacities of the newly created Directorate of Basic Sanitation (*Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*).
- Develop pilot CLTS programs and scale up this approach should the pilots prove successful.
- Improve the way in which sanitation and hygiene is dealt with in nationally conducted household surveys.
- Ensure the recently approved national strategy is put into operation and seek financing for the subsector.

Niger is currently unable to provide reliable figures for the country's rural sanitation and hygiene (RSH) subsector. The JMP estimates that in 2008 only 6 percent of households had access to improved sanitation facilities (see Figure 16). This very low rate is due to the fact that the majority of sanitation facilities found in rural areas do not qualify as improved under the JMP definition (they are traditional latrines). The JMP also estimates that 79 percent of households practice open defecation. The government-set target is to achieve an access rate of 50 percent in 2015; this is consistent with the MDG target pertaining to access to sanitation in rural areas that was calculated based on JMP estimates (51 percent). However, this target

seems completely unattainable given the current state of the subsector.

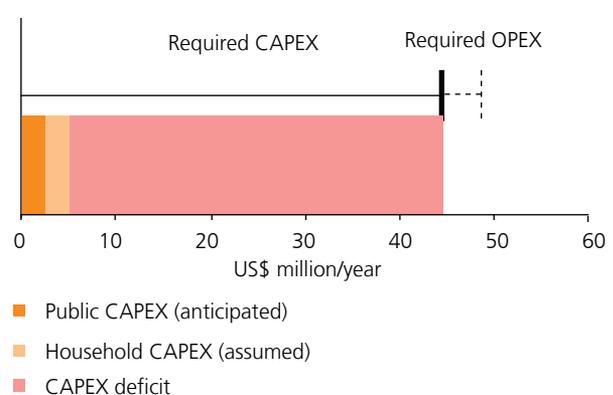
Analysis of the financing available for the RSH subsector reveals a considerable funding deficit, making it impossible for Niger to meet its sector targets. According to CSO2 estimates, US\$45 million per year will be required to meet the targets, whereas only US\$3 million of public investment has been committed to date (see Figure 17). The potential investment from households comes to the same amount (US\$3 million); added together, these two contributions only cover a very small part of the required investment. The underfinancing of the subsector is, therefore, striking.

**Figure 16**  
Rural sanitation coverage



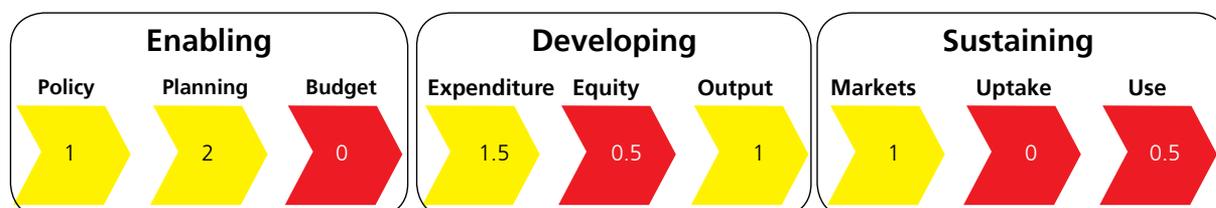
Source: JMP and the Government of Niger.

**Figure 17**  
Rural sanitation investment requirements



Source: CSO2 estimates.

**Figure 18**  
Rural sanitation and hygiene scorecard



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

In addition, around US\$2 million is required to cover the facilities' maintenance costs; at the moment these costs are being met by the households who ensure the upkeep of their own sanitation facilities (household latrines).

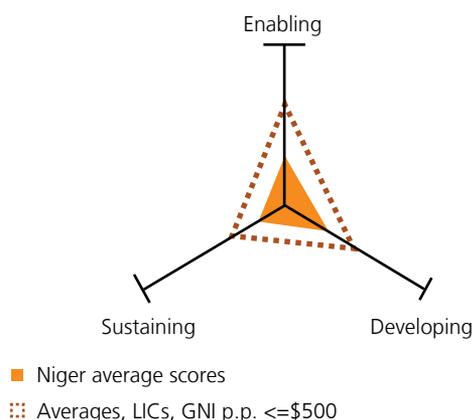
**At the moment, sanitation and hygiene in rural areas is not a priority for either the government or the communes.** As a result, the performances of the subsector are well below the average of Niger's peer-group countries for each of the three criteria (see Figures 18 and 19).

Niger has the lowest number of sanitation facilities in rural areas of the whole continent. This is mainly due to both the high proportion of traditional facilities and the prevalence of open defecation. Few programs have distributed improved sanitation facilities, with the exception of those pertaining to public places (with unsatisfactory results: it is estimated that only 20 percent of schools have improved latrines).

The process of improving the subsector in Niger was boosted by the AfricaSan conference of 2008. A comprehensive review conducted during that year provided a better understanding of the sector's stakeholders, the methods used for mobilization activities, the main technologies, the problems encountered within the institutional framework and, lastly, the current pace of latrine construction using funding from projects and programs (around 5,300 latrines per year). A strategy was developed as a result of this review and this was validated in April 2009. The DAB was created in 2010 within MEE/LCD, which reflects the stated willingness of the government to implement the strategy validated in 2009.

Nevertheless, the sanitation and hygiene subsector remains somewhat fragmented due to the presence of a large

**Figure 19**  
Average RSH scorecard scores for enabling, developing, and sustaining service delivery, and peer-group comparison



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

number of nongovernmental stakeholders and the lack of coordination between the main ministries involved (notably MEE/LCD, the Ministry of Public Health, and the Ministry of Equipment). Work on implementing the strategy, particularly as regards hygiene and the recommended subsidy levels, is therefore only just beginning.

As stated above, it is estimated that programs and projects contribute to the financing of just over 5,000 latrines per year; in rural areas, these are mainly SanPlat latrines. This is in addition to the thousands of traditional latrines constructed by the households themselves. The demand for improved sanitation facilities is still very low in rural areas, as are the households' own capacities for financing facilities. The situation is only likely to improve (and, notably, open defecation will only be eradicated) if significant financial support is provided to the subsector. As things stand, however, public funding levels are far too

low to provide any form of impetus to the subsector, either for implementing promotional activities or for providing assistance with facility construction.

Some stakeholders have been experimenting with innovative approaches; these were analyzed in the 2008 review and could be used to provide a source of inspiration for the subsector. Examples of these are working-capital programs (NGO Rail), a Community-Led Total Sanitation (CLTS) pilot, use of which remains limited, or attempts to distribute eco latrines (CREPA). The classic approach is still used for accompanying measures, however, with PHAST and SARAR methods employed in the mobilization cycle. The low number of staff that the Ministry of Public Health (MSP) is able to mobilize to carry out these accompanying measures makes it difficult for them to implement the policy and strategy on a large scale without the support of projects and programs.

Rural sanitation is not identified as such in the national budget and communes hardly ever include this expenditure in their budgets. There is currently no breakdown of sector expenditure to enable priorities to be set. There is also no system in place for estimating (let alone monitoring) the access rate at commune level, even though this is supposed to form the baseline level for planning.

Masons are present in certain centers—the review estimated that around 3,000 masons have been trained by projects and programs active in Niger. They do not always master the techniques required for the construction of improved latrines, however, for which demand is currently very low in rural areas (outside of those wholly subsidized

programs that involve the construction of toilet blocks in schools and other public places). Nevertheless, it is worth noting that several organizations are involved in the promotion of SanPlat slabs (UNICEF, Eau Vive, CREPA, and so on). This has led to the training of a sizeable number of masons and there are several SanPlat slab production/promotion workshops taking place. There is no program in place to either train or reinforce the local private sector at the national level.

The promotion of sanitation is considered a priority in the 2009 strategy, which seeks to strike a balance between stimulating demand and subsidizing facilities. Some projects and programs (often led by national or international NGOs) have made considerable efforts to drive promotional activities in rural areas, despite insufficient resources being made available at the national level. The very high percentage of households with no sanitation facilities and who practice open defecation are in favor of the widespread use of CLTS, but use of this approach remains limited and does not yet form part of the projects and programs supported by the government.

The monitoring of sanitation and hygiene practices and of handwashing with soap, in particular, is still unsatisfactory. There is no baseline in place to provide a clear indication of the situation or how this has evolved since 2006 (the date of the last household survey that dealt with sanitation). The proposed indicators included in the strategy and in the latest version of the PNAEPA assume that there is a monitoring system in place. However, this does not yet exist and establishing this system needs to be one of the recently created DAB's first priorities.

## 10. Subsector: Urban Sanitation and Hygiene

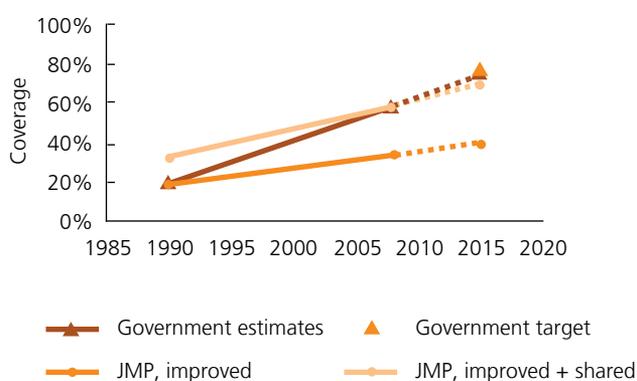
### Priority actions for urban sanitation and hygiene

- Ensure sanitation and hygiene in urban areas becomes a real political priority, which is reflected in the national budget.
- Reinforce the intervention capacities of the newly created Directorate of Basic Sanitation (*Direction de l'Assainissement de Base*), which is also active in urban areas.
- Support the pit emptying service and set up sites that are equipped to deal with sludge disposal and treatment in Niamey and in the large towns.
- Improve the way in which sanitation and hygiene is dealt with in nationally conducted household surveys.
- Ensure the recently approved national strategy is put into operation and seek financing for the subsector.

There is no national monitoring and evaluation system for assessing progress made within the urban sanitation subsector in Niger. The figures estimated by the JMP, based on the results of household surveys, show that access to improved sanitation facilities increased slowly between 1990 and 2008, rising from 19 percent to 34 percent. The government has set the 2015 access rate target at 75 percent; this is based on an estimate of the access rate for two JMP categories, 'improved' and 'shared', which came to a total of 59 percent in 2008. Only by taking the combined total of these two categories into account is it possible to envisage the urban sanitation subsector achieving its 2015 MDG target for access to sanitation in urban areas (see Figure 20).

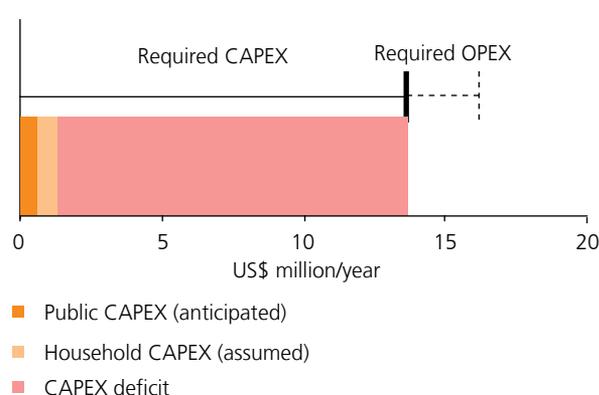
A large part of the progress seen in the subsector is due to households investing their own funds in facilities. The state injects very low levels of public funds into the subsector, the communes make no contribution at all, and there is currently no sewerage surcharge in place. According to CSO2 estimates, US\$14 million per year is required between 2009 and 2015 to finance the subsector; this means a total of US\$98 million is required to ensure the targets are met. Given that anticipated public investment currently stands at around US\$1 million per year, it is evident that the subsector is acutely underfinanced (see Figure 21).

**Figure 20**  
Urban sanitation coverage



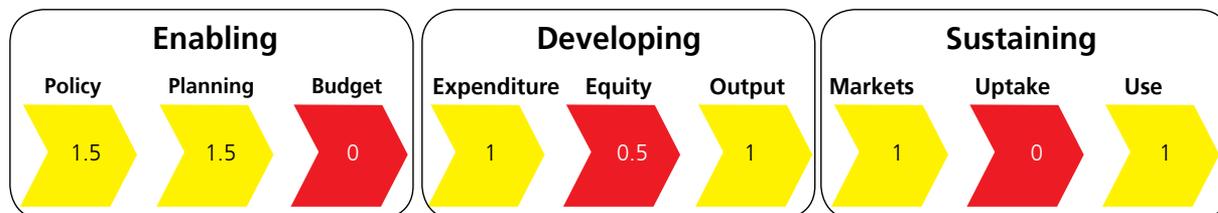
Source: JMP and the Government of Niger.

**Figure 21**  
Urban sanitation investment requirements



Source: CSO2 costing.

**Figure 22**  
Urban sanitation and hygiene scorecard



Source: CSO2 scorecard.

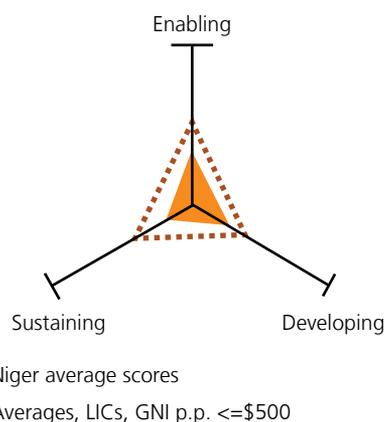
In addition to this, O&M costs stand at US\$3 million per year.

Consequently, the CSO2 scorecard results for the subsector are very low (see Figure 22) and fall far below the average of Niger’s economic peer-group countries for the three main indicators (see Figure 23).

Households in urban areas only have recourse to on-site sanitation as there is no sewer system in Niger. The corresponding facilities (latrines, lined pits, and cesspools) are financed by the households themselves as subsidized programs are currently few and far between. The main and most recent program aimed at providing subsidized latrines to urban areas was that funded by the PSE, which promoted a relatively high standard technology (ventilated improved pit latrines) with a very high level of subsidy (90 percent) to offset the low ability of households to contribute financially. There are a few small piped sewer systems in place in areas of Niamey constructed as part of a pilot scheme by an NGO, a private operator, and a property developer.

Although the urban sanitation subsector is not particularly fragmented, it lacks clearly defined leadership. The municipalities are supposed to act as contracting authority for the infrastructure and general sanitation services, but there are very few urban communes that have a proper sanitation master plan or even a clear policy (this includes Niamey—the study aimed at setting up a disposal site has never been followed up as the infrastructure, the construction of which has been planned since 2003, has not yet been built). The PNAEPA makes provision for the financing of Strategic Sanitation Plans (PSA: *Plans Stratégiques d’Assainissement*) in 92 towns within the conceded perimeter. The Directorate of Basic Sanitation

**Figure 23**  
Average USH scorecard scores for enabling, developing, and sustaining service delivery, and peer-group comparison



Sources: CSO2 scorecard.

will have to work extremely hard to position itself as the provider of back-up support to communes.

There is a BPO in place within the PNAEPA framework for the sanitation and hygiene sector (urban and rural) and this is presented and discussed during the joint sector reviews. This tool is still not particularly developed and the progress report given during the annual reviews is very succinct; notably, there is no clear separation of rural and urban sanitation. The urban sanitation subsector is notoriously underfinanced and there is still much work to be done to attract new DPs to the sector.

Promotional campaigns are organized on an ad hoc basis and rely heavily on the goodwill of municipalities and their nongovernmental partners, as well as on the involvement of healthcare workers to transmit health messages.

Any upscaling of promotional activities would entail a considerable increase in the number of field staff.

In urban areas, those involved in the construction of sanitation facilities respond to the demand of households, which remains fairly basic (lined pits, improved latrines, cesspools). There is neither a sewer system nor any specialist companies.

Vacuum trucks are able to satisfy the effective demand for the evacuation of excreta, except in neighborhoods that are very poor or where the population density is too high. The Urban Community of Niamey (CUN: *Communauté Urbaine de Niamey*) has its own vacuum truck, but this is used mainly as part of a private service offer. The CUN has very little control over pit emptying operators and, although prices remain subject to competition laws, there is no subsidy mechanism available to reduce the amount households have to pay.

There is no wastewater treatment system, either in Niamey or in the other urban centers, except for a few systems managed by commercial operators (hotels, some

industries). There are also no sites equipped to deal with sludge disposal. It is estimated that the vast majority of sludge is illegally dumped.

There is no government program in place specifically aimed at improving the private sector's urban sanitation service offer. Development of the service offer is entirely dependent on the steady increase of demand from users and on the pro-activity of the private operators themselves, who tend to invest sparingly due to the fact that there is no legal framework.

The sanitation and hygiene sector (in both rural and urban areas) is currently being hampered by the lack of an M&E framework. There is still a lot of work that needs to be done to define the baseline indicators and to align data from household surveys, as well as planning which facilities are to be built or subsidized. The DAB has already started work on this and should soon be in a position to propose specific measures for implementation. Given this context, it is difficult to provide a quantified and reasoned assessment of the importance and effectiveness of hygiene education or sanitation promotion campaigns.

## Notes and References

- <sup>1</sup> Source: Global Economic Monitor, the World Bank.
- <sup>2</sup> The first round of CSOs was carried out in 2006 covering 16 countries and is summarized in the report, *Getting Africa On-Track to Meet the MDGs on Water and Sanitation*.
- <sup>3</sup> Due to rounding, subsector figures may not sum to totals.
- <sup>4</sup> The CSO2 scorecard methodology and its structure are detailed in the regional synthesis report.
- <sup>5</sup> Within this report, Niger is classified as an African low-income country with a GNI below US\$500 per capita (World Bank Atlas Method).
- <sup>6</sup> Development of the PANGIRE was due to start in 2008 with funding from the African Water Facility. Contractual issues prevented the study taking place, but this is now due to be relaunched at the end of 2010.
- <sup>7</sup> The relevant indicators are as follows. All subsectors: targets in the national development plan or the PRSP; subsector policies agreed and approved. RWS/UWS: institutional roles defined. RSH/USH: institutional lead appointed.
- <sup>8</sup> The relevant indicators are as follows. All subsectors: programmatic Sector Wide Approach; investment program based on MDG needs assessment; sufficient finance to meet the MDG; percent of official donor commitments utilized; percent of domestic commitments utilized.
- <sup>9</sup> A relatively common phenomenon in Francophone West Africa: exchange of technical or financial support between institutions of the global North and South, other than central governments (for instance, twin cities).
- <sup>10</sup> Such as the PEADD, for example, a program financed by the European Commission's ACP-EU Water Facility and implemented in 12 communes by the French NGO, Eau Vive.
- <sup>11</sup> The relevant indicators are as follows. All subsectors: annual review setting new undertakings; subsector spend identifiable in budget (UWS: including recurrent subsidies); budget comprehensively covers domestic/donor finance; standards and definitions used for household surveys consistent with JMP. RWS/RSH: domestic/donor expenditure reported. UWS: audited accounts and balance sheets from utilities. RWS/RSH: periodic analysis of equity criteria by CSOs and government. UWS: pro-poor plans developed and implemented by utilities. RWS/UWS: nationally consolidated reporting of output. RSH/USH: monitoring of quantity and quality of uptake relative to promotion and subsidy efforts.
- <sup>12</sup> The CSO2 model calculates both the investment costs of new facilities and the cost of rehabilitating existing facilities. For example, for RWS, this represents US\$43 million and US\$28 million per year up to 2015, respectively, based on the assumption that the average lifespan of installations in rural areas is 30 years (this is an average of the different technologies used: water supply networks or simple facilities such as boreholes equipped with handpumps).
- <sup>13</sup> The scorecard uses a simple color code to indicate: building blocks that are largely in place, acting as a driver on service delivery (score >2, green); building blocks that are a drag on service delivery and require attention (score 1–2, yellow); and building blocks that are inadequate, constituting a barrier to service delivery and a priority for reform (score <1, red).
- <sup>14</sup> In urban areas, the reference indicator for the government is the service rate (TD: *taux de desserte*), which is calculated based on the assumption that a household connection serves 10 people and a standpipe serves 250 people (although no study has taken place to confirm this assumption). In contrast, the JMP data for access to drinking water in urban areas is drawn from two national surveys undertaken in 2008: the National Budget and Household Consumption Survey (*Enquête Nationale sur le Budget et la consommation des Ménages [ENBC08]*) and the National Nutrition and Survival of Young Children Survey (*Enquête Nationale Nutrition et Survie d'Enfant [NSE08]*). However, these surveys accorded only very little place to water and sanitation and so it is unlikely that they were able to examine the true access rate to drinking water in urban areas in any depth. Observation clearly shows that several of Niamey's outlying areas are without proper access to the public water service.

# Notes





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