Implementing water safety plans: experiences from Uganda

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Introduction

Previous WHO Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality (GDWQ) emphasized monitoring based on analysis of the end-product at the consumers' taps. The World Health Organisation has since developed a more effective approach based on the Hazard Assessment and Critical Control Point (HACCP) approach hitherto applied to the food industry in many developed countries. This approach outlined in the 3rd Edition of Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality (GDWQ). NWSC is the first water utility in the developing world to implement WSPs. This paper is the fourth in a series, paper one entitled “Improving risk assessment and management in urban water supplies” was presented at the 28th WEDC Conference, paper two and three entitled “Static risk mapping using a Geographic Information system” and “System assessment to develop water safety plans” was presented at the 29th WEDC Conference. This paper discusses the experiences of NWSC in implementing the new approach in two of its urban centres, and presents lessons learnt during the process.

Challenges encountered

This section outlines specific challenges encountered in implementing the WSP in Kampala and Jinja. As the first water utility in the developing world to implement WSPs, these lessons may appear to be system specific but it is hoped that they could have generic application.

Kampala

The Kampala water supply network consists of 871 kilometers of pipeline and serves over 40,000 households of approximately 700,000 people (Godfrey et al. 2002). 82 control
points were identified in the network. These included all the primary facilities (e.g. treatment works, trunk mains, service reservoirs, supply tanks) as well as numerous high risk valve boxes. Below are some of the challenges encountered in switching from historical methods of monitoring to a WSP approach at each of these control points.

**Financial implications:**
A number of valve boxes were identified as control points and in order to get a representative sample, these required sampling taps. To facilitate these, valve chambers were upgraded and copper taps were installed (copper as opposed to other materials was selected to reduce incrustation and biofilm build up in the tap) (Geldreich, 1996). It was also necessary to place mark posts at the different control points. The necessary civil works required expenditure of approximately US$ 10,500. Due to the cost involved, selected Managers delayed authorization of funds. In the absence of some of the planned facilities, sampling continued to be done at the nearest stand tap.

**Management of Distribution network**
At the time of implementation of WSPs, the distribution network was managed by a private operator, while water production was under NWSC management (this has since changed when all operations reverted to NWSC). One of the complications encountered was that NWSC and the Operator had a contract in place that did not include WSPs.

It was therefore difficult to get the operator involved without changing the original contract. It is recommended that if a private operator is involved, they should be required to develop WSPs for the distribution system independently, right from the beginning. In the case of NWSC, an addendum was made to the original contract with the Operator requiring him to be involved in the WSP implementation.

**Logistics of staff movement while on sampling and monitoring exercise.**
Although members QCD staff have always gone out to sample, the former programme was not as involving as the new one. In the new programme, it appears one spends more time in the field than in the laboratory. Furthermore the lack of a vehicle for the required period proves to be a serious setback, and sampling missed during weekdays had to be made up during weekends.

**Changing the work mentality of staff workers:**
It is not easy to change the attitude of staff members who have done monitoring in a certain way for over 10 years. In the historical method, samples were taken for verification in the laboratory without much emphasis on the sanitary integrity of the system. In contrast the WSP involves sanitary inspection in addition to field measurements. Furthermore, the verification exercise involves testing for two parameters (E.coli and Feacal Streptococci) as opposed to testing for only one parameter (Total.coliforms). Initially, there was

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**Figure 1: Summary of approaches to assuring safe drinking water**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HISTORICAL APPROACH</th>
<th>WSP APPROACH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify fixed sampling points</td>
<td>Identify fixed &amp; random sampling points in network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collect water sample</td>
<td>Undertake Sanitary Inspection and physico-chemical analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport sample to laboratory</td>
<td>Is the supply at risk?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the sample microbiologically contaminated?</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>SAFE H₂O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Diagram of approaches to assuring safe drinking water]
Response time to reported problems or risks
At the time of start of implementation of the WSPs the Kampala distribution network was under a private operator. This resulted in a slow response to negative water quality reports.

Record keeping and reporting regime
Involving operations staff in monitoring required a comprehensive reporting system. Within the WSP it was not immediately clear as to how data from the Operations Department would be reconciled with those from the Quality Control Department (QCD). This issue requires careful consideration.

Jinja
Jinja network is much smaller than the Kampala one and consists of 320 kilometers serving over 5,000 households (Tibatemwa et al. 2003). In Jinja, the WSP was developed at a time when the area utility was being prepared for ISO certification (the utility has since been ISO certified). This was an advantage as operations in production and distribution of water were more streamlined. The number of control points identified was thirty (30) and it included all major installations and some tertiary points. Difficulties encountered included those described below:

Lack of sampling taps on some of the control points
In the past, sampling was done mainly at tertiary points within the network. With the implementation of the WSP, samples were to be taken from the valve boxes thus requiring the installation of taps. These facilities required financial investment.

Limited human resource
In Jinja, the QCD staff at the water treatment plant is also responsible for monitoring and management of water quality in the distribution network. There is only one Laboratory Technician in the area, and he seemed to be overwhelmed by the new system of monitoring.

Limited laboratory facilities
The area satellite laboratory is not as well equipped as the central laboratory in Kampala and was therefore not able to perform all the expected tests. Some of the tests need to be done at the Central NWSC laboratory in Kampala, and therefore samples have to be taken to Kampala on a regular basis.

Lack of updated block maps
There has been a lot of network extension and some changes especially in the pipe materials. The Block maps are not updated as fast as the extensions, and this posed problems, as what was on map sometimes did not correspond to what was on the ground. Furthermore there was need to depend on local knowledge from long serving staff members where records were lacking.

Lessons learnt
The following are the lessons learnt from the preparation and implementation of WSPs:

1. Preparation and implementation of WSPs led to a thorough knowledge of the network by both the operations and Quality Control Department staff
2. Having a thorough knowledge of the network resulted into a more focused way of water quality monitoring and control as emphasis is placed on the most significant parts of the system.
3. The idea that quality issues are the sole responsibility of the Quality Control staff has been discarded as it is now clear that involvement of Operations staff is essential for effective risk assessment and management.
4. Successful preparation and subsequent implementation of WSPs require absolute commitment and co-operation of the Top Management of the utility concerned as there are financial implications involved.

Conclusion
The case described above shows that despite the above-mentioned challenges, WSPs can be operative in a developing country as this has been demonstrated by the Uganda case. However for the application to be successful the following conditions should be fulfilled:

1. Authorities concerned must be convinced of its benefits. To achieve this in Kampala and Jinja presentations to senior management of NWSC emphasized the additional benefit of WSPs in identifying and reducing Unaccounted For Water (UFW) due to constant and more vigorous monitoring of the whole network.
2. If a private operator is involved in management of any part of the system, it is advisable to require them to come up with a WSP for the parts of the system they manage.
3. There is a need for constant training of the workers to ensure that they do not slip back into the former programme. It would also be good to find a way of motivating the staff members to do the work in accordance with working instructions despite increase in the volume of work involved. NWSC has not yet come up with the appropriate kind of motivation for the staff involved.
4. Involving Operations staff in the monitoring programme reduces response time in case of a problem, as these are the same people who are supposed to correct anomalies in the distribution system. The monitoring process is not complicated and training of the relevant staff members is not expected to take long. In Kampala, the Technical Director had a personal interest in water quality and this made it easy to convince his staff to take on the extra work.
References


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