

Essential element

Aid's continuing and critical role in financing water, sanitation and hygiene



Key messages

The attainment of universal access to water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) is fundamental to inclusive and sustainable development, and WASH investments have overwhelmingly positive and powerful impacts – fulfilling human rights, improving health outcomes, strengthening economic development, and building the resilience of vulnerable people and communities to the increasing impacts and threats of climate change.¹

Delivering WASH services to those that need them most makes progress towards each of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), making investment in WASH one of the ultimate best buy purchases for donors. Several multilateral groups, including the G7, have addressed WASH in political texts in the context of health, development and the climate, but action remains scarce. New research commissioned by WaterAid demonstrates that development funding for WASH is declining at an alarming rate.



Donors should reverse cuts to WASH aid and significantly increase flows. Through successive cuts to aid for water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) donors are undermining progress towards SDG 6, Agenda 2030 and access to WASH for everyone, everywhere. The latest figures show aid for the sector is lower than in 2015, with the sector's share of aid falling by a third since the SDGs were agreed. If current trends continue, it will be over \$2 billion per year lower in real terms in 2023 than the most recent high point in 2018 (28%).

Aid must be better spent, with a higher share of grants, and more going to the poorest and most off-track countries. Aid remains a vital resource for poorer countries, where costs for WASH are a significant share of GDP and funding gaps are enormous. Yet aid for the sector is poorly targeted. Almost as much grant finance has gone to comparatively rich countries, as to the poorest countries, and around a quarter of WASH infrastructure aid went to richer countries who are either on track to achieve – or have already achieved – universal access to basic drinking water and sanitation.

As a scarce resource, aid should be used catalytically to strengthen WASH sector systems. WASH financing gaps can only be met with strong national sector systems that can raise and direct finance from taxes, tariffs and private investors. Yet barely a tenth of sector aid went to system strengthening, at the last count. A similarly small share was channeled in ways that could reduce transaction costs for partner countries, such as pooled funds, core contributions and budget support.

WASH is a foundation for strong health systems. It should be better integrated in aid for health. WASH supports infection prevention and control and global health security, but just 0.6% of aid for health had a strong WASH component, 2015–2021. Aid to the water supply and sanitation sector fell more sharply than almost any other sector during the first two years of the COVID-19 pandemic. Donors who wish to prepare for future pandemics and reduce the threat of antimicrobial resistance must prioritise WASH.

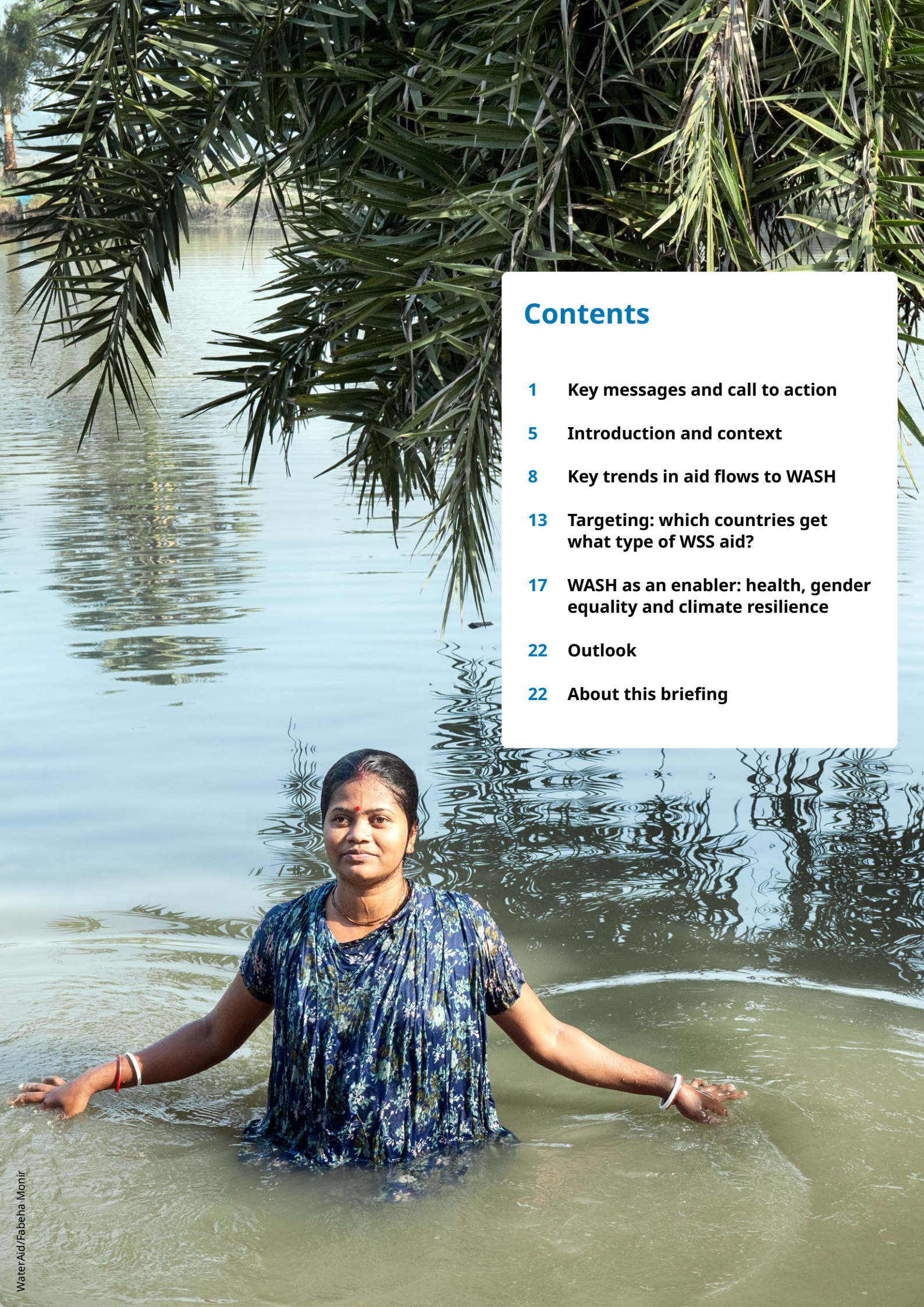
Aid for WASH must have a stronger focus on empowering women and girls. Just 3% of aid to the water supply and sanitation sector was principally focused on empowering women and girls. This was half the share of aid principally focused on gender equality in other sectors (6%), and less than a third of the share in the other social sectors like health and education (10%).

Current WASH funding is inadequate to support climate resilience. Without WASH, communities most vulnerable to the effects of climate change cannot achieve resilience. This comes with a price tag: making WASH services climate resilient will often cost more. Donors claim that an increasing share of their aid for water supply and sanitation supports climate change adaptation. But in the last 5 years, they have not matched this with the extra funding needed, and there is significant double-counting between aid and climate finance.

Call to action

Given WASH's huge importance to global goods including public health, climate resilience and gender equality, cuts to WASH aid must be reversed and funding increased significantly. Promises already made must be honoured and built upon, including to support fulfilment of the human rights to water and sanitation and to strengthen the means of implementation (SDG 17 and SDG target 6.a),² as well as commitments and pledges made at the UN 2023 Water Conference and in support of the Water Action Agenda. Furthermore, given trends and patterns identified in this report, WaterAid calls on donors to:

- Reverse successive cuts in the share of aid to WASH and go further to substantially increase flows, prioritising grant finance for the poorest and most off-track countries.
- Enhance quantity and quality of WASH in aid activities in other sectors and the contribution it makes to key global goods:
 - Ensure WASH is utilised – and funded – to support global public health priorities such as pandemic preparedness and tackling anti-microbial resistance.
 - Prioritise WASH in healthcare facilities, as a globally solvable challenge, to reduce infant and maternal mortality.
 - Drive up the share of WASH aid that supports gender equality, with accountable, outcome-focused metrics.
 - Ensure that WASH access is prioritised as foundational to making societies resilient to the impacts of climate change, without double-counting aid and climate finance.
- Build an alliance with other donors to ensure WASH aid supports strong national WASH sector systems that can make the most effective use of all financial flows, including domestic tariffs and taxes, private investment and climate finance.³



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Introduction and context



This briefing assesses the latest data on aid for WASH, revealing trends and breakdowns in donors' support to the sector in the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) era to date.⁴ It highlights where donors could most usefully strengthen and target their efforts to support achievement of SDG6 and Agenda 2030 more widely.

Water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH): human rights and enablers

Without access to water, sanitation and hygiene for everyone, everywhere, many sustainable development goals will remain out of reach. The rate of progress needs to be four times faster to achieve access to WASH for everyone everywhere,⁵ the first two targets within Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 6.⁶ Drinking water and sanitation are human rights, as recognised by the UN General Assembly. Donor countries have committed under international treaties to support countries that lack the resources to realise these human rights, which are not being fulfilled for billions of people.⁷

For donors, funding WASH is good value, not just an obligation, and unlocks substantial economic benefits.⁸ WASH aid can unlock achievement of other human rights. It is central to health and wellbeing, especially for women. WASH in communities and in healthcare facilities underpins resilient health systems, universal health coverage and is central to strengthening pandemic preparedness and addressing antimicrobial resistance.⁹ The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has identified water, sanitation and hygiene services as among the most effective climate change adaptation measures for health protection in the near term.¹⁰ From child nutrition to women's equality and economic empowerment, universal WASH can ensure no-one is left behind, across the SDG targets.

Growing total aid but falling aid for WASH

2020 and 2021 saw increases in total official development assistance (ODA), with much of the increase associated with support to COVID-19.¹¹ Combined with similar but much smaller volumes of private development finance mainly from philanthropic organisations, these financial flows, referred to in this briefing as 'aid', aim to support development and cannot be substituted by non-concessional finance.

In 2022 already huge needs created by the ongoing pandemic, inflation and economic slowdown were amplified by the Russian invasion of Ukraine and associated effects across the global economy. Preliminary figures for 2022 imply a further, record increase in total ODA in response.¹² In 2023 ongoing and interlinked crises continue to create huge demand for aid.

As the evidence in this briefing shows, despite record levels of total aid, the WASH sector has seen some of the most significant aid cuts in recent years, costing lives and human potential.

Huge shortfalls in financing for WASH

Donors and other partners need to review the fundamental role of aid for WASH, in line with increasing calls to transform how development finance is mobilised and spent, more widely.¹³ Discussion can be informed by three key findings from assessing the need for and sufficiency of finance for WASH (Box 1).

First, even in the most optimistic scenarios for raising domestic funds, severe domestic financing gaps can be expected in the poorest countries (low-income countries, LICs). Here, aid and concessional climate finance will remain crucial, particularly in enabling access for the poorest, and must be substantially increased from the current, woefully inadequate levels.

Second, richer partner countries (i.e. upper-middle income countries, UMICs) are typically able to meet their costs domestically, even in a more pessimistic scenario. This suggests a need to reconsider the provision of WASH aid to these countries, except in exceptional circumstances.

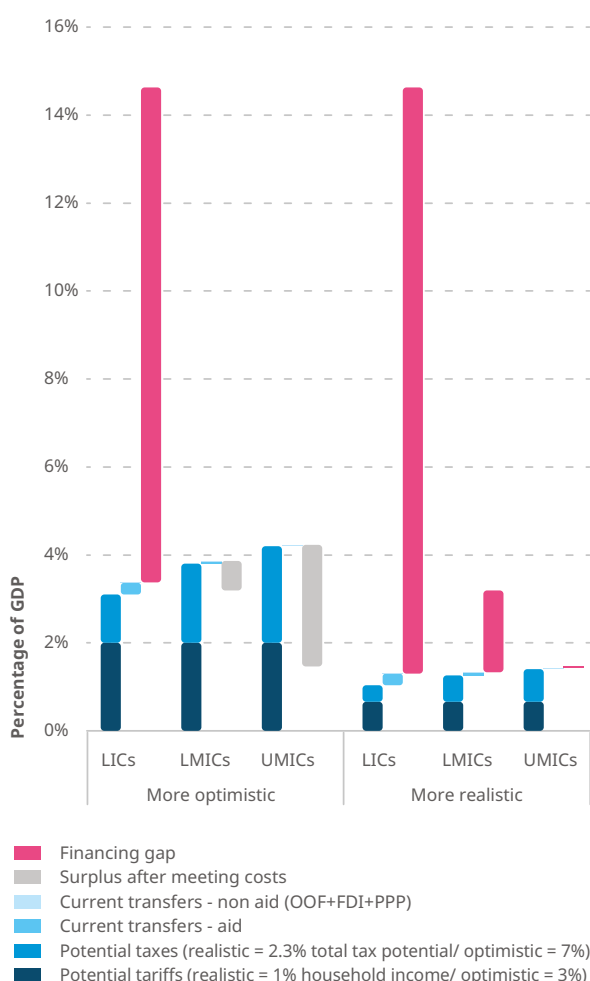
Third, though aid is relatively small, it can play a catalytic role, and should increasingly be spent on strengthening sector systems. This particularly includes enabling domestic resources to be raised, coordinated and spent, equitably and as quickly as possible – e.g. by improving absorption capacity, building equitable tariff and subsidy systems, and improving sector financial management.¹⁴ While aid and other international transfers to the sector should be increased significantly, domestic finance, namely taxes and tariffs, have much greater potential to be increased, across all country income groups. Aid can also be used for blending – i.e. the use of development funds to mobilise private finance. However, available data on private finance mobilised to date, reported below, show that a massive shift is needed in the pace and quality of blending to avoid further wastage of scarce WASH aid.

Box 1: Need and sufficiency of finance for WASH

Total annual costs previously estimated by WaterAid in 2021 for climate resilient, safely managed WASH are \$74bn for LICs, \$279bn for lower-middle income countries (LMICs) and \$397bn for UMICs, equating to 15%, 3% and 1% of annual GDP for a typical country in each income group.¹⁵

These estimates are considerably higher than other commonly cited costings for safely managed WASH because they account for more economies (233 in total), additional climate change adaptation costs and, at least partially, for inadequate progress to date.

Figure 1: Potential domestic WASH finance and current external transfers vs. climate resilient safely managed WASH costs per year to 2030



Source: OECD DAC CRS; PPP Project Database; fDi Markets; WaterAid

Comparing these costs with a plausible range of estimates for potential funding from taxes and tariffs, as well as transfers – including mapped aid and non-aid flows – shows that the financing gap for achieving SDG targets 6.1 and 6.2 is enormous, especially in the poorest countries (Figure 1).¹⁶

In the more optimistic scenario, with higher domestic financing potential from taxes and tariffs, WASH costs can easily be met by the typical LMIC and UMIC. LICs, however, collectively face a very significant financing gap, equivalent to 11% of GDP or nearly \$60bn p.a. – vastly greater than the current WSS aid they receive (under \$2bn p.a.). In this scenario, there would be potential to reallocate current WSS aid from MICs to LICs, which would reduce the gap by around 10% in the poorest group of countries.

However, when assuming more realistic levels of tax and tariff funding to WASH domestically, together with current tracked international transfers including WSS aid, all income groups face a shortfall: approximately \$70bn p.a. in LICs (13% of GDP), \$160bn p.a. in LMICs (2% of GDP), and \$10bn p.a. in UMICs (a much more modest 0.04% of GDP). The realistic scenario reflects the legacy of the pandemic and the impact of current crises on household and government budgets, as well as the diminishing time to achieve the SDGs. It should be noted that all figures are at the aggregate income-group level and there is likely to be considerable variation between countries.

Key trends in aid flows to WASH

Trend 1: Volume of aid

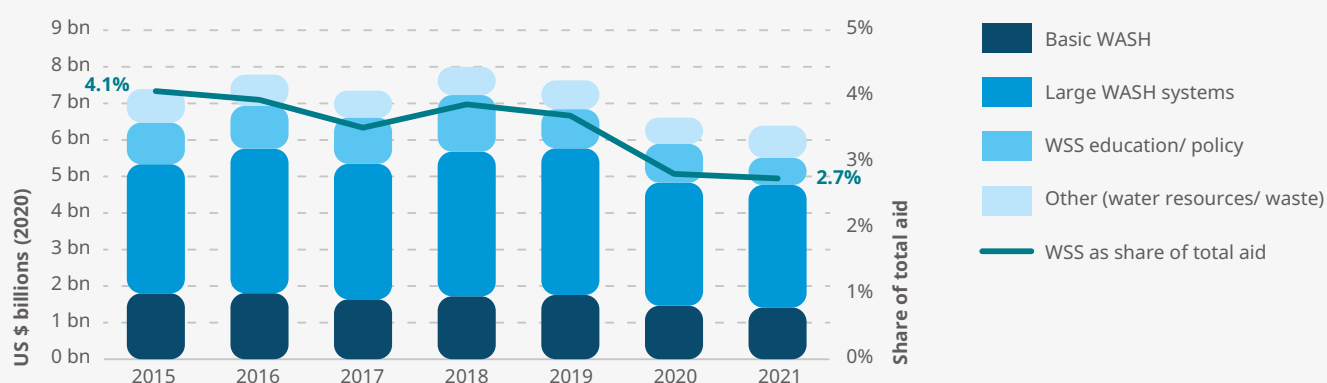
Aid to the sector has been falling in real terms and as a share of total aid since 2018.¹⁷

As a share of total aid, aid to the ‘water supply and sanitation’ sector (WSS), which is the focus of analysis in this briefing and includes some water resources and waste management spend as well as WASH, declined every year except 2018 (averaging at 3.5% of the total, or \$7.3bn p.a.).¹⁸ By 2021 it reached its lowest point since the SDGs were agreed (Figure 2). Comparing with other similar sectors, over the 2015–2021 period aid to WSS declined at a faster rate than all other social sectors, and than energy.¹⁹ The share received by different areas within the WSS sector did not fluctuate significantly, with large WASH infrastructure accounting for around half the total in all years.²⁰ Almost all WSS aid comprised ODA from government and multilateral donors – i.e. ODA loans and grants and a small amount of equity finance. Private development finance from philanthropic

organisations accounted for just 2% of the total (averaging at \$0.1bn p.a. and reaching a high of \$0.2bn p.a. in 2019).

Other measures for WASH and water-related development finance confirm the decline. Water-related ODA, tracked for SDG target 6.a (international water cooperation) and including additional subsectors as well as those within the WSS sector, also declined in real terms (from \$9.2bn in 2015 to \$7.9bn in 2021) and as a share of total ODA (from 5.2% to 3.5%).²¹ A similar pattern is observed when attributing a share of WSS aid to WASH, specifically, namely aid to WASH infrastructure plus a proportion of WSS sector policy and education. On this unofficial measure, amounting to 87% of total WSS aid over the period, the real-terms amount fell from \$6.3bn to \$5.4bn, and the share of total aid fell from 3.5% to 2.3%.²²

Figure 2: WSS aid, 2015–2021 – total and as share of all aid

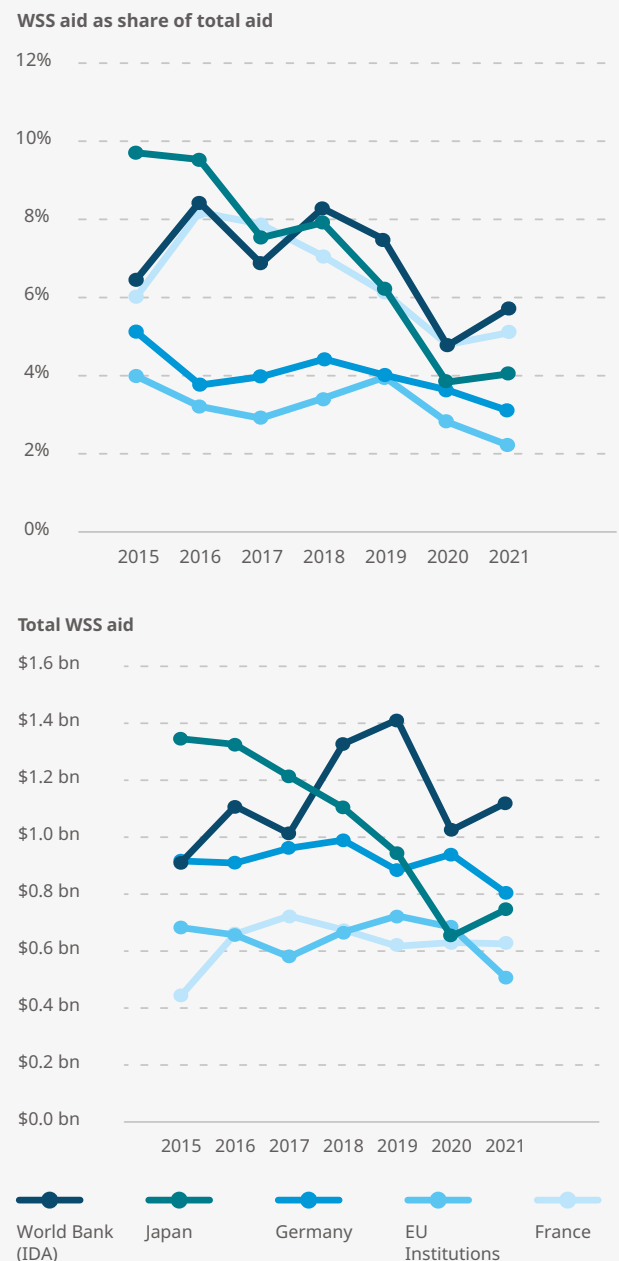


Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Development Assistance Committee Creditor Reporting System (OECD DAC CRS). 2020 constant prices.

Trend 2: Individual donors

Individual donors may buck the overall trend, but few are providing a larger share in 2021 than 2015. The top twenty donors of WSS aid, 2015–2021, collectively provided 94% of the total. Only six of these twenty donors provided a larger amount for WSS in real terms in 2021 than in 2015, and just five increased the share of their total aid going to WSS.²³ As Figure 3 shows for the top five donors, WSS aid in real terms in 2021 was significantly below the highs achieved in the previous six years, and in all cases the share of their aid going to WSS declined.

Figure 3: Top five donors of WSS aid, 2015–2021 – total and as share of all aid



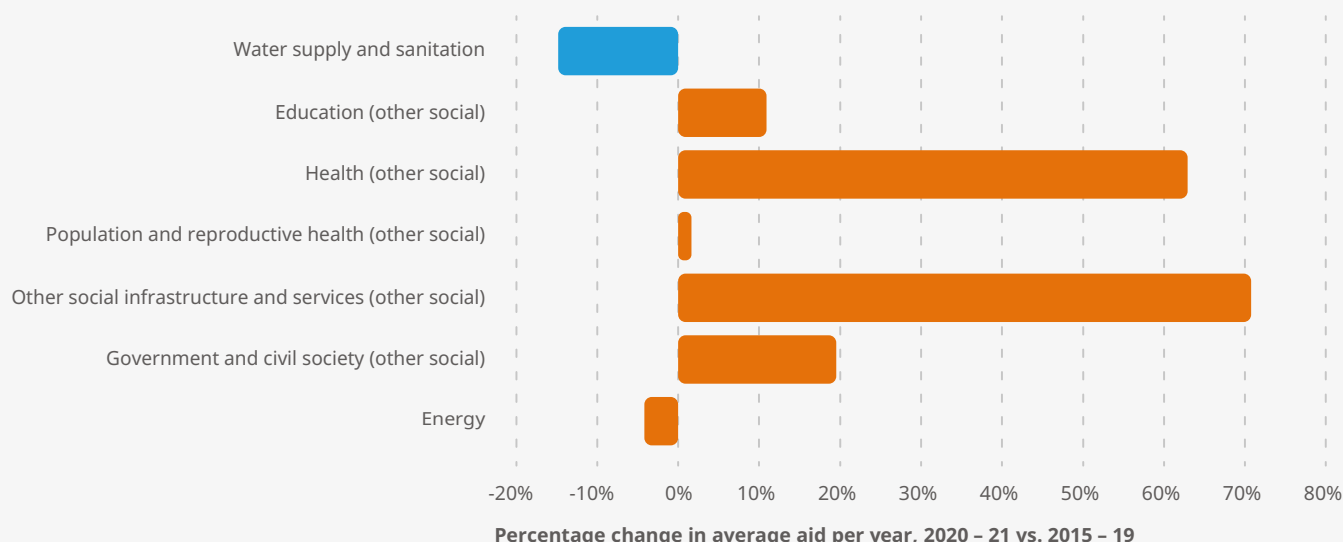
Source: OECD DAC CRS (2020 constant prices)

Trend 3: Change during the pandemic

In the first years of the COVID-19 pandemic, WSS aid fell more sharply than almost all other sectors, despite its importance to controlling infection. Aid to all other social sectors increased while aid to WSS fell, even more than aid to energy – when comparing average aid in the first years of the pandemic to the preceding years (2020–21 vs 2015–19; see Figure 4). This remains true when excluding the substantial portion of the increase in health aid associated with a newly introduced subsector for COVID-19 control.²⁴ Comparing against all sectors, WSS had the largest absolute fall except for transport and storage, with WSS losing \$1.1bn p.a. on average when comparing the 2020–21 average with the 2015–19 average.²⁵



Figure 4: Percentage change in average aid, 2020-21 vs. 2015-19

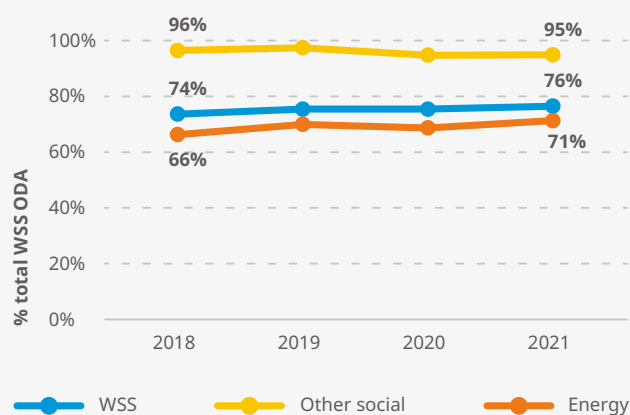


Source: OECD DAC CRS

Trend 4: Grants vs. loans

WSS received a significantly lower share of aid as grants than other social sectors, and grant equivalent WSS aid has barely increased since 2018. Growing use of loan finance for WSS in recent years appears to have peaked in 2018, at 60% of total aid, falling to 55% in 2021, similar to 2015 (54%). Estimates of 'grant equivalent' ODA include the amount effectively given away in concessional reimbursable finance like loans, and can be compared with the face value of ODA from 2018 on for some donors. These show that a much lower share of WSS ODA was provided as grant equivalent, than ODA to other social sectors, but that the share largely held steady. In energy, another sector with substantial infrastructure components, where greater use of loans might also be expected, the grant element has increased more (Figure 5).²⁶

Figure 5: Grant equivalent ODA as share of face value ODA, 2018-2021



Source: OECD DAC CRS

Trend 5: Sector strengthening investments

Share of WSS aid spent on systems strengthening (policy and education) much lower than infrastructure, and at its lowest in 2021. On average, 15% of WSS aid goes to sector policy and administration and just 1% to WSS-related education. In 2021 these two subsectors received the lowest combined share since the SDGs were agreed, at under 12%. Furthermore, these categories are not necessarily WASH specific and also need to fund policy and capacity development in water resource subsectors (Figure 6).²⁷

Within the infrastructure subsectors, which received the majority of WSS aid, 'basic' WASH systems consistently received much less aid than large systems, and sanitation received less than drinking water. Basic systems such as boreholes, small distribution networks and latrines predominantly serve rural and peri-urban communities, who are often poorer. On average, they received 23% of WSS aid, vs. 51% going to large WASH systems mainly serving wealthier urban communities, including via large drinking water and sewerage networks and treatment plants.²⁸ Water infrastructure (26%) was also prioritised over sanitation (15%), where data are disaggregated (with 32% as mixed).

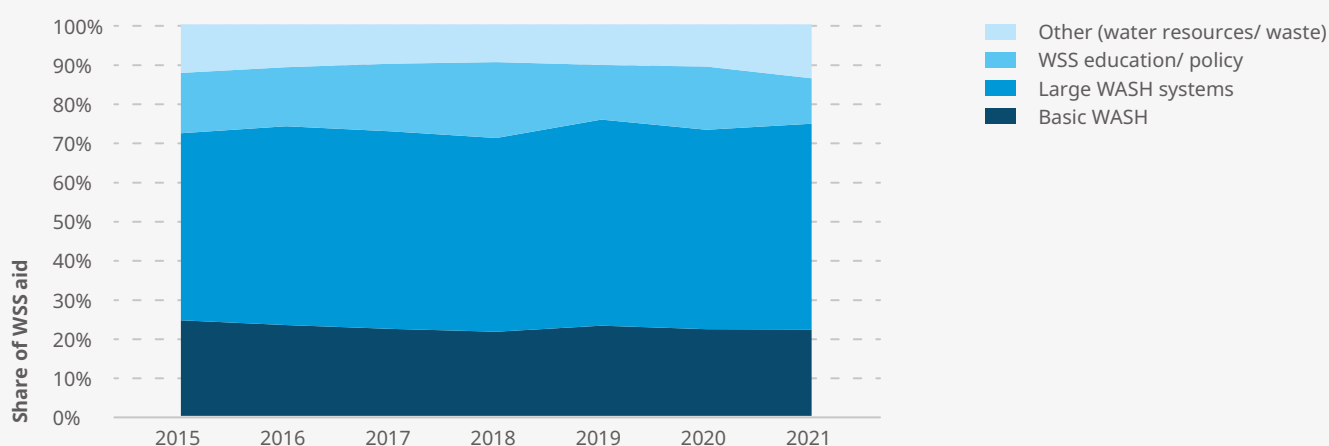
Trend 6: Other official flows

Other official flows have also declined and are weighted to richer countries. Other official flows (OOF) are not included in the aid figures given in this report, due to partial, voluntary reporting and their less concessional and non (primarily) development oriented nature.²⁹ They are nonetheless substantial, with reported WSS OOF of \$3.4bn p.a., i.e. close to half again on top of WSS aid. Over the period, WSS OOF made up a slightly higher share of total OOF than WSS aid did of total aid (4.3% vs. 3.5%). WSS OOF peaked in 2019 rather than 2018 but, like WSS aid, was lower in 2021 than 2015 both as a share of total OOF and in real terms (3.1% vs. 4.3%; \$3.1bn vs \$3.3bn). Moreover, it was mainly weighted to richer countries – 55% to upper-middle income countries (UMICs), 40% to lower-middle income countries (LMICs), and just 1% to low-income countries (LICs).³⁰

Trend 7: Private finance mobilisation

Private finance mobilised for WSS remains small and available data suggest it could be falling. The OECD's 2023 estimates of private finance mobilised for water supply and sanitation put the 2018–2020 average at \$1.3bn p.a.³¹ This is 3% of \$49bn p.a. mobilised in total, and equivalent to 12% of the average tracked development finance flows for WSS p.a. in these years (including OOF as well as aid). This would imply that each dollar of development finance is leveraging little more than ten cents of private finance for WSS. Time series data on private mobilisation at sector level are limited, but suggest it may also be declining for WSS.³²

Figure 6: Share of WSS aid to subsector groupings, 2015–2021



Source: OECD CRS

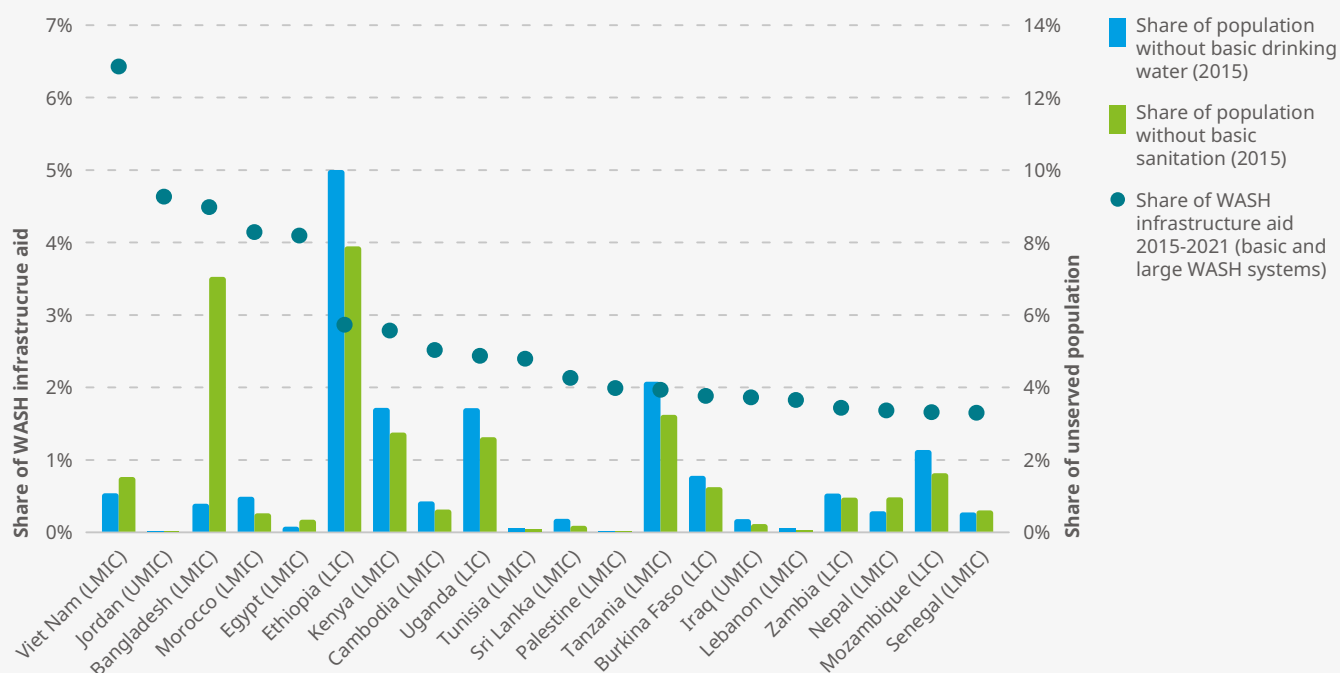
Targeting: which countries get what type of WSS aid?

Targeting to off-track countries

Much WSS aid has targeted countries that had relatively few unserved people in 2015. Countries can be compared by their population lacking basic sanitation and drinking water in 2015, and the aid they received in the subsequent years for WASH infrastructure (73% of total WSS aid, 2015-21, and the component most relevant to compare with WASH access).³³ Most countries among the top 20 aid recipients had relatively low shares of the global unserved population. Exceptions include Ethiopia and, for sanitation, Bangladesh (Figure 7, India and China not included³⁴).

Looking ahead, 25 countries receiving WSS aid are now on-track towards universal access to at least basic drinking water and sanitation, or have over 99% coverage. Most of them are comparatively richer: just seven are LMICs and none are LICs. These countries received nearly a quarter of country-specific WASH infrastructure aid, 2015–2021 (23%).³⁵ A significant number of people are yet to be served in these countries: nearly 200 million lack access to basic sanitation and over 100 million lack basic drinking water. However, nearly as many people still lack access across

Figure 7: Top 20 recipients of WASH infrastructure aid, 2015-2021, vs. population without access to basic drinking water and sanitation in 2015 (India and China not included)



Source: OECD DAC CRS; WHO & UNICEF JMP

Table 1: Thirty priority countries based on population without access to drinking water and sanitation (low and lower-middle income only, India not included)

Country	Country income group	Basic drinking water		Basic sanitation		2015-2021 WASH infra. aid per person unserved in 2015 (US \$ p.a.)
		Unserved population (2020, Thousands)	Progress to universal access	Unserved population (2020, Thousands)	Progress to universal access	
Nigeria	LMIC	46,157	Off-track	118,071	Off-track	0.7
Ethiopia	LIC	57,924	Off-track	104,720	Off-track	1.4
DRC	LIC	48,406	Off-track	75,779	Negative	0.9
Bangladesh	LMIC	3,791	Off-track	75,486	Off-track	2.4
Pakistan	LMIC	21,760	Off-track	69,808	Off-track	0.4
Tanzania	LMIC	23,466	Off-track	40,762	Off-track	2.3
Indonesia	LMIC	20,746	On-track	37,028	On-track	0.7
Uganda	LIC	20,192	Off-track	36,689	Off-track	3.5
Kenya	LMIC	20,630	Off-track	36,189	Off-track	3.8
Sudan	LIC	17,343	Off-track	27,672	Off-track	0.8
Madagascar	LIC	12,908	Off-track	24,282	Off-track	0.8
Ghana	LMIC	4,415	Off-track	23,708	Off-track	2.7
Niger	LIC	12,851	Off-track	20,636	Off-track	3.7
Mozambique	LIC	11,449	Off-track	19,627	Off-track	3.9
Philippines	LMIC	6,455	Off-track	19,444	Off-track	0.6
Afghanistan	LIC	9,696	Off-track	19,270	Off-track	2.3
Côte d'Ivoire	LMIC	7,674	Negative	17,260	Off-track	1.7
Burkina Faso	LIC	11,034	Negative	16,375	Off-track	5.8
Angola	LMIC	14,077	Off-track	15,887	Off-track	1.2
Cameroon	LMIC	9,100	Off-track	14,698	Off-track	3.9
Chad	LIC	8,839	Off-track	14,444	Off-track	1.8
Myanmar	LMIC	8,859	On-track	14,344	Off-track	2.9
Malawi	LIC	5,730	Off-track	14,050	Off-track	2.7
Yemen	LIC	11,732	Off-track	13,685	Off-track	2.7
Zambia	LIC	6,359	Off-track	12,520	Off-track	6.9
Mali	LIC	3,534	Off-track	11,058	Off-track	6.4
Viet Nam	LMIC	3,033	On-track	10,467	On-track	16.1
Benin	LMIC	4,193	Off-track	10,067	Off-track	3.0
Somalia	LIC	6,917	Off-track	9,646	Off-track	2.0
Zimbabwe	LMIC	5,549	Negative	9,632	Negative	1.3

Targeting to poorer countries

21 countries where basic drinking water and/or sanitation coverage is falling, which together received just 10% of country-specific aid for WASH infrastructure over the period.³⁶

Table 1 provides a more detailed perspective on which countries face the greatest challenge – thirty low and lower-middle income countries, not including India³⁷, with the greatest number of people lacking access to basic drinking water or sanitation in 2020 (invariably, the population without sanitation is higher). The vast majority are off-track to achieve universal access to basic drinking water and sanitation, and several are going backwards. WASH infrastructure aid received for each person without basic sanitation during the SDG period provides an additional reference point (final column). Eight countries in the list received less than a dollar per year for WASH infrastructure, for every person without access to basic sanitation in 2015.³⁸

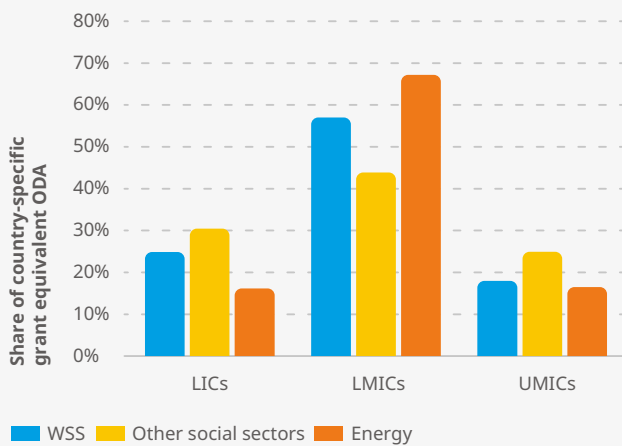
The poorest countries get a low share of WSS aid, especially in the form of grants and the most concessional loans. Compared with other social sectors WSS aid overall is weighted away from the poorest countries: 21% vs 32% of country-specific aid goes to LICs. Much more goes towards richer LMICs (59% vs. 50% in other social sectors). The share to UMICs is similar in WSS and other social sectors, at 20% and 18%, respectively.

These headline shares do not allow for varying levels of concessionality (generosity) offered by different types of finance. Using the grant equivalent measure of WSS ODA reported for the major bilateral donors, 2018–21, just a quarter went to the poorest countries (LICs), with well over half going to LMICs and nearly a fifth going to UMICs. Against other comparator sectors, proportionally less grant equivalent WSS ODA was targeted to the poorest countries compared with other social sectors, but more when compared with energy (Figure 8).³⁹

The proportion of loans (vs grants) within WSS aid can be assessed over the whole period and covers a larger number of donors, even if it does not allow for the fact that repayable finance can have different levels of concessionality. Whilst the poorest countries receive a lower proportion of their aid as loans (a third in LICs, vs. over two-thirds in LMICs and UMICs), the share they received in loans for WSS is still considerably higher than for other social sectors, at 33% vs. 9%.

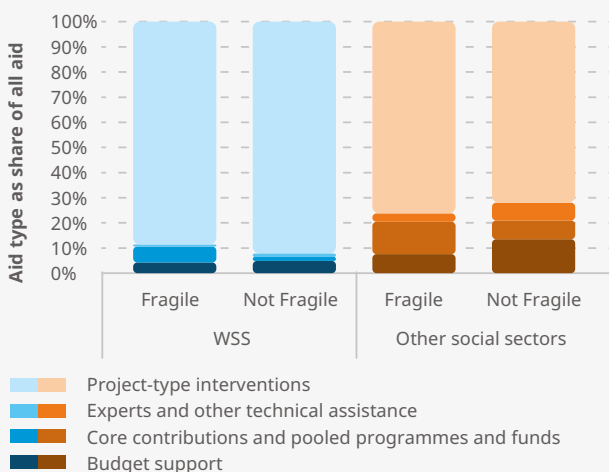
Targeting to fragile contexts

Figure 8: Grant equivalent ODA to WSS, other social sectors and energy, by country income group, 2018–2021



Source: OECD DAC CRS; World Bank

Figure 9: Aid to WSS and other social sectors – aid type to fragile/ non-fragile countries, 2015–2021



Source: OECD DAC CRS

Less WSS aid goes to fragile contexts than aid for other social sectors, though slightly more is delivered through core and pooled funds. Less than half of country-specific WSS aid (45%) goes to fragile contexts compared with nearly two-thirds in other social sectors (63%). A large majority of WSS aid is delivered in the form of projects, increasing transaction costs and coordination challenges between different donors, and with recipient governments: nearly 90%, compared with 76% in other social sectors. Core contributions and pooled funds are used for 6% of WSS aid, while the share is double this in other social sectors (13%). Similarly, budget support is used for 4% of WSS aid, compared to 7% for other social sectors.⁴⁰

However, while fragility of recipient countries might be expected to lead to greater use of project-type aid, on the assumption that absorption and coordination capacity may be weaker, this does not appear to be the case in WSS, while it is the case for other social sectors (Figure 9).⁴¹

WASH as an enabler: health, gender equality and climate resilience

How WASH integrates with other sectors

The overlap between WASH and other sectors is significant, revealing opportunities to enhance cross-sector engagement. Analysis of International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI) data (which allows reporting multiple sectors for each project) shows that a significant proportion of WASH activities are coded to and/or share projects with activities from other sectors. Figure 10 shows the value of IATI projects active in 2022 that feature WASH, based on a search for WASH-related keywords.⁴² 30% of aid on projects that include WSS activities are coded outside the main WSS sector. While the largest of these other sectors are the health and humanitarian sectors – where WASH would be assumed to feature – many

others are prominent, confirming the need for comprehensive cross-sectoral engagement by the WASH and water communities, just as the support and integration of other sectors is crucial to WASH projects.

This section considers the extent of integration in aid supporting WASH and three key broader themes: health, gender equality and climate resilience.

Figure 10: WASH and other sector overlaps in IATI recorded projects active in 2022



Source: IATI and authors' keyword search

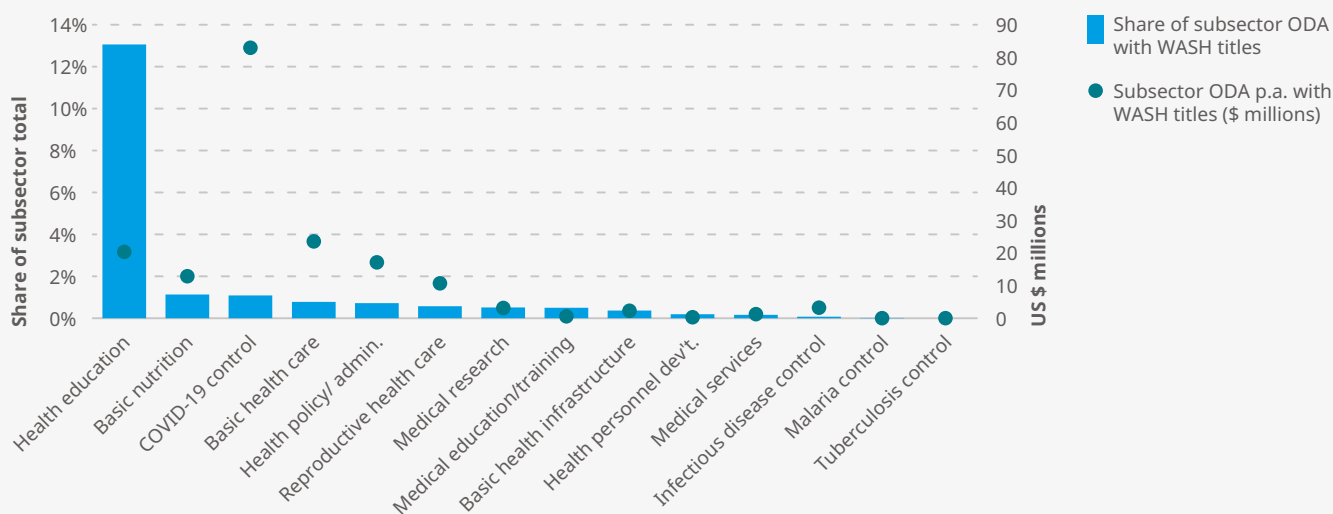
WASH as an enabler: Health

WASH for health. WASH-focused projects represent a tiny fraction of health aid.

Despite a comparatively high degree of overlap of health and WASH in IATI data, the same WASH keyword search in the more comprehensive OECD DAC CRS disbursements data over the 2015–2021 period reveals that integration of WASH within health aid could go much further. WASH terms feature strongly – appearing in project titles – in just 0.6% of aid across relevant health subsectors, equivalent to under \$180m on average p.a.⁴³ Only in one subsector, health education, is the share substantially above 1%, reflecting that hygiene and sanitation promotion activities can be coded to this subsector.⁴⁴ The share is 0.6% in reproductive healthcare and just 0.08% in

infectious disease control. Including where WASH terms are mentioned less prominently, i.e. also searching in project descriptions, increases the share of health aid mentioning WASH to 2.3% across the relevant subsectors. This is equivalent to \$663 million p.a. However, WASH-related activities will usually be small fraction of the total spend within these projects.

Figure 11: WASH-focused health projects: share of total subsector aid and average aid p.a., 2015–2021



Source: OECD DAC CRS (2020 constant prices) and authors' keyword search

WASH for COVID-19 response

Donors have not substantially funded WASH within the COVID-19 control subsector.

Safe water, sanitation and hygienic conditions provide essential protection against all infectious diseases, including COVID-19, especially given continued vaccine inequity.⁴⁵ Despite this, results of the keyword search suggest just 1% of the substantial additional aid mobilised in the COVID-19 control subsector, introduced in OECD DAC CRS in 2020 and 2021, was focused on WASH: \$99m in 2020 and \$70m 2021. Though Figure 11 shows this was the highest annual average aid spend with a WASH focus across health subsectors, at a country level it often equated to small volumes. While some countries including Syria, Kenya, South Sudan and Iraq received more than \$3m each, half of the top 20 country recipients received less than \$1m (Figure 12). Activities in any subsector could also be tagged with a COVID-19 keyword since 2020. 4% of WSS disbursements were tagged in this way, 2020–2021, the lowest share of all social sectors and only slightly higher than energy at 3%.

WASH in healthcare facilities

Limited evidence of aid for WASH in healthcare facilities. In the basic health infrastructure subsector, which includes district level hospitals and clinics, WASH terms appear in the title for just 0.4% of subsector aid. These results appear mainly to be projects focusing on improving WASH in healthcare facilities, but the total volume equates to a negligible \$2m p.a. globally. Only \$11m p.a. globally is for activities mentioning WASH terms at all (in full descriptions as well as titles). It cannot be assumed that comprehensive health infrastructure development and upgrading projects would mention individual components like WASH. However, the conspicuous absence of WASH terms points a need to better understand and prioritise funding for WASH in healthcare facilities – key to pandemic preparedness and tackling anti-microbial resistance.

Figure 12: Top 20 recipients of WASH-related aid for COVID-19 control, 2020 and 2021

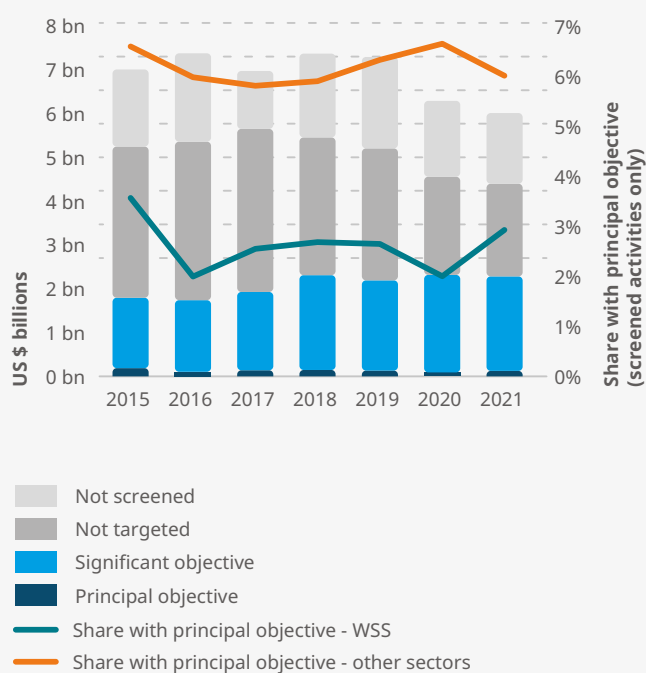


Source: OECD DAC CRS and authors' keyword search

WASH as an enabler: Gender equality

WASH contribution to gender equality untapped. OECD DAC members and several other donors increasingly screen their WSS aid activities for whether they have gender equality as a 'principal' or 'significant' objective.⁴⁶ According to this measure, which is assessed against project objectives rather than evaluated results, just 3% of screened WSS aid had gender equality as a principal objective over the period (Figure 13). This is lower than aid to other sectors (6%) and lower still than other social sectors (10%).

Figure 13: WSS aid by gender equality objective, 2015–2021



Source: OECD DAC CRS (2020 constant prices)

WASH as an enabler: Climate resilience

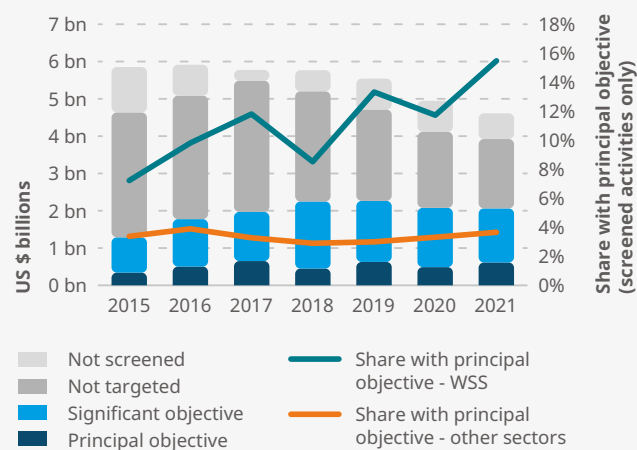
Increasing attention to climate adaptation but not increasing funding. Donors can also mark their aid as having a climate change adaptation objective. A steadily increasing share of screened WSS aid had a focus on climate change adaptation, rising from 28% in 2015 to 53% in 2021 (principal or significant objective). The share of screened WSS aid with the more stringent principal climate change adaptation objective also rose in most years, from 7% to 15% over the period, while across other sector allocable aid this remained steady at 3–4% (Figure 14).

Several multilateral donors use a different system to record the value of specific components within their projects that address climate change adaptation – though data are available only for commitments, not disbursements. Overall, the volume of WSS commitments that multilateral donors provided with adaptation 'climate components' has increased markedly, from \$0.3bn in 2015 to \$1.2bn in 2020.⁴⁷

These trends can be regarded as a success for climate mainstreaming in the WSS sector. However, there is little evidence that the importance of WASH to climate change adaptation or the additional costs of making WASH services low-carbon and climate resilient, is leading to increased aid allocations to the sector, or much separate and additional climate finance. While donors reported an increasing share of WSS aid contributed to climate change adaptation, this has not been associated with significant extra funding. The actual amount of WSS aid with climate change as a principal or significant objective peaked in real terms in 2019 and has fallen slightly since.

Disentangling climate finance from aid (and within it, ODA) is challenging. According to the OECD, climate finance provided and mobilised by developed countries for climate action in developing countries reached \$83bn in 2020, and was \$75bn p.a. on average, 2016–2020 (against the goal of mobilising \$100bn p.a. by 2020, agreed at COP15 in 2009). Within this, climate finance provided and mobilised for WSS totalled \$6bn p.a., 2016–2020. This was 8% of the total, and \$3.8bn p.a. was for adaptation (21% of total adaptation climate finance).⁴⁸ However, this estimate of WSS climate finance is likely to overlap significantly with WSS aid reported in this briefing, which for the same period averaged \$7.5bn p.a. WSS is not alone: a similar pattern of realignment or rebadging of existing aid flows as climate finance has been observed across a number of climate-relevant sectors, including energy and transport with their particular relevance to mitigation.⁴⁹ Despite original hopes that developed country climate finance contributions would be separate and additional to their aid budgets, climate-marked aid is frequently counted as climate finance, including when donors report to the UNFCCC.⁵⁰ Furthermore, the OECD’s climate finance estimate has been critiqued as significantly inflating the real value of climate finance to developing countries.⁵¹

Figure 14: WSS aid by climate adaptation objective, 2015–2021



Source: OECD DAC CRS (2020 constant prices)

Outlook

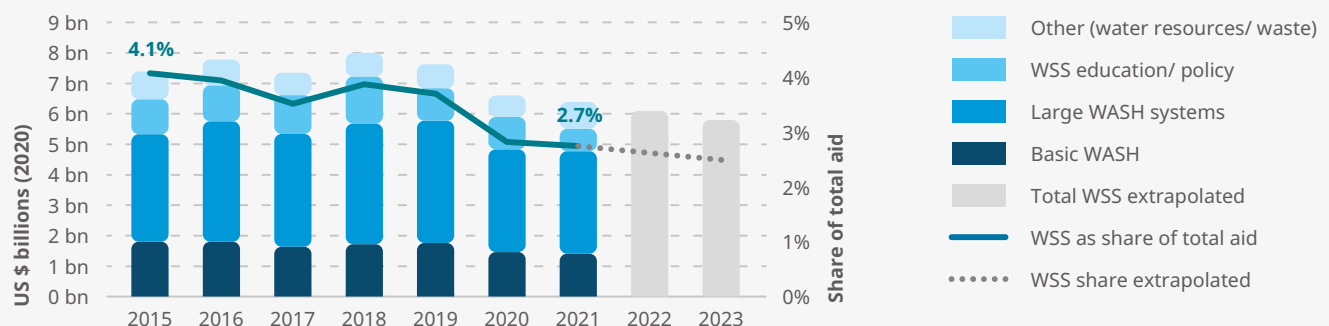
The decline in WSS aid may continue, further threatening achievement of SDG 6 and other global goals. Extrapolating WSS aid disbursements to 2022 and 2023, using commitment and disbursement data from both OECD DAC CRS and IATI, implies a continued decline, to around \$6 billion in 2022 and below this in 2023. As depicted in Figure 15 this would represent a continued fall in the share of total aid, noting greater uncertainty in extrapolating levels of total aid for 2022 and 2023.⁵²

Donors and other WASH actors need to be clear that successive real terms reductions in aid to WASH and water more widely put the poorest peoples' health, productivity and wellbeing at risk and undermine efforts to build climate resilience. Poor coordination in how and upon what sector aid is spent mean it is not playing its potentially catalytic role. Without a significant policy change, this will continue, further jeopardising attainment of SDG 6 and multiple other global commitments and agreements, including other SDGs, the Paris Agreement, a new Global Goal on Adaptation,⁵³ and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction.

About this briefing

This briefing was produced by Manatee Insight for WaterAid. Authors: Nathaniel Mason, Matt Geddes and Nabaraj Mahanta. We gratefully acknowledge advice from Marcus Manuel (to January 2023), Charlene Watson, Henry Northover and colleagues at WaterAid and the WHO GLAAS team, but they are not responsible for the content nor any errors or omissions.

Figure 15: WSS aid 2015–21 (official figures) and 2022–23 (extrapolation)



Source: OECD DAC CRS, IATI (2020 constant prices)

Notes

- 1 WaterAid (2021) Mission-critical: Invest in water, sanitation and hygiene for a healthy and green economic recovery. WaterAid: London.
- 2 SDG 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development; SDG target 6.a: By 2030, expand international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, wastewater treatment, recycling and reuse technologies.
- 3 At the time of writing, Sanitation and Water for All partners and others are discussing the potential to constitute a donor platform on WASH, which could enable such a process.
- 4 Unless otherwise stated all aid data in this briefing are from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's Development Assistance Committee (OECD DAC) creditor reporting system (CRS). The term aid includes the following flows reported in OECD DAC CRS: Official development assistance (ODA) grants, ODA loans, equity investments (collectively, ODA) and private development finance. Other official flows (OOF) are excluded. This follows the terminology used in the UN-Water Global analysis and assessment of sanitation and drinking water (GLAAS). 'Donors' refers to all providers of ODA and private development finance reported in OECD DAC CRS including DAC members, multilateral donors, non-DAC donors and private donors. See OECD DAC CRS code list (<http://www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-standards/dacandcrscodelists.htm>). All financial values reported use data for cash basis gross disbursements in US dollars unless otherwise stated. Trends and averages over multiple years use constant US dollar values normalised to 2020 prices to aid interpretation over time ('real terms').
- 5 WHO and UNICEF (2021) Progress on household drinking water, sanitation and hygiene. 2000–2020: Five years into the SDGs. World Health Organization and United Nations Children's Fund Joint Monitoring Programme: Geneva.
- 6 SDG 6, Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all. Target 6.1: By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all; Target 6.2: By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.
- 7 The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights Article 2(1) requires that "Each State Party to the present Covenant undertakes to take steps, individually and through international assistance and co-operation, especially economic and technical, to the maximum of its available resources, with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of the rights recognized in the present Covenant [...]".
- 8 WaterAid (2021) Mission-critical: Invest in water, sanitation and hygiene for a healthy and green economic recovery. WaterAid: London.
- 9 WaterAid (2022) Water, sanitation and hygiene: A foundation of strong, resilient health systems. Global Learning Report, May 2022. WaterAid: London.
- 10 Pörtner, H.-O., D.C. Roberts, H. Adams, I. et al. (2022) Technical Summary. In: Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK and New York, NY, USA, pp. 37–118.
- 11 OECD (2022) 2022 Trends and insights on development co-operation: How COVID-19 and Russia's war of aggression against Ukraine are reshaping official development assistance (ODA). Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris.
- 12 <https://public.flourish.studio/visualisation/12660751>
- 13 OECD (2023) Development Co-operation Report 2023. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris.
- 14 See also the analogous concept of 'Just water partnerships' proposed by the Global Commission on the Economics of Water (2023) Turning the tide. A call to collective action by the Global Commission on the Economics of Water. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and development: Paris.
- 15 WaterAid (2021) Blueprint: financing a future of safe water, sanitation and hygiene for all. WaterAid: London.
- 16 Estimates of domestic financing potential from taxes and tariffs were originally produced for WaterAid by Marcus Manuel, Nathaniel Mason and Stephanie Manea in internal work for WaterAid in 2021 and are reported, with minor adjustments, as an upper-bound 'optimistic scenario' here. Tax potential for WASH – 7% in the optimistic scenario – draws on estimates of domestic revenue mobilisation potential (DRM) developed in Manuel, M., & Manea, S., 2019. Financing human development and the ending of extreme poverty in Africa. European Think Tanks Group; and Manuel, M., Carson, L., Samman, E. and Evans, M., 2020. Financing the reduction of extreme poverty post-Covid-19. ODI,

London (the permission of ODI to use these data is duly acknowledged). A 'fair share' of DRM potential for WASH was constructed based on social sector spending targets adopted regionally and/or globally, and current levels of social spending in OECD economies, scaled to reflect lower levels of infrastructure and competing priorities in poorer economies. Tariff potential – 3% of household income in the optimistic scenario – follows various literature including Smets H. Access to drinking water at an affordable price in developing countries. In : El Moujabber M. (ed.), Mandi L. (ed.), Trisorio-Liuzzi G. (ed.), Martín I. (ed.), Rabi A. (ed.), Rodríguez R. (ed.). Technological perspectives for rational use of water resources in the Mediterranean region. Bari : CIHEAM, 2009. p. 57–68. An illustrative, more 'realistic' scenario – likely a lower bound estimate – was calculated assuming that tax potential and tariff potential are considerably lower than in the optimistic scenario. The realistic scenario assumes total tax potential is just a third of the optimistic scenario, reflecting the lower base many countries are starting from following the pandemic and elapsed time since the original estimates were produced. For tariff potential the realistic scenario – 1% of household income – recognises that a generic 3% expenditure or income-based affordability threshold is likely to substantially over-estimate affordability especially for the poorest users, and especially when including the range of costs that households incur, including time. See Andrés, Luis A., Saltiel, G., Misra S., Joseph, G., Lombana Cordoba C., Thibert, M., and Fenwick, C. 2021. Troubled Tariffs: Revisiting Water Pricing for Affordable and Sustainable Water Services. World Bank, Washington, DC; and UNICEF and WHO, 2021. The Measurement and Monitoring of Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) Affordability. UNICEF, New York. Additionally, Figure 1 includes average annual WSS aid per country income group (2015–2021) derived from OECD

DAC CRS data. Transfers include WSS aid reported elsewhere in this report, as well as WSS OOF (OECD DAC CRS) plus WSS greenfield FDI (FDI markets) and private contributions to WSS PPPs (PPI Project Database) collated for the above-mentioned internal research for WaterAid. Climate finance is not shown separately due to difficulties in identifying the portion that is additional to aid/ ODA.

- 17 'Real terms': values normalised to 2020 prices (see note 3).
- 18 Aid for 'water supply and sanitation' is reported as the main metric in this briefing, corresponding to OECD DAC CRS sector 140, Water supply and sanitation. As well as subsectors specifically relating to WASH infrastructure, sector 140 includes policy and capacity development activities across the water and sanitation sector, some water resource management activities which enable WASH services, and solid waste management. The entirety of sector 140 spending is counted as there is no agreed methodology to separate out the WASH component. Aid to drinking water and to sanitation are also partly reported in overlapping subsectors and there is no separate subsector for hygiene. In current rather than constant values, WSS aid rose slightly in 2021, from \$6.6bn in 2020 to \$6.7bn, but these gains were negated in real terms by inflation hence lower constant values.
- 19 Throughout this briefing we compare WSS with other social sectors (OECD DAC CRS sector codes: 110 Education; 120 Health; 130 Population Policies/ Programmes & Reproductive Health; 150 Government & Civil Society; and 160 Other Social Infrastructure & Services) and with energy (230) – reflecting the social service and infrastructure elements of WASH – as well as with all sector aid (sectors 110, Education to 430, Other multisector).
- 20 OECD DAC purpose codes/ subsectors categorised as follows – Basic WASH: 14030–14032; Large WASH systems: 14020–14022; WSS education/ policy: 14010, 14081; Other (water resources/ waste): 14015, 14040, 14050.
- 21 SDG target 6.a is monitored against indicator 6.a.1, "Amount of water- and sanitation-related official development assistance that is part of a government-coordinated spending plan." The indicator covers ODA only, and includes purpose codes (subsectors) in sector 140, plus three purpose codes classified outside the WSS sector by OECD: 31140 – Agricultural water resources, 23220 – Hydro-electric power plants and 41050 – flood prevention/ control (latter no longer used as a standalone purpose code nor available in OECD CRS data). Over the period ODA to agricultural water resources and hydropower amounted to an additional 23% on total WSS sector ODA.
- 22 All purpose codes 14020–14032 (basic WASH and large WASH systems), plus 14081 (education and training in water supply and sanitation) and a pro-rata share of 14010 (water sector policy and administrative management), but excluding 14015, 14040, 14050 which pertain to water resources management and waste management. See WaterAid, 2020. Raising the high-water mark for WASH aid. WaterAid: London.
- 23 Top 20 donors to WSS 2015–2021 in order of magnitude, including 19 providers of ODA and one provider of private development finance (* denotes 2021 WSS aid higher in real terms than 2015; † denotes 2021 WSS aid as share of total aid higher than 2015): World Bank (IDA)*, Japan, Germany, EU Institutions, France*, United States, Asian Development Bank, United Kingdom, African Development Bank, Netherlands*†, Korea*, Kuwait*†, Switzerland, Saudi Arabia, Arab Fund (AFESD) †, Sweden†, Inter-American

Development Bank*†, Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, Australia, United Arab Emirates.

- 24 Purpose code 12264 – COVID-19 control, introduced in 2020, accounts for over three quarters of the increase in average aid to health, 2020–2021 vs. 2015–2019.
- 25 In this briefing 'other sectors' refers to other sector allocable aid in OECD DAC CRS. This includes social infrastructure and services, economic infrastructure and services, production sectors, and multi-sector/ cross cutting. It excludes contributions that "are not susceptible to allocation by sector and are reported as non-sector allocable aid. Examples are aid for general development purposes, general budget support, actions relating to debt, emergency assistance and internal transactions in the donor country". See <https://www.oecd.org/development/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-standards/purposecodessectorclassification.htm>
- 26 See: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/modernisation-dac-statistical-system.htm>. Grant equivalent ODA used from 2018 onwards due to the calculation methodology changing that year. Donors not reporting grant equivalent excluded from face value ODA denominator measured on 'cash'/ 'flow' basis (excludes multilateral donors, private donors and several non-DAC bilaterals).
- 27 Percentages do not sum to 100% due to rounding.
- 28 It is inferred from purpose code descriptions that basic WASH is used in rural and peri-urban communities, while large WASH systems are more frequently urban in nature. There is no urban/ rural subsector distinction in OECD DAC CRS WSS purpose codes, nor a useable policy marker.
- 29 OOF are official sector transactions that do not meet ODA criteria, including grants for representational/ commercial purposes, official bilateral transactions for development with a grant element <25%, and official bilateral transactions to primarily facilitate exports, although the measure of OOF captured in OECD DAC CRS does not include export credits (see [https://data.oecd.org/drf/other-official-flows-oof.htm#:~:text=Other%20official%20flows%20\(OOF\)%20are,development%20assistance%20\(ODA\)%20criteria](https://data.oecd.org/drf/other-official-flows-oof.htm#:~:text=Other%20official%20flows%20(OOF)%20are,development%20assistance%20(ODA)%20criteria)). Reporting of OOF is not mandatory even for DAC donors so data are likely to be incomplete. OOF does include finance for WASH purposes in poorer countries – for example, the largest single activity recorded in OECD DAC CRS, 2021–2015, is \$0.7bn from the World Bank (IBRD) for India's Swachh Bharat Mission.
- 30 Country income groups as classified in 2021 by World Bank. Analysis does not account for changes in income group status during the period.
- 31 OECD (2023) Private finance mobilised by official development finance interventions. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris. These estimates draw on a survey of development finance providers and the new Total Official Support for Sustainable Development (TOSSD) dataset.
- 32 TOSSD data, available for 2019–2021, includes estimates of private mobilisation for WSS for a limited set of countries (India, Côte d'Ivoire, Indonesia and Malawi), which declined from \$138m in 2019 to \$41m in 2021 (2021 constant prices). See <https://tossd.online/>. Given the small sample and short timeframe, further research is needed to confirm trends in private finance mobilisation for WSS.
- 33 A similar pattern is observed when comparing with all WSS aid. Country share of WASH infrastructure aid excludes aid to multiple countries/ global regions. Throughout this report, access and on/off-track status are based on latest available estimates from WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP), for basic drinking water/ sanitation access and rates of progress (to 2020). JMP estimates for safely managed services (the focus of SDG targets 6.1 and 6.2) and for hygiene are not used as data are available for insufficient countries. Where on/off-track status for one subsector could not be estimated due to insufficient data, the category for the other subsector is used.
- 34 India and China are populous countries which, according to JMP data, held substantial numbers of unserved people in 2015, as well as receiving relatively high shares of WASH infrastructure aid (7% of the total to India, 2% to China). Due to their outsize population and large economies (with substantial domestic investments in WASH) neither country is included in Figure 7.
- 35 Countries: AZE, CHL, CHN, COK, COL, CRI, ECU, EGY, IDN, IRQ, LAO, MEX, MDV, MUS, NRU, PLW, PRY, PSE, SYC, THA, TUN, TUV, URY, UZB, VNM.
- 36 Countries: BIH, BFA, BLR, CAF, CIV, COD, FJI, GEO, GMB, JAM, JOR, LCA, NIU, PRK, SLB, SLV, SYR, UKR, VEN, VUT, ZWE.
- 37 Although an LMIC, India is also not included in Table 1 for similar reasons to Figure 7. India's own estimates of coverage also differ from those of the JMP.
- 38 If UMICs were included, seven would feature in the table: China, Argentina, Malaysia, Brazil, South Africa, Malaysia and Azerbaijan.
- 39 2018–2021 grant equivalent data only. Excludes regional/ multi-country disbursements (14% of total for WSS; 31% for other social sectors; 24% for energy) and negligible disbursements to countries not classified by income/

classified as high-income by 2021.

- 40 Shares exclude administrative costs not included elsewhere and in-donor costs including scholarships.
- 41 Fragile contexts as classified in 2021 by OECD. The OECD characterises fragility as “the combination of exposure to risk and insufficient coping capacities of the state, system and/ or communities to manage, absorb or mitigate those risks”. Fragility is measured by OECD “on a spectrum of intensity across six dimensions: economic, environmental, human, political, security and societal”. OECD (2022) States of Fragility 2022. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris. P. 107.
- 42 Keywords for common WASH-related terms (including WASH and component subsectors i.e. drinking water, sanitation and hygiene) were compiled in English, French and Spanish. Keywords were initially searched within project title, short description and long description fields in OECD DAC CRS data. A representative random sample of positive and negative results was checked to confirm relevance of each keyword and the keywords were subsequently refined. However, each result could not be individually validated and thus the overall results are indicative only. The keywords were then searched against the wider range of fields available in IATI, comprising descriptions of activities, sectors, results and targets as well as titles to produce the data shown in Figure 10. All sectors, including sector allocable and non-sector allocable, were searched. The Box ‘Others’ includes: 130: Population/Reproductive; 220: Communications; 250: Business & Other Services; 320: Industry, Mining, Construction; 330: Trade, Tourism; 410: Environment; 520: Food Aid; 910: Donor admin costs; 998: Unallocated / Unspecified.
- 43 See note 40 for WASH keyword
- search methodology. ‘Relevant’ health subsectors exclude health subsectors related to non-communicable diseases; and include reproductive health care subsector from the population sector (130).
- 44 OECD DAC CRS coding guidance states that Health Education (purpose code 12261) can include “Information, education and training of the population for improving health knowledge and practices; public health and awareness campaigns; promotion of improved personal hygiene practices, including use of sanitation facilities and handwashing with soap” (see <http://www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-standards/dacandcrscodelists.htm>).
- 45 WHO (2023) ‘Water, sanitation and health: WASH and COVID-19’. World Health Organization. Accessed 21.2.23, last updated 2023. Available at: <https://www.who.int/teams/environment-climate-change-and-health/water-sanitation-and-health/burden-of-disease/wash-and-covid19>.
- 46 Principal: Gender equality is the main objective of the project/programme and is fundamental to its design and expected results. Significant: gender equality is an important and deliberate objective, but not the principal reason for undertaking the project/programme: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/gender-development/dac-gender-equality-marker.htm>.
- 47 Data from the climate-related development finance dataset (CRDF, recipient perspective) maintained by OECD DAC. Values are the adaptation-related ‘climate components’ of developmental and concessional projects only, <https://www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-topics/climate-change.htm>.
- 48 OECD (2022) Climate Finance Provided and Mobilised by Developed Countries in 2016-2020: Insights from Disaggregated Analysis. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris.
- 49 Miller, M., Roger, L., Cao, Y. and Prizzon, A. (2023) Where has the money come from to finance rising climate ambition? ODI: London.
- 50 OECD (2023) Results of the survey on the coefficients applied to 2019–20 Rio Marker data when reporting to the UN environmental conventions. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris.
- 51 Oxfam (2022). Climate finance short-changed. The real value of the \$100 billion commitment in 2019–2020. Oxfam: Oxford.
- 52 Extrapolated 2022 WSS aid disbursements are based on the average of 3 sources: historical CRS IATI commitments, and IATI disbursements for 2022. Extrapolated 2023 WSS aid disbursements use just IATI commitments. Adjustments were made to stay within historical levels of volatility, and work around donor specific IATI data issues. In extrapolating WSS as a share of total aid, 2022 and 2023, total aid was held at 2021 constant values due to more limited data compared with the individual WSS sector. There are some signs that total aid is in fact increasing. Preliminary estimates for 2022 put grant equivalent total ODA at a record high of \$204bn in 2022, a real terms increase of 13.6% from 2021. If this is confirmed for ODA measured on a cash/ flow basis, it would imply that the falling absolute flows for WSS extrapolated for 2022 would be an even lower share of the total, than depicted in Figure 15.
- 53 See <https://unfccc.int/topics/adaptation-and-resilience/workstreams/glasgow-sharm-el-sheikh-WP-GGGA>.



WaterAid