



**Linkages between Sanitation and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Case Study of Brazil**

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## 1 Abstract

2 This paper identifies opportunities from targeted and integrated sanitation action to achieve the  
3 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This is contextualised to the case of Brazil through a  
4 systematic approach applied to the sanitation sector that considers the range of infrastructure,  
5 management services and people involved in different phases of the service chain, from municipal  
6 wastewater containment to safe disposal or re-use. Articulating the social, economic and  
7 environmental dimensions of sanitation, this study analyses their links with each of the 169 SDG  
8 targets. We demonstrate that 87 targets across 16 goals require action in Brazil's sanitation sector to  
9 achieve the SDGs. Furthermore, we identify synergies between sanitation and 124 targets in four  
10 domains: basic services for resilience building, equity and empowerment, pollution reduction and  
11 waste reuse, and economic well-being. Key results include the need for Brazil to invest in closed-loop  
12 systems that valorise waste as a resource, and the need to multiply efforts in the integrated provision  
13 of basic services in low-income areas most affected by the lack of access to adequate sanitation. The  
14 links identified are supported by the compiled evidence of published research. The analysis of linkages  
15 through this structured approach aims to highlight opportunities for strategic governance action to  
16 support policy harmonisation and partnerships across Brazil's sanitation sector and beyond. With this  
17 research, we show that establishing linkages among the SDGs provides an adaptable framework that  
18 can support policy-makers and practitioners seeking to deliver on the 2030 Agenda.

## 19 1. Introduction

20 Sanitation still receives limited attention despite the wide-ranging positive impacts it can achieve in  
21 social, economic and environmental development. We argue that where poor sanitation conditions  
22 persist along the 'service chain' (i.e. containment, transport, treatment, reuse or disposal), they hinder  
23 many other sustainable development achievements. Sanitation deficiencies also have inherent socio-  
24 political complexities. Where sanitation services are lacking, they often reflect patterns of exclusion  
25 of particular segments of the population (Rusca, Alda-Vidal, & Kooy, 2017). Annually, inadequate  
26 sanitation is estimated to kill 432,000 people globally through diarrhoeal diseases, which particularly  
27 affects more vulnerable populations (WHO, 2019). Furthermore, the unsafe disposal of human waste  
28 into the environment represents an ecological concern which affects land and marine ecosystems,  
29 and disrupts biodiversity over the long-term. In economic terms, LIXIL, WaterAid and Oxford  
30 Economics (2016) reported that, globally, sanitation service gaps cost US\$222.9 billion in 2015 in  
31 relation to mortality, healthcare expenditures and productivity losses.

32 In Brazil, sanitation is one of the bases of what defines 'public health', encompassing services and  
33 infrastructure for drinking water supply, wastewater collection and treatment, drainage and solid  
34 waste management (Ministério das Cidades, 2014). In 2014, the Ministry of Cities set an objective to  
35 achieve at least 92% access to safely managed sanitation by 2033, which means improving sanitation  
36 access for about 200 million people (Ministério das Cidades, 2017). Brazil's voluntary national review  
37 on the SDGs stated:

38 *"Ensuring access to basic sanitation – sewage treatment and solid waste*  
39 *management – should receive significant attention, as it is the most frequent type of*  
40 *environmental degradation in Brazilian cities and has very adverse impacts on the*  
41 *health of the population"* (Government of Brazil, 2017, p. 74).

42 As of 2020, the sewage of over 100 million of people (52% of the total population) is still not treated  
43 and disposed into the environment (Whately, Lerer, & Jardim, 2020). Sanitation problems continue to  
44 persist to the point of hindering the country's potential to pursue other development goals.

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3 45 While sanitation inadequacies have created many barriers in Brazil, we argue that taking action to  
4 46 address these gaps can unlock many opportunities. For this, the Sustainable Development Goals  
5 47 (SDGs) represent a useful set of guiding principles that comprehensively cover 169 interconnected  
6 48 targets arranged around 17 goals. SDG6 to “ensure availability and sustainable management of water  
7 49 and sanitation for all” encompasses targets for both water and sanitation, but is mostly focused on  
8 50 the former. This study is centred on *sanitation*, and is framed around the range of infrastructure and  
9 51 systems managing wastewater along the sanitation chain. This focuses on municipal wastewater, here  
10 52 means the management of domestic liquid wastes. We also frame sanitation around socio-political  
11 53 aspects, including the need for services to reflect the diversity of the population, and reflect on  
12 54 required changes in sanitation governance in order to meet the SDGs.

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16 55 This standalone and systematic approach to sanitation demonstrates how action on sanitation can be  
17 56 integrated into multiple development pathways set by a range of targets across all SDGs. We examine  
18 57 connections and thereby show how poor sanitation poses obstacles to the achievement of a multitude  
19 58 of sustainable development targets, but also how action on sanitation can unlock opportunities for  
20 59 achieving multiple and wide ranging benefits. We demonstrate how published evidence can support  
21 60 the links between sanitation and the SDG targets, and provide a holistic perspective of these  
22 61 connections to help inform decision-making in sanitation and across sectors. This assessment provides  
23 62 a contextual application of the methodology developed by Parikh et al. (2020) to Brazil, which is  
24 63 particularly relevant to explore specific opportunities and barriers for innovative sanitation  
25 64 interventions that can subsequently help the country achieve the SDGs.

## 28 65 **2. Sanitation in Brazil: an overview**

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31 66 The institutionalisation of sanitation services in Brazil started in the 1940s when the government  
32 67 created institutions dedicated to their supply. During the 1950s and 1960s, the characterisation of  
33 68 sanitation as a local service gained importance. The National Water Supply and Sanitation Plan  
34 69 (PLANASA) in 1971 came with a complete restructuring of the system, the centralisation of action and  
35 70 the creation of sanitation companies at state-level. Since 1988, the provision of sanitation services has  
36 71 been recognised as a basic human right according to the Federal Constitution. Furthermore, the  
37 72 Federal Basic Sanitation Law adopted in 2007 introduced what became a key legal instrument to  
38 73 account for the provision of basic sanitation services, defined in Brazil as services of clean water  
39 74 supply, wastewater collection and treatment, stormwater management and urban drainage, and solid  
40 75 waste management (Trata Brasil, 2019). The principle of universalisation is highlighted in the Basic  
41 76 Sanitation Law and in the 2013 National Plan for Sanitation (PLANSAB), and presumes that sanitation  
42 77 services must reach everyone in the country (Ministério das Cidades, 2014). This shows alignments  
43 78 between the Brazilian sanitation agenda and the SDGs which commit to ‘leave no-one behind’ (Sachs,  
44 79 Schmidt-Traub, Kroll, Lafortune, & Fuller, 2019b).

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48 80 However, Brazil’s sanitation sector is still lagging, and while international reports depict a relatively  
49 81 positive picture of the country’s progress towards SDG6, figures need to be understood in context.  
50 82 Official United Nations reports indicate that 86.1% of Brazil’s population has access to at least basic  
51 83 sanitation services, meaning access to improved sanitation facilities that are not shared with other  
52 84 households. This differs from the definition of basic sanitation services adopted in Brazil’s Federal Law  
53 85 (Sachs et al., 2019b; Sachs, Schmidt-Traub, Kroll, Lafortune, & Fuller, 2019a). UN indicators that tend  
54 86 to focus on the coverage of infrastructure overlook a large part of the sanitation picture when applied  
55 87 to the context of Brazil. Although official reports state that the country would be on track to achieve  
56 88 water and sanitation targets (Sachs et al., 2019a), critical issues remain around waste management

89 beyond the provision of toilet facilities which evaluation systems and reported data do not necessarily  
90 unveil.

91 Indeed, when it comes to the safe disposal of sewage, and more generally of wastewater, data paint  
92 a different picture. In particular, there is a large difference between the proportion of wastewater  
93 generated, the proportion of wastewater collected by utilities, and the proportion that is actually  
94 treated in Brazil. On municipalities' sewage (i.e. domestic wastewater transported by sewers), the  
95 government reports that only 46.3% of the generated sewage is treated<sup>1</sup> (SNS/MDR, 2019). In the  
96 North Region of the country, this rate falls to 21.7% (ibid). Only 14% of Brazilian municipalities actually  
97 treat 60% (or more) of the sewage they collect and transport (Whately et al., 2020). Around 16% of  
98 households use septic tanks, but considering that on-site systems rarely provide legally required  
99 treatment, it can be estimated that the sewage of 107 million people are directly disposed of into the  
100 environment (ibid). While there are disagreements about these figures, if we also consider rural and  
101 industrial wastewater, it is clear that significant quantities of untreated wastewater or sludge end up  
102 in the natural environment.

103 If current practices persist, it is likely that SDG6 will not actually be met in Brazil (Scott et al., 2017). In  
104 2014, the then Ministry of Cities reported that the total investment requirement for sewage  
105 infrastructure and services in Brazil would be R\$182 billion (US\$ 43.6 billion<sup>2</sup>) within the 2014-2033  
106 timeframe (Ministério das Cidades, 2014). Yet, political action is lacking on several fronts. For example,  
107 only 32.4% of municipalities have policies for sanitation (Whately et al., 2020). Where they exist and  
108 are implemented, municipal plans often suffer from delays, leading to the non-completion of projects  
109 and inability to spend public water and sanitation funds (OECD, 2018). The lack of municipal plans for  
110 sanitation reinforce inequalities, including among populations in settlements known as *favelas*, where  
111 an estimated 11.4-13.6 million people live (Agência IBGE, 2011; da Costa, 2020). Since sanitation  
112 access in favelas is intrinsically linked to other issues, such as land tenure and property access, it is  
113 essential to consider investment in sanitation alongside other investment needs.

114 An important obstacle to access to sanitation in Brazil, relates to governance and disagreement about  
115 responsibilities between municipalities, state and federal governments and service providers  
116 (whether state-owned, private or semi-private). Conflicting roles regarding infrastructure  
117 management and lack of supervision in the investments and operations have long caused tensions in  
118 the sector (Dias, Rosa, Gomez, & D'avignon, 2018; Leoneti, do Prado, & de Oliveira, 2011).  
119 Furthermore, the institutional landscape is in flux; political restructuring including the merger  
120 between the Ministry of Cities and the Ministry of National Integration to form the Ministry of  
121 Regional Development in 2019; and revisions to sanitation regulatory and decision-making  
122 mechanisms, including the Basic Sanitation Law N° 4.162/2019 (Whately et al., 2020). Such changes  
123 have led to debate about the efficiency and effectiveness of the sector's governance and have  
124 reignited discussion about where decision-making power lies. Analysis of the future of Brazil's  
125 sanitation sector is urgently required, which must encompass understanding of how changes will  
126 impact other sectors.

### 127 3. Methodology

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<sup>1</sup> The figure refers to the population of administrative authorities that shared data with the National Sanitation Information System which conducted the study in 2018. These include the large majority of (but not all) the country's *municípios*.

<sup>2</sup> As of 24<sup>th</sup> January 2020 (<https://www.xe.com/currencyconverter/convert/?Amount=1&From=USD&To=BRL>)

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3 128 This research identifies links between sanitation and the 169 targets of the 17 SDGs for Brazil. This is  
4 129 based on the methodology developed by researchers from University College London (UCL). It was  
5 130 initially developed by Fuso Nerini et al. (2018) who mapped out links between energy and the SDGs,  
6 131 and by Parikh et al. (2020) who adapted the methodology to sanitation, both at global scale. The  
7 132 present paper builds on these studies through an application of the methodology to a specific context.  
8 133 In so doing, it demonstrates the value of the approach in identifying opportunities for integrated  
9 134 action at scale. It also contributes to the body of research that has explored the way the targets  
10 135 interact with each other, several of which have called for context-specific case studies (see for example  
11 136 Dawes, 2020; Nilsson, Griggs, & Visbeck, 2016; Pham-Truffert, Metz, Fischer, Rueff, & Messerli, 2020;  
12 137 Pradhan, Costa, Rybski, Lucht, & Kropp, 2017; Singh et al., 2018; SuSanA, 2017; Tremblay, Fortier,  
13 138 Boucher, Riffon, & Villeneuve, 2020) and to research on sanitation in the context of Agenda 2030 in  
14 139 Brazil (e.g. P. G. M. de Carvalho, Barcellos, & Marques, 2018; P. Carvalho & Spataru, 2018; Dias et al.,  
15 140 2018; Urbanvinius et al., 2018).

16 141 Our study follows four main steps illustrated in Figure 1. For each SDG target, we explored if there was  
17 142 a call for action in sanitation to achieve the target (Step I). We then examined two-way positive  
18 143 connections with sanitation for each target, i.e. whether action in sanitation could support the  
19 144 achievement of the target, and if achievement towards the target could support sanitation objectives  
20 145 (Step II). We repeated this step to identify negative links or 'trade-offs'. For Step II, we provide at least  
21 146 one publication to support each link identified. The study does not, therefore, analyse the strength of  
22 147 the links identified, nor does it intend to analyse causalities between sanitation and the targets, but  
23 148 rather has the purpose of demonstrating the breadth of connections and thereby lays ground for  
24 149 integrated interventions. Results were reviewed and discussed among the research team for  
25 150 validation (Step III) and compiled in a tabulated spreadsheet (Appendix 1) (Step IV); these steps were  
26 151 repeated until a consensus was reached. The evidence gathered during Steps I and II was found  
27 152 through searches in academic and non-academic online research databases. Academic books and  
28 153 journal articles were prioritised, but conference papers, academic theses and grey literature, such as  
29 154 reports from non-governmental organisation, were also included. Evidence was collected in both  
30 155 Portuguese and English.

31 156 We framed sanitation objectives to build on both the UN's objectives (as defined by SDG6 "*by 2030,*  
32 157 *achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation,*  
33 158 *paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations*"), and  
34 159 Brazil's institutional definition as set in the Federal Basic Sanitation Law mentioned above. We  
35 160 consider sanitation systems as the range of infrastructure, management services and people (including  
36 161 users) involved in different phases of the sanitation chain. This provides a holistic definition that is  
37 162 applicable to the Brazilian context. Therefore, when asking the question "are there synergies and  
38 163 trade-offs between the target and action in sanitation?", we refer to the range of actions which seek  
39 164 to change sanitation systems managing wastewater in Brazil, from containment to disposal or re-use.

40 165 We mostly look into blackwater (urine and faeces) as part of domestic wastewater but also greywater  
41 166 (wastewater from sinks, washing machines, etc.), and stormwater to which it is sometimes discharged  
42 167 into despite the government's legislation calling for the strict separation of domestic wastewater from  
43 168 rainwater. Although Brazilian institutions tend to include solid waste in their definition of sanitation  
44 169 (Ministério das Cidades, 2014; WHO & UN-Water, 2014), we chose to narrow down the study by  
45 170 excluding links with solid waste, and thereby focus on sanitation interventions that relate to human  
46 171 excreta and other liquid wastes. Drainage is considered for situations of sewage meeting stormwater,  
47 172 whether formally or informally, for example to highlight the need for action regarding combined sewer  
48 173 overflows. Beyond the 'hardware', we consider literature that covers 'software' interventions. These

174 encompass the links between sanitation and its associated social determinants for which we identified  
 175 literature on topics such as gender equality and community empowerment.

176

177 *Figure 1: Step-by-step methodology to identify the links between sanitation and SDG targets*

## 178 **4. Results**

### 179 **4.1. Overview of results and the identification of ‘domains of action’**

180 The mapping exercise identified 87 calls for action across 16 goals, as well as 124 synergies and 38  
 181 trade-offs across all 17 goals. Figure 2 represents the number of linkages per goal, whether in terms  
 182 of calls for action (blue), synergies (yellow) or trade-offs (red). A much higher number of synergies  
 183 than trade-offs was identified, thereby demonstrating the potential leverage of action on sanitation .  
 184 It is worth highlighting the multiple links identified between sanitation and health (SDG3), although  
 185 some health targets were unrelated to sanitation (e.g. 3.6 on road traffic accidents). No calls for action  
 186 were identified in relation to SDG7 on energy but positive links with sanitation were found with every  
 187 SDG7 target, particularly through opportunities to support renewable energy production with the use  
 188 of human waste. The detailed compilation of results with supporting evidence is presented in  
 189 Appendix 1.

190 Based on the social, environmental, and economic aspects of sanitation, and considering the SDG  
 191 framework as a network of connected targets across the goals (Le Blanc, 2015), the links identified are  
 192 presented under four domains. Different targets of the same goal were grouped under different  
 193 domains. Domain 1 includes links related to immediate basic needs, while Domain 2 relates to longer-  
 194 term equity. Domain 3 encompasses the multiple links between sanitation and environment-related  
 195 targets, including through pollution control as well as waste recycling. Finally, Domain 4 groups the  
 196 links between sanitation and economic development, including around objectives for more decent  
 197 work conditions as well as entrepreneurship. Governance-related targets were categorised separately  
 198 including those related to policy-making, knowledge exchange and capacity-building mechanisms.  
 199 These include targets under the overarching goal SDG17 ‘Partnerships for the goals’ (Waage et al.,  
 200 2015).

201 The rest of this section provides an overview of key linkages between sanitation and the SDG targets  
 202 under each of the four domains, as well as under the ‘governance and partnerships’ separate sub-  
 203 section. Appendix 1 provides the full list of connections identified. Furthermore, Figure 3 presents  
 204 examples of targets that are linked to one another (i.e. ‘interlinkages’) through sanitation. The figure  
 205 was created to show how different targets have comparable objectives in relation to sanitation under  
 206 the four domains identified. While the list of connections represented is not exhaustive, it seeks to  
 207 highlight how integrated approaches that include sanitation can unlock opportunities to achieve one  
 208 or more targets simultaneously.

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210 *Figure 2: Spider-web representation of three types of links between sanitation each goal (calls for action, synergies and*  
 211 *trade-offs). The 17 lines linking the centre to the goals range from 1 to 100, therefore circles mark percentages at 20, 40, 60*  
 212 *80 and 100. Note that this representation should not be seen as a comparative qualitative analysis between the goals, but*  
 213 *rather as a demonstration of the wide-ranging linkages between sanitation and each of the Sustainable Development*  
 214 *Goals.*



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5 216 *Figure 3: Selected synergistic SDG interlinkages through the lens of sanitation in Brazil's context. The figure highlights that synergies between sanitation and SDG targets exist for all 17 goals,*  
6 217 *but also that sanitation interventions can unlock opportunities to achieve targets of different goals at the same time. These identified sets of links are categorised under 4 recurrent domains of*  
7 218 *action. SDG17 is represented separately as an overarching goal.*

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For Peer Review

#### 4.2. Domain 1: Sanitation and basic services for resilience-building

In Brazil, more than 6% of the population – or about 13.6 million people – live in favelas (Agência IBGE, 2011; F. N. da Costa, 2020). These low-income areas require action in sanitation as the population is typically deprived of vital necessities and exposed to illness, both of which deepen economic vulnerability (Londe, Coutinho, Di Gregório, Santos, & Soriano, 2014). Favelas typically lack sewage systems that would create a barrier between waste and people and the environment (UN-Habitat, 2013). As a result, illnesses, including water-borne diseases, spread rapidly due to shorter transmission routes. Once illness affects productivity, it may reduce household income generation. As healthcare expenditure increases, it can exacerbate poverty; savings (where they exist) decrease, and so do opportunities to invest in sanitation-related goods and services to prevent future illnesses (Medland, Cotton, & Scott, 2015; Moser, 1998). Therefore, poor sanitation is both a causal agent and a result of recurring vulnerabilities.

Understanding vulnerability cycles leads to the need to establish links between sanitation and multiple targets and goals, such as poverty reduction (1.1-5), health (3.3, 3.9), and cities and communities (11.1, 11.5). Several publications were found on the existence of these links in Brazil. For example, Chiarini (2006) establishes a statistical significant relationship between poverty and different dimensions of the urban environment in Brazil, including sanitation in low-income areas. Other research demonstrates how diseases, such as diarrhoea, as well as mosquito-borne viral infections such as dengue and Zika, are more prominent in low-income parts of cities with poor sanitation infrastructure and stagnant water bodies (A. S. de Almeida, Medronho, & Valencia, 2009; L. S. Almeida, Alves de Araújo, Cota Soares, & Rodrigues Freitas, 2019; de Melo et al., 2008; Larrea-Killinger, 2001; Nunes, 2019). These provide evidence that action on sanitation is necessary to break these links.

Vulnerable populations are also disproportionately impacted by disasters such as climate-related events, meaning that the occurrence of the sanitation-poverty cycle in low-income areas is more acute in the face of 'shocks'. During rainy seasons, floods strongly affect favelas by spreading diseases more easily, for example where sanitary effluents are informally discharged into stormwater drainage systems and cause combined sewer overflow (Reda, Ferreira, Mendes, & Beck, 2014). Larrea-Killinger (2001) discusses how this occurs in Salvador where septic tanks are a common sanitation infrastructure in favelas. Action on sanitation can support those who are most in need to build more resilient infrastructure and prepare them to better face such risks (11.5). This will also help contribute to SDG13 on climate action, particularly through target 13.1 which calls for strengthening adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters. Klug, Marengo and Luedemann (2016), for instance, argue that laws and regulations for urban areas of Brazil will help build resilience through a preventive approach, including with climate-proof infrastructure. Also from a structural approach, Londe *et al.* (2014) show how better planning for water-related disaster risk management, including sanitation interventions, will help reduce people's vulnerabilities.

#### 4.3. Domain 2: Sanitation and equity and empowerment

Vulnerability is not only a result of infrastructural distribution and service access, but is also related to social, economic and political factors which cause inequalities in Brazil. This refers to income as described above, but also to gender, disabilities, ethnicity and other social identity categories. This was identified through mapping evidence on inequalities (SDG10) but also targets across other goals that seek to reduce discrimination against specific groups, including indigenous communities. For target 3.2, we identified research showing how indigenous children are disproportionately more at risk of infant mortality due to lower sanitation access (Coimbra et al., 2013; Escobar et al., 2015; Raupp, Cunha, Fávaro, & Santos, 2019). In relation to target 4.7 on education for sustainable development,



264 there is evidence showing that the planning, execution, and evaluation of sanitation interventions is  
265 often carried out without recognition of cultural specificities which actually reinforce the  
266 marginalisation of indigenous populations due to a lack of culturally differentiated care (Pena & Heller,  
267 2007; Teixeira & da Silva, 2019).

268 We also identified research on the links between sanitation and gender inequalities, for example  
269 regarding public sanitation facilities that are not suitable for Menstrual Hygiene Management (MHM)  
270 as researched by Coswosk et al. (2019) whose work is relevant for SDG5 on gender equality (5.1-2)  
271 and SDG4 on education (4.5, 4.a). Similarly, academics have researched how poor sanitation  
272 conditions increase risks to maternal health, particularly among low-income groups, and how health  
273 education being integrated into health programmes in Brazil can support better hygiene practices  
274 (targets 5.6, 3.7) (Victora et al., 2011; Villela & Monteiro, 2005). This suggests the need to understand  
275 sanitation from an intersectional perspective since modes of discrimination are often formed by the  
276 combination of different social categories and relations such as gender, class and race. Multiple  
277 scholars have emphasised how poor sanitation can cause, be the result of, or reinforce  
278 multidimensional inequalities in Brazil (Justino, Litchfield, & Niimi, 2004).

279 Considering these different types of exclusion, sanitation can also be a means to give recognition to  
280 marginalised groups, and a means of empowerment. Within SDG6, target 6.B calls for supporting and  
281 strengthening communities' participation, in line with target 11.3 of the cities and communities goal  
282 (SDG11). There is evidence of synergies in relation to the participation of low-income communities in  
283 the implementation and maintenance of sanitation interventions in Brazil, for example of condominial  
284 sewage systems (Mara & Alabaster, 2008; Nance & Ortolano, 2007; Watson, 1995). Furthermore,  
285 research demonstrates how sanitation interventions can be positively impacted by female leadership  
286 (target 5.5) (Morales & Perkins, 2007; Watson, 1992). This suggests that sanitation can enable the  
287 reduction of various forms of exclusion, as well as create opportunities for decision-making at all levels  
288 and thereby help achieve inclusive societies for sustainable development (16.7) (Nance & Ortolano,  
289 2007; Ostrom, 1996).

#### 4.4. Domain 3: Sanitation and pollution reduction and waste reuse

291 A range of targets related to unsafe waste disposal and pollution call for action in the sanitation sector.  
292 SDG6 calls for halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and protecting and restoring the  
293 environment (6.3, 6.6). Brazil needs to develop national and local waste management systems along  
294 the sanitation chain in order to achieve these targets and protect the quality of surface and  
295 groundwater. Numerous cities in the North Region have very poor sewage systems. For example, the  
296 capital city of Manaus in Amazonas State only treats 30% of the waste collected and transported by  
297 sewers (ABES, 2018). As only 10% of households are connected to the 500 km-long sewage network,  
298 and on-site treatment systems are not widespread, most sewage generated across the city is directly  
299 released into streams or other water bodies. Investments towards collection and treatment will help  
300 meet these targets. This will also support achievements towards SDG14 (14.1-2, 14.5) on reduced  
301 disposal of contaminated effluents currently affecting marine ecosystems, which represents a  
302 considerable problem for the country's coastal areas (CETESB, 2018; Jablonski & Filet, 2008).

303 Protecting water resources requires joint action amongst different sectors to also conserve soil  
304 systems and improve agricultural practices, and thereby help meet SDG2 targets on food and hunger.  
305 CONAMA Resolution No. 430/2011 sets national conditions and standards for effluent discharge and  
306 prescribes that effluent treatment must remove 60% of Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD) for direct  
307 discharge into receiving bodies (CONAMA, 2011). Yet, the vast majority of Brazilian cities (4,801 cities,  
308 totalling 129.5 million inhabitants) have organic load removal levels that are far below 60%, especially

309 in the North and Northeast (ANA, 2017). Only 769 cities (14% of the total), principally in the Southeast  
 310 region, have BOD removal levels above 60%. The agricultural industry of Brazil needs to make  
 311 substantial improvements in water reuse practices to ensure safer food production. There is no  
 312 national legislation in Brazil for water reuse, although CONAMA Resolution No. 375/2006 seeks to  
 313 regulate sewage sludge application in agriculture (CONAMA, 2006).

314 Therefore, the prioritisation, institutionalisation and regulation of treated wastewater reuse in Brazil  
 315 will participate in creating synergies with goals seeking to safeguard human (SDG3) and ecological  
 316 health (SDG14-15). Currently, irrigation accounts for 72% of the total amount of water consumed in  
 317 Brazil, and projections show this figure is expected to increase (ANA, 2016). The planned reuse of  
 318 treated wastewater in agriculture is considered an important measure to mitigate water crises and  
 319 help reduce pressure on water and soil ecosystems (J. T. de Sousa, van Haandel, Cavalcanti, &  
 320 Figueiredo, 2005). This will be especially important in arid and semi-arid parts of the country,  
 321 particularly the Northeast region but also in regions where water extraction patterns exceed recharge  
 322 rates (Magrin et al., 2014). Therefore, working towards the protection of soil and water systems will  
 323 also contribute to SDG12 and SDG15 on the environmentally sound management of water and soil  
 324 systems (12.4, 15.1, 15.4-5).

325 The use of waste, approached as a resource, has been identified as a key ecological and economic  
 326 opportunity, but biogas recovery practices remain limited in Brazil due to a mix of social, political and  
 327 economic factors. High population concentrations in large urban centres means that there are  
 328 considerable quantities of sludge available to be used in conjunction with agriculture effluents to  
 329 produce biogas (Leite, Hoffmann, & Daniel, 2019). In 2016, the Brazil-German Probiogás project  
 330 estimated Brazil's biogas for energy potential from sludge at 1,409 MWh per year (Ministério das  
 331 Cidades, 2016). The country currently has a very small installed capacity, but this scenario may change  
 332 rapidly given its strong biogas production potential which may attract foreign investment (CIBiogás,  
 333 2019). Several Wastewater Treatment Plants (WWTP) have started to produce energy from biogas,  
 334 including in Riberão Preto, Belo Horizonte, Belém and the Ouro Verde WWTP in Foz do Iguaçu  
 335 (Valente, 2015; Zanin, Becker, & Santos, 2014). Valente (2015) estimated that WWTPs designed to  
 336 serve 200,000 to 450,000 inhabitants could have up to 80% internal rates of return. Continued efforts  
 337 towards biogas production supported by an enabling legal framework could help enhance current  
 338 achievements against SDG7 targets and help meet the growing demand for renewable energy (7.1-  
 339 7.B).

#### 340 **4.5. Domain 4: Sanitation and economic well-being**

341 Research has explored how poor sanitation in Brazil impacts the economy at multiple levels. It was  
 342 estimated that R\$121 million (about US\$56 million<sup>3</sup>) was spent in 2013 on hospitalisations caused by  
 343 gastrointestinal infections (CEBDS and Trata Brasil, 2014). This also has a link with economic  
 344 productivity: 849,500 workdays were lost in 2012 due to absence caused by diarrhoea and/or  
 345 vomiting, leading to an estimated R\$1.112 billion (about US\$570 million<sup>4</sup>) of hours paid but not  
 346 effectively worked (ibid). Universalising access to water and sanitation would lead to a 23% reduction  
 347 in the total number of days missed due to diarrhoeal diseases and increase income by R\$258 million  
 348 per year (about US\$120 million per year<sup>5</sup>). This will support achievements towards a more productive  
 349 economy (8.2) and better employment and remuneration (8.5) (ibid). Since poor on-site sanitation

<sup>3</sup> 1 USD = 0.465 BRL in 2013 <https://www.x-rates.com/average/?from=BRL&to=USD&amount=1&year=2013>

<sup>4</sup> 1 USD = 0.514 BRL in 2012 <https://www.x-rates.com/average/?from=BRL&to=USD&amount=1&year=2012>

<sup>5</sup> As per the USD-BRL exchange rate in 2013, the year of the study. However, note that current exchange rates fluctuations would need to be considered for updated estimations.

350 conditions also affect health and productivity of workers, investment made to improve working  
351 environments including for migrants exposed to precarious employment would help protect labour  
352 rights (8.8).

353 Given the current sanitation deficit in Brazil, the universalisation of sanitation services requires  
354 significant investments, at least over the short-term (8.1). At the regional level, investment costs in  
355 the distribution of treated water and in sewage collection for the Northeast were estimated at R\$76  
356 billion or 13.7% of the region's GDP (CEBDS and Trata Brasil, 2014). Further economic challenges could  
357 emerge if universalisation strategies require investment costs to be borne at the household level (1.1-  
358 2). While these estimations focus on infrastructural aspects of sanitation actions, many investment  
359 opportunities exist in relation to educational programmes. Research has investigated how health  
360 education can lead to disease prevention through behaviour change (4.7). Schall (1995) argues that  
361 health education programmes in Brazil have supported the control of diseases, such as  
362 schistosomiasis, since the 1960s. Through the cases of Campo Grande and Dourados municipalities,  
363 Iorio *et al.* (2009) advocate for continued educational programmes, including environmental  
364 education, to stimulate transformative social action with regard to sanitation practices for sustainable  
365 development. Among the numerous benefits, Kloos *et al.* (2008) argue these will contribute to  
366 safeguarding the health of the Brazilian workforce.

367 Investment in innovation has been identified as a potential boost for the sanitation sector. Research  
368 shows that technology development, for example for more effective, integrated water quality  
369 management systems, can support sanitation together with environmental conservation and urban  
370 populations' quality of life (9.B) (Heller and Nascimento, 2005; Ribeiro, 2018; OECD, 2018). Cost  
371 benefits associated with green/blue infrastructure development are increasingly gaining recognition  
372 (9.1, 6.6, 15.1, 15.A). For example, for the Cantareira reservoir in São Paulo, net benefits from forests  
373 (then referred to as 'natural infrastructure') were evaluated at \$69 million over 30 years (Ozment *et*  
374 *al.*, 2018). Although less well documented, a large number of independent Small and Medium-sized  
375 Enterprises (SMEs) contribute to sanitation in Brazil, whether formally or informally, and many of  
376 which employ or are led by women (Arroio, 2014). Many of these provide 'non-conventional' solutions  
377 (e.g. nature-based solutions for water treatment), together with software solutions (e.g. community  
378 mobilisation and empowerment) (e.g. Castagna & Goldeinstein, 2018). Long-term support to such  
379 enterprises will help meet targets around entrepreneurship (8.3, 9.3) (Albuquerque, 2011). The  
380 landscape for investment in SMEs remains limited as finance is more accessible to large utilities, which  
381 may fail to fill service gaps, particularly for low-income communities (Vargas & Lima, 2004). While  
382 Brazil is an attractive country for private equity and venture capital investment in infrastructure  
383 projects, SMEs continue to face a challenging business environment regarding the credit market,  
384 taxation and regulatory complications (Dâmaso, Turolla, & Teixeira, 2017; Moon, 2019; OECD, 2020).

#### 385 4.6. Governance and partnerships for sanitation

386 Various initiatives to improve access to sanitation in Brazil, including the National Sanitation Plan, have  
387 been negatively affected by conflicts of interest amongst different stakeholders, most notably  
388 municipal and state actors. However, realising the opportunities to maximise synergies and limit  
389 trade-offs requires partnerships between actors. SDG17 seeks to provide a means for these  
390 partnerships to be leveraged to support objectives around financial mobilisation and investment,  
391 technology and knowledge transfer, capacity-building, policy and institutional coherence, monitoring  
392 and accountability. Such partnerships include those between government and civil society, public-  
393 private and public-public, both at national and international levels. The development of networks is a  
394 strategic form of governance. For example, RESAG, the national water supply and sanitation network,  
395 was created by the Brazilian Federal Government to support science technology innovation through

396 training, accreditation and access to laboratory material (Ponçano & Plonski, 2017). Since private  
397 companies play a strong role in the Brazilian sanitation sector, dynamic networks for SMEs can help  
398 with access to resources and information-sharing. Increasing accountability and transparency through  
399 better engagement with civil society will also improve decision-making processes (Serageldin et al.,  
400 2005).

401 In relation to political investment, policies and regulations, research shows that sanitation is a sector  
402 for which investment needs to be prioritised, and also requires more accountancy and transparency  
403 (16.6) (Burrier, 2019; de Oliveira, 2018). Crucially, data and monitoring processes remain poor and  
404 unreliable in the sanitation sector and must be improved to support and guide policy, planning and  
405 resource allocation (17.18 and 17.19) (de Miranda & Marinho, 2004; OECD, 2017; Whately & Diniz,  
406 2009). There is also progress to be made on policy coherence, a gap that has been analysed by the  
407 OECD (2018) in relation to PLANSAB, water resources planning, and various other policies. The OECD  
408 argues that decision-making for water resource management is particularly complex in large Brazilian  
409 cities, in which case co-operation will enhance cost-effectiveness, efficiency and security of service  
410 supply, while reducing negative spillover effects on public health and the environment (16.7, 17.14).  
411 To reduce inequalities, pro-poor initiatives in Brazil have included sanitation tariff mechanisms  
412 supported by cross-subsidies. However, municipalities without real fiscal independence cannot fully  
413 benefit from this system, which has disproportionate effects on the poorest populations (de Sousa &  
414 Costa, 2016). The pursuit of poverty eradication and sustainable development objectives which both  
415 link to sanitation commitment will therefore require stronger coordination between actors at  
416 different governance levels (17.15).

## 417 **5. Discussion and recommendations**

### 418 **5.1. From understanding the links towards strategic action**

419 The findings presented above are the result of a structured approach to reviewing published evidence  
420 on sanitation in Brazil and exploring the linkages to the SDG targets. This structured process identified  
421 key areas of action in sanitation, synergies as well as trade-offs. Results align with those of Parikh et  
422 al. (2020) who identified 83 calls for action, 130 synergies and 28 trade-offs. There are some  
423 differences, however, explained by the application of the methodology to a specific context – that of  
424 Brazil. This study is not exhaustive as it draws on a limited number of sources, particularly academic  
425 papers. Therefore, there is scope to expand the evidence base beyond sources available in the public  
426 realm to gain further insights into the complexity and diverse aspects of the sanitation sector, e.g.  
427 testimonials from practitioners and citizens, before developing approaches and solutions.

428 Our study confirms how sanitation has synergistic links with all 17 SDGs in Brazil. There is an  
429 opportunity to benefit from synergies by adopting nexus approaches. For example, wastewater  
430 treatment and reuse can significantly help ensure safe, nutritious and sufficient food production and  
431 thereby help tackle environmental pollution and malnutrition. The challenge is to scale up safe human  
432 waste recycling techniques to make this viable across Brazil. As seen in various Brazilian cities,  
433 integrated approaches are particularly important in low-income settlements where a range of services  
434 beyond sanitation are lacking, which deepens vulnerabilities to climate change. Targeted action is  
435 required to build resilience in such areas through technically appropriate, sustainable and socio-  
436 culturally acceptable sanitation services. Slum upgrading programmes need to consider how action on  
437 sanitation can be supported alongside interventions around water management, housing and  
438 education. This will require equitable and participatory solutions for sanitation services to ensure  
439 inclusion of all and engagement of communities for improved ownership and maintenance of services.

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3 440 The value of this context-specific analysis lies in unveiling existing evidence for important linkages  
4 441 between sanitation and the SDG targets that need to be considered in future efforts to meet the UN  
5 442 2030 Agenda. Indeed, identified synergies should not be interpreted as the norm across the entire  
6 443 country, but rather as potential opportunities to be harnessed in the planning of future interventions.  
7 444 Similarly, the documented trade-offs are largely warning signals for potential negative implications  
8 445 that emphasise the need for integrated efforts across the SDGs and their constituent targets. A  
9 446 number of trade-offs were identified in relation to newly introduced sanitation management systems  
10 447 that fail to manage waste safely, both from a human and environmental health perspective. Other  
11 448 trade-offs include those related to poverty reduction programmes which risk perpetuating or  
12 449 introducing new socio-economic vulnerabilities over the short- and long-term. More detailed, context-  
13 450 specific analysis will be required to fully understand how these synergies and trade-offs will manifest  
14 451 in different settings. Overall, the significantly smaller number of trade-offs in comparison to synergies  
15 452 is largely explained by the broadness of the targets. We expect that the application of this  
16 453 methodology at project-scale would lead to the identification of more trade-offs. Given the varying  
17 454 understandings and definitions of 'sanitation', the further application of the methodology also  
18 455 requires clear framing of what is considered under sanitation interventions. Brazil's definition of  
19 456 sanitation is an opportunity for action on several fronts, but can also create confusion if it is not clearly  
20 457 interpreted.

## 25 458 **5.2. Governance recommendations**

27 459 This paper reveals that action is needed at multiple levels, ranging from infrastructure development  
28 460 and management to community engagement, and from economic investment and partnerships to  
29 461 data management. In order to achieve stronger policy coherence for sustainable development,  
30 462 Georgeson and Maslin (2018) point out the importance of considering risks at different governance  
31 463 levels. In Brazil, that includes risks to be mapped out at state level, but also at municipal and  
32 464 community level, including that of inter-governmental and inter-organisational conflicts. Research  
33 465 demonstrates how multi-level and cross-sectoral partnerships are necessary for integrated actions to  
34 466 reach development co-benefits, in which sanitation interventions will play a role. Sanitation requires  
35 467 an alignment of objectives with other sectors through integrated policies supported by national-level  
36 468 plans that are regularly monitored and evaluated to reduce implementation barriers for local  
37 469 institutions. It also requires a re-evaluation of investment needs, where resources can be jointly  
38 470 allocated. As emerging trade-offs require negotiations between ministries working on different  
39 471 agendas, the idea of strategies developed around 'nexuses' can help overcome such risks. Co-  
40 472 ordinated shared learning between institutions from different cities, states and regions on policy-  
41 473 making and management systems, will also support such policy coherence.

46 474 The achievement of the SDGs in Brazil will require revisiting mechanisms of collaboration between  
47 475 governments and private and semi-private companies involved in water supply and sanitation  
48 476 provision, and across sectors. Accountability and transparency will continue to improve with further  
49 477 advances made towards integrated sanitation management approaches to tackle the problem of  
50 478 waste collection, transport, treatment and disposal/reuse, which is currently fragmented. While  
51 479 Brazilian regulations exist, enforcement mechanisms remain problematic. Tackling sanitation gaps  
52 480 whilst considering the sanitation value chain in its entirety means there are opportunities for  
53 481 collaboration with actors that are typically not considered in sanitation governance, especially if  
54 482 strategies are developed around waste reuse. This includes waste-to-resource businesses working  
55 483 with the food and energy industries for which further incentives need to be created, including  
56 484 operational support mechanisms and investment in research and development, and accompanied by  
57 485 a supporting fiscal, regulatory and policy system.



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3 486 Actors involved in waste management in low-income areas also require more visibility and  
4 487 engagement given their knowledge of local needs and opportunities for action. This will help fill  
5 488 persistent data gaps in low-income areas. Such strategies will unlock the potential of formal and  
6 489 informal SMEs as well as informal workers playing a role in the delivery of basic sanitation services.  
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8 490 Brazilian institutions can benefit from the use of tracking tools developed to help monitor progress  
9 491 towards the SDGs. Improved data tracking and monitoring will be required in Brazil to leverage the  
10 492 benefits of sanitation services and ensure that affordable services are accessible for all, including  
11 493 marginalised groups. Changes in the governance landscape will need to ensure that the economic  
12 494 burden of sanitation services does not fall on the poorest households as this can result in further  
13 495 disparities. Finally, to continue build knowledge that informs sanitation governance, our compilation  
14 496 of research documents can be used as a basis for further discussion and research, including to identify  
15 497 where empirical studies that demonstrate linkages between sanitation and each aspect of the SDGs  
16 498 are needed and can stimulate decision-making.

## 19 499 **6. Conclusions**

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21 500 Brazil is characterised by deep regional and socio-economic inequalities, which are reflected in the  
22 501 disparate provision of public services including sanitation. While the Brazilian constitution recognises  
23 502 sanitation as a basic human right, this assessment has shown that access to sanitation services across  
24 503 the country is highly varied. In particular, people living in informal settlements and in poorer regions  
25 504 of Brazil are most affected by the lack of access to adequate sanitation.

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28 505 This paper makes an important contribution to the literature by demonstrating the applicability and  
29 506 relevance of the previously developed sanitation assessment frameworks conducted by Parikh et al.  
30 507 (2020) to a specific country context. For Brazil, the assessment calls for action on sanitation across 16  
31 508 SDGs, with 87 targets. The assessment also found evidence of 124 synergies and 38 trade-offs between  
32 509 sanitation and the 169 Targets of the UN 2030 Agenda, covering all 17 SDGs. This demonstrates the  
33 510 wide-ranging linkages of the SDGs with sanitation, in domains as diverse as poverty reduction (SDG1)  
34 511 and life below water (SDG14). The identification of synergies and trade-offs can help to ensure that  
35 512 these linkages are considered within projects, programmes and policies designed to deliver access to  
36 513 sanitation, and sustainable development more generally. In so doing, planning should support the  
37 514 realisation of opportunities, while minimising potential trade-offs .

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41 515 While the assessment has taken sanitation as the focus, it has highlighted the integrated and  
42 516 indivisible nature of the SDGs and sanitation itself. It has shown that action on sanitation has  
43 517 implications for other sectors, and vice versa. Evidence specific to the Brazilian context underpins the  
44 518 importance of action to delivery access to adequate sanitation across the country, as well as aiding  
45 519 understanding of context-specific risks, evidence gaps and opportunities. Sanitation is one of the  
46 520 acceleration goals for achieving the UN 2030 Agenda. By systematically mapping the linkages between  
47 521 sanitation and all 169 Targets of the SDGs, this assessment provides a tool that can support policy  
48 522 makers and practitioners seeking to deliver on the UN 2030 Agenda. In contrast to sectoral  
49 523 approaches, it enables the identification of linkages to other sectors that may not typically be  
50 524 considered by sanitation specialists. This is vital because investment in sanitation is not seen as a high  
51 525 priority – in Brazil or elsewhere. By highlighting the linkages to sectors beyond sanitation, this  
52 526 assessment provides evidence to support the development of broad partnerships for equitable and  
53 527 inclusive sanitation to ensure that no-one is left behind in Brazil and globally.



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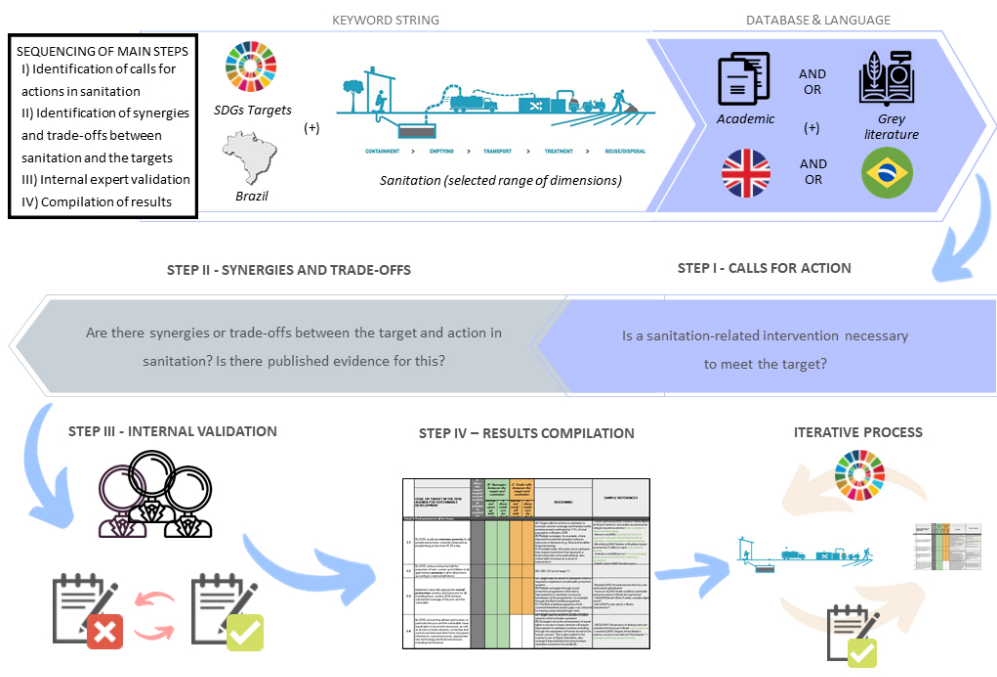


Figure 1: Step-by-step methodology to identify the links between sanitation and SDG targets  
270x203mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Figure 2: Spider-web representation of three types of links between sanitation each goal (calls for action, synergies and trade-offs). The 17 lines linking the centre to the goals range from 1 to 100, therefore circles mark percentages at 20, 40, 60 80 and 100. Note that this representation should not be seen as a comparative qualitative analysis between the goals, but rather as a demonstration of the wide-ranging linkages between sanitation and each of the Sustainable Development Goals.



Figure 3: Selected synergistic SDG interlinkages through the lens of sanitation in Brazil’s context. The figure highlights that synergies between sanitation and SDG targets exist for all 17 goals, but also that sanitation interventions can unlock opportunities to achieve targets of different goals at the same time. These identified sets of links are categorised under 4 recurrent domains of action. SDG17 is represented separately as an overarching goal.

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)