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THE INTERSECTIONS BETWEEN GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS AND PRACTICE AT LOCAL LEVELS IN HOUSING AND HUMAN SETTLEMENTS, A CASE OF LAGOS

Taiwo Adekanmi Afinowi

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Engineering and the Built Environment, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of the Doctor of Philosophy.

Johannesburg, 2022

DECLARATION

I, **Taiwo Adekanmi Afinowi**, hereby declare that this thesis is my original and unaided work. It is being submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy to the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other University.



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18 May 2022

ABSTRACT

In the post-Second World War era, global leaders realised the need to develop global consensus through associations and conferences to tackle global challenges beyond national borders to drive and promote development. Because of rapid urbanisation and the challenges that come with it, global urban agendas have been agreed upon at summits and conferences on housing and human settlements to achieve global, urban sustainability. Prominent among these urban agendas with global commitments as part of the wider Agenda 2030 and the 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are the (urban) SDG11 and the 2016 New Urban Agenda concluded at the 70/71st United Nations General Assembly and United Nations Habitat III respectively. However, studies show that despite significant efforts in crafting these agendas through extensive consultations, the outcomes of these global progressive agendas do not reflect the framing at local levels, especially in the global South cities fraught with peculiar challenges. In echoing matters of livelihoods and global conferences in housing and human settlements, whose reality really counts, and at what level? Hence, this study aims to understand the complexities surrounding how global urban agendas in housing and human settlements intersect with practice at local levels. This study engages concepts and theories of globalisation, planning, rational choice theory, global governance, and policy implementation in providing a lens to understand the convergence and divergence of global agendas at local levels. To investigate this disjuncture based on the theoretical framework, this study adopted an explorative qualitative approach, using a case study of Lagos, Nigeria, with semi-structured interviews. To further triangulate the empirical findings from the interviews cutting across the global, national, state (provincial) and local respondents, qualitative documentary analysis was carried out with focussed meetings attendance and audit of webinars. The study concludes that global urban agendas and discourses do not always align with the mediating forces of local context and practice in human settlements. The result shows that despite the national governments signing and ratifying these agendas, their attitude towards implementation suggests otherwise, and the political will to realise the agendas is lacking, among other impediments. Consequently, the inability to consider contextual peculiarities at local levels during global agenda framing with a greater focus on the national government precludes the successful implementation of global urban agendas.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God Almighty, who saw me through my PhD journey against all odds.

"To him who sits on the throne and to the Lamb be praise and honour and glory and power, for ever and ever!"

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AU	African Union
CAPH3	Common African Position on Habitat III
CBO	Community-Based Organisations
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FHF	Family Homes Fund
FMBN	Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria
FMWH	Federal Ministry of Works and Housing
GUA	Global Urban Agenda
Habitat I	United Nations Conference on Human Settlements held in Vancouver, Canada in May/June 1976
Habitat II	United Nations Conference on Human Settlements held in Istanbul Turkey in June 2006
Habitat III	United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development held in Quito, Ecuador in October 2016
IBILE	Ikeja, Badagry, Ikorodu, Lagos, Epe
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IUPs	Independent Urban Practitioners
Lagos HOMS	Lagos Home Ownership Mortgage Scheme
LASG	Lagos State Government
LASGTC	Lagos State Government Transition Committee
LASURA	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency
LEDB	Lagos Executive Development Board
LGA	Local Government Area
LON	League of Nations
LSDP	Lagos State Development Plan
LSDPC	Lagos State Development and Property Corporation
LSMB	Lagos State Mortgage Board
LSMEPB	Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning & Budget
LSMPPUD	Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development
LSURDL	Lagos State Urban and Regional Development Law
LSURPD	Lagos State Urban and Regional and Planning Development

MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NHF	National Housing Fund
NHP	National Housing Policy
NITPs	Nigerian Institute of Town Planners
NMRC	Nigerian Mortgage Refinance Company
NSHP	National Social Housing Programme
NUA	New Urban Agenda
NUDP	National Urban Development Policy
PMB	Primary Mortgage Banks
PSHP	Private Sector Housing Providers
QDA	Qualitative Document Analysis
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SCP	Sustainable Cities Programme
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SDG11	Sustainable Development Goal 11
SDI	Slum Dwellers International
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
THEMES	(LASG) Traffic Management and Transportation, Health and Environment, Education and Technology, Making Lagos a 21st Century Economy, Entertainment and Tourism, and Security and Governance
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
UNCHE	United Nations Conference on Human Environment
UNCSD	United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development
UN-DESA	United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UN-ECOSOC	United Nations, Economic and Social Council
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
US	United States
USD	United State Dollar
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WUF	World Urban Forum

1 CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and background to global urban agendas

Globally, there are growing concerns and demands for sustainable urban development in all human settlements, and there have also been global solutions to these challenges across all borders (de Roo, 2017; Yang *et al.*, 2017; Olajide *et al.*, 2018). The call to sustain urban and human settlements has grown through conferences and different agendas globally toward global urban sustainability (Hall *et al.*, 2000; Wakely and You, 2001; Huchzermeyer, 2011; Parnell, 2016; Floret, 2019; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). The direct impact of urbanisation has exacerbated this call because of population growth, increase in urban density, the demands for housing, food, basic services, energy, health, public infrastructure and transport, and the need to address environmental challenges. Before the breakout of the novel coronavirus in December 2019 that adversely affected every human settlement on all continents, there were pertinent global discourses around social, economic, and environmental sustainability issues. These issues were global peace and conflict, international migration, climate change challenges and their effects, and growing poverty and inequality amidst urbanisation challenges. As of late January 2020, the World Health Organisation (WHO) acknowledged the coronavirus disease as an international emergency public health concern and, on 11 March 2020, as a pandemic, thereby directing all countries "to take urgent and aggressive action" to address the spread of the virus (World Health Organisation, 2020: para. 12). Two of the most significant actions taken globally to address the virus from spreading across the globe are lockdowns with the command stipulating 'stay at home' and maintaining 'social distancing' in interacting with others. These actions brought to the fore the importance of human shelter and housing, alongside other global issues affecting humanity, towards attaining sustainability. Akinwunmi (2020) states that if the various institutions in the housing sector do not have people at heart, then the failure in the housing sector could be imminent even after the pandemic, as this pandemic stresses the importance of the relationship between housing and healthcare. The global directive by various national and sub-national governments directing citizens to 'practice social distancing and stay at home' assumes that every citizen has a 'home' that is adequate, liveable, and viable to curb the pandemic. However, this assumption is not true in many human settlements, especially in the global South and in regard to the homeless population worldwide.

With global growth since the 1950s and the world population projection, as shown in Table 1-1, comes a significant concern to address urban demands and population towards global urban sustainability. The global urban population has grown from 29.6% (737 million urban dwellers) in 1950, to 33.7% (1 billion urban dwellers) in 1960, to 37.3% (1.5 billion urban dwellers) in 1985, to 46.7% (2.9 billion urban dwellers) in 2000, to 49.2% (3.2 billion urban dwellers) in 2005, to 51.7% (3.6 billion urban dwellers) in 2010, to 53.9% (3.98 billion urban dwellers) in 2015, to 56.2% (4.4 billion urban dwellers) in 2020 (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2017; UN-DESA, 2018; United Nations,

2021). Notably, from Table 1-1, while many of the world regions have shown sustained or reduced populations towards 2100, the African and Asian regions have shown significant population growth, which corresponds with the projections of least developed countries.

Table 1-1: World Population Prospect 2019 according to mid-variant projections

Regions	**Populations (millions)**			
	2019	**2030**	**2050**	**2010**
World	7713	8548	9735	10875
Sub-Saharan Africa	1066	1400	2118	3775
Northern African and Western Asia	517	609	754	924
Central and Southern Asia	1991	2227	2496	2334
Eastern and South-Eastern Asia	23335	2427	2411	1967
Latin America and the Caribbean	648	706	762	680
Australia/New Zealand	30	33	38	49
Oceania	12	15	19	26
Europe and Northern America	1114	1132	1136	1120
Least Developed Countries	1033	1314	1877	3047
Land-locked Developing	521	659	926	1406
Small Island Developing States	71	78	87	88

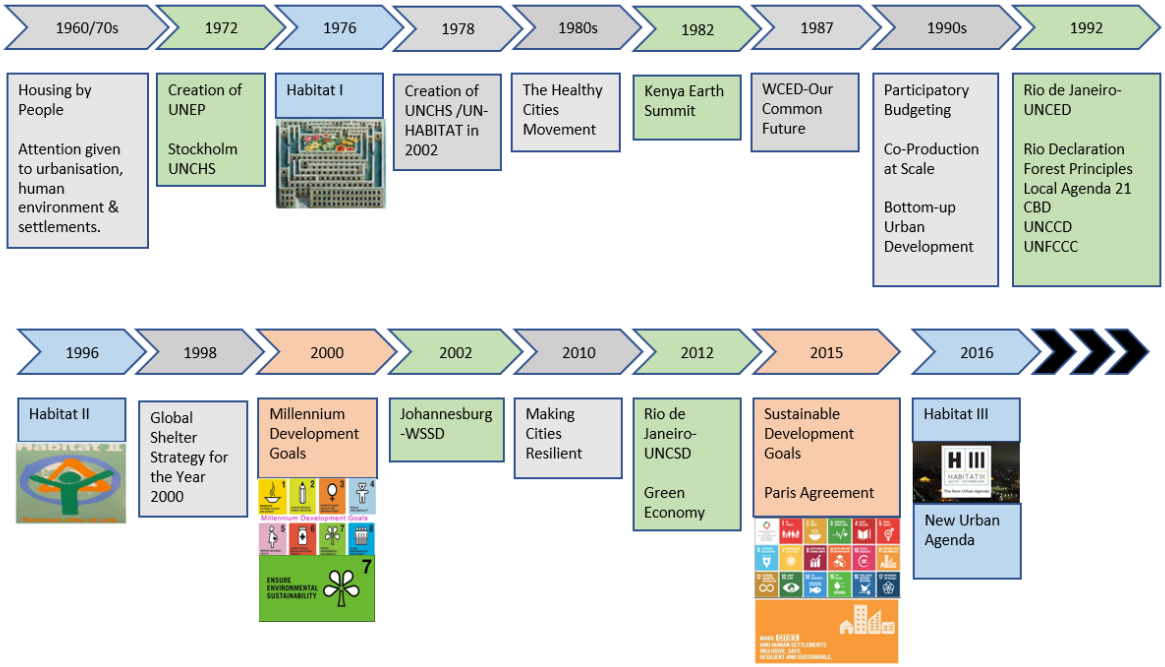
Source: United Nations, 2019a

With an urban population of over four billion, there is continuous strain and demand on global leaders, urban planners, city managers and practitioners in many ramifications to provide ecosystem services, social and public infrastructure, balance consumption against production and maintain the environment (Seto, 2020). As a way of addressing issues associated with urbanisation, certain global organisations, such as the United Nations (UN), the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), and United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), at different fora have promoted global urban agendas among member states from the 1970s through summits and conferences to address the impacts of urbanisation on housing and human settlements towards sustainability.

Figure 1-1 shows a non-exhaustive pictorial view of major global urban agendas that provides a background to this study with the concept fully defined in Section 2.2. However, despite the notable and well-crafted agendas at the various summits and conferences by intergovernmental organisations, the impact and the implementation of these agendas do not reflect the expectations at local levels as it

relates to housing and human settlements (Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Anand and Rademacher, 2011; McConnell, 2015; Olajide *et al.*, 2018).

Figure 1-1: Major Global Urban Agendas



Source: Author, 2021.

The problem of providing housing for all remains a challenge globally, especially in developing countries in terms of availability, affordability and other related issues (Olayiwola *et al.*, 2005; Syal *et al.*, 2006; Kushner, 2010; Hardoy and Satterthwaite, 2014; Manomano *et al.*, 2016; Gurran and Bramley, 2017). Other issues related to housing provision are land availability, housing tenure security, slum growth, population density, homelessness, and "decreasing home ownership, and undersupply in the private and social rental markets" (Baker and Lester, 2017: 146). Furthermore, housing appraisal goes beyond the physical shelter; but it includes the internal services and supporting infrastructure beyond its location. The General Comments 4 and 7 under the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) further explain the concept of access to adequate housing in terms of

> "*legal security of tenure; Availability of services, materials, facilities and infrastructure such as health, security, power, water; materials and infrastructure; Affordability; Habitability; Accessibility; proximity to livelihood opportunities; and cultural identity of the individual"* (UN Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights, 1991).

Based on General Comment 4 of the ICESCR, the complete understanding of providing housing to humankind does not end in the structure or shelter alone, but it is rightly linked to basic services within

its vicinity and accessibility to auxiliary services for full benefit. The understanding around housing, beyond a physical shelter (noun), to human settlements has evolved, from research, the different Habitat conferences and rights-based approaches. This concept of it being linked to basic services and access to secondary services is adequately captured in the other targets of the Sustainable Development Goal 11 (SDG11) and other SDGs. This linkage was less under the previous MDGs, specifically MDG 7 Target 11 that proffered 'perfect' cities without slums, that is, doing away with slums in human settlements as against upgrading them with basic services (Huchzermeyer, 2008a, 2008b, 2011, 2012, 2018).

The debate has come up among scholars on whether housing is a social or an economic asset, or better still, a political tool used by politicians as their manifesto during the electioneering campaign, yet, the significance of housing cannot be overemphasised to the homeless or the segment of 'can't-afford' persons (Bengtsson, 2001; Arku, 2006; Watcher *et al.*, 2018). Socially, housing would connote different meanings depending on the value that it gives, and the most practical of all is that it constitutes the basic human need, offering protection from the environment (Hohmann, 2013). Similarly, Maslow's hierarchy of needs categorises shelter (housing) under basic human and physiological needs, alongside food, clothing, air and sleep (Maslow, 1954). In this regard, housing will protect the inhabitants from animals and extreme weather conditions in winter or summer. The placement of housing alongside air for breathing shows the importance and value of housing before a man can ever think about actualising psychological and self-fulfilment needs (*ibid.*).

Again, housing as a physical habitable structure is the most common feature in the human settlements playing a major impact in the urbanisation and sustainability discourse, unlike other physical, economic and social infrastructure such as schools, roads and hospitals or any other public building (Syal *et al.*, 2006). Economically, Watcher *et al.* (2018: 4) state that "housing is the single largest form of fixed capital investment in most economies and the single largest asset owned by most households; housing expenditures generally comprise the largest part of household spending". Housing occupies such a vast role and demand in people's lives that it can be described as a lifetime asset or liability (Maslow, 1954; King, 2003; Choguill, 2007). Beyond the housing occupying a significant percentage of household budgets, it positions households "as the locus of mobility opportunities, access to community resources, and societal status" (Hartman, 1998: 230). Politically, housing agendas, manifestoes and policies will come into evaluation by the citizens when the promises are weighed against the reality and achievements in housing delivery. The promotion and adoption of the Global Shelter Strategy for the Year 2000 in 1998 as a GUA by the UN and the many governments, respectively, is an instance where the politicians use housing to make promises to the citizens. However, the cost of 'houselessness' or the menace of homelessness as a consequence in the long run for any government far outweighs resources that could have been allocated towards housing provision (Dovey, 1985; Robertson and Greenblatt, 1992; Tipple and Speak, 2005). Hence, this study aims to understand the intersections and

complexities surrounding GUA implementation in housing and human settlements at local levels. This chapter introduces this thesis by first discussing the background and context, followed by the research problem, the questions guiding this study, the contribution of the research to advancing knowledge, rationale, and finally, the overall structure of the thesis. This thesis will contribute to global agenda implementation and challenges at the local level based on contextual peculiarities beyond general narratives, especially in the global South. Also, it will contribute to discourses on housing and human settlements with reflections on the first five years of the SDGs and the New Urban Agenda (NUA). Lastly, the methodological contribution with interrogation across four levels (global, national, state and local) and the use of 'focussed meeting' as a way of obtaining empirical data.

1.2 Research problem

Despite the deliberations, negotiations and discussions towards the New Urban Agenda at Habitat III (3rd UN-Habitat Conference on Housing and Human Settlements), issues of implementation, actual practice, and the need to localise the SDGs and the NUA have taken centre stage in urban research (Watson, 2016; Garschagen *et al.*, 2018; Lawanson, 2018; Valencia, 2019; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). These issues emanating from the SDG11 and the NUA are the actual implementation of these global agendas in local settings, inadequate capacity and resources, interface with the local mandate, and the decentralisation and devolution among the spheres of government in driving the agenda (see Leaf and Pamuk, 1997; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Satterthwaite, 2016; Watson, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017). Other issues are the city-centredness of the NUA, which focuses less on what is not urban, the nature of inclusive participation in decision-making and the unfunded SDG11/NUA mandate (*ibid*). There are also issues of the dichotomy between the global North versus South and the nuances between globalised urban policies and local practices in different contexts and urbanism. As argued by Vanessa Watson, human settlements in Southern cities experience serious urban planning issues with "rapid population growth, particularly in peri-urban areas; lack of access to shelter, infrastructure and services by predominantly poor populations; weak local governments and serious environmental issues" (Watson, 2009b: 151; 2013; 2016; 2021). As such, cities of the South are placed in a disadvantaged position compared to their Northern counterparts in the implementations and intersections of GUA (Watson, 2021).

Although there has been some level of progression in the globalisation of urban agendas and ideas from previous urban conferences and fora (particular from the Habitat I; Local Agenda 21; Habitat II; Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 7; Global Shelter Strategy; Habitat III; and the NUA), and the outcomes have impacted urban planning practices in different countries and urbanism (please see Figure 1-1) (Leaf and Pamuk, 1997; Satterthwaite, 2016). However, Leaf and Pamuk (1997: 71), caution on the impact globalisation has on planning practice and policy in regard to "how local factors can be major determinants of planning and urbanisation process" and not recipients of ideologies from

the global environment. As much as cross-fertilisation occurs in urban practices and concepts across continents, more significant consideration should be paid to the local context, local practice, local actors and governance (*ibid*). Leaf and Pamuk (1997) point out that no matter how good these GUAs are, they will be met by a response from a localised and indigenised context that is defined by various elements peculiar to such a setting. Hence, the need to have a deeper understanding of how these GUAs are formulated at the global level and interact at local levels considering the local context.

Weiss and Jordan (1976) note that international conferences are meant to give awareness about global problems so that there can be a global solution and, through agreements, create effective ways to bring about processes to ease the impact of the problems. However, Qadeer (1977) contends the notion of international conferences toward global agendas and queries the basis of adjudging an international conference as successful. Is it based on the consensus reached, number of member states, speeches delivered or delegate attendance (Rittberger, 1979)? Qadeer (1977) argues that global conferences often reach a political consensus where delegates from poorer nations feel obliged to concede final agreements. The non-attendance and non-participation in such conferences could affect future benefits in terms of access to loans, aid and support from the wealthier nations. Again, he argues that the notion of global conferences being an avenue to create an awareness of prevalent challenges to other nations is futile because every country in the world is aware of its local and national challenges (*ibid*). Fukuda-Parr (2014) notes that global goals coming out of these conferences provide policy outcomes for addressing governance issues and creating global knowledge around challenges towards behavioural changes. Thus, each country is self-regulated through monitoring standards, and, in the long run, the conferences create healthy competitions with the targets and indicators, which may also have intended and unintended consequences (Fukuda-Parr, 2014; 2016; Fukuda-Parr and McNeill, 2019). However, while these conferences could develop global ambitious and transformative goals, there is an undertone of dichotomy, politics and power play while these goals are being set through all forms of contestations (Geerlings and Lundberg, 2018; Fukuda-Parr and McNeill, 2019; Russell *et al.*, 2020).

Moreover, agreements in regard to these agendas and conferences are reached and carried out by national governments, while implementation is expected to be carried out at local levels through the sub-national and local governments (Lawanson, 2018; Valencia *et al.*, 2019). Invariably, the impact and success of these agendas depend mainly on what happens at the local levels and not what was formulated at the international level (Graute, 2016; Valencia *et al.*, 2019). Thus, bearing in mind that execution occurs at the local levels, there is the need to appraise the extent to which these global agendas and discourses have reflected in the local urban environment. While there is "growing global competitiveness" and the promotion of local governments, cities and 'cities networks' against the nation-state through globalisation, the specific roles of the national governments cannot be down played or wished away (Leaf and Pamuk, 1997: 72; Acuto e*t al*., 2017; Curtis and Acuto, 2018; Croese e*t al*., 2021). Hence, with multiple levels of governance, it is important to reflect on the issues of multilevel

governance, as it affects the implementation of GUAs at local levels. While there is interdependence in the multilateral form of governance toward global policy implementation, Croese *et al.* (2021) note that the national government play specific roles beyond negotiating global agendas and policies. These roles include oversight and intermediate functions in the legal (adoption), fiscal and institutional matters, and localising and mainstreaming the agendas. Also, they are better placed to either upscale or downscale across the multilevel forms of governance and primarily provide necessary support and guidance. However, the role of the national government will eventually be measured at the local levels with the targets and indicators across the country.

Many authors assert that the outcome of the NUA is a result of lobbying by various interest groups, including city officials, governments, policymakers, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and social activists (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017; Fukuda-Parr and Muchhala, 2020). Even though there are extensive consultations at the UN-Habitat conferences, the final agenda cannot be said to be an accurate reflection, as contended by Qadeer (1977). It is, thus, often the case that the implementation and actual practice of the SDGs/NUA could be hampered by governments who do not fully subscribe to the agenda or have a clear understanding of the agenda. Also, the core agreement process (signing and ratifying) for the GUA is carried out by the national governments, but as noted earlier, the implementation process is expected at the sub-national and local governments. For instance, after many deliberations, the highly contested and contentious 'right to the city' debate was brought into the NUA as a shared vision that is non-binding but aspirational, yet described as follows:

> *"we share a vision of cities for all, referring to the equal use and enjoyment of cities and human settlements, seeking to promote inclusivity and ensure that all inhabitants, of present and future generations, without discrimination of any kind, are able to inhabit and produce just, safe, healthy, accessible, affordable, resilient and sustainable cities and human settlements to foster prosperity and quality of life for all*." (UN-Habitat, 2016: 5).

While many NGOs and Northern cities supported the right to the city, many governments and policymakers from the global South lack the resources to achieve such rights, yet despite full ratification of the NUA, they cannot be held liable because it is non-binding. For instance, the quote above speaks to universal issues of sustaining the global urban human settlements that are inclusive where everyone can access, benefit, and participate in the prosperity of the human settlements. However, if the problems associated with the implementation and the realisation of the NUA far outweigh what can be achieved, it raises questions of functionality to achieve the set aims. Parnell (2016) points out that the previous UN-Habitat conferences (I & II) failed in the obligation to deal with complex global urban policy issues, which Habitat III might equally not address. She reiterated Michael Cohen's argument on the need "to shift the GUA away from a largely unchanged concern with absorbing poor urbanites into well-functioning cities" (*ibid.*: 532). Despite these GUAs, there is a need to address more localised issues

such as increased urbanisation, population growth, urban governance, and the people's impact as a determinant of success.

Zürn (2004) questioned the legitimacy of global governance in dealing with issues on normative and descriptive grounds, not meeting democratic standards for all countries, especially organisations like the World Trade Organisation and the UN. Similarly, Nanz and Steffek (2004) argue that the decisions made at the global level cannot truly address citizens' democratic and legitimate needs in the quest for globalisation. Despite the deliberations and consultations, these agendas are sponsored with elements of politics and opinions by prime actors who are accountable to only a few executives and not the majority (Zürn, 2004). Often, these agendas are not tested against questions such as how valid these political orders are and decisions holistically, how they are accepted socially, and what impacts these decisions have on the people? For instance, the Cities Alliance's programme 'cities without slums' was poorly interpreted and implemented in the global South as to mean doing away with slums, which eventually had dire consequences on the urban poor in South Africa and other Southern cities (Huchzermeyer, 2008a; 2008b; 2011).

The promotion of the 'city concept' in all human settlements in the SDG11 and the NUA will also have intended and unintended consequences as well as an impact on the people, depending on the region. Watson (2021) alludes to the irrelevance of city regions for Southern cities as promoted in the NUA because of the prevalence of existing contextual urban and governance issues. The recurrent protests at the UN and other allied conferences indicate conflict and unresolved issues that require attention by global leaders (Willetts, 2000; Bernstein, 2004; Nanz and Steffek, 2004; Steffek, 2007). Cohen (1996), in his assessment after the UN-Habitat II conference, raises two pertinent questions that are still valid in the global urban development agenda debates. Firstly, on "how the level of substantive and institutional integration needed to mobilize energy for implementation?" and secondly, "how, at the local and community levels, can [global] commitments be communicated and translated into meaningful social and political objectives?" (*sic*) (*ibid*: 433). These questions speak to how these global agendas are implemented at local and community levels beyond the talks and participation that usually occur at the top. Lawanson (2018) argues that these agendas can be best achieved when global urban issues, solutions, agenda developments and implementation involve all urban stakeholders at all levels and sectors. Also, she emphasises the need to prioritise issues at local levels and strengthen governance at local.

As noted above, the SDG11 would or should have resulted in a smooth, early take-off and easy implementation based on the run-up events. However, after many GUAs, many cities and countries are still trying to understand the goal and what the agenda really entails. Klopp and Petretta (2017) identified three issues with the implementation and realisation of the NUA, among others. The issues are non-uniform standard indicative measurement, "the lack of strong data collection institutions at the

city scale" to monitor the implementation and, lastly, localising the agenda globally (*ibid*: 2017). For instance, countries like South Africa and Nigeria have had conferences by the Department of Human Settlements and the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITPs) respectively, on localising the SDG11/NUA, which is also a major campaign by the UN-Habitat. The forward-looking countries are trying to understand the agenda, while others are still grappling with other urban issues.

One interesting phrase from the NUA document is to 'leave no one behind'. This thesis argues: What is the practicality of leaving no one behind when the NUA and the SDG11 are non-binding on member states, and there are no sanctions against non-compliant member states? The complexities of global agendas have many facets. On the one hand, it promises urban prosperity for all. On the other hand, the SDGs and the NUA are good mandates but unfunded for many developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), where the states are grappling with many issues relating to poverty and the aftermath of urbanisation. Furthermore, as the SDGs and NUA are promoted, the UN and allied global institutions like the World Bank also promote neoliberal (urban) policies around global cities and competitiveness, which have consequences for the urban poor (Larner, 2003; Heynen *et al.*, 2007; Leitner *et al.*, 2007). For instance, Afinowi (2019) found that the Lagos State government (LASG) was more interested in making the city-state an economic hub in line with the vision of the Lagos State and making it look attractive to foreign investors rather than improving the lives of the citizens. Making the city-state look attractive for investment opportunities is linked to the neoliberal policies promoted by the UN and World Bank. While these policies might liberate the urban centres economically, they portend displacement, gentrification and poverty, and the benefits do not reach the people at the lower cadre of the society. Again, McGranahan *et al.* (2016) argue that many governments have promoted economic growth policies to address urbanisation challenges, which has given rise to exclusive cities, thereby leaving the people behind. Again, while it is visible that the SDGs are adopted by the state government, the favouritism given to economic policies over social policies raises questions around the global agendas. This is a clear case of unintended consequences with adverse outcomes of policies promoted and rationality conflict between economic policies and undesirable impact on the people (Watson, 2003). Thus, leading to achieving the reverse by leaving many more behind.

Another practical problem globally based on this study area (housing and human settlements, and the case study area, Lagos, introduced in Chapter Five) is the housing crisis or deficits despite previous global and national agendas through various housing policies. The global housing deficit is propelled largely by social demographics and mega-trends such as urbanisation and inequality, cuts across the global South and the North (World Bank Group, 2018). According to UN-Habitat (2020a), over 1.6 billion people are living in shelters in slums and informal settlements that are considered to be inadequate based on the UN-Habitat standard. It will require about 16 Trillion United State Dollars (USD) to address one billion global housing deficits by 2025; hence, the need to pay attention to housing policies and agendas as a panacea to address housing and human settlements issues (World Bank Group,

2018). Unfortunately, the bulk of the urban and population growth will occur in Africa and Asia where more houses and supporting basic infrastructure will be needed in high demand (World Bank Group, 2018; United Nations, 2019a).

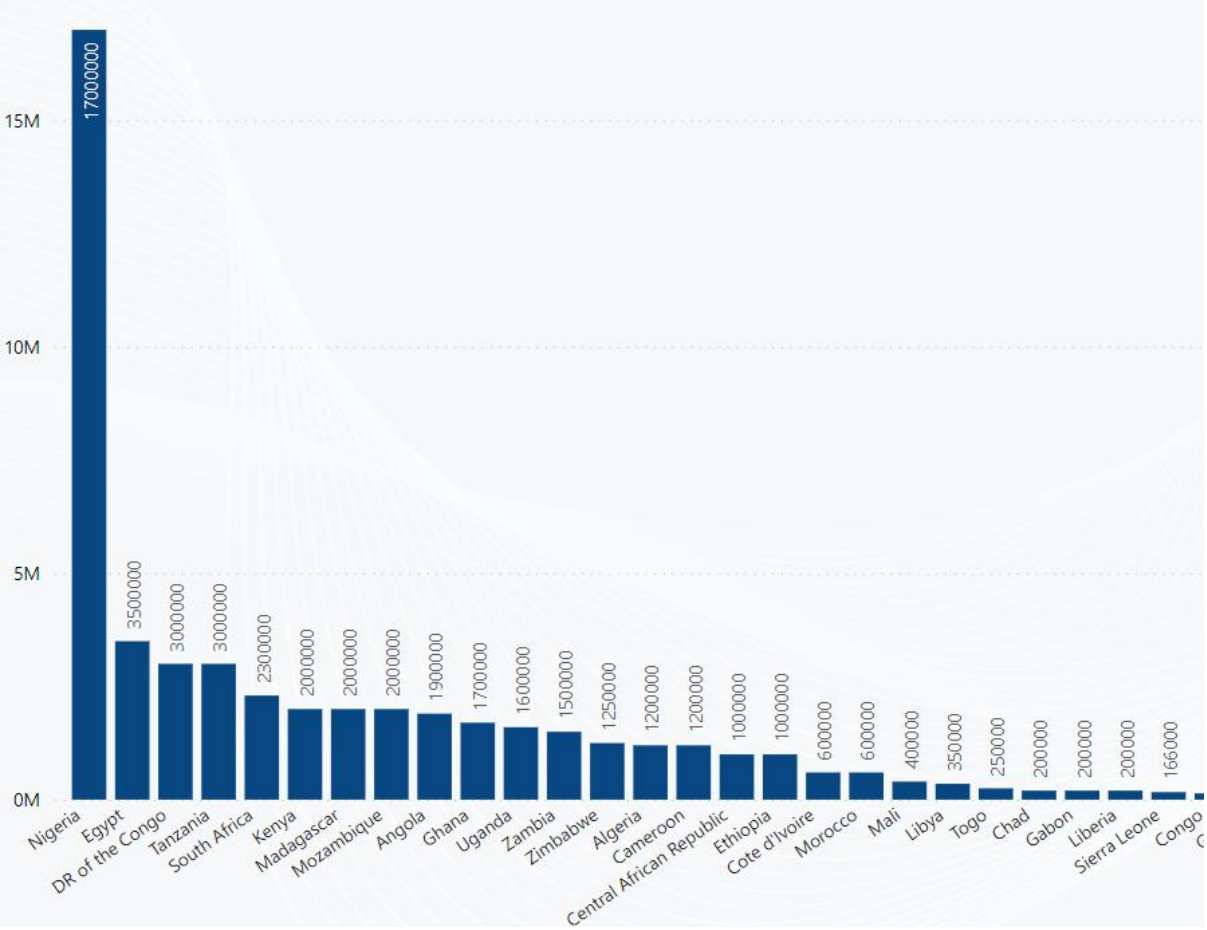
As shown in Table 1-2 and Figure 1-2, Nigeria's housing deficit accounts for more than 33% of the entire housing shortfall in Africa and this has dire consequences on the living standard and the government in the midst of population and urban growth (Bah *et al.*, 2018; UN-Habitat, 2020a; Karam *et al.*, 2022). In addition to the positions made above, the managing director of Shelter Afrique states that the shortage of housing in Africa is projected at 56 million units and if this is quantified in generic terms, at least three trillion USD is required to resolve that shortage of housing (Chimphonda, 2020). While the definition of housing deficit can be contested, it will connote inadequate housing supply to meet the demand for housing in human settlements, quantitatively or qualitatively (Ball, 1986; Alabi and Bako, 2018; Moorev, 2019). Going by merely population growth only without a commensurate supply of housing units will connote a quantitative housing deficit. However, going by the UN-Habitat definition for slums and the ICESCR General Comments 4 and 7 discussed above for shelter will lead to a qualitative housing deficit. Lastly, in personal communication with the former Commissioner for Housing for Lagos in 2018, he confirmed that Lagos's housing deficit is about three million qualitatively and quantitatively (Gbolahon, 2017a; 2017b). The housing deficit in Lagos, the study area, is arguably more than the deficit in many countries despite the previous GUA in housing and efforts made by previous governments to increase housing production.

Table 1-2: Housing Deficit in African Countries

S/No.	Country	Housing Deficit	Urbanisation Rate, 2000-2015	Urban Share 2015 (percent)
1	Algeria	1 200 000	2,76	70,7
2	Angola	1 900 000	5,34	44,0
3	Benin	50 000	3,9	44,0
4	Botswana	-	1,56	57,4
5	Burkina Faso	100 000	6,33	29,9
6	Burundi	30 000	5,75	12,1
7	Cabo Verde	82 000	2,29	65,5
8	Cameroon	1 200 000	3,74	54,4
9	Central African Republic	1 000 000	2,26	40,0
10	Chad	200 000	3,54	22,5
11	Congo	140 000	3,4	65,4
12	Cote d'Ivoire	600 000	3,31	54,2
13	DR of the Congo	3 000 000	4,05	42,5
14	Egypt	3 500 000	1,7	43,1
15	Ethiopia	1 000 000	4,55	19,5
16	Gabon	200 000	2,94	87,2
17	Ghana	1 700 000	3,78	54,0
18	Guinea	140 000	3,51	37,2
19	Kenya	2 000 000	4,36	25,6
20	Liberia	200 000	3,72	49,7
21	Libya	350 000	1,52	78,6
22	Madagascar	2 000 000	4,6	35,1
23	Malawi	100 000	3,55	16,3
24	Mali	400 000	5,35	39,7
25	Mauritania	50 000	4,03	59,9
26	Mauritius	20 000	-0,11	39,7
27	Morocco	600 000	1,92	60,2
28	Mozambique	2 000 000	3,31	32,2
29	Namibia	80 000	3,98	46,7
30	Niger	100 000	4,72	18,7
31	Nigeria	17 000 000	4,78	47,8
32	Rwanda	109 000	7	28,8
33	Senegal	125 000	3,32	47,3
34	Sierra Leone	166 000	3,58	39,9
35	South Africa	2 300 000	2,04	64,8
36	Swaziland	20 000	0,85	21,3
37	Tanzania	3 000 000	5,19	31,6
38	Togo	250 000	3,88	40,0
39	Tunisia	-	1,43	66,8
40	Uganda	1 600 000	5,27	16,1
41	Zambia	1 500 000	3,95	40,9
42	Zimbabwe	1 250 000	0,96	32,4
	Africa	**51 262 000**		

Source: Bah *et al.*, 2018; UN-Habitat, 2020b

Figure 1-2: Housing Deficit in Selected African Countries



Source: Adapted from Bah *et al.*, 2018

According to Olajide *et al.* (2018), a significant challenge experienced in many developing countries is the disjuncture between urban poor livelihoods and the impacts of urban agendas propagated by the government. Similarly, urban policies have failed in regard to housing availability, accessibility and affordability in line with planning, actual practice and what is obtainable in urban areas (Wilks-Heeg, 2015; Gurran and Bramley, 2017). For instance, Charlton and Kihato (2006) argue that policies formulated to cause an improvement in the lives and living circumstances of the urban poor in South Africa do not always happen according to the policy intent in South African Housing Programmes. In line with the arguments above, it is noted that a significant objective of the UN, as contained in the SDGs and other GUAs is to address poverty and improve the livelihood and well-being of the urban citizens. However, the statistics from housing and human settlements suggest that these policies and agendas are not reaching the expected urban citizens well enough, considering the urbanisation rate. According to Anand and Rademacher (2011: 1751):

> *"disjunctures between competing narratives of housing heard at the Urban Age India conference and the actual practices of Mumbai's settlers suggest far more than the existence*

> *of a simple and common chasm between **"global discourses" and "local realities"** of urban housing. As Anna Tsing (2004) and others have shown, all globally circulating discourses meet with the **mediating forces of local context and practice**"* (*sic*).

Also, Parnell (2016: 530) states that the "implementation of global urban policy will necessarily be informed by national and local politics, and the impacts of the changes in ideas remain unclear". The Urban Age conference shows that most developing countries, like India and Nigeria, with their massive population, experience similar issues as highlighted in South Africa above in human settlements (Anand and Rademacher, 2011). Hence, it is important to interrogate global agendas and discourse around housing and human settlements and their reflections at the local levels beyond the general narratives. In line with the factors highlighted above, it is evident that these GUAs and discourses generally, and in the field of housing, are not always in alignment "with the mediating forces of local context and practice" in human settlements (Anand and Rademacher, 2011: 1751). Thus, this study will explore the various global agendas on human settlements, especially the SDG11 and NUA, focusing on housing and human settlements to give insights into the divergence and convergence between these agendas at the global levels and the implementation at lower levels.

1.3 Key research questions

The previous argument shows that there is a disjuncture between the global development urban agendas and what is practiced at local levels based on the aspirational nature of these GUAs. Thus, this research will address this key question:

What intersections exist between global urban agendas and practice at local levels in the field of housing and human settlements in Lagos?

To address the aim and objectives of this research properly and adequately, the key research question is further broken down into the following sub-questions:

- What intersections exist between the global agenda implementation and practice at the national level?
- What gaps and challenges affect the implementation and realisation of GUAs in Lagos, Nigeria?
- To what extent have the SDG11 and the NUA been incorporated into planning principles and urban policy at the local level in Lagos?
- What relationships exist between the tiers of government (and actors) in regard to the implementation of global urban agendas?

- What are the challenges mitigating sustainable housing in Lagos despite the globally circulating Housing Agendas and efforts made by successive governments in Lagos?

1.4 Research aims and objectives

This exploratory qualitative study aims to understand the intersections and complexities between GUAs and practice at the local level as it affects housing and human settlements. I also aim to examine the extent to which the globally circulating urban discourses meet with the mediating forces of local context and practice in housing and human settlements in cities of developing countries, as applicable or not applicable to Lagos, which is the study area of the research. This study does not, in any way, attempt to address all urban issues facing cities and developing countries that relate to housing, poverty, climate change, security, transportation, energy and gender. This study primarily addresses urban housing and human settlements along with the (non)working of policy implementation of SDG11/NUA in line with urban policies. The specific objectives in answering the key research questions are:

- To explore the intersection and complexities that exist between the global agenda implementation and practice at the national level.
- To explore gaps and challenges affecting the implementation and realisation of the GUA in Lagos-Nigeria.
- To evaluate the extent to which the SDG11 and the NUA have been incorporated into planning principles and urban policy at the local level in Lagos.
- To examine the relationships between the tiers of government in housing and human settlements and how this relationship has impacted GUA implementation in Lagos.
- To explore the challenges mitigating sustainable housing in Lagos despite the globally circulating housing Agendas and efforts made by successive governments in Lagos.

1.5 Rationale and significance of the study

According to O'Toole (2004), several studies on policy implementation have shown a disparity between policy intent and practice, especially in the realm of agencies and states. However, the realm of global goals and governance has not been examined as to why disjuncture exists in implementing such goals, especially at the local levels beyond countries and regions in detail, focusing on urban issues. Some studies have been carried out on reasons why goals meant to cause general development keep failing in some contexts (McConnell, 2015; Signe, 2017). Africa, where this study is situated, has benefitted substantially from global agendas and aid from the international community to address issues that cut across poverty, inequality, environment, education and infrastructure (UN Economic Commission for Africa, 2008; Christof, 2011; Russell *et al.*, 2020). The debate, however, arises as to how far-reaching these efforts are to cause significant improvement in the life of the urban citizens at local levels.

Several studies have been carried out on policy implementation (Hiller and Hupe, 2002; Cloete and De Coning, 2011; Bond and Gebo, 2014; Gurran and Bramley, 2017), but there is still inadequate scholarship in GUAs that look at how these agendas are streamlined into local policy and practice with real empirical works (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016). Recent publications along the GUA have focussed on the broad paradigm of urban agendas focusing on the SDG11 and the NUA at national and sub-national levels (Nubi *et al.*, 2021). According to Barnett and Parnell (2016: 88), "there is an urgent need to identify the multiple forms of knowledge that are shaping how urban processes are understood and why cities are seen as important for sustainable development more generally".

Situating this study in a Southern city is pertinent because of the various challenges that cut across dearth of infrastructure, population growth, urban poverty and inequality, housing, urban sustainability, climate management and the right to the city (Smith, 2002; Pieterse and Simone, 2013; Lawhon *al et*., 2014; Schindler, 2017). In recent times, scholars (see Watson, 2009a: 2009b; Parnell and Robinson, 2012; Pieterse, 2013; Barnett & Parnell, 2016) have called for more case works in the global South to understand urban dynamics, urbanism and urbanisation. Hence, this study will contribute to the intersections and complexities around global policy implementation in Southern cities. Fukuda-Parr & Muchhala (2020) make the powerful argument that beyond the notion that the SDGs are being perceived to be more global North influenced, there is a considerable contribution from Southern actors to the final SDG document. Hence, this study will provide reflections from the first five to six years of the SDGs, focusing on the SDG11 and the NUA.

This study will build on existing scholarships addressing issues relating to the globalisation of urban agendas and policies to sustain urban development in housing and human settlements, particularly, the UN-Habitat agendas and other urban agendas. Some notable scholars whose works are of influence are Susan Parnell, David Satterthwaite, Michael Cohen, Clive Barnett and Michael Leaf. Again, several kinds of literature have been published on the post-2015 urban agenda and issues around it (including Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Satterthwaite, 2016; Watson, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017; Mehaffy *et al.*, 2018; Valencia *et al.*, 2019; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021); on previous Habitat and Agendas (Cohen, 1996; 2010; Leaf and Pamuk, 1997; Wakely and You, 2001; Augustinus, 2003; Parnell, 2016; UN-Habitat, 2016); issues around practice and implementation of the MDG Target 7d of "cities without slums" (Agbola and Agunbiade, 2007; Huchzermeyer, 2011; Meth, 2013); and a disjunction between urban policy and implementation (Huchzermeyer, 2008a; Gurran and Bramley, 2017). It is noteworthy that these scholars have played an active role in the formulation of these different agendas in collaboration with various international organisations. However, there is a gap about why and where these agendas align or do not align with local realities and context.

The core of urban policy, planning and implementation research exists more within individual countries beyond borders due to the complex nature and processes required to conduct such research (Alterman,

1991; Ward, 1999). However, there are few case works carried out on how similar policies are being implemented across borders. GUAs offer such an opportunity with the use of indicators and monitors and not necessarily evidenced case works. Regarding global urban planning research and policy travels, Ward (1999: 53) argues and states that:

> "*despite the marked growth in international planning studies in recent years, there has been relatively little work which has examined in any detail the international diffusion of planning, yet only relatively few researchers …, have sought in any rigorous fashion to trace the connections that have produced similarities or differences*".

To address gaps of this nature in research, McCann (2011: 107) advocates and states that:

> "*urban policy mobilities must take seriously the role that apparently banal activities of individual policy transfer agents play in the travels of policy models and must also engage in fine-grained qualitative studies of how policies are carried from place to place, learned in specific settings, and changed as they move*".

As noted above, there are many discourses regarding the localisation and implementation of these global agendas, which is a gap in urban studies that cut across disciplines such as planning, governance, geography, public policy, international relations and social science. Localisation in this context would mean to domesticate or translate these global agendas into a local context with understanding among the local actors, officials and the public towards implementation. Despite UN-Habitat meetings towards the NUA being widely negotiated, and national reports, many governments of Southern countries are perceived to present promising reports at global level (as a way to lobby for funds), which are often not a precise image of the state of affairs at the grassroots level to access funds and support (Beeckmans, 2018; Russell *et al.*, 2020). There is a question of whether the true aspirations at the local levels are conveyed at the intergovernmental meetings because the local and sub-national authorities are usually represented by their national government (Qadeer, 1977; Anand and Rademacher, 2011; Graute, 2016). Notably, the civil society organisations, NGOs and various city networks are increasing playing active roles in the formulation of these agendas and their implementations (Acuto *et al.*, 2017; Curtis and Acuto, 2018; Kosovac *et al.*, 2020). Hence, this study will contribute to the debate on GUAs empirically and conceptually focusing on housing and human settlements.

1.6 Overview and structure of the thesis

This thesis is structured as follows.

This chapter has introduced the basis and context of this study with a clearly defined research problem along with the GUA and the research questions, aim and objectives guiding this research. The study rationale and significance have also been discussed.

Chapter Two reviews existing relevant literature on GUAs with historical knowledge on policy travel and the coming together of countries towards addressing global issues through conferences and summits. Particular consideration is paid to the UN and specifically the UN-Habitats in housing and human settlements agenda developments.

Chapter Three addresses the theoretical background guiding GUA formation, adoption, promotion and implementation. Theories considered are normative theories of planning, institutional rational choice theory, globalisation theories, global governance and policy implementation at different spheres, levels and loci, and workings of global governance and policies down to local levels in every country.

Chapter Four illustrates the conceptual and methodological framework guiding this research, justifying the adoption of an explorative qualitative research approach using the case study of the Lagos, semi-structured interviews with multilevel enquiries covering four levels, global, national, sub-national, and local levels, documentary analysis, and attendance of focussed meetings. The empirical findings are triangulated with the attendance of focussed meetings, and webinars.

Chapter Five presents a historical case of Lagos, urban developments, legislations and institutions relating to housing and human settlements with the documentary analysis of documents within and outside the public domain in regard to the incorporation of the NUA into its planning principles and development planning.

Chapters Six, Seven and Eight present the empirical findings in accordance with the different enquires across the levels towards answering the research questions raised in Chapter One. Chapter Six focuses on the intersections and complexities around GUAs from the global level to local levels, Chapter Seven focuses on challenges affecting GUA implementation, and Chapter Eight presents the housing situation in Lagos along with the global debates on GUAs.

Chapter Nine presents the summary of the findings, and the results are discussed in relation to the literature and theoretical approach adopted in Chapter Three. Answers to the research sub-questions and the research objectives are also addressed in this chapter.

Chapter Ten concludes the research thesis and the key research question answered, with the recommendation, suggestions for future studies and contribution of this thesis to the greater debates on GUAs.

2 CHAPTER TWO – EXPOSITION INTO GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter conceptualises global agendas planned and formulated through the various international institutions and the national governments that cascade down to governments at the local levels. While many institutions and stakeholders are involved in global policy and agenda formulation, this study will focus more on the UN-Habitat, a specialised arm of the United Nations that focuses on housing, human settlements, programmes and sustainable urban development. Also, this study explored how planning ideas travel from one level to the other, hierarchically top-down within a country or horizontally through the country and across its borders. This study is oriented using concepts and theories of normative theories of planning, globalisation theories, global governance and policy implementation. This chapter introduces the concept of global urban agendas as it relates to urban planning and the emergence of planning in the broad frame of global challenges. Beyond how problems and challenges are problematised, this chapter discusses how these ideas, policies and agendas travel from one region to another. Also, there are the power dynamics and relations and how this nexus shapes knowledge translation of global urban agendas in different contexts through multilateral networks, institutions and actors. Historically, credence is given to the events after World War Two and the institutions that shaped redevelopment and reconstruction across the globe. These institutions birthed various conferences and agendas in all spheres of life. While the focus of this study is on urban agendas, events and history have shown the importance and interdependence of the environmental and sustainable development discourse in achieving global urban sustainability. The problem described in this research pertains to urban and housing sustainability, more evident in some geographical regions than others. Housing as a broad theme is viewed through core global issues around global goals, agreements, international conventions and declarations, summits and agendas. This prevalence is due to specific contextual urban challenges, especially in the global South. This chapter concludes that it is crucial and imperative that global urban agendas are seen through the process of full implementation beyond just setting agendas and conferences.

2.2 The concept of the global urban agenda

Globally, many agendas exist around peace, energy, human rights and climate. However, when the focus is on the urban agenda, there are equally different spheres of urban agendas related to urban development in the areas of housing, transport, urban services and infrastructure, climate change and safeguarding the Earth. The term (global) urban agenda gained more prominence and traction with the Habitat III tagged ‘the NUA’ even though urban agendas date to the 1970s (Hall and Pfeiffer, 2000; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Satterthwaite, 2016). Floret (2019: 3) notes that GUA is “the formalisation of global debates about urban, cities, and spatial problems and therefore a crucial element

of how urbanisation is governed globally". The first notable mention of the GUA in reference to the UN-Habitat II regarding the adoption of global and international planning principles around issues of housing and human settlements states:

> "*It is clear that many of the documents, programs, and ideas of the Habitat process are embedded in the paradigm of globalisation as discussed above and that, indeed, many of the key elements of the global urban agenda as articulated by the Habitat process derive directly from the basic presumption of this paradigm*" (Leaf and Pamuk 1997: 75).

While there is no general definition for GUA, Datu and Lashermes (2012: para 2) describe them as "the common set of priorities that most cities around the world must address to varying degrees", attributing the authority of the UN-Habitat and the Habitat process in agenda-setting and formation. Leading to the NUA at UN-Habitat III, Cohen (2015:36) alluded to the GUA, stating that it is pertinent that the "final outcome document to reflect a global consensus on the significance of human settlements, their challenges, and criteria by which to recognize successful policies and programmes".

Previous fora on environment, urbanisation and sustainable development brought about the concept of sustainable urbanisation, emanating specifically from 'Our Common Future' (1987 Brundtland Commission), Habitat Agenda (1996 UN-Habitat Conference) and Local Agenda 21 (1992 Earth Summit) (Allen and You, 2002; UN-Habitat, 2009). Measures to proffer solutions to sustainable urbanisation also brought forth the green and brown agendas with conflict in approaching urbanisation issues between the developed and developing countries (*ibid*.). The green agenda speaks to growing global concerns around biodiversity loss, impacts of climate change, depletion of forests and other anthropogenic activities affecting local and global urban sustainability. The brown agenda speaks to issues around rapid urbanisation and it "focuses on human well-being, social justice, and the immediate problems at the local level, especially those suffered by low-income groups" (Allen and You, 2002: 36). Both urban agendas complement each other even though the green agenda relates more to the global North while the brown agenda concerns the challenges of the global South.

Parnell (2016) wrote extensively on the GUA using the terms 'GUA', 'global urban development agenda' and 'global urban policy', emphasising the 'city-urban space' and its role in achieving sustainable urban development. She notes further that the adoption of the NUA signalled "the gradual emergence of a shared utopian vision and its adoption as a developmental directive by the international community" (*ibid*: 530). The GUA comprise three keywords, 'global', 'urban' and 'agenda'. 'Global' would be synonymous with international, world and multilateral governance connoting beyond a country or borders of a nation towards political problem-solving.

In regard to human settlements, words like urban, urbanisation, urbanity, urban population, and urbanisation have featured in line with the previous GUAs, which are largely urban-focussed and city-

centred. While these terminologies are related to the root meaning of urban, they are all different. In simple terms, the word 'urban' can be described in relation to a town or city or that which is not rural in nature. Fox *et al.* (2018: 949) adopt the definition of urbanisation as "an increase in the proportion of a country or region's population residing in urban settlements." In regard to urbanism, Sheppard *et al.* (2013: 893) note that based on changing theories of the city, urbanism is said to be a site description of a place that is not rural and is seen to be an indication of "modernity, progress, development, and metropole". However, in simple terms, urbanism and urban refers to the culture of the city or the way of life of the city. It is pertinent to know that the most significant emphasis is placed on cities (urban centres) as the pathway or roadmap towards achieving global sustainable development (Cohen, 2015; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016). Lastly, 'agenda' will be synonymous with consensus, agreement, policy, and rules. According to Cobb and Elder (1971: 905-906), 'agendas' politically in global terms are:

> "*a general set of political controversies that will be viewed at any point in time falling within range of legitimate concerns meriting the attention of polity…it may also denote a set of concrete items scheduled for active and serious consideration by a particular in-constitutional decision-making body*".

Hence, for the purpose of this study, GUAs are generally accepted legitimate political principles, policies, consensus, agreements, outcomes, decisions, documents, programmes and ideas which are written or unwritten, manifested in politics and urban policies that guide and proffer solutions to global urban and urbanisation issues in cities and human settlements. Emphasis will be placed on the recent NUA by the UN-Habitat at the Habitat III and the co-agenda, the urban SDG11 in the areas of housing and previous housing agendas. Beyond the green or brown development agendas, the core of what defines the GUA today emerged predominantly post 2015 and 2016 agreements as part of the wider GUA described by Parnell (2016), evident in post-2015 scholarships with reference to historical shifts and agendas (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). The NUA primarily opens from the SDG11 and NUA, forming the basis for urban debates and discussions amidst other agreements and global frameworks for local level implementation through various multilateral networks, institutions and actors in multi-scaler contexts. Important to note is a wider set of post-2015 agreements, including the Paris Climate Agreement, Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 and the Addis Ababa Action Agenda Conference on Financing for Development.

As earlier noted and alluded to, GUAs are products of intergovernmental and international summits and conferences where global issues and challenges are extensively discussed with representatives cutting across leaders, urban planners, politicians, academics, civil societies, NGOs, Community-Based Organisations (CBOs), practitioners and activists where consensus is sought and policies are agreed upon (Cohen, 1996; 2015; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Satterthwaite, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*,

2017; Schindler, 2017; Valencia *et al.*, 2019). These conferences are discussed in the subsequent sections. The formation of GUA as it is, in the case of the NUA, is influenced mainly by three factors (Parnell, 2016). Firstly, the membership of the UN by member states counts in the final decision, even though certain (global North) countries have more say than others. The UN, the UN-Habitat and the World Bank are critical international institutions involved in forming GUAs. Secondly, the influences and interference of other global intergovernmental organisations, CBOs, activists and urban stakeholders. Lastly, by global urbanism scholarships and urban debates, primarily by academics and urban stakeholders.

Sheppard *et al.* (2013: 894) argue that mainstream global urbanism has prevailed for many decades through transnational networks, urban practitioners and theorists, with the urbanism that proceeds from North America and Western Europe as the normative standard across the globe. This kind of thought was a product of European and Western colonisers that gained dominance in influencing and reshaping African, Asian and Latin American cities to design places in line with European urban planning principles (*ibid)*. The prevalence of this dominance explains why cities like Johannesburg and Lagos are intrinsically being patterned after global cities like London and New York to join the league of global cities. For instance, a city like Lagos has the vision of "making Lagos Africa's model mega city and global economic and finally hub", while there are particular challenges synonymous with the city (MEPB LASG, 2013: xiii). Hence, new theorists advocate for global urbanism to take cognisance of local interest and culture with the avoidance of subverting local context. Much emphasis was placed on the city in the NUA, but there is a need for urban practitioners to understand that cities are different in typologies and morphologies, but there can be global connectivity at different levels. Also, urban scholarships emanating from the global South were subjected to the global North and Western theories as mere empirical data and information (Sheppard *et al.*, 2013). Again, academics from the North theorise about Southern cities relying on perceptions and previous write-ups with no detailed form of ethnographic or observation from a specific location in the South (Parnell and Robinson, 2012; Sheppard *et al.*, 2013).

Hence, research output about the global South is regarded as mere empirical data and not as inputs for theorisation or GUAs. In reality, such prejudices become a problem when such thoughts from the North are behind global urban policies that shape our human settlements. Researchers have come to refute the notion of seeing the Northern urbanism as the norm and accessing the cities of the South with the lens from the North (see Parnell and Walawege, 2011; Roy, 2011; Parnell and Robinson, 2012; Pieterse, 2013; Sheppard *et al.*, 2013; Schindler, 2017). Parnell and Robinson (2012) argued that while there is a recalibration of Southern urbanism, there is a need for the urban scholars to provide a better narrative for the urban issues, drivers of change and processes shaping Southern cities. In so doing, these scholars and practitioners will be able "to motivate for the protection of urban livelihood" (*ibid.*: 594).

Based on the genesis and agenda formation of GUAs, they are primarily development agendas focusing on the urban sphere, under the environment and human settlements. While there are different descriptions of development, they are inclined mainly to countries in terms of how they are viewed and categorised; the complex and contested overview of development has shaped how countries evolved. Jenkins *et al.* (2006: 34) assert that the notion of development is primarily associated with progressive transformation, which may be linked to the "political, economic, social or cultural sphere" in the life of a nation-state. The concept of development is based on progressive policies and strategies to transform the nation-state (*ibid.*). Notably, issues relating to global and urban development have been captured in previous agendas, and as it is manifested in the MDGs and SDGs sponsored by the UN, its allied agencies and other intergovernmental organisations.

Lastly, making a global urban agenda or policy stems from the ideologies of globalisation and the need to sustain human settlements worldwide (Falola and Salm, 2004; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016). Human settlements worldwide vary in size, population, urban morphology and challenges being faced by the citizens, planners and officials. As a way of addressing city challenges in human settlements, many city concepts and agendas have emerged from qualifying an ideal city that does not exist. As seen in the literature, some of these concepts include the smart city, sustainable city, compact city, resilient city and green city (Hall *et al.*, 2000; Zubizarreta *et al.*, 2016; Corbin, 2018; Kim *et al.*, 2018). Fernandes and Meirinhos (2008) argue that a huge difference exists between what an ideal city should be and what the real city is, and at best, the challenges, paradigms and phenomenon of an ideal city are used as a theoretical basis for addressing and planning the real city. The authors identified four parameters used in crafting global agendas in line with the right to the city based on issues, challenges, potentialities and the production of spaces and everyday life in the city (*ibid.*). The first parameter borders on the intersectionality of the agenda cutting across race, gender, societies, space and geographical location, yet interconnected, related and interdependent. The second parameter looks at equity and rights; the third is social participation, and the last is social inclusion. These parameters affect how these agendas or concepts are implemented at local levels.

2.3 The emergence of planning and planning theory across the globe, an overview

Gunder *et al.* (2017) state that the history of planning landscapes has changed over time based on the interactions between the organisations of power, society and the environment. They referred to specific contexts and states in their assertion. These states include the welfarist states in Western countries, the socialist states before the Soviet Union collapsed with the 1989 fall of the Berlin Wall, the colonised states whose planning was dependent primarily on the colonisers/colonial powers and what can be described as modern or post-modern cities (*ibid.*). Planning bloomed and progressed in welfare states decades after World War Two with so much support for democracy, efficiency, legitimacy and rationality in urban planning. In socialist states and countries, planning was purely a state and exclusive function, and here, planning enjoyed the infusion of modernist capitalist ideologies to drive social,

political and political changes. During the colonial era, planning was used as a means and tool to segregate and control the society by the colonial powers, and these control mechanisms have not been fully dissociated in those societies, with present-day planning primarily influenced by the past despite having gained independence (*ibid*). As a whole, the planning field is not associated with urban and regional planning alone but with other fields and professions such as architecture, governance, social sciences, management and politics. This is because all the other fields mentioned above have their forms of planning embedded in their professions. With regard to the field of urban planning, where public spaces and neighbourhoods were laid out for planning purposes, the history of planning dates back many centuries before the Romans and the Greeks, ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia (Levy, 1991). Notably, many of the agendas concerning urban planning in this study, which will be discussed in subsequent sections, are basically normative in nature, and they were formulated to address the social, economic and environmental components of sustainability in the urban spheres and beyond (Jenkins *et al*., 2006; Valencia *et al*., 2019). The discussions and debates around the agendas, though relating to urban planning fields and sustainable developments, are carried out by political scientists, economists, planners, policymakers and people from different professions leading up to the final adoption, signing and ratification of such agendas, as in the case of the SDG11 and NUA. However, the planning profession is pivotal to the coming about of these agendas.

Gunder *et al.* (2017: 3) similarly note that planning was initially associated with "architectural and engineering" practice. Friedmann (1987) states that planning traditions evolved in the public domain as a discipline that grew from four major traditions and paradigms. These traditions are social reforms for the society within their environments, policy analysis by the authorities in power, social learning from what works from previous policies and guidelines, and social mobilisation. In these traditions, planning developed as a "technique for social progress" in managing territories for the advancement of the society in the 20th Century, particularly in Europe (*ibid*: 53). The planning profession emerged in the United States in line with the "Keynesian economic theory, as a social science discipline of public policy", where governments can agglomerate economic demands to aid growth and development across countries (Gunder *et al.*, 2017: 3). Here, a newly redefined cognitive way of scheduling emerged, which had always existed in human societies and how they lived (*ibid*).

Theoretically, global agendas and planning fall under normative theory in regard to how the world should be and how to achieve it (Judge *et al*., 1995). Concerning planning, these normative theories can be expressed through procedural planning theories such as liberalism, pragmatism, social planning, advocacy planning and communicative planning approaches (Judge *et al*., 1995; Allmendinger, 2009; Whittemore, 2015). These theoretical backgrounds form the basis for planning in Western Welfarist States, as alluded to by Gunder *et al*. (2017). Allmendinger (2009) argues that procedural planning theory is interested in policy design and policy focus towards implementation as seen in general planning practice. Hence, the coming of policies and agendas by governmental institutions to address

trends and challenges that affect the societies. Gunder *et al*. (2017) contend that it is pertinent for planning theories to be contextualised and localised based on changing urban landscapes, narratives and circumstances in addressing societal issues in contrast to generalising planning philosophies for all times. In recent times, planning theory has given rise to new ideologies and relationships from the previous post-socialist, post-colonial and post-modern states that should respond to local realities in contrast to perpetuating Western planning ideologies (*ibid.*). They argue further that as the world globalises and urbanises, planning issues also grow globally even though local actors and planners in different countries have different capacities to address growing urban concerns (*ibid.*). Watson (2016: 436), however, states that the role of "planning in theory and practice" will be visible "in the implementation section of the NUA, which promotes an emphasis on spatial planning through regulation, along with concepts of territorial and regional balance".

2.4 Travelling of planning ideas, policies (agendas) and urban policy mobility

It is pertinent that planning agendas or policies are not just formulated but that they are implemented as they travel around the world, considering the perception that these agendas are best practices that most counties and planners can borrow from. Christof (2011) notes that the concept of planning ideas (practices and policies) travelling across nations gained more prominence after World War Two when the colonial powers extended their reigns by exporting their planning principles to their colonies. Reference is made to the colonies because these colonial powers imported their planning ideas since the late 19th century, especially after the re-planning of London and Paris. This concept was brought about by the city officials, national government and development agencies of the European and North American cities, and it is now being promoted through the agency of globalisation, capital flow and new information, communication and technologies (Fainstein, 2008; Christof, 2011). Hence, cities and human settlements were/are influenced by imported planning ideas, and they shaped urban development giving rise to transnational urbanism. Healey (2010: 7) argues that the travelling of planning concepts and practices transcends borders and is beyond the "West to the rest, or from the developed to the developing world, or the global North to the South". This cross-movement of planning ideas is aided by "regional, transnational, global networks of planners and academics, and international aid agencies" such as UN-Habitat and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (*ibid.*).

Friedmann (2010) points out that planning ideas travel globally and across borders based on his working experience (planning practice as a planner and an academic) in Chile and China from the United States of America. He notes that these planning ideas translated to practice found expression through local, cultural frameworks and channels provided by institutions (*ibid.*). Thus, the institution formulating these policies has a part to play in the travelling of these policies. The level of urban policy mobility, acceptance and travelling of these ideas rest on several factors such as the origin, the agent and the institution promoting them (McCann, 2011). Hence, Christof (2011) suggests that planning policy travel is motivated and constructed politically based on the interest of certain (political) actors and influential

individuals. For instance, policies or agendas promoted by the UN, the World Bank and the Slum Dwellers International (SDI) usually travel faster internationally and across the globe. Although these policies are neoliberal in nature, but they are patterned in such a way that they can be copied and relate to other regions, but they are also "locally specific, path-dependent, and contested" (Clarke, 2012: 27). It then becomes challenging to contest such policies and agendas by local officials because of their origin and having been termed best practices from other regions (McCann, 2011). However, a simple question of how incoming policies intersect with local context and policies might provide an understanding of why seemingly progressive policies do not always transform certain or all human settlements is important to explore. As such, certain elements feature in the travelling of agendas and policies.

Against the notion of urban policy movement being static, hemogenic and seen as best practices, Clarke (2012) argues that policy mobility is propagated primarily by institutions. As these policies move, they need to be de-territorialised from the source for it to be impactful. On the one hand, urban policy movability is affected by the topography, prevailing circumstances, the propagator(s) and the knowledge gap (best practice) being transferred (*ibid.)*. On the other hand, "topological and imaginative mobility" referring to the local context and spatiality become the determinant of how successful it will be (*ibid.*: 27). Hence, urban policy mobility becomes a transformational planning tool that takes cognisance of where the policy is coming from and where it is being transported. However, Sorensen (2010: 133) points out that planning ideas mobility does not always necessarily have the same impact as initially conceived due to "different cultural settings, political systems, and policy context". Similarly, McCann (2011: 124) argue that while local policymakers may adopt global policies and agendas as 'best practices' that have worked in specific context, territories and countries, such adoption often fails to "address the wider historical, geographical, cultural, and political-economic context" in other settings. Hence, certain elements come into play with the travelling of agendas and policies when they are implemented based on the prevailing circumstances and urban policy mobility in that specific context and region. The next section considers forms of power and how they influence travelling of ideas and knowledge formation.

2.5 Forms of power between the global and local levels

Beyond the travelling of global ideas and policies, there is a need to understand the power dynamics and relations and how this nexus shapes knowledge translation in different contexts through multilateral networks, institutions and actors (Wandel, 2001; Geerlings and Lundberg, 2018; Cociña *et al.*, 2019; Russell *et al.*, 2020). Shiffman and Smith (2007) question why certain global initiatives and agendas are prioritised over others, thus, receiving international attention by political leaders while others are kept on the shelf within the same geographical context. They noted that the promotion of these agendas is dependent on "the power of actors involved, the ideas they use to portray the issue, the nature of the political contexts in which they operate, and characteristics of the issue itself" (*ibid:* 1370). Alluding to

Foucault's power of discourse, understanding the institutions of power and political influences in promoting certain ideas by legitimising and making them acceptable is important to GUA discourse (Wandel, 2001).

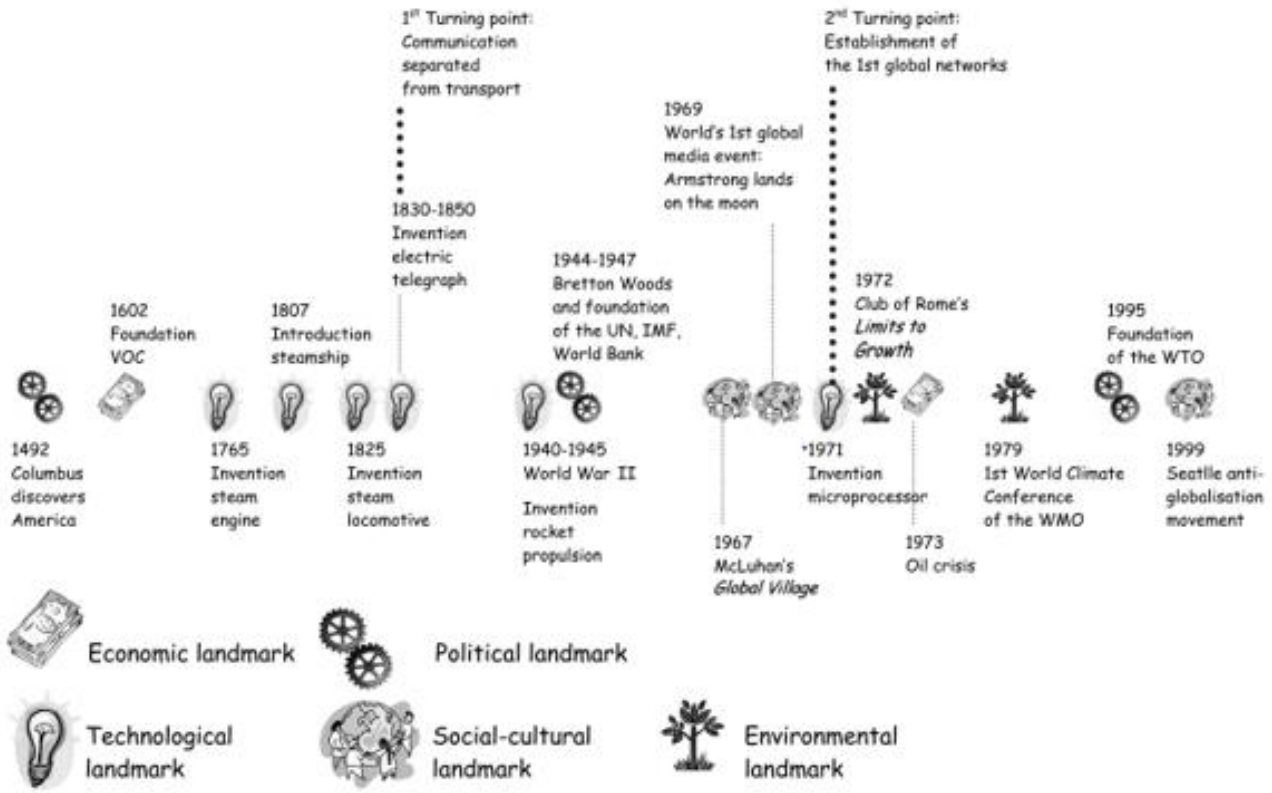
As earlier noted, planning and urban agendas fall within normative paradigms; however, these global agendas are also promoted through a coercive and mimetic mechanism by political leaders and institutions of power (DiMaggio and Powell, 2017; Russell *et al.*, 2020). By coerciveness, it would mean power dynamics with "legal or financial consequences for failure to comply"; and by mimetic, it would imply copying or imitating institutional behaviours of similar organisations (Russell *et al.*, 2020: 996). The principal actor in GUAs is the UN and allied organisations, primarily through the UN-Habitat and its Habitat conferences and other conferences and summitry that will be discussed in the following sections (Parnell, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). Fukuda-Parr (2014) argues that institutions such as the UN uses the power of numbers through agenda-setting, goals, targets and indicators to motivate governments to adopt global agendas, but the challenge lies in each country interpreting the agendas correctly. While the UN (with the World Bank and similar organisations) is the single most influential global actor in diffusing global (urban) ideas across the world, it also relies on member states and uses the power of association within networks of intergovernmental and NGOs to promote ideologies (Parnell, 2016; Geerlings and Lundberg, 2018; Cociña *et al.*, 2019; Russell *et al.*, 2020). Notable networks of intergovernmental and NGOs that have aided the diffusion of GUAs are the Shack/SDI, Local Governments for Sustainability (ICLEI), United Cities and Local Governments, C40 and the Rockefeller 100 Resilient Cities Initiative (Acuto *et al.*, 2017; Russell *et al.*, 2020; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). Cociña *et al*. (2019: 132) note that beyond these organisations propagating and promoting these urban agendas at the local levels of nation-states, they also "lobby global agendas to further their interests". Thus, they are used as subtle forces of propagation of GUA with loyalty to the parent bodies and funders.

2.6 Historical overview of globalisation in shaping global urban agendas

Leaf and Pamuk (1997) point out that globalisation originated from European economists in the 16th century out of the need to take their market capitalism beyond Europe to their colonies. The phenomenon thrived on capitalism among colonial powers as a way of extending their reign and economic power (*ibid.*). In capital terms, the globe is seen through globalisation as a trade fair with no boundaries for capital flow with an easy movement of humans, goods and services across borders (Oduwaye, 2013). The flow of capital on the global scene was significantly enhanced by technological advancement, telecommunication, transportation, innovative transactions and bilateral trade among states (Leaf and Pamuk, 1997; Oduwaye, 2013). Urban globalisation tends towards creating a new world order across boundaries, which is currently being steered by the fourth industrial revolution (Johannessen, 2018; Kim *et al.*, 2018). It encompasses the limitless possibility of ideas in regard to issues and problems affecting the world; such ideas are being aimed at engendering "efficiency,

competitiveness, efficient allocations of resources, and speedy growth of the world economy" (Oduwaye, 2013: 1194).

Figure 2-1: Globalisation timeline, 1492 to 1999

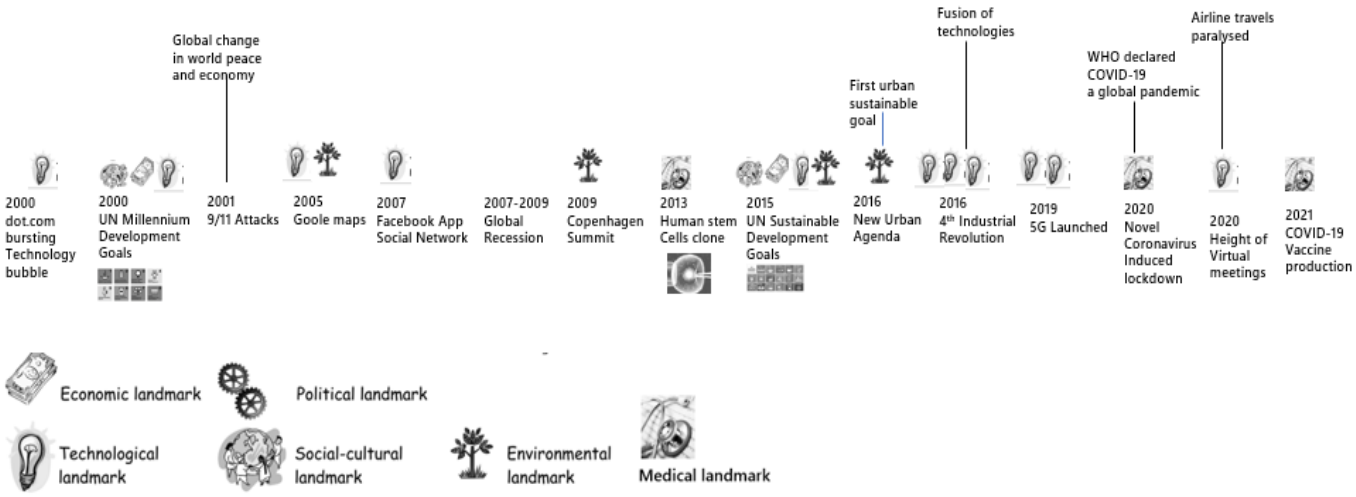


Source: Rennen and Martens, 2003

Rennen and Martens (2003) identified five non-exhaustive but critical areas that have shaped globalisation across the globe despite the notion that globalisation stemmed from capitalist drive and control exercised by European leaders. The areas identified are capitalism, technology, politics, social and cultural life. To illustrate this, Figure 2-1 shows significant milestones from 1492 to 1999 and the different impacts on society and human lives. Figure 2-2 shows other timelines from 2000 to 2021, which is not exhaustive, as the previous chapter focussed on global urban and environmental changes. Further, Rennen and Martens (2003) note the impact of globalisation on the environment and human settlements, as shown by the landmarks on the globalisation timeline. As far back as 1967, Marshall McLuhan envisioned the concept of a global village where the entire world would be reduced to a space with the use of technology for social and economic relations across borders and beyond borders (McLuhan, 1996). Five decades later, using technology, virtual meetings are held with people on different continents simultaneously, money can be wired in seconds, tournaments can be cohosted across borders, and drones are used for aerial surveillance and remote sensing. For instance, many states in developed and developing countries have adopted the smart city concept as a significant governance

paradigm in addressing urban issues by using technologies to monitor and govern the city (Washburn *et al*., 2010; Zubizarreta *et al*., 2016). It is pertinent to note that during the 2020 global pandemic, school lectures, many large gatherings and conferences were held virtually to curb the spread of the coronavirus disease that is ravaging the world. These are the effects of globalisation through technology.

Figure 2-2: Globalisation timeline, 2000 to 2021



Source: Author's construct, adapted from Rennen and Martens, 2003

As the world globalises and advances in capitalism and economic growth through technological advancement, globalisation will continue to impact the urban environment uniquely towards political independence (Rennen and Martens, 2003). Leaf and Pamuk (1997: 72) argue that globalisation through the World Bank and the UN promotes "growing global competitiveness" in certain cities and world regions against the nation-state regions. Some of these cities include London, New York and Tokyo in the global North. The same ideologies of global competitiveness are being promoted in cities such as Johannesburg, Lagos and Nairobi. As such, these cities are defined based on being world-class cities, innovative, enterprising and business-oriented for investors and tourists (*ibid.*). However, Parnell and Robinson posit that there is a need for the "hybridization, localisation and transformation" of neoliberal policies in Southern cities to be adapted to specific cities as against importing neoliberal policies in like manners toward global cities (Robinson and Parnell, 2011; Parnell and Robinson, 2012: 594).

The concepts behind the globalisation of agendas are critical and essential for global development, but they are not without consequences on the environment, whether intended or unintended (Huchzermeyer, 2008b; Meth, 2013). With increasing population and urbanisation globally, there is increased consumption and depletion of natural resources worldwide, which have a negative effect on the world's ecological footprint (Rees, 1992; Rees and Wackernagel, 2008). There is increased deforestation and

pollution of water and the air with fossil gases, which raise the need for climate change mitigation and adaptation to manage the environment (Watson *et al.*, 1996; Gifford, 2011). When globalisation is linked to capitalism, the Marxists heavily criticised it as being exploitative of the market by promoting cheap production, which is not in favour of the poor. In promoting city competitiveness, the urban space becomes expensive, gentrified and out of reach for many urban citizens. In recent times, gentrification is credited to neoliberal policies sponsored by the state favouring the market, allowing more affluent working-class people to displace former residents of a particular neighbourhood (Glass, 1964; Slater *et al*., 2004; Balzarini and Shlay, 2016). Vliet (2002) argues that city officials and civil societies have the duty to protect the rights of the populace in a globalising city in line with the shared rights and vision for the city captured in the NUA. Cities should act as places of social integration, justice and environmental sustainability and not promote inequality and poverty (*ibid.*). However, with the incursion of neoliberal urban policies as part of globalisation to aid urban governance, the market forces have a larger share in determining what happens in the urban space at the expense of the urban citizens at local levels. The next section will examine the UN's broad-spectrum and allied organisations, structure and operations toward global agendas. The UN has played a significant role in the travelling of agendas across the globe, exercising global power and global governance as reflected in the globalisation timelines.

2.7 The United Nations and other global institutions

The UN was established in 1945 because of the dismal failure of the League of Nations (LON) to stay true to the objectives for which it was established in January 1920 after World War One (Weiss, 2015). The LON failed to prevent other wars after the WW1, broker peace among nations, veto power and achieve the balance of power. According to Article 11 of the LON Covenant, "any war or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the members of the League or not, it is hereby declared a matter of concern to the whole League" (Department of State, 1919: para 84). However, the LON failed in its mandate as an intergovernmental organisation to prevent Japan from invading Manchuria, allowed Italy to attach Ethiopia, and allowed Germany to invade Rhineland and Czechoslovakia (Luard, 1982). Luard (1982) argued that the LON had no power to maintain and enforce its Covenant; hence the need for a procedural way of addressing international issues and this gave way to the establishment of the UN.

After World War Two in 1945, certain global institutions and corporations were formed to address the aftermath of the war, especially developmental destruction, and to establish new and financial relations among countries (Gunder *et al.*, 2017). The UN, in its own right, is "an intergovernmental organisation that was tasked to maintain international peace and security, develop friendly relations among nations, achieve international cooperation and be a centre for harmonising the actions of the nations" (United Nations, 2019b). Primary amongst these institutions is the UN; other notable institutions are the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, now known as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). These institutions have been described as the Bretton Woods

Institutions and termed Washington Consensus by John Williamson (Williamson, 1997, 2000). They were majorly involved in developmental policies, agenda formation and global governance beyond Europe (*ibid*). The consensus' major agendas and policy reforms are around tax reforms, liberalisation, privatisation, property rights, governance and deregulation. According to Article One of the Articles of Agreement of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the World Bank, it was set up to

> *"assist in the reconstruction and development of territories of members by facilitating the investment of capital for productive purposes," and, "to promote the long-range balanced growth of international trade and the maintenance of equilibrium in balances of payments by encouraging international investment…thereby assisting in raising the productivity, the standard of living and conditions of labour in their territories."* (Bretton Woods Institutions, 2021).

In line with global development, the World Bank Group "works in every major area of development … provide a wide array of financial products and technical assistance, and we help countries share and apply innovative knowledge and solutions to the challenges they face" (World Bank, 2021; para 1). Notably, the World Bank was set up primarily to assist member nations in reconstruction and development after World War Two (Williamson, 2000; Aribigbola, 2007; Huchzermeyer, 2012). They were involved in lending money to developing countries to promote infrastructural development from 1945; then from the 1970s supported infrastructure, urban sites and services schemes; in the 1980s, they had collaborations with the UNDP and UN-Habitat on urban management (*ibid*). Afterwards, the World Bank was heavily involved in developing urban policies alongside economic development to address poverty challenges (Bretton Woods Project, 2021a; World Bank, 2021).

However, there are several debates about the legitimacy of these institutions and their sovereignty in promoting and championing certain policies, their dominance and involvement in politics, even at the national level (Barnett, 1997; Thakur, 2010; Dellmuth and Tallberg, 2015; Hovell, 2016; Bernstein, 2017; Bretton Woods Project, 2021b). Leading up to Habitat III, Parnell (2016) notes the contestations, compromises and consensus that had to be reached by all, even though some voices prevailed. One of such debates and controversies was around policies promoted in developing countries when aid and developmental loans are provided and the aftermath in poorer countries. Apart from these Bretton Institutions and other similar bodies, several other unions and entities came into being after World War Two across the continents. Notable amongst these are the Organisation of African Unity (later changed to the African Union (AU) in 2002), the European Economic Community, the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, the Southeast Asia Treaty Organisation and the Warsaw Treaty Organisation. For this study, the focus will be on the UN and the UN-Habitat because of the UN universality cutting across all continents and UN-Habitat, as a full-fledged programme under the UN for housing and human

settlements. Also, the AU will be partly considered as a global union for all African countries where this study is situated.

2.7.1 An overview of the United Nations, United Nations Economic and Social Council, and United Nations Human Settlements Programme

The UN was founded on a peace accord after the ruins of World War Two with 51 member states, and it has since grown to 193 member states. Similar to what is obtainable now, the then world powers held conferences before the adoption of the Charter of the UN (Jalón, 2004). The conferences were held in Dumbarton Oak, Washington DC, August to September 1944; Yalta, Russia, February 1945; and San Francisco, California, April to June 1945 (*ibid.*). These conferences culminated in a new Charter different from that of the LON, which was primarily focussed on promoting world peace, prevent 'bullying' by the 'powerful countries' and ensuring equal rights for member states. The UN Charter contains 19 chapters, which has since had several Articles (1-111) amended due to changes globally since 1945. The preamble of the UN Charter states:

> *"**WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS DETERMINED***
>
> *to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and **to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights**, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and to establish conditions under which **justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom**,*
>
> ***AND FOR THESE ENDS***
>
> *to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and **to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples,***
>
> ***HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THESE AIMS***
>
> *Accordingly, our respective Governments, through representatives assembled in the city of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organisation to be known as the United Nations"* (United Nations, 2020a: para 2,3).

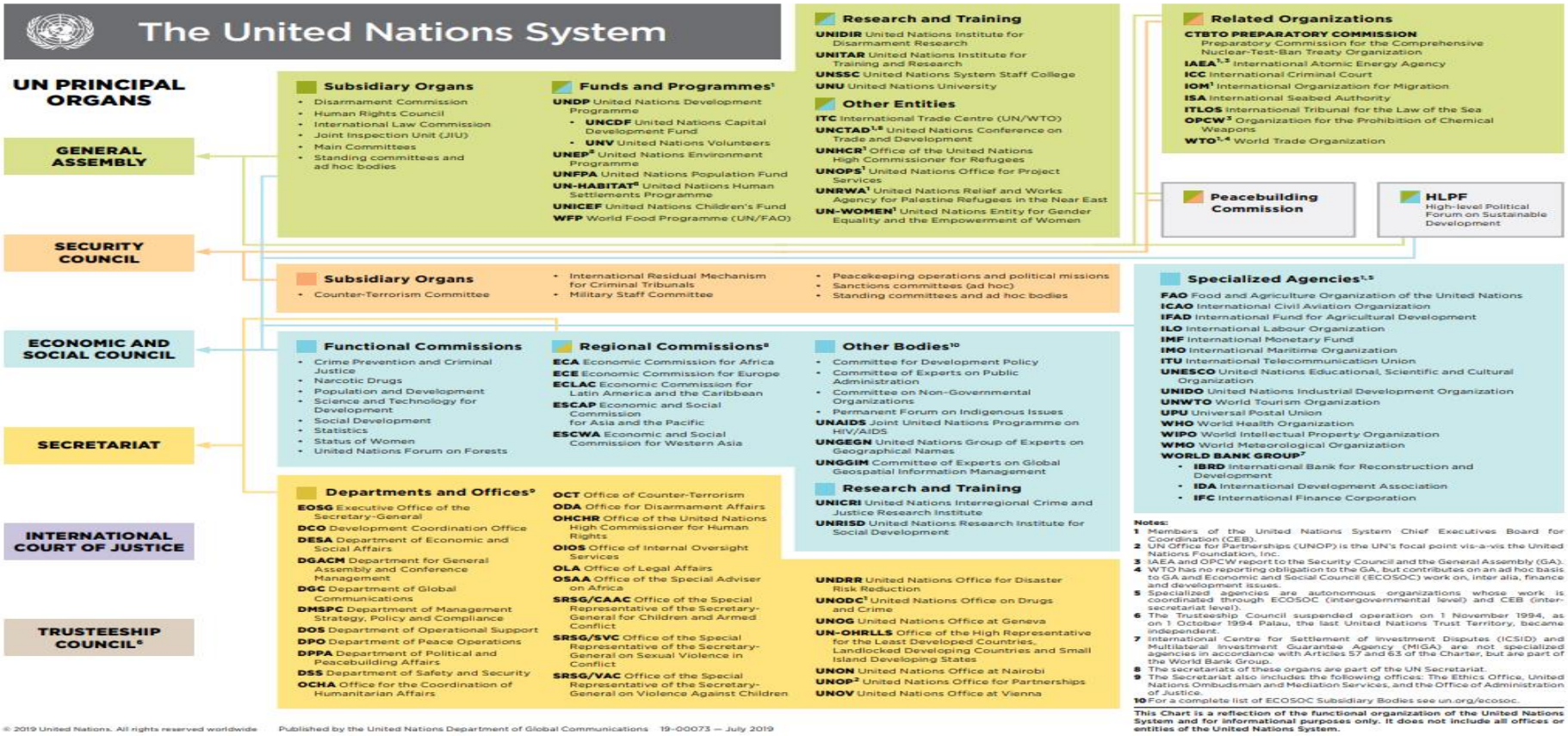
From the Charter through the Chapters and Articles, it is evident that it was a collective approach, starting with '*we the people*' of the UN have decided to forge a way forward to address issues across

borders, which is still in effect up till date. The UN operates based on the organs established in the 1945 Charter. These organs are discussed in the next section.

2.7.2 The organs of the United Nations

The UN has six principal organs comprising the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice and the UN Secretariat (United Nations, 2020b). Figure 2-3 shows the full spectrum of the UN system and how the organs of the UN are interrelated with other entities operating across the globe. The General Assembly is the main body part of the UN, headed by a president, where all the 193 member states are fully represented for deliberations and decision-making of global policies. The Security Council has the obligation of maintaining 'international peace and security' with five permanent members and ten temporary members and is headed by the president of a member state. The UN-ECOSOC is the main body responsible for "coordination, policy review, policy dialogue and recommendations on economic, social and environmental issues, as well as the implementation of internationally agreed development goals" (*ibid*: para 1). The crux of this study in regard to global urban agendas, which is an upshot of the sustainable development across all member states, falls under the purview of the ECOSOC. This Council is made up of 54 members elected or voted in the General Assembly's yearly meetings. The Trusteeship Council is saddled with overseeing 11 identified territories without independence or self-government as of 1945. When the UN was established, many African countries were still under colonial rule till Eritrea and South Africa gained full independence in 1993 and 1994, respectively. Notably, the Republic of South Africa was established in 1961 and has been a member of the UN. Although all the territories have gained independence, the Council still meets yearly or occasionally at the instance of the General Assembly about territorial issues. The International Court of Justice acts in the capacity of the judicial umpire organ to address international disputes, disagreements and conflicts to maintain world peace as stated in the Charter. Lastly, the Secretariat, headed by the Secretary-General, oversees all the UN international staff members working in different capacities in all the arms, organs and agencies of the UN. As an international organisation operating in many countries and in line with its Charter, the UN is multilingual with six official languages: Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish (Jalón, 2004). The UN, therefore, seeks to promote peace, human rights and international, security, foster social progress and economic development, and ensure that international laws and agreements are upheld.

Figure 2-3: The United Nations System



Source: The United Nations Department of Global Communication (undated) (https://www.un.org/en/pdfs/un_system_chart.pdf).

2.7.3 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The world has had many fora where issues were discussed with expected outcomes and guiding principles for international relations. One principal guiding document is the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which was formulated in 1948 by the then United Nations General Assembly (UNGA). The adoption of the UDHR was initially regarded as a "common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations", however, the Declaration has been the foundation for many organisations and government-related constitutions; a basis for "moral, political, and legal influence"; a tool for negotiations by human rights activists, NGOs and CBOs (Hannum, 1998: 145). The UNGA, proclaims the UDHR:

> *"as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction"* (United Nations, 1948: 1-2).

The UDHR contains 30 Articles that border practically on all aspects of human rights and human relations for peaceful coexistence and dignity of human life. These Articles touch on self- and human dignity, equality, the right of an individual in a society, freedom of association, self-expression and the impediment of one's rights. Articles 22-27 concerning attributes of the ECOSOC contain the social, economic and cultural rights of the individuals in a civilised society. Of particular interest to this study, among many others, is Article 25:1, states:

> *"Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control,"* (*ibid*: 6)

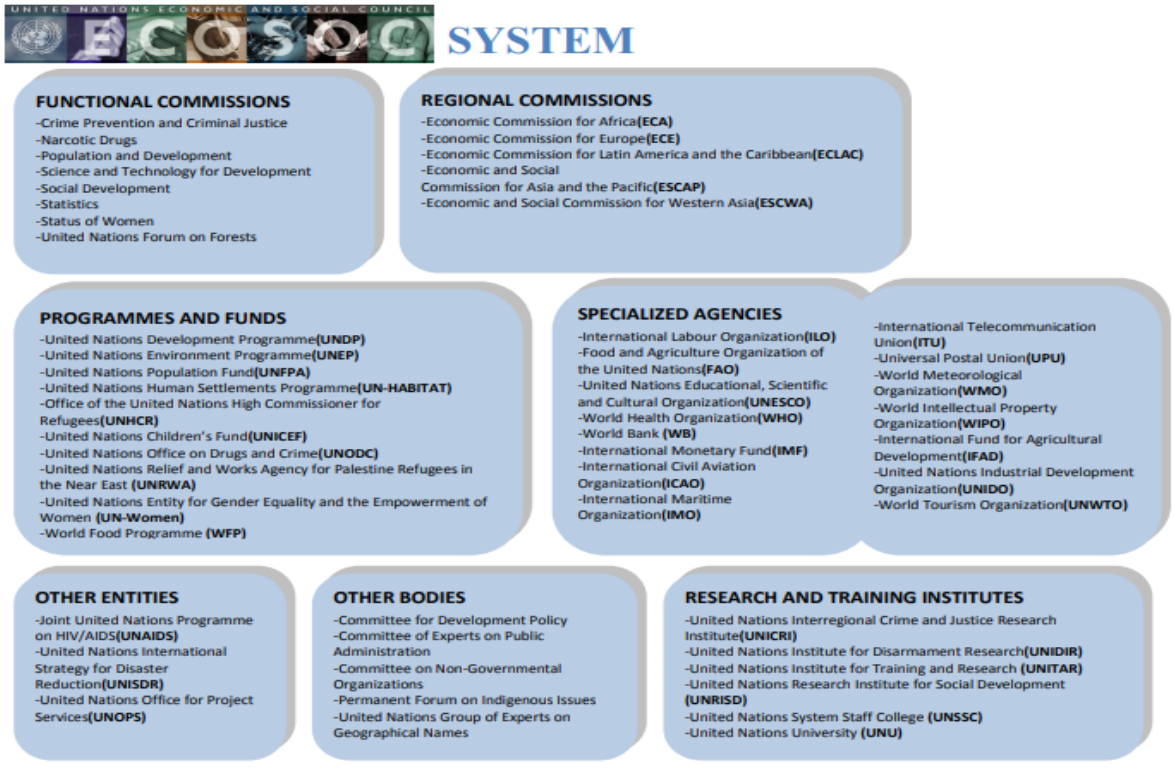
Despite the richness of the UDHR, not all countries have fully subscribed to it; however, it serves as a basis for freedom, justice, peace and resolutions when there are international disputes and disagreements occur. The UDHR is a partial document of the International Bill of Human Rights. Other documents contained in the International Bill of Human Rights are the ICESCR (with 31 Articles); International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (with 53 Articles); Optional Protocols to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; and Optional Protocols to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Other notable global agreements that border on economic, social and cultural issues are the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; UNESCO Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage; Convention on the Rights of the Child Documents related to the United

Nations Special Session on Children; Convention on Environmental Impact Assessment in a Transboundary Context; and The Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action. The next section discusses UN-ECOSOC.

2.7.4 The United Nations Economic and Social Council

Of all the principal organs of the UN, the ECOSOC drives the sustainable development agenda encompassing economic, social and environmental development across the world. The ECOSOC is primarily concerned with issues relating to development and urbanisation as it affects the human population across the globe (UN-ECOSOC, 2020). Part of the mandate of the ECOSOC includes forging innovative ways and carefully thought-out solutions and reforms through conferences and summits across the globe towards reaching a consensus among member states. As in Figure 2-4, the ECOSOC oversees functional and regional commissions, UN Programmes and Funds, specialised agencies, other entities, other bodies as well as research and training institutes across the world. In the fight against the coronavirus disease, the WHO has been at the forefront of fighting the pandemic in conjunction with other arms of the ECOSOC and national governments of member states. As such, the ECOSOC promotes sustainable development and SDGs, fosters policy development integration, encourages partnerships across borders, coordinates humanitarian actions in times of disaster and it carries out other functions set by the UN-General Assembly (UN-ECOSOC, 2020).

Figure 2-4: The ECOSOC Organigram



Source: United Nations n.d (https://www.un.org/en/ecosoc/about/pdf/ecosoc_chart.pdf).

2.7.5 The United Nations Human Settlements Programme

The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) has changed in its role, function and capacity since its inception when it was first established in 1978 as United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS) alongside UN Commission on Human Settlements. It was later elevated in rank from a UN Centre to a full-fledged UN Programme in 2002 to increase its carrying capacity to address urbanisation and human settlement issues. Then, in December 2018, the UNGA changed the status of the UN-Habitat Governing Council to UN-Habitat General Assembly with full representation of every member state in the Assembly (UN-Habitat, 2020c). Figure 2-5 shows the UN-Habitat structure and organisational chart after its elevation to a General Assembly. At the inception of the UN, much preference was given to peace and security matters, and less concern is given to human settlements and urbanisation issues until the early 1960s and mid-1970s (Birch, 2016). The UNCHS started as a research centre with two Committees on "Housing, Building and Planning, established in 1962" and "Human Settlement Foundation, established in 1975" (*ibid.:* 399). The Human Settlement Foundation was instituted within the UNEP to support programmes on the environment.

Over the last four decades, the UN-Habitat has pioneered three major Habitat conferences or agendas, ten World Urban Fora (WUF) biennially, development goals, and sponsored several fora on housing issues, human settlements and urbanisation. The notable UN-Habitat vigintennial conferences are:

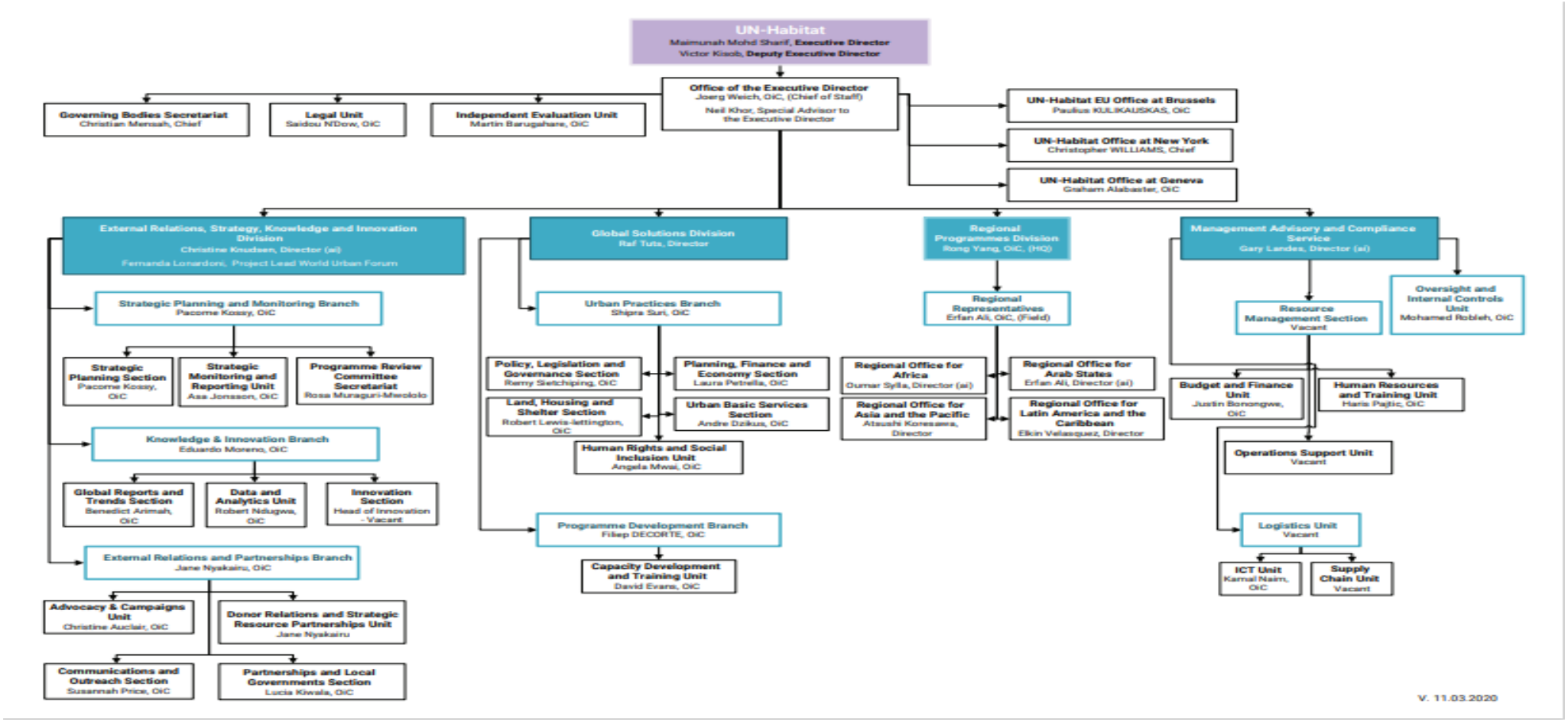
- Habitat I: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements held in Vancouver, Canada in May/June 1976;
- Habitat II: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements held in Istanbul Turkey in June 1996; and
- Habitat III: United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development held in Quito, Ecuador in October 2016.

From the inception of Habitat I to Habitat III, and the ten WUFs, there have been some growing concerns globally about human settlements; firstly, explosive and rapid urbanisation with dire consequences on human shelter, slum proliferation and sustenance of basic services (United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, 2003; McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2014; Birch, 2016); and secondly, issues around the environment, biodiversity, water, increased greenhouse gases and global footprint, global warming, all-around climate change discourses without adequate and corresponding Earth replenishment for used up resources (Rees, 1992; Watson *et al.*, 1996; Rees and Wackernagel, 2008). The challenges brought about by rapid urban urbanisation and environmental issues through globalisation have resulted in gross poverty and inequality worldwide, with differential wealth concentration in few hands (Birch, 2016). The next UN-Habitat conference, Habitat IV, is scheduled for 2036, which is another 20 years after Habitat III. Despite Habitat III being the current global urban

agenda from the UN, the commitments and concerns of Habitat I and Habitat II still count because they are not time-bound and are still relevant to urban debates towards sustainable urban development.

Hence, the UN-Habitat, under the support of the UNGA and ECOSOC, alongside other entities such as the UNDP, UNEP, the World Bank, and a host of other UN entities, have consistently developed pro-urban-based agendas, plans, approaches, policies, goals, programmes and projects to achieve adequate housing for humanity in all human settlements. In the same vein, the WUF10 held in Abu Dhabi in February 2020 has declared the next ten years leading to the end of the 2030 Agenda as a decade of action with five flagship programmes. The programmes are Inclusive Vibrant Neighbourhoods and Communities; People-focussed Smart Cities; Resilient Settlements for the Urban Poor; Inclusive cities: Enhancing the impacts of urban migration; and Sustainable Development Goals Cities (UN-Habitat, 2020d). However, these programmes suffered a significant setback immediately after the WUF10 with the Covid-19 pandemic that ravaged the entire world. The focus has been shifted globally towards addressing the pandemic alongside the GUA and dealing with its multiple adverse effects of the pandemic across all spectra of humanity.

Figure 2-5: UN-Habitat Organisational Chart.



Source: United Nations, n.d. (https://unhabitat.org/sites/default/files/2020/04/un-habitat_new_structure_-_18.04.2020.pdf).

2.7.6 United Nations Habitat conferences and agendas

Historically, the first five decades of the 20th century were characterised by war and destruction, necessitating redevelopment and peace treaties afterwards. By the time World War Two ended and the UN was established, the world experienced relative peace and various urban sector reforms. At the same time, the colonial powers maintained colonies outside their countries until the 1950s and 1960s, when many countries, particularly in Africa, became independent states. The newly independent states then started planning, capital city development, some regional and master planning, and establishing tiers of government to catalyse growth and development. While Europe and the Western world were somewhat redeveloped after World War Two, they extended their planning legislation and infrastructure to their former colonies, where they settled with many surrounding areas left with minimal or no infrastructure (Bigon, 1974; Peil, 1991; Gunder *et al.*, 2017). For instance, Nigeria was colonised by the British in 1861, and the British Crown extended her planning legislation to Lagos, Nigeria. An example of such legislation is the Town and Country Ordinance No. 4 of 1946 to extend planning control beyond Britain based on the 1932 British Towns and Country Planning Act and the 1940 Commonwealth Development and Welfare Act (Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012; Awuah *et al.*, 2015).

-United Nations Conference on Human Settlements held in Vancouver, Canada in May/June 1976 – Habitat I

Despite many countries in the global South having gained independence in the last six decades, much of the planning legislation is still inherited from their colonisers with huge urban infrastructure deficits. There were no defined GUAs in the human settlements in the colonial period, and urban development was treated differently, with attention paid basically to global public health (Bigon, 1974; Parnell, 2016). Matters affecting housing and basic services were treated as sectoral issues, and optimum attention was given to housing and basic needs in areas where colonial powers settled or had interests in the global South (Parnell, 2016). However, by the 1970s, it was apparent globally that there were issues of underdevelopment in some regions characterised by rapid urbanisation, uncontrolled urban growth and unequal economic growth (Parnell, 2016; UN-Habitat, 2020d). These issues of underdevelopment started in Latin America in the late 1960s as well as in Africa but mushroomed in Africa in the 1970s. This phenomenon was a growing concern towards Habitat I in human settlements in many developing countries, which are now considered as the global South.

As noted earlier, the UN-Habitat started under the then UNCHS as a research centre with growing concerns around slum growth and unplanned urban development by urban authorities and academics with housing at the centre of the discussion within human settlements (Choguill, 1996; Birch, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). Habitat I created an awareness of the need to control urban development, urban growth and the challenges related to rapid urbanisation. The Habitat I that produced the Vancouver Declaration sought to achieve global equity, justice and solidarity within human

settlements using a collective approach irrespective of the status of member states (United Nations, 1976; Cociña *et al.,* 2019). The Vancouver Declaration of Habitat I tasked leaders to see to the provision of adequate housing, basic services and infrastructure, address land and tenure security issues, monitor population growth, and balance the triad of social, economic and environmental dimensions within human settlements (United Nations, 1976). Notably, Habitat I gave rise to some resolutions and recommendations for national government with focus on shelter; infrastructure and services; public participation, settlements planning, policies, and strategies; land; and institutions and management (*ibid.*: iii).

Many other academics, such as Barbara Ward and John Turner, were instrumental and influential toward the framing and articulation of Habitat I, Habitat II and III (Parnell, 2016; Satterthwaite, 2016). Turner's housing research contribution in the 1960s/1970s towards Habitat I stems from his housing experience in Peru and two of his key books – Freedom to Build: Dweller Control of the Housing Process, and Housing by People: Towards Autonomy in Building Environments (Satterthwaite, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). Turner promoted the idea of housing by the people and self-help initiatives through community action and collaborations towards housing production, as against churning out houses for the people (*ibids.*).

Five decades down the line after Habitat I, these challenges have increased considerably globally, both in the North and in the South. Leaders of various governments were charged at the end of Habitat I to develop strategic national urban and spatial policies to address challenges related with rapid urbanisation and unplanned growth in human settlements (United Nations, 1976; Parnell, 2016). Also, this period following Habitat I got the backing of the World Bank and allied agencies to support Turner's approach with the promotion of slum upgrading, and sites and services programmes in Latin America, Asia, Africa, and parts of the Middle East (Cociña *et al.*, 2019).

-United Nations Conference on Human Settlements held in Istanbul Turkey in June 2006 – Habitat II

The events and periods after Habitat I gave an impetus towards Habitat II in defining GUAs and how urban knowledge has translated over time in matters relating to housing and human settlements. This period coincided with the global oil crises in the late 1970s and early 1980s, where the IMF and World Bank also provided loans to developing countries (Parnell, 2016). By the 1980s, more infrastructural facilities and loans were made available to developing countries, and these countries were forced to adopt stringent policies and asked to devalue their currency through the Structural Adjustments Programmes (SAP) (Parnell, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). The SAPs as an intervention were a case of negative and unintended consequences that negatively impacted economic and urban developments, leading to increased poverty in the long run in developing countries (Elu, 2000; Ikejiaku, 2008). Many states in the global South got accustomed to borrowing money for national development despite

stringent conditions by the lenders. Another key event was the establishment of the Urban Management Programme in 1986 by the UNCHS, UNDP and the World Bank (Cociña *et al.*, 2019). Thus, this period brought to prominence the urban management approach to development instead of the traditional urban planning approach with the support of the World Bank.

The Habitat II in 1996, unlike Habitat I, had multiple spectra of people apart from the government representatives at Istanbul, including NGOs, CBOs, various institutions, academics, the private sectors and other urban practitioners (United Nations, 1996; Parnell, 2016). Also, Habitat II happened after the 1992 Rio Summit and four years leading to the millennium and the release of the MDGs. Hence, there were critical deliberations with a global commitment to several front burner challenges such as the right to adequate housing for all; the need to sustain human settlements; the need for enablement and participation towards the agenda; providing finances for shelter and human settlement development; proper monitoring; and promoting gender equality (UN-Habitat, 1996). Among many other sectoral issues, Habitat II primarily focussed on the right to adequate housing or shelter for all, which is entrenched in the UDHR. It is pertinent to note that the Global Shelter Strategy for the Year 2000 was promoted in 1998, after Habitat II; this is one of the follow-up actions based on the commitments to engender housing for all towards the millennium. Also, post Habitat II period saw increased scholarships and promotions around partnerships, gender and sustainable developments through the environment and urbanisation (UN-Habitat, 1996; Parnell, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019).

-United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development held in Quito, Ecuador in October 2016 – Habitat III

The NUA, which was unveiled at the Habitat III shortly after the SDG11, and which focuses on the city space, is the most recent GUA (UN-Habitat, 2016). The outcome of Habitat III is a result of lobbying by various interest groups, including city officials, governments, policymakers, NGOs and social activists (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017). Despite this level of contribution, such outcomes cannot be said to be an accurate reflection of participation by all governments and urban stakeholders based on divergent views. Although Habitat III produced the NUA with buy-ins from leaders of many nations and stakeholders in the urban environment, the outcome shows that there have been various shifts and compromises in the approach towards achieving or defining a global urban development agenda (Parnell, 2016). The various shifts are traceable from Habitat I through Habitat III, resulting in the NUA alongside the SDG11, which is centred on cities and urban centres as drivers of change and sustainable development (see Figure 2-6) (Bai *et al.*, 2016; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). Achieving a consensus due to levels of differential development, different political agitations and contextual divides across the globe was difficult, and the progression towards the SDGs and the NUA was described as "complex, intensive and political…yet highly innovative, inclusive and interactive" (Xue *et al*., 2018: 150). Cociña *et al.* (2019: 138) assert that the

period between the 2000 MDGs and NUA brought about considerable actors and transnational organisations, city networks and coalitions in "advocating for greater commitment to addressing urban equality as well as North/South dichotomies".

Considering the Habitat conferences (and the Earth summits that will be discussed shortly), there has been a common thread about the importance of urban centres and cities in the (urban) environmental sustainability discourse. It is coming through in NUA-Habitat III that cities are not just sites or platforms for sustainable development but also catalysts and drivers to achieve sustainable human and environmental development (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Satterthwaite, 2016; Watson, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017). Apart from the numerous possibilities and opportunities that cities offer, they are equally the recipient of global challenges such as inadequate housing, climate change and unemployment (Acuto *et al.*, 2017; Curtis and Acuto, 2018). Hence, a lot of significance and relevance rest on cities to achieve global sustainability. Cities have become a significant player in international discourse with the rise of cities in international agendas and global frameworks (Acuto *et al.*, 2017; Curtis and Acuto, 2018; Kosovac *et al.*, 2020).

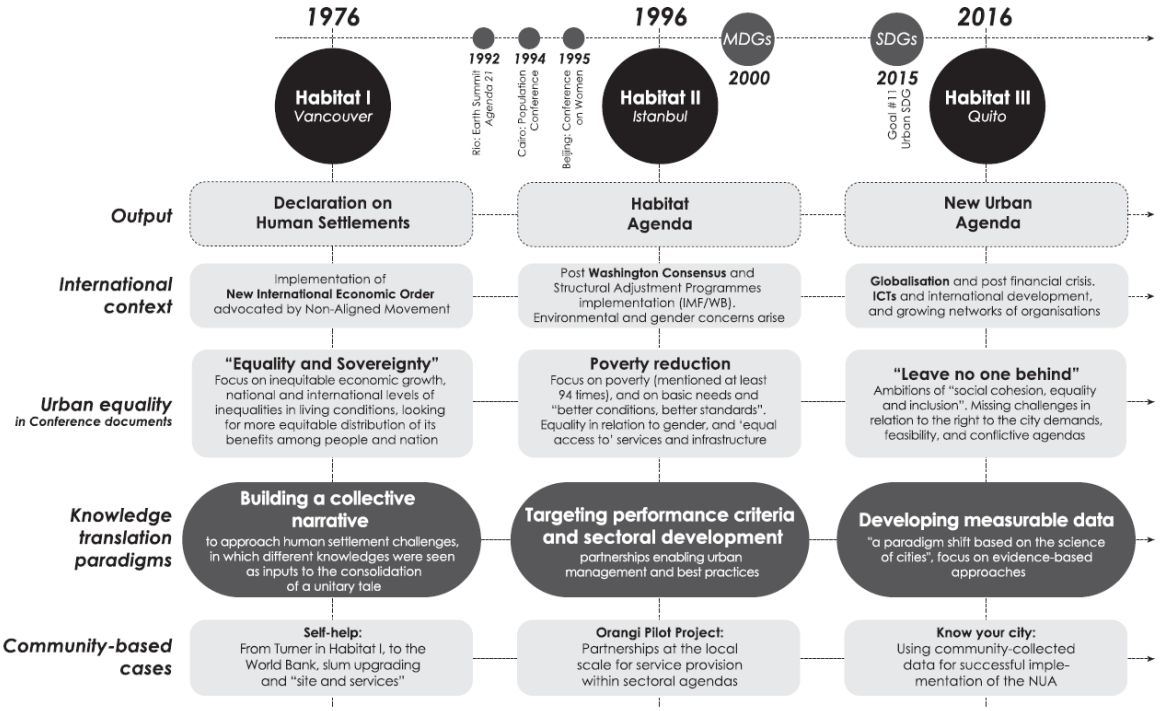
While Habitat II entrenched the right to housing for all, Habitat III brought a detour by embedding the right to the city instead, promoting equal access, poverty eradication, equality and gender mainstreaming. Habitat II showed a progression from Habitat I when UNCHS was initially created as a research centre. However, Habitat III shows a departure from certain words, and concepts with contradictions, with caution placed on words and concepts observed in Habitat II and III (Watcher *et al.*, 2018; Cociña *et al.*, 2019; Housing and Land Right Network and Habitat International Coalition, 2020). Rodríguez & Sugranyes (2017: 165) described the NUA document as a "wishful thinking (which was) based neither on the present nor the past; it does not assess the accomplishment of the Istanbul commitments or the new emerging problems; its sounds as appealing to the magical thought". Concerning city significance and the right to the city in the NUA, it was cleverly crafted as the shared vision:

> "*We share a vision of cities for all, referring to the equal use and enjoyment of cities and human settlements, seeking to promote inclusivity and ensure that all inhabitants, of present and future generations, without discrimination of any kind, are able to inhabit and produce just, safe, healthy, accessible, affordable, resilient and sustainable cities and human settlements to foster prosperity and quality of life for all. We note the efforts of some national and local governments to enshrine this vision, referred to as right to the city, in their legislation, political declarations and charters*" (UN-Habitat, 2016: 5).

Five decades after the French sociologist/philosopher Henry Lefebvre articulated the concept of 'right to the city', the concept continues to generate contentions and arguments on city rights, as also seen in the deliberations leading up to the NUA (Parnell, 2016). Although the phrase 'right to the city' is

becoming a buzzword amongst urban scholars and city rights movements in promoting the right of the urban poor in influencing the city formation, the right to the city is still relevant in urban discourse in safeguarding all the city stakeholders.

Figure 2-6: Shifts in the Habitat Agendas



Source: Cociña *et al*., 2019

The city space plays such a significant role in the urban setting, with many actors and players demanding a fair chance in city-building, which is well captured in Habitat II. According to Hardoy and Satterthwaite (2014: 301), "cities have become centres where vast numbers of people compete for the most basic elements of life". The citizens compete within the cities for an affordable shelter close to their source of livelihood or a place to build their dream home; for places where there is an availability of quality education, medical treatment and access to water; for a place where mobility is relatively planned; and where there are vast opportunities for jobs and employment. All these competitions in the life of a city make it a vector for change towards sustainable development (Parnell, 2016). The right to the city advocated for by Lefebvre speaks beyond an individual's right to the city and its resources but more of a collective right in reshaping the city as urbanisation occurs (Harvey, 2008). Thus, the focus in Habitat III is on the city and communities where housing is seen as a significant part of the sustainable city discourse. However, Habitat III did not adequately address the right to access housing in the city as featured in Habitat II and the Global Strategy for Shelter. Figure 2-6 shows other political and knowledge framing shifts across the three Habitat conferences.

In regard to committing to human rights or making a commitment on behalf of the government, Habitat III is less-committal and non-binding on the local authorities with subtle use of phrases, such as 'shared vision; we will foster, promote, strive' compared to Habitat II (United Nations, 1996; Parnell, 2016; UN-Habitat, 2016; Cociña *et al.*, 2019). Housing and Land Right Network and Habitat International Coalition (2020) notes that while Habitat I and Habitat II committed to a balanced connection between urban and rural development, Habitat III brought about more divergent views, which may be attributed to differences in opinion and the manner of delibrations. However, the NUA-Habitat III is primarily focussed on the urban context, which excludes investments in rural human settlements, thus leaving some people behind.

2.8 United Nations conferences on the environments (Earth Summits) and sustainable development

Similar to the UN-Habitat conferences, the UN has also sponsored sustainable development conferences every ten years since 1972; the UNEP pioneered these to support programmes and debates on the environment, particularly on sustaining the Earth. The first of these conferences was the United Nations Conference on Human Environment (UNCHE), held in Stockholm, Sweden, in June 1972. Other conferences are the Earth Summit or Nairobi Convention, held in Nairobi, Kenya in May 1982; the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in June 1992; the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg, South Africa in August-September 2002; and the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development/Rio+20 (UNCSD) also held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in June 2012.

For the first time, the Stockholm conference brought together world leaders to discuss and pay attention to the human environment (Sullivan, 1972). The need to pay more attention to the environment was flagged due to dire concern that the Earth's finite resources to sustain humanity amidst urbanisation and unequal treatment given to the environment by the poor and the more affluent countries (Sullivan, 1972; Holdgate *et al.*, 1982). The UNCHE with the Stockholm Declaration and action plans laid the foundation for the subsequent Earth summits, the synergy between the environment and sustainable development, and MDGs, the Paris Agreement and SDGs. The Declaration rightly notes humans' duty to live freely and be responsible for preserving, protecting and safeguarding the external environment for this generation and future generations. Specific attention was drawn to the atmosphere, the lithosphere, marine environment, inland waters, agriculture for food sustenance, preservation of forests and terrestrial biota and inland waters in relation to population growth and human settlements (Holdgate *et al.*, 1982). The Declaration highlighted the implication of environmental management for health, energy use and production, industries and transportation.

Scherr and Gregg (2006) note that many developing countries were contending with economic issues in the 1980s while it was evident to them the need to address environmental challenges at the same time

amidst possible solutions. Hence, they experienced serious conflict between protecting their environment and economic growth amid a growing population (*ibid.)*. This ever-increasing concern pulls on the dimensions of the environment for preservation and protection, the need to sustain the economy of different states, and balance society and social concerns. The Nairobi Convention followed the same trends as the Stockholm conference with the commemoration and evaluation of the decade of the Stockholm Declaration and the action plans (Adams Jr and Martinez-Aragon, 1992). The leaders present were charged to follow through with the action plan stating the need for the government at various levels to protect and safeguard the environment with focus on new trends.

To follow-up with the Nairobi Convention, the UNGA in 1983 appointed the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), chaired by the Prime Minister of Norway, Gro Harlem Brundtland (*ibid.*: 10191). In this regard, it is pertinent to mention that the 1987 Brundtland's Report – Our Common Future, which added a new dimension to issues around sustainability, human settlements and human environment, with the introduction of the 'sustainable development' concept (Brundtland, 1987). The Brundtland Report defined sustainable development as the "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (*ibid*: 43). The WCED Report addressed issues pertaining to humanity's basic needs (food, clothing and shelter/housing), poverty, equity for all, balancing human consumption, production, and replenishment of environmental and environmental resources (*ibid.*). As such, the WCED Report paved the way for the magnitude, momentum and success of the 1992 third Earth Summit.

The 1992 UNCED held in Rio de Janeiro, founded on the first Earth Summit, birthed three key documents: the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development; the Statement of Forest Principles; and Agenda 21. Local Agenda 21 brings together the three pillars of sustainable development, emphasising the role of the local institutions as a major arm for implementation (Evans and Theobald, 2003). Agenda 21 comprises four sections. Firstly, the integration of the environment into social and economic dimensions of sustainable development; secondly, the conservation and management of resources for development (United Nations Division for Sustainable Development, 1992). The last two sections address the fostering of the role of core stakeholders, and lastly, the means of implementation toward the 21st century (*ibid.*). A close look at Agenda 21 and the 17 SDGs shows similarities and progression in the scholarship of global agendas. Even though the process involved formulating the Agenda 21 involved many national governments and large transnational organisations, Doyle (1998) argued that the core position reflected in the document does not represent a universal case but that which was significantly fashioned after leaders or the global North. He argues that beyond the frontiers of promoting sustainable development through the agenda, "it also advances the globalisation of radical libertarian market systems, along with United States (US) style 'apolitical' pluralist systems of democracy" (*ibid.*: 771).

The third Earth Summit birthed the following Conventions: the Convention on Biological Diversity; United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification; and United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The UNFCCC became the bedrock for the 1997 Kyoto Protocol and 2015 Paris Agreement on the massive global challenge of climate change that caused the entire globe to have a fair share of its consequences in contending with human activities and increased greenhouse gases.

Owing to the position of Doyle (1998: 771) on "US style 'apolitical' pluralist systems of democracy" and the dichotomy between the global North and the South, the then US president was evidently absent at the 1982 Nairobi Convention and the 2002 WSSD in Johannesburg. Scherr and Gregg (2006: 425) state that the WSSD

> "*meeting produced no new treaties, no new international institutions, and no major new financial commitments. At the time, many labelled the Summit a failure and expressed particularly great disappointment with the lack of US leadership*".

This argument strengthens the point made earlier on the influence of certain actors and institutions toward the success of GUA. However, the Johannesburg Summit revealed implementation challenges due to many governments' failure to adhere to previous commitments and promises to achieve sustainable development. James Gustave Speth of Red Sky at Morning, while expressing his concerns about implementation failure, noted that

> "*we have analysed, debated, discussed, and negotiated these issues endlessly. My generation is a generation, I fear, of great talkers, overly fond of conferences. On action, however, we have fallen far short. As a result., the threatening global trends highlighted a quarter-century ago continue to this day*" (*ibid*: 430).

Also, the WSSD was peculiar because it was held in the early 21st century, shortly after the commitment of global leaders to the MDGs where there was global awareness of development goals. The WSSD saw discussions around ecologising politics, politicking the ecology, peace and religion around implementing sustainable development agenda. Scherr and Gregg (2006: 432) state that the "effective implementation (of these summits) requires that clear duties and authority be assigned or created and that knowledgeable official with the requisite commitment, skills, authority, and resources be identified and empowered" (*sic*). The Summit produced many partnerships to implement Agenda 21 with action plans to implement environmental goals and leaders being spurred towards accountability (*ibid.*).

The most recent Earth Summit, UNCSD, popularly referred to as Rio+20, was held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, precisely 20 years after the UNCED. The goal behind Rio+20 was to ignite new commitment from leaders of various governments toward sustainable development, evaluate the output and implementation of previous commitments, and look into emerging development issues (Linnér and Selin, 2013). Rio+20 was significant as a precursor in defining the 2015 SDG institutional framework.

Also, it focussed on promoting a green economy in regard to sustainable development and poverty eradication (*ibid.*). Some green city concepts as promoted today, such as the green economy, efficient city, smart city, sustainable city, compact city and resilient city, were also set in motion. Rio+20 provided another platform to review the first Rio, Agenda 21 and evaluate the MDGs towards the SDGs. Linnér and Selin (2013) note that UN/UNEP's Earth Summits and conferences have continued to be the critical element in global agenda-setting in regard to the SDGs traceable to the Stockholm conference. However, there have been implementation gaps in the political and institutional framework to bring these agendas to fruition despite the increasing nature of how the world is experiencing global challenges and urbanisation.

Lastly, the UNCSD marked the era that ended the MDGs and preceded the SDGs and the Paris Agreement in 2015. The Paris Climate Agreement was drafted in December 2015 in line with the UNFCCC to globally combat climate change's threat and ravaging effects with responses from every member state beyond the talks. As contained in Article 2 of the 2015 Paris Agreement, it aims to enhance and achieve a collective response in addressing issues of poverty and climate change towards sustainable development by:

> "*(a) Holding the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels and pursuing efforts to limit the temperature increase to 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels, recognising that this would significantly reduce the risks and impacts of climate change; (b) Increasing the ability to adapt to the adverse impacts of climate change and foster climate resilience and low greenhouse gas emissions development, in a manner that does not threaten food production; and (c) Making finance flows consistent with a pathway towards low greenhouse gas emissions and climate-resilient development. 2. This Agreement will be implemented to reflect equity and the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities, in the light of different national circumstances*" (UNFCCC, 2015: 3).

Practically, it is expected by this treaty that every country will come with their particular contributions towards maintaining global warming temperature well below two degrees (2°C) with efforts further to reduce it to 1.5°C (*ibid.*). The biggest culprit to the menace of climate change happens to be greenhouse gases, hence the need to reduce the global temperature with a country-specific determined contribution towards mitigation, adaptation, gas reservoirs and sinks, awareness, and institutional finance to tackle climate change (*ibid.*). The next section addresses the two predominant goals of the UN.

2.9 United Nations development goals

Robert *et al*. (2005: 11) note that themes such as "peace, freedom, development and environment" have been the leading global concerns and aspirations since the beginning of the 20th century, and they have found different expressions up till present times. The outcomes of World Wars One and Two called for

global peace and the need to address matters relating to colonisation and human rights infringement to bring about freedom across nationals (Weiss and Wilkinson, 2014; Weiss, 2015). Furthermore, problems around poverty, inequality, underdevelopment and the need to safeguard and preserve the environment based on the activities of making in the human settlements brought about sustainable development concept (Brundtland, 1987; Robert *et al.*, 2005). However, these themes have newer expressions in poverty, unparallel inequality, new forms of colonisation, global North and South division, migration, climate change, World War Three threats, terrorism and matters relating to global urban sustainability. Owing to these global challenges and after many deliberations, the head of governments under the auspices of the UNGA adopted the Millennium Developments Goals in September 2000, towards the end of the 20th century to mark a new beginning for the 21st century. The MDGs were a set of eight global goals with 21 targets and 60 statistical indicators to measure progress and level of implementation with a 15-year timeline. The MDGs set out to achieve the goals as shown in Figure 2-7.

Figure 2-7: 2000 – United Nations Millennium Development Goals



Source: United Nations, 2015

Global issues discussed by the leaders and various heads of government leading to the MDGs vary in number and dimension; hence, the need to group the development goals into similar issues. Remarkably, MDG 7 combined the human environment and human settlements concerns as a pathway towards environmental sustainability (United Nations, 2015). The targets are: "Target 7A: Integrate the

principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources; Target 7B: Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss; Target 7C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation; and Target 7D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers" (*ibid.*:para 15). While the MDGs had a 15-year timeline for monitoring and implementation, the MDG Target 7D had a timeframe of 20 years till 2020 due to the phenomenon of slums and informal settlements (Jenkins *et al.*, 2006).

Unlike previous goals and agendas, the MDGs set a new phase of international development with commitments of leaders to address pertinent issues with periodic reporting and monitoring. Langford *et al.* (2013) identified five areas where the MDGs impacted the world and caused significant progression, affecting poverty, hunger, health and other global concerns. Firstly, it was universally adopted with global discourses in regard to poverty strategy discussions and promises made by the richer nations to support the cause. Secondly, member states adopted the MDGs, which resulted in locally defined goals, targets and indicators to monitor progress. During the MDGs period, there were scenarios in certain countries with undefined implementation paths. Thirdly, leaders of various governments allocated resources to the goals and reported progress, especially in health, water provision and primary education. Fourthly, there were forms of aberrations as against what is expected with different interpretations. Lastly, the world saw some acceleration and progression in the fight against poverty even though there were variations.

Despite the progress and achievements made in some goals and regions, it was also criticised on many grounds. Parnell (2016) argued that the failure of the MDGs in developing countries could be attributed to their non-universal nature, considering the global Northern and global Southern divide. As part of the measures to achieve the MDGs and Goal 8, the global North and rich countries "agreed to provide greater amounts of aids and debts relief, create a more responsive trade system, and place increased development focus on the poor and small-islands developing states" (Groce *et al*., 2013: 1). This subtle agreement seemed to have been short-lived as many member states were unable to implement these goals due to their incapacity and minimal support. Also, in regard to Target 7D, while significant improvement has been achieved in the lives of 100 million slum dwellers, many more 100s of millions of slums and informal settlements dwellers were added to the previous stock globally because of urbanisation and neoliberal policies. So, while a country such as China could have singlehandedly achieved this target, a country like Nigeria as well as many other developing countries would have made the target a failure. Hence, the criticism in the crafting of the goals. By and large, the MDGs catalysed a process that led to the SDGs.

At the 70/71st UNGA meeting in September 2015, 193 member states (including Nigeria and many other African countries) adopted 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) with 169 targets, with the

theme: ‘Transforming our World’ towards 2030 (UN-Habitat, 2015). These goals, like the MDGs, address issues of poverty, hunger, inequality, social justice, urbanisation, environment and other global concerns in more excellent dimensions to sustain global development across the world and actualise a better future for everyone (*ibid.*). Particularly, standalone goals for specific global problems and challenges. The 17 SDGs to transform the world are captured in Figure 2-8, and these are the final outcomes of the 70/71st UNGA based on numerous deliberations and meetings (Revi, 2014). Contrary to the MDGs in Figure 2-7 where most of the goals were grouped together, the SDGs brought about a standalone goal for poverty, hunger, climate, sustainable cities and communities. This is commendable in having separate standalone goals; although left to many representatives at the UNGA, they would have wanted more than 17 SDGs (*ibid.*). Parnell (2016) notes that the SDGs as a developmental agenda has shifted from the previous agendas. For the first time, the SDGs create a universal agenda that cuts across the global North and South irrespective of financial capabilities, alongside global finance discussions on implementing, monitoring and financing these goals (*ibid.*). These financial shortcomings affected the implementation and outcomes of Agenda 21 and the MDGs. Also, the 17 SDGs are premised upon the interrelatedness of the three pillars of sustainability, social, economic and environmental dimensions, with an awareness that Earth resources are finite and the need to conserve the Earth is paramount. Notably, among the goals for this study is the SDG11, which is urban, city and community-based against grouping it with the urban environment or other global goals.

The SDG11 aims to “make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable” (UN-Habitat, 2015: 12). This SDG11 was later adopted at the Habitat III conference in Quito in 2016 as the NUA to drive the global urban development agenda across all human settlements for member states (UN-Habitat, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017). Notably, development goals such as the MDGs and the SDGs are time-bound for a 15-year window, unlike the Habitat agendas that are timeless beyond the 20 years. Consequently, there will be SDG reviews towards 2030 by the global leaders and what next will be decided.

Figure 2-8: 2015 Sustainable Development Goals



Source: UN-Habitat, 2015

2.10 Monitoring frameworks underpinning the SDG11 and the NUA

To measure progress and compliance with the global goals and agendas, specific frameworks have been developed to assess the implementation and monitoring of the GUA, particularly the SDG11 (and broad SDGs) and the NUA. The UN and allied organisations use the concepts of targets and indicators as a measurement standard for different countries to measure (non-)compliance and report progress for the goals and agendas (UN-Habitat, 2015; United Nations, 2015; Fukuda-Parr and McNeill, 2019; Valencia *et al.*, 2019). Fukuda-Parr and McNeill (2019: 6) described the targets as "a time-bound quantitative outcome to be achieved that sets benchmarks of performance"; and the indicators as "a measurement tool to monitor progress" of the goals. As a result of the shortcoming with the 2000-MDGs, the SDGs took on ambitious additional goals, targets and indicators with 17 SDGs, 169 targets and 232 indicators against the previous MDG 8 global goals with 21 targets and 60 statistical indicators to measure progress (Valencia *et al.*, 2019). The UN-Habitat employs the current five-year voluntary national reviews reporting standard where every country submits a report according to a particular set of criteria and questions (Croese *et al.*, 2021).

Giving the same level playing grounds, targets and indicators through the global goals and agendas, to countries will help them strive to improve their global standards and ratings, and to compete with other countries. However, underlying challenges affect each country's ability to implement the SDG11 and the NUA reporting standard; these challenges range from the population, geographical size, available resources and forms of governance. While these targets and indicators can give a sense of progress, Fukuda-Parr and McNeill (2019: 6) contend that they can "distort the meaning of social norms, create

perverse incentivism frame hegemonic discourses and disrupt power structures" considering different contexts and peculiarities to implement the reporting standards. Also, it is difficult for many national statistical institutions to apply the SDG indicator framework without adequate resources, which is a function of big data (*ibid.*). Cities and countries with a high level of poverty and informality will have difficulties collecting and aggregating data, except in formal places where there is an available mechanism for collecting data (Valencia *et al.*, 2019). Again, Croese *et al.* (2021) note that the national voluntary reports carried out by many countries are done without the input of the sub-national and local governments, which is not a true reflection of the actual situation countrywide. Invariably, there are some challenges with the monitoring frameworks seeing that it has been about six years since the adoption of the SDGs and NUA.

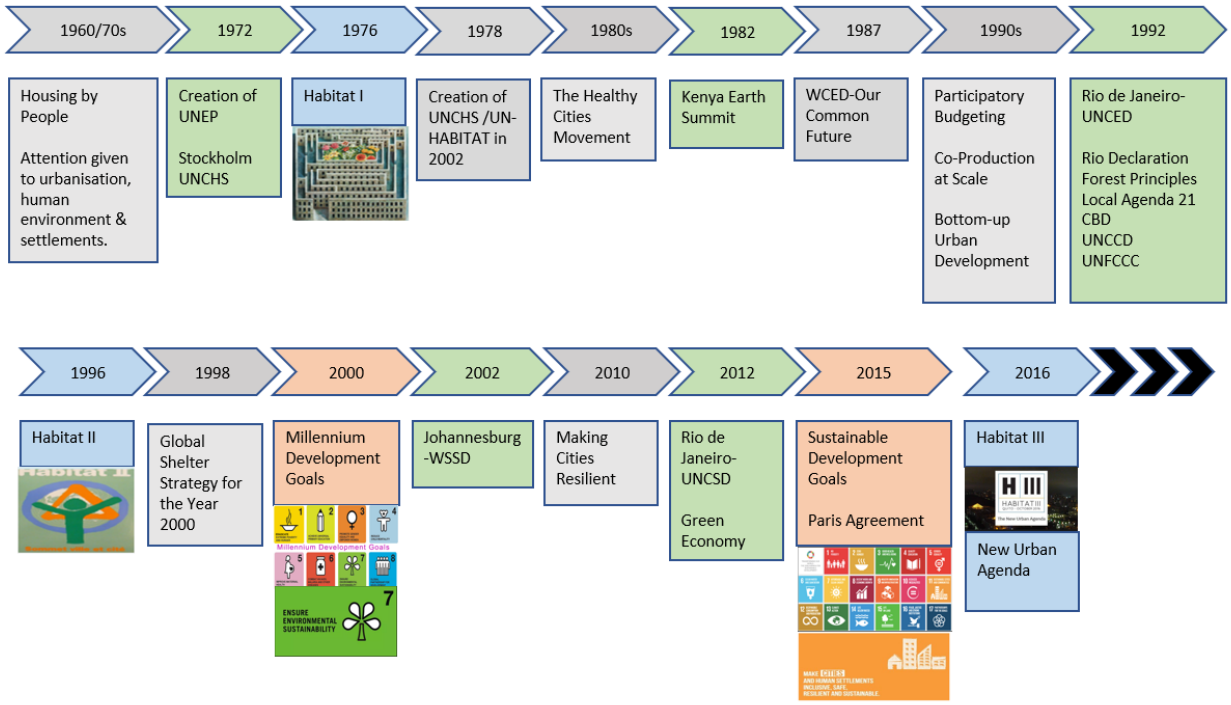
2.11 Housing and urban shifts in the global urban agendas

In reference to the introduction in section 1.11 and agendas discussed in previous sections, this section presents the timelines in relation to various housing and urban shifts to the prevailing SDG11 and the NUA. The SDG11 and many global agendas promote inclusivity in human settlements by providing housing for every citizen as the demand is ever-increasing. Mainly, targets 11.1 and 11.3 of the SDG11 relate to housing and human settlements directly, unlike the MDG Target 7, which focussed on improving slum dwellers' lives until 2020. The SDG Target 11.1 aims to "ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums". In contrast, Target 11.3 aims to "enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanisation and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries" (United Nations, 2015: 18). Watcher *et al*. (2018: 2) argue and state that promoting the right "housing policies and interventions are integral of a holistic vision of urban areas contributing to inclusion, resilience and sustainability" as envisioned in the SDG11 and the NUA.

Figure 2-9 shows the timeline of various housing and urban events beyond the UN and the significant shifts in focus and trends of urban agendas and agreements globally as it relates to housing, human settlements and the environment. Satterthwaite (2016) highlights the urban agenda shifts from what was termed 'Housing by the People' (by John Turner) in the late 1960s to the 1970s with the involvement of the World Bank promoting urban works, sites and services, slum upgrading to the birth of Habitat I by UN-Habitat. In the 1980s, the healthy cities concept was promoted with the SAPs as a bailout to support many developing economies facing abject poverty, market approach to issues and macro-economy promotions by the World Bank (*ibid*). The 1990s brought about co-production at scale, participatory budgeting, bottom-up urban development, Habitat II, the promotion of Global Shelter Strategy for the Year 2000 (Housing for All by the year 2000) and the adoption of MDGs (*ibid*). By 2000, the MDGs were in force to achieve resilient cities and 'cities without slums' (MDG#7D Target 11). There was also the elevation of the UN Centre for Human Settlements to a full programme. And in

2015, the eight MDGs metamorphosed into 17 SDGs. At Habitat III, the SDG11 was adopted as the urban sustainable development goal for cities as the NUA.

Figure 2-9: Timeline of Global Urban Agendas



Source: Author's construct

In all these shifts and changes in development goals since the 1960s, there is a harmony between the human settlements and the environment towards a sustainable human settlement with periodic evaluations of previous goals. At present, the SDGs are the most all-encompassing singular global agenda that cuts across all spheres of life, targeting 2030. In all of this, the housing agenda is critical due to growing concerns about population growth and urbanisation worldwide. While most studies have shown that population growth will happen predominantly in Africa and Asia, other studies have shown that there is equal growth in the level of homelessness and substandard housing around the globe beyond the global South (Tipple and Speak, 2005; Busch-Geertsema *et al.*, 2016; Mtapuri and Lindelihle Myeni, 2019). Hence, the need to advocate for and sustain housing and human settlements with the right policies and agendas, especially for people in the lower cadre of human settlements and societies.

2.12 Conclusion

It is pertinent to create the imperative to successfully implement these agendas and rights at the local level beyond the development goals, fora and conferences. According to Aromar Revi in Parnell (2016: 530), "we do not fully comprehend the scale and gravity of the task ahead on implementing the #urbanSDGs". One of the biggest global debates in the urban space currently focuses on implementing the SDG11 and localising the NUA beyond the policy documents and reports. More so, the 2030

Agenda and the UN Declaration of 2020-2030 as the decade of action of the SDGs have been hampered by the Covid-19 pandemic worldwide, and every country is trying their best to navigate the new norms and realities. Similarly, Xue *et al*. (2018) argue that implementing the SDGs for UN member states creates a greater challenge than the UNGA outcome where countries agree, ratify and sign these declarations. Having established that the process that led to this agreement of the SDGs was described as "complex, intensive and political … yet highly innovative, inclusive and interactive" (*ibid.*: 150). It is thus argued that, based on the rigorous and complex process, the implementation of these goals and the NUA should be a simple process with minimal challenges. However, many cities and countries, especially in the global South, are still trying to comprehend it and localise the NUA based on the realities, intersections and complexities of the agenda at local levels. While there are various sustainable and urban agendas, there have also been various housing policy shifts and agendas since the 1960s due to urbanisation, population growth and other pressing global concerns. Housing remains a basic human and physiological need beyond all other global concerns. Its inadequacy is a reflection of urban poverty and the manifestation of other societal challenges across the globe within the broad frame of global agendas.

3 CHAPTER THREE – THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS

3.1 Introduction to the theoretical and conceptual framing

This study is rooted within the concepts of normative theories of planning, institutional rational choice theory, globalisation theories, global governance and policy implementation. The problem described in this research pertains to implementing global urban agendas at local levels and can best be explained using certain theories. This research seeks to understand where global agendas intersect with urban housing and human settlements at local levels, interrogating convergence and divergence towards implementation. Understanding how these global policies came to be, their adoption, ratification and implementation at local levels provide a lens for this study. These agendas travel and experience implementation challenges in different climes; their failure to yield the expected result is more evident in some geographical regions than others, especially in the global South. This phenomenon can be attributed to specific contextual urban challenges, prevailing urban policies and urban governance. These theories explain the reasons necessitating the intersections or complexities between what is advocated for through global policies and what is implemented at the grassroots through practice. Sabatier (1991) asserts that attention must be given to theories that affect policy design and implementations in government institutions, especially in regard to actors, their behaviour and the tiers of government. These theories are scholarships emanating from knowledge acumen, from public policy scholars and political scientists of certain institutions in government (*ibid*). While many other theories could be considered, this theoretical framework is tailored around the promoters of the SDG11 and the NUA, how it is derived and established on certain norms and what is expected in the human settlements. These agendas and goals are discussed leading up to to a global conference with all forms of advocacy and deliberations for global acceptance among representatives. Beyond the acceptance and global adoption of these urban agendas, the mode of implementation and the rationality of the actors come to play in the midst of specific geopolitical context that either impair or promote the realisation of the goals and agendas.

3.2 Significance of theory to research

Theories play significant roles in guiding, explaining and providing a framework or a background that underpins a research work, whether quantitative, qualitative or mixed-method research (Creswell, 2009). Venable (2006) defines theory as statements of knowledge that have been established over time and are used to explain certain practical and abstract occurrences, while researchers can prove to what degree their propositions are true or false and create new statements of knowledge known as grounded theory. Sabatier (2007: 321) describes “a theory as a logically related set of propositions that seek to explain a fairly general set of phenomena”. Beyond theories proving an explanation, theories are usually tested in quantitative research or help to show relationships between variables. The use of theories in

qualitative research varies from defining assumptions, explaining, providing research insights, predicting, understanding phenomena, challenging the status quo, extending frontiers of knowledge and understanding data (Creswell, 2009; Collins and Stockton, 2018). Again, theories can be developed based on the methods used and findings, also previously established theories can be contrasted based on new results (Sabatier, 2007). Lindenberg (1992) notes that a good theory will have certain norms for judging its efficacy and applicability. It must be logically coherent in different scenarios, there has to be clarity in causal agents and process relationships, and lastly, it "should be clear and relatively broad" (*ibid:* 322). While theories cannot be tested in research, the propositions are subjected to being proven true or false.

Consequently, Collins & Stockton (2018: 2) defined a "theoretical framework as the use of a theory (or theories) in a study that simultaneously conveys the deepest values of the researcher(s) and provides a clearly articulated signpost or lens for how the study will process new knowledge". William (2006) posits that a theoretical framework for every research study is specific with concepts and definitions that relate to the topic with theories or a theory from different fields that can help provide lenses to understand the research problem. A theoretical research framework clarifies epistemological dispositions, identifies the reasoning for choosing the research methods and designs, builds new theories from findings and largely frames a research study by the researcher (Wacker, 1998; Collins and Stockton, 2018). Many scholarships on research designs suggest that while many established theories span across different fields, theoretical frameworks are not readily available on the shelf (Venable, 2006; Yin, 2009; Silverman, 2013; Collins and Stockton, 2018). It is pertinent for the researcher to demonstrate an understanding of related and suitable existing theories and concepts that relate and are relevant to the research topic, except in a case where the research aims to build a new theory as in grounded theory (*ibid*). The theories and concepts guiding GUA implementation and practice are discussed below, starting with the theoretical basis underpinning housing agendas, followed by the theoretical framework guiding this study.

3.3 The theoretical basis for global urban housing agendas and the right to housing

Housing as a word (noun or verb) or a topic is multifaceted, and it might connote a different meaning depending on the context to either refer to a physical habitable structure (brick and mortar) or the act of providing physical habitable structures (Ruonavaara, 2018). In this study, housing will also connote the same meaning as a house, home, shelter, accommodation and dwelling place to provide shelter from the outdoor environment and with some level of tenure security. Housing plays a substantial part in urban agendas and development, which partly explains why UN-Habitat (2016) advocates for housing to be the centre of urban policies to achieve sustainable cities. There has been an increase globally in housing inadequacies recently, which has resulted in various housing policies and affordable housing provisions in many countries (Choguill, 1996; 2007; Kushner, 2010; Opoko and Oluwatayo, 2014). Gilbert (2014) noted that housing (shelter) policies in the early 20th century were aimed at providing

hygienic environments to prevent the spread of diseases and evictions, and doing away with unhealthy human settlements. Also, governments in different countries enforced rent control to prevent exploitation of the poor, which later had dire consequences on rental housing and investments. Furthermore, the government provided free houses to the urban poor, but it was not sustainable due to very high housing demand, and government resources were dwindling. Hence, this housing policy failed due to the long waiting list, corruption in house allocation by the officials and building of substandard houses due to mass production to save construction costs (*ibid*.). Eventually, most governments adopted the self-help housing approach advocated by John Turner in the 1960s while also turning blind eyes to land invasions and further sub-divisions of private lands by property owners (Turner, 1972a; 1972b).

The periods after the 1980s saw a new trend in housing policies and housing provision with the influx of private sector-led development through the introduction of neoliberal policies in urban governance to address housing deficits (Gilbert, 2014). This move to change the housing policy approach was strongly supported by the World Bank and the IMF with the injection of massive funds into housing sectors (*ibid.).* However, this move led to the death of many existing public-led housing corporations and also created a new problem of poverty growth and inequality for the citizens who could not afford to buy the houses or keep up with the loan or bond payments. With new challenges come new approaches and previous housing policies and agendas. Notably, this timeline coincides with the agendas around the 1990s with the 1988 United Nations Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000, Habitat II, the MDGs and UNDP approaches to human settlements.

By the turn of the millennium, housing challenges persist globally but are reflected more in developing countries which is a reflection of urban poverty and inequality (Gilbert, 2014). This period saw approaches such as political housing support, participation, pro-poor housing development, enablement, sustainable housing provision, urban management, finance-driven housing investment, promotion of tenure security, and upgrading of slums and informal settlements (Majale and United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2011; Gilbert, 2014). Monkkonen (2018) argues that challenges around housing policies globally are political in nature as many housing policies have failed to address the diverse population groups to the detriment of the vulnerable citizens and urban poor. As rightly pointed out by Satterthwaite (2018: 408), we have over 45 years of failed promises and agendas in housing and human settlements since Habitat I in 1976, when many government representatives committed to the "universal provision for water and sanitation". Unfortunately, the global challenges and dimensions in housing and human settlements have changed considerably since 1976. While there are accounts of failed urban promises and housing goals, cities in Latin America (unlike Africa and Asia) have achieved some remarkable success through the urban (local) governments as a result of collaborations between the people and civil societies (Gilbert, 2014; Satterthwaite, 2018). Again, this points to the progress achieved through co-production and not the top-down governance approach in many cities without the support of the people. Monkkonen (2018:168) asserts that instead of many governments in the global

South focusing on housing subsidies and other approaches, which are good but never enough, efforts should be directed towards "urban and planning policies, legal systems, and social movements" in addressing housing deficits. His assertion is based on the notion that mass production of houses and urban upgrading of human settlements often fail to benefit the poor, and most times, upgraded communities are gentrified in the short run.

The multidimensional nature of housing stems from the linguistic ambiguity of the term 'housing', which could connote different things and meaning depending on the contextual usage (Ruonavaara, 2018). Therefore, theory(ies) of housing will equally connote several suppositions to explain the broad sense of the object, concept, practice, provision, policies and phenomena relating to housing. Owing to the complex, multidisciplinary, and many-sided nature of housing, it is difficult to theorise on housing directly, but theories can be developed around closed disciplines and related fields (Kemeny, 2003; King, 2003; Ruonavaara, 2018). Ruonavaara (2018) posits that housing theories can be categorised as theories of housing, theories relating to housing and theories emanating from housing. Theories of housing would refer to suppositions of housing studies relating to all housing topics, which consist of housing materiality and its provisions (*ibid*). Secondly, theories about housing are suppositions concerning housing from other disciplines and fields of study; here, sociological theories come into play. Lastly, theory from housing consists of theories by "scrutinising the nature of housing as a special activity and experience, which may involve the reflections on our housing everyday use and experience or analysis of the specificity of housing as a research topic" (*ibid.*: 180). These will relate to housing quality appraisal, resident experiences and satisfaction. Beyond housing, housing studies is related to architecture, anthropology, planning, sociology and other fields (Ruonavaara, 2018). Despite previous housing scholarships, "the theoretical development of housing research remains rudimentary and leaves much to be desired … a central problem of much housing studies is that it remains a myopic and narrow focus on housing policy and markets and neglects broader issues" (Kemeny, 2003: 2). Similarly, Wells (2019) notes that housing is under-researched and theorists advocating for the right to housing only focus mainly on literature speaking to socio-economic rights. Kemeny asserts that good housing research in relation to social sciences will stem from the study of "the social, political, economic, cultural, and other institutions, and relationships that constitute the provision and the utilisation of dwellings" (Kemeny, 2003: 17). This study has considered issues raised by Kemeny above and in addition, examining the housing agenda and the right to housing as a broader issue that cuts across continents.

The significance of housing has been reiterated in the previous sections, which has also necessitated housing to be advocated for and featured in global agendas since the 1960s. Housing falls under human and international rights and is not a privilege for a selected few but covers everyone regardless of their social and economic status. Article 25 of the 1948 UDHR takes full cognisance of the right to an adequate standard of living within human settlements. It states that:

> "***everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for*** *the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing,* ***housing*** *and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control*".

While the African Charter does not expressly give voice to the right to housing, it takes cognisance of economic, social and cultural rights, the right to life, good health and property. The acknowledgement of these rights invariably accounts for the right to housing in the African Charter as codified by the African Commission based on the ruling between the Social and Economic Rights Action Centre and Nigeria in 2001. Similarly, Article 11 of the ICESCR guarantees the right to an adequate standard of living, and many countries have signed and ratified this agreement with the UN. Continental and international agendas establish that housing constitutes a fundamental human right that many countries have ratified. From the human rights perspective and the view of housing as a global agenda with countries agreeing and formulating urban policies, how realisable are these rights, and how does it affect the urban citizens in their environments, either in the urban or rural settlements?

Having justified the significance of housing and established that housing is a basic human need, not a luxury, the argument for the right to housing is first and foremost grounded in international and continental rights, treaties and declarations (Bengtsson, 2001). Wells (2019) and King (2003) posit that the right to housing is usually associated with policies for societal reforms and socio-economic claims from inadequate resources. King (2003), however, argues that housing as a fundamental human right is best presented as a freedom right that offers more acceptance beyond making any claim on socio-economic resources alongside limited resources for development planning *(ibid.*). He describes freedom right as a non-competitive right, likened to rights to life and property, seen as securing liberty and freedom for people. Bengtsson (2001) argues that the right to housing seeks to offer protection and freedom to access shelter for everyone, especially people who fall within the category of vulnerable and marginalised people, such as the elderly, poor people, non-citizens and immigrants. In its simplest form, a right to housing is one of the most humane and dignifying treatments that any government can extend to its people in seeking to address human welfare through housing (Gregor, 1997; King, 2003). It is generally believed that no sane person will choose to be homeless when there is access to or a house provision. According to the Massachusetts Episcopal Diocese's Episcopal City Mission Statement (cited in Hartman, 1998: 227-228) and along with the philosophical beliefs on humanity (Gregor, 1997), an argument for the right to housing is well captured as follows:

> *"Shelter in decent, affordable housing is not a luxury. It is a necessity upon which access to other necessities and the development of healthy, productive families and communities most often depend. Nothing is more essential to the welfare of men, women and children. Nothing is tied more directly to the recognition of the dignity, worth and values of persons. Because*

housing is so closely related to the welfare of persons and to recognition of their value as persons, nothing is a more basic right than the opportunity, regardless of income or class, to live in that kind of housing which supports the welfare of the family and community...Whether persons of limited income have access to adequate shelter is thus for us at its heart both a question of justice, and a religious and theological question of central importance"

King (2003) and Wells (2019) argue that categorising housing under socio-economic needs and rights alongside education and healthcare impedes realising the right to housing. This is because politicians use the excuse of inadequate socio-economic resources for not promoting the right to housing. However, housing is adjudicated as the most basic human and physiological need beyond the need for education, fulfilment or satisfaction (King, 2003; Maslow, 1954). Another reason that is cited for the non-adoption of the right to housing is the 'likely' sense of entitlement by the citizens to have access to free houses, and the possibility of the homeowners selling the housing afterwards (Berger, 1990; Hartman, 1998; Dwyer and Brown, 2008; Bradlow *et al.*, 2011). A case in point is the South African free Reconstruction and Development houses that were sold unofficially to wealthier citizens and the vicious corruption with the allocation malpractices by officials despite the positive initiative by government officials (Lemanski, 2010; Kang'ethe and Manomano, 2014; Makapela and Tanga, 2021). Irrespective of the possible behaviour of beneficiaries and officials, the government as an entity should engender the right to housing as well as monitor compliance across all. Hartman (1998), in his argument for the right to housing, concluded by stating that politicians and government personnel that reject the right to housing must be prepared for severe and radical future intervention if housing deficits become a recurring theme in human settlements. Also, what will be the fate and future of the homeowners and renters amid the homeless? These are issues of global concern. In all of these debates, housing as an entity has featured in the global debates with the call for housing for all and the right to housing as a basic human right and physiological need for survival. Theoretically, from all human perspectives, beyond the categorisation of housing as a socio-economic right, the benefits of engendering the right to housing for humanity far outweigh the consequences of homelessness in the sustainable development agenda.

3.4 Normative theories of planning and global agendas

Global agendas fall under the broad paradigm of normative theory (which is associated with planning) in the bid to promote equality across the globe irrespective of the stratification or sector. Jenkins *et al.* (2006: 325) defined a normative value or principle as "one that says how things should be and why they should be like that", which is difficult to prove or disprove as an expected norm. Morgenstern (1972) notes that the normative theory lies within the context of 'ought to' from what is implied, and the process cannot be said to follow a logical path given the different circumstances and the context that can alter the outcome. Hence, it gives room to many different outcomes based on what the norm should be and, in this case, different outcomes with implementing these global agendas. Decisions made by individuals or institutions are subjected to several normative systems based on an individual's value judgement and

‘faith’ that their action will yield the expected ‘ought to’ outcome, as it can play out in the application of normative theories (Morgenstern, 1972). As such, the theory (as an action) must be ‘absolutely convincing’ and acceptable to the implementer or implementing institutions with a degree of assurance, and then there can be a case of possible outcome (*ibid.*). Accepting and allowing normative theories will bring about specific social, economic, or political changes through actions and implementation. In this case, the adoption of global agendas needs buy-ins, acceptance and confidence for country leaders to be able to sign and ratify them. Also, the multilateral actors and government agents from the national government to the local authorities need to exercise some reliance and trust to realise global agendas in the long run.

Watson (2002) iterates the importance and applicability of normative planning theories in the global South context. This research and study area are in line with normative theories and hence, will be looking at the communicative (action) planning theory, the theory of planning in multicultural societies and the just city approach. Urban planning at a level beyond each state and the formation of global agendas via conferences and international relations also fall within the paradigm of normative theories in regard to how the world should be and steps that should the taken (Judge *et al.,* 1995). These normative theories are expressed through procedural planning theories, as alluded to by Watson (2002). The advocacy planning theory, communicative action (planning) theory, theory of planning in multicultural societies, and just city approach will be considered in the following sections as they relate to this study.

3.4.1 Advocacy planning theory

The advocacy planning theory's key proponents are Paul Davidoff, Linda Davidoff, Lisa Peattie and Marshall Kaplan, who believe that planning should promote justice and equity in a pluralistic society (Mazziotti, 1974; Checkoway, 1994). The advocacy planning model is premised on an unequal society or state with some level of marginalisation where all interests are not fully represented (Mazziotti, 1974; Checkoway, 1994). Hence, normative planning speaks or advocates for the public interest, on behalf of the underrepresented or marginalised society, on what planning as a tool can achieve, which will bring about a positive outcome when adopted plans, policies and agendas are seen through implementation. The proponents of advocacy planning emphasises the planners and planning profession to be pluralistic in nature serving all, and contend political domination where all interest groups must be accommodated (Davidoff, 1965; Mazziotti, 1974; Checkoway, 1994). Global institutions and agencies like the UN-Habitat employ an advocacy planning model by speaking for the global citizens through fora and conferences, persuading governments on the importance of adopting specific global policies and the possible consequences of not doing so. For instance, the UN-Habitat started as a research centre, and through Habitat conferences have advocated for the need for governments to pay attention to urbanisation patterns and the challenges that come with unplanned growth, especially in what was termed ‘developing countries’, and is now referred to as the global South. Similar advocacy calls have

been made in combatting global climate change menace, housing, hunger and poverty and other global challenges.

Paul Davidoff charges planning professionals "to promote participatory democracy and positive social change; to overcome poverty and racism as factors in society; and to reduce disparities between rich and poor, white and black, men and women" (Checkoway, 1994: 139). The things he advocated for in the 1960s and 1970s are still the subject of discussion globally in the 21st century, and most of these challenges form a significant chunk of the SDGs. This theory is criticised because of its difficulty to really represent all interest groups in a pluralistic society, thus, leading to some or significant neglect of a specific section in the society. The NUA, in its advocacy drive, has the significant phrase of "leaving no one behind", and this thesis argues extensively on the possibility of achieving this as a tall order where all interests will be captured and protected in the midst of the shared 'right to the city' contentions.

3.4.2 Communicative action (planning) theory

The key proponent of the communicative action theory (also known as communicative planning theory) or rationality associated with planning and social science is the German philosopher and sociologist Jürgen Habermas. His works span many social sciences. This theory's rationale stems from social action contest between two or more agents (interest groups) where communication can achieve social interaction with the possibility of achieving social order and change (Niemi, 2005). Beyond Davidoff's advocacy, where the marginalised voice is amplified, communicative rationality speaks of social interaction through democracy and public participation by all within the discourse community. According to Habermas (1984), the communicative rationality must ensure

> "*the representation of all major points of views, equalizing information among group members, and creating conditions within the group so that the force of argument can be the deciding factor rather than an individual's power outside the group*" (Innes, 1995: 187).

In simple terms, "the force of better argument" makes room for consensus and final rational decisions in matters of social discourse (Watson, 2002: 30). Hence, the language, representation, deliberations and agreement are pertinent in the social discourse for planners and the planning profession in achieving what can be termed communicative action. Watson (2002) stresses the need for planners, and in this case, actors formulating global agendas, to understand "the socio-spatial and political processes which shape the contexts" and the recurring dynamics where their work is situated (*ibid*: 28). Planning at the global scale for local implementation brings about its peculiarities and challenges due to different spaces and contentions. Global agendas formulation and implementation happen alongside comprehensive consultations and deliberations, which is a very long, tedious, complex and challenging process. However, despite these complex processes, if actors and authorities at the local levels are not part of the decision-making or making known their views for implementation, then communicative action is

not seen through. Hence, communicative steps are achieved through forms of interaction where ideas are passed around, arguments are generated with differences highlighted to reach a full representation decision (*ibid.*).

Habermas's theory is premised on the assumption that actors in the social discourse have consensual and voluntary contributions to decision-making, and this assumption is a basis for criticism. Healey (1999: 119) argues that "the power of dominant discourses can be challenged at the level of dialogue; through the power of knowledgeable, reflective discourse; through good arguments; and through the transformations that come as people learn to understand and respect each other across their differences and conflicts". However, based on what Healey termed 'power of dominance' and power relations in communication or discussion can sway the communicative action. For instance, during negotiations at the UNGA and the UN's various organs, all countries do not have the same power of dominance or vote in pursuing agendas that will favour their countries. Also, in discourse and negotiations to the single normative SDG11, states were not generally consenting, but there were dominant global North forces, and even at the Habitat III, the African countries put forward a position based on prevalent socio-spatial and political realities against the general accepted urban norm. Furthermore, Healey (1999) argues that planning conflicts might easily be addressed through communication in local areas and communities, but the governance of multiplex locations globally in modern times creates enormous challenges. The challenges are whether the local actors and institutions accept the communication and global agenda's normative position and if they are willing actors in the implementation. So, apart from the conflicts that might arise between planners, actors and implementers, there appears also to be a conflict between "cultural communities with distinctive systems of meaning and ways of valuing and acting" and the local realities (*ibid*: 116). For instance, accepting a normative agenda such as 'cities without slums' and informal settlements in a local settlement that is predominantly informal leads to a series of conflicts and contestations (Huchzermeyer, 2008a; 2011). Communicative rationality planning will aim to have a cultural understanding of the local context as well as buy-ins and representations of all interest groups to see through acceptance and willingness to implement (Healey, 1999; Watson, 2002).

3.4.3 Theory of planning in multicultural societies

Leonie Sandercock maintains that the "society is structured by relationships between culturally different groups, based on sexuality, ethnicity, gender or race" as noted by Watson (2002: 32). Her theory focuses on how planners can navigate the profession's future in multicultural societies without suppression and yet account for changes in city demographics (Sandercock, 2000). While cultural differences exist in different societies and at scale from local to global settlements, the planner is charged to protect and be a fair judge through design and practice considering multiculturism and diversity cases. Moreover, this phenomenon somewhat impacts global agendas implementation amid cultural identities that differ from region to region. Hence, the building of some cultural groupings or consensus planning, where the broad differences are categorised. Sandercock & Kliger (1998: 127) states that there is "but very little

acknowledgement of the parallel demographic and socio-cultural shifts which are producing multi-ethnic and multi-racial cities and regions across the global landscape". They describe multiculturalism as a philosophy within the public domain that accounts for "racial and cultural differences in a society and encourages their sustenance and expression as constituent elements of a national social order". This description is made within the context of a country, and it is expanded throughout the globe, which brings about new dynamics that planning, and planners must take cognisance of these dynamics at the global city landscape. Qadeer (1997) describes multiculturalism as a philosophy in the public realm beyond planning that recognises differences in culture and race within society and supports diversity's expression in the larger context.

Globalisation alongside international migration makes room for global cities with cultural diversity that planning must imbibe *vis-à-vis* urban planning with agendas that cut across borders. Multiculturalism expands pluralism and expresses social diversity in planning as a consideration in modern planning for future global/migrant cities (Qadeer, 1997). While this phenomenon might not be imminently visible, certain urban and housing styles with social diversity and specific culture will be evident in certain neighbourhoods with a noticeable growth pattern. Hence, planners and global urban policymakers must assimilate multiculturalism as a tool in planning. The implication of this in urban planning at scale will bring about "divergent requirements for space and services found in different ethnic groups" (*ibid*: 481). For instance, China Towns and neighbourhoods are found in many countries, especially in Africa and similarly, you will discover Yoruba and Ibo tribes of Nigeria and migrants alike settling in dominant communities across the world. Sandercock (2000) argues that the planning profession should champion future multicultural cities where planners can build multi-racial and ethnic settlements across the globe despite the societal differences and challenges.

3.4.4 Just city approach

Susan Fainstein, in her approach and studies, interrogates a practical planning question on how a just city or city of justice for all is to be achieved. While the just city approach is not a core theory, the approach or perspective aligns with normative theories of planning guiding GUAs towards a just and a city. Beyond advocacy, communication and multiculturalism, which are not disputed as critical tools for planners, what is the practicality of having a just city in a pluralistic society where global and competitive cities are promoted? (Fainstein, 2000; 2013; Watson, 2002). The NUA and the SDGs acknowledge the global urban divide between the wealthier and the marginalised people, which is evident in the statistics for hunger, poverty and inequality across the globe. The standalone SDG11, in a way, speaks or promotes the concept of a just city even though there are other issues in regard to access and the right to the city. As a planning theorist, she argues that planners have a role in adjudicating varying interests and tensions in society, in showing a pathway that leads to the desirable future city (Wakanda city for the global South), and most importantly, creating spatially just and equitable cities (Fainstein, 2000; Corbin, 2018). In this instance, the just city approach questions

planners' role if they aid urban divide, segregation, promote capitalism in their design and practice, or create a city model where everyone can live equitably irrespective of their social status class.

For this study, and lending my voice, do global urban agendas engender just cities for all beyond the SDG11 with the purpose to achieve safe, resilient, inclusive and sustainable cities? The SDG11 seemed to be in alignment with Fainstein's just city approach. Still, several issues operate on the global planning front in contrast to cities and settlements within local levels of different states. Fainstein (2010) argues that principles such as equity, diversity and true democracy are vital elements that will bring about a just city concept or the just city in reality, if it exists. Moroni (2020) argues that background issues can affect realising a just city in reality, or as a planning concept. These issues materialise between what is conceived and perceived as justice in terms of the institutional, spatial, social and distributive justice in the society (*ibid.*). This questions the notion of what social and spatial justice implies in society for the actors in the institutions. Given that there is democracy and diversity of culture, the just city approach brings about the position of the law through the right policies explaining what is allowed within the society and the interpretation of the prevailing urban laws.

3.5 Rational and institutional rational choice theory

Sabatier (2007) states that a good theory should be fertile by giving birth to new propositions, suppositions and theories when the parent theory is applied by researchers. For instance, the normative theory is a standalone theory with many variations, and the rational choice theory also has other applications. The institutional rational choice theory, which is normative in nature, was an outcome of the rational choice theory premised on an individual and the belief systems, decisions and choices driven by his rationale, which will, in turn, produce certain outcomes (Ostrom, 1991; 1999; Lindenberg, 1992; Scott, 2000; Sabatier, 2007). The rational choice theory provides a framework and an explanation for the rationale that brings about an action and a reaction or response (Boudon, 2003). One of the leading proponents of this theory is George Homans, whose works expounded on exchange theory in Sociology (Scott, 2000). His work gave insight into the social outcomes of events through the construction of models for actors and institutions within the social context (Hechter and Kanazawa, 1997). This theory is premised on decisions taken by every human (and institution) that is considered 'rational', naturally based on calculating the possible cost and benefits of the action taken (Scott, 2000). Ostrom (1991) explains that the normative theory comes from a 'theory of advice' in terms of what is meant to be done to achieve a certain objective and not what the objective ought to be. These norms and decisions can be taken individually, as a group within a community or by an institution. However, what is considered rational or irrational is subjective but largely can be attributed to accepted norms or value systems in the society. Hence, rational choice is based on the social exchange influenced by constraints and preferences in anticipation of an expected goal or want, and the (ir)rational decision taken might come across to viewers differently (*ibid.*). As such, a decision made by an individual that is considered to be 'rational' is an assumption compared to the outcome of the decision (Elster, 1989). Consequently, the

outcome justifies the means as a rational choice is seen as a simple logic and places some limitation on the theory even though there may be many varying factors or context issues.

Also, the rational theory has its applicability, abstractions and postulations in economics, sociology, social sciences and the public policy sphere. Again, this theory is widely debated and criticised from different points of view, whether from an individual or institutional point of view (Hechter and Kanazawa, 1997; Boudon, 2003). This theory aligns with Morgenstern's (1972) thought that an individual or institution would make a decision based on its belief system and accepted norms; then, it can yield expected results. Many leaders will only be willing to adopt specific global policies based on their first acceptance that such policies will positively affect their states upon implementation. Their acceptance might also be based on certain prejudices, or they may be forced to accept because of association or possible benefits. However, the ultimate realisation of such acceptance of global agendas lies within willing actions and institutions along the implementation chain.

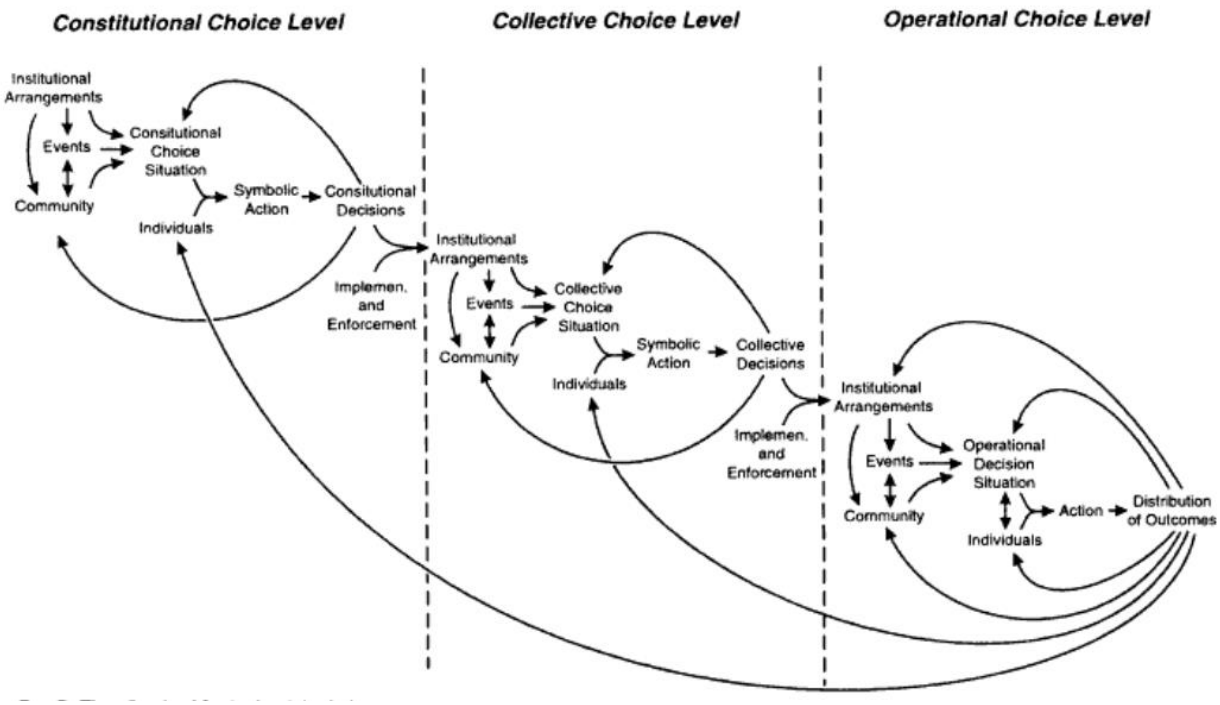
A key theorist in rational institutional theory is Elinor Ostrom, who emphasises the role of an individual within institutions. Other notable theorists are Jon Elster, George Tsebelis, Bill Jordan and James March (Ostrom, 1991; 1999). The main argument with this theory is that an individual with the same value system, experience and character background will act differently in another situation based on the institutional rule (Sabatier, 1991). Ostrom (1991) posits that institutional rational theory brings about an understanding of the integration of complex relationships of individuals between institutions at different layers, multilevel, multi-actors, cultures, traditions and capacities. The dynamics are different from global agenda implementation with different countries, climes, constitutions, governance systems, populations, institutions and carrying capacities. Hence, institutional analysis and classification are affected by the rules, decision-making, levels of authority, acceptable means of communication, *ultra vires*, values and norms of the institution (Ostrom, 1991; 1999; Sabatier, 1991). Ostrom (1991) states that the behaviour of an individual within an institution is either rule-governed or consequence-governed, which will differ from cadre to cadre. Except for senior management staff and leaders who can act freely (with little or no consequences for their actions), most staff members/individuals are bound to behave based on the operational rules within an institution. Decisions and behaviours made within the rule-governed institutions are influenced by what is permitted, while the consequence-ruled allows for a full expression of conduct exhibited by individuals. Again, leaders and politicians can easily sign or ratify policies or global agendas; the core operations and implementation lie within the back-end actors and institutions.

The institutional analysis chart in Figure 3-1 captures the three levels of rational choices as it pertains to an institution and its workings. The constitutional choice places the institution within the government's constitutional provisions, acts, decrees or legislation upon which it exists, and constitutional rights. The collective choice entails the institution as an entity with roles, functions and

powers of individuals and mainly the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs). Lastly, the operational choice levels involve their day-to-day running obligations and what is expected based on key performance indexes to measure performance. The analysis levels follow a rule-based structure from the Constitution to the collective to the operations where the Constitution is supreme, things are done internally at the collective level, and the institution deals with the public or citizens at the operations level (Sabatier, 1991). This institutional rule structure applies to institutions and government entities involved in the global policy implementation where choices are influenced and affected by these rationales. And back to the rational choice theory and global agenda discourse, an individual's performance within an institution changes the entire dynamics, which "renders this framework a little unwieldy for dealing with a multitude of institutions" in a policy implementation environment (*ibid.*: 151). At all these levels, individual responses and behaviour to policy environment and events within the institution internally and externally to other institutions are affected differently, as in one implementing government agency to another. Other features that could affect rational choice are the cultural traditions and historical institutional setting in time.

Boudon (2003: 1) argues that the theory fails in its explanation for "positive nontrivial beliefs and normative nonconsequential beliefs" due to its myopic definition of rationality. As such, when other phenomena and paradoxes come into play, it fails to provide a suitable explanation, and "not all actions can be explained by rationality" when it comes to assumptions, legitimacy and reality (Boudon, 1998; 2003). Hechter and Kanazawa (1997) note that the criticism and scepticism against rational choice theory can be attributed to its misunderstanding. Still, the expected social outcomes based on choices are also based on permutated assumptions based on subjective rationale. While humans will act based on emotions, impulses or by being influenced, cajoled or forced, institutions will act equally based on interests and expected returns on actions taken *(ibid.*). Equally, global agendas are promoted by certain individuals and institutions with known and explained motives, but what rationale is behind those adopting these policies and agendas? It is imperative that every actor involved in GUAs act in a manner that reflects the rationality behind the agendas.

Figure 3-1: Three Levels of Institutional Analysis



Source: Sabatier, 1991

3.6 Globalisation theories and global urban agendas

Globalisation as a phenomenon was not a major discourse by scholars and global leaders until the 1980s, even though it had long existed before then (Leaf and Pamuk, 1997; Rennen and Martens, 2003; Ritzer, 2008). Beyond globalisation being regarded as a phenomenon, concept or theory, its multidisciplinary and multidimensional nature has led to many scholarships in different fields of life such as sociology, finance, economics, politics, international relations and planning (Rennen and Martens, 2003; Robinson, 2007; Ritzer, 2008; Pannilage, 2017). Consequently, theories, concepts, arguments and new ideologies have been developed around the term 'globalisation' with no consensus on a definition or singular theoretical perspectives. Anthony Giddens posits that "globalisation has to be understood as a dialectical phenomenon, in which events at one pole of a distanciated relations often produce divergent or even contrary occurrences at another" (Giddens 1991: 22). Ritzer defines globalisation as "an accelerating set of processes involving flows that encompass ever-greater numbers of the world's spaces and that lead to increasing integration and interconnectivity among those spaces" (Ritzer, 2008: 1). David Held states that the understanding of globalisation comes from "a set of processes which shift the spatial form of human organization and activity to transcontinental or interregional patterns of activity, interaction and the exercise of power" (Held, 1999: 517).

Anthony Giddens, a famous sociologist, also describes globalisation as a phase of modernity concerning the society framed within time and space, with local involvement in a global phenomenon. He describes

globalisation as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (Giddens, 1990: 64). Similarly, Rennen and Martens (2003: 143) describe

> "*globalisation as an intensification of cross-national cultural, economic, political, social and technological interactions that lead to the establishment of transnational structures and the global integration of cultural, economic, environmental, political and social processes*"

across borders. In line with the mandate of the UN and allied entities, the effects of globalisation can be seen through

> *"the stretching and deepening of social relations and institutions across space and time such that, on the one hand, day-to-day activities are increasingly influenced by events happening on the other side of the globe and, on the other hand, the practices and decisions of local groups can have significant global reverberations"* (Held, 1995: 20).

These definitions and many others allude to the subtle (and sometimes forceful) and robust nature of globalisation to extend social and non-social relations beyond a geographical location. Through the UN and other global corporations' activities in formulating global agendas and policies, advocating for adoption and implementation resonate with these definitions. It is strongly believed that globalisation in the modern-day shapes our societies and environment towards global cities with similarities in the way cities are perceived or developed. Common trends with globalisation are evident through de-localisation and the decline of the national government's powers favouring multinationals and international corporations (Smith and Doyle, 2002). The different literature and scholarships on globalisation and its ideologies as a phenomenon and theory align with the idea of having a common GUA across many societies (Ritzer, 2008).

Whether in visible terms, such as physical products and services, or what can be described as an international/global trend, Held *et al*. (2000) state that globalisation brings about four kinds of changes. Firstly, it extends the frontiers of the social, economic and political dimensions spanning through societies, countries and continents. Secondly, with increased global connectivity in transfers, communications and movements, the resultant effect is seen with the corresponding increase and speed in the travel of concepts, products, services, culture and narratives. Thirdly, the trends will show the increased movement of capital and investment in financial terms, cultural and social migration, and political influence across borders. Lastly, due to these changes, there is a thin separation between local events and activities across the globe, with trends transcending nationals but becoming global brands. All of these changes are scripts written by transnational corporations and 'world powers' in the making of agendas and policies and the effect of these conferences, allies, treaties lobbying, politics and interests are played out in the hands of globalisation. While globalisation is regarded as a theory with

its multidimensional and multidisciplinary nature, notably associated theories align with globalisation (Rennen and Martens, 2003; Falola and Salm, 2004; Pannilage, 2017), they are the world system theory and the world polity theory.

3.6.1 World system theory as it pertains to the global urban agenda

Owing to the many dialectical perspectives on globalisation, Robinson (2011) argues that the world system theory emerged from developmental issues under the 'age of modernisation' in the 1950s as an antidote explanation to global inequalities approach and dependency theories. The world system theory, associated and propounded by Immanuel Wallerstein, was developed to provide "a clear conceptual break with theories of 'modernization' and thus offer a new theoretical paradigm to guide our investigations of the emergence and development of capitalism, industrialism, and national states" (Skocpol 1977: 1075). His antagonism towards the global divide, inequality and exploitation by the more affluent nations to the 'third world' spurred his works on the 'modern world system' as a way of exposing the hypocrisies. The world system theory stems from the dependency theory where "the global society was developed unevenly, such that the main core of industrialised world has a dominant role, with the third world countries being dependent on them" (Giddens, 1990b: 531). The irony of this dependence theory is that the functionality of the developed world is based on the third world's resources. As earlier explained, loans and incentives are made to the 'third world countries', and they were mandated to adopt certain (un)favourable policies, such as the impact of the SAPs and currency devaluation, thus making them rely solely on industrialised countries. Also, where the raw materials from the 'third world countries' are being processed by the industrialised world, and the products resold back at higher prices (*ibid.*).

Using development as a yardstick, Wallerstein (2004: 10) notes that "most developed state could offer itself as a model for the less developed states, urging the latter to engage in a sort of mimicry, and promising a higher standard of living and a more liberal governmental structure (political development) at the end of the rainbow". Alfred Sauvy coined the phrase 'third world' against 'first world' during the Cold War to refer to less developed countries whose social and economic development have been impacted by their colonial history (Giddens, 1990b). Back then, the third world countries comprised mainly African, Asian and Latin American countries. Also, the first world consisted of industrialised countries such as the US and Western European countries. The preferred narrative of measuring development in countries is now the global North and global South, qualifying the wealthier nations and poorer nations, respectively. Matters of poverty, inequality and underdevelopment, as seen in many global agendas today, are not new trends but are agelong challenges that have spanned many centuries considered a hidden script homogenised by the exploitative global capitalist (Skocpol, 1977; Giddens, 1990b; Wallerstein, 2004; Robinson, 2011).

In Wallerstein's (2004: 11) book titled ‘World-System Analysis: An Introduction’, he notes that four major discourses are responsible for developing the world-system analysis between 1945 and 1970. These discourses centre around “the concept of core-periphery … and the subsequent elaboration of dependency theory; the utility of Marx's concept of the Asiatic mode of production” (*ibid*.: 11). The others are “the discussion among historians of Western Europe about the transition from feudalism to capitalism; the debate about ‘total history’, and the triumph of the Annales school of historiography in France, and then in many other parts of the world” (*ibid.*: 11). The concept of ‘core-periphery’ explains the imbalance in international trade where the wealthier countries with stronger economies, typically, the first world, known as the ‘core’, will transact or trade favourably to allow for maximum profit margin with countries with weaker economies, typically the third world, known as the ‘periphery’. At the interface of the ‘core and the peripheries’ lies the semi-peripheries countries that share the qualities of both the core and the peripheries (*ibid.*). The maximum benefit is enjoyed by the ‘core’, who are the core capitalist exploiting and taking full advantage of the periphery, which leads to continual reliance or dependency on the core for economic survival; this is termed dependency. While the large corporations promoted free trade by the core to aid the development of the peripheries, this ideology is built on historical capitalism where the peripheries are indebted to the core, and they find it very difficult to break away (Giddens, 1990b; Wallerstein, 2004). Despite Wallerstein’s world system theory being propounded in the 1970s, explaining the dynamics of a capitalist world economic structure and imbalance of trade at the detriment of the poorer nations (the third world/peripheries), the same dynamics are still playing out now where there is a global economic and development divide. Yes, I agree that there are global agendas to bridge the divide, but the economic situation at the peripheries, dependency and reliance on the core makes the margin to keep getting wider and wider.

Skocpol (1977: 1076) argues that Wallerstein's position is ‘too hasty and superficial’ as well as being “too misleading theoretically and historically to be accepted at face value” with his Marxist approach against the capitalists. Also, he criticised his ‘unfair’ accent on trade opportunities enjoyed by the core/capitalist in the manner he narrated the historical evidence of the first world countries. This theory is criticised majorly as too dependent on economic factors and global capitalist exploitation, and not geographical, yet the peripheries need capital to develop their human environment with adequate infrastructure (Martínez-Vela, 2001; Eckhardt, 2005). Five decades after this theory, the world and the urban sphere remain unequal with a global urban divide in human and urban development; hence, this theory queries the source of these global agendas, the motives and rationality behind them, and whether there are some forms of unwritten exploitation around the formulation and implementation.

3.6.2 World polity theory as it relates to global urban agendas

The world polity theory was advanced in the 1970s by John Meyer and other sociologists such as Émile Durkheim, Max Weber and Erving Goffman as a way of providing an intellectual argument between what was happening on the global scene and the unseen dominant forces responsible for these global

occurrences (Boli *et al.,* 2011; McNeely, 2012). There is a political perspective to urban agendas formulated at the global level with the various housing and urban shifts with urban hegemony exercised by the UN and allied organisations. For instance, discussions and debates around the SDGs have global coverage. Many countries are members of the UN and were parties to global frameworks under the UN. In some other sociology scholarships, this theory is also referred to as the "global neo-institutionalism", world society theory and "the Stanford school of global analysis", alongside debates on globalisation as it affects world politics (Boli *et al.,* 2011: 1; McNeely, 2012). It was propounded as a critical lens to explain international relations, models and structures where the world is perceived as a "system of interrelated interdependent units" beyond the borders and global changes (McNeely, 2012). According to Boli *et al.* (2011: 1), "the proponents of world-polity theory argue that rationality, purposes, and interests are profoundly cultural constructs bound up in an over-arching canopy (or underlying foundation) that endows actors with properties, identity, meaning, interests, and guides to action". Principally, the activities of the UN-Habitat and the UN in spearheading normative urban agendas align with this theory. From a sociological and philosophical perspective, this theory provides an analytical frame where global institutions are examined culturally as they mould norms and identities through various actors based on their motives and expected goals (McNeely, 2012). This theory emphasises the importance of global NGOs and individuals' role in shaping the world's culture through the different processes. The activities of the UN, the World Bank and their allies have significant influence in shaping issues around global urban agendas and veto powers exercised when decisions are taken at global scenes.

As mentioned in section 2.3, the welfarist and socialist states developed organically while others were colonised until independence, and today we have different kinds of states with varying levels of dependence and association. By virtue of the state formation and development over time, they have foreign relations and membership in international associations entered willingly or occasioned by dependent modern sovereignty (Meyer *et al.,* 1992). These foreign or external relations cause interference in building these states into integrated modern sovereignty. These pieces of evidence of nation-state building are evident in many colonised states and their relations with the international communities. Meyer *et al.* (1992) made a social construction of a country's structural location in the discourse around world polity theory in a study by asking two pertinent questions. Firstly, "How closely was the country tied to the world polity and exposed to its models of integrated sovereignty or state formation, through direct independent involvement or through close organizational linkages?" (*ibid.*: 135). Secondly, "How closely was the country tied, through sovereign-constructed models of nation-building, to the models of society that were dominant in the world polity?" (*ibid.*). Being a member of the UN has a strong link of being tied to the other organs of the UN and allied organisations, and in this, the countries are also linked to the global frameworks. Consequently, the closeness of a country to the political world and involvement at various levels have a significant influence on the nation-building

process, either in favour of or to the detriment of the country in question. McNeely (2012) argues that the theory's crux lies in the separation of patterns identified as cultural models in relation to building a nation-state. And the bulk of these models lies in a world culture system that is embedded within various institutions (and actors) exhibiting certain values, and traits toward the vision of the institutions (*ibid.*). This theory is being criticised for its inability to address issues around the global divide and inequality holistically, even though emphases are placed on how global cultures are shaped and framed historically (Boli *et al.*, 2011).

3.7 Global governance as it relates to global urban agendas

The aftermath of World War Two brought about a yearning for a new world order free of chaos, and with increasing urbanisation across the globe, the need for collaborative global governance is evident through global trends. Despite progressive collaboration by various states, Held (2016) argues that there are obstacles toward fostering an expression of global governance, a growing trend across the world. These obstacles are evident in the glowing multipolarity since the end of World War Two, which has significantly affected world polity and the world experiencing more challenging problems with each passing year ranging from poverty, climate change, pandemic, inequality and terrorism. Other obstacles identified by Held (2016) relate to institutional inertia with organisations with specific mandates while there are new obstacles and the fragmentation of socio-economical, environmental and political issues with multi-scale dimensions. These glowing challenges are what Hewson *et al*. (1999) termed global changes necessitating globalisation, which are evident in various sectors of individual states. Theoretically, Zürn (2018) states that global governance rests on three blocks, namely the global political system, Weber's sociology of domination and the concept of historical intuitionalism. By political system according to Zürn (2018), control and authority are exercised over the nation-states beyond their territorial boundaries through domination of rules and commands by various institutions (and actors). These building blocks align with the theories of world polity and systems of globalisation and institutional rational choice.

Finkelstein (1995) points out that there is a sense of ambiguity when the terms 'global and governance' are discussed. The term 'global governance' emerged in the 1990s from political scholarly works to dissociate from previous political world order of chaos and welcome a new progressive goal-oriented world government for international association and discourse (Weiss, 2000; Weiss and Wilkinson, 2014). Global governance emerged among state leaders due to the need to decide on and address interconnected issues and state relations that involve agencies and various actors, including governmental and non-governmental actors (Finkelstein, 1995). While there is no visible global government (with actors), global agendas through global governance offer "collective efforts to identify, understand, or address worldwide problems and processes that went beyond the capacities of individual states" (Weiss and Wilkinson, 2014: 208; Ruggie, 2014). And these collective efforts can occur in multiple ways towards addressing global issues (such as health, climate change and poverty-

related) through interdependences, goals, regulations, treaties, dialogues and best practices beyond individual states. Global governance as a paradigm was enhanced primarily as a panacea to global issues, the different kinds of leaders and their mode of government in the 1960s, and the challenge to address global sustainability (*ibid*). In a broader sense, Finkelstein states that global governance entails all activities which include:

> "*decision, and action that shape or determine them; including relevant power and the means of exercising it; diplomacy and politics between and within states; alliances and coalitions of states; international pressure groups of nongovernmental actors, including political alliances …; feedback loops between international, national, and subnational actors; and institutional procedures and methods that channel inputs and determine their efficacy*" (Finkelstein, 1995: 369) (*sic*).

The above description summarises global governance as all forms of activities carried out by the home government without a sovereign singular head across all states. This description aligns with the UN, the World Bank and other 'global' institutions in setting controls or goals across states with many actors. Beyond all these activities and in line with current times, Finkelstein (1995: 370) also states that global governance comprises overlapping state functions in regard to

> "*issues of international agenda" such as the MDGs, SDGs; "efforts to influence domestic rules and state behaviours; conciliation, mediation, and compulsory resolution of disputes; regime formation, tending, and execution; adoption of rules, codes, and regulations; allocation of material and program resources; provision of technical assistance and development programs; relief, humanitarian, emergency, and disaster activities; and maintenance of peace and order*".

According to Dingwerth and Pattberg (2006), one of the misconceptions about global governance comes from researchers and international practitioners explaining the concept from the notion of government, that is, using government as a synonym for governance. The word 'government' synonymous with 'state' refers to the structure, while governance in simple terms refers to how the 'state' entity (as a territory) is governed. Hence, describing global governance from this perspective is myopic from what government (people) do within the public and private sectors. In the past four decades, there has been a complete shift in the ways states are controlled with more participation of non-public personnel in the states' global politics and affairs (Shamir, 2010). Dingwerth and Pattberg (2006) argue that beyond the perception of governance of the globe as a concept or activities, it reflects the interactions and transformations exhibited in world politics. They note that global governance does not exist in isolation, but it can best be understood in the confines of global politics as a political programme (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006; Boli *et al.*, 2011; McNeely, 2012). Global governance is generally perceived as a political tool to address global challenges across communities of the world (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006). Späth (2005: 1) notes that "global governance offers an analytical concept to subsume various

efforts at the global level to come to terms with this loss of control and to balance the uncontrolled processes of globalisation" in addressing global problems. Many authors have put forward several definitions, but for the purpose of this study, attention will be paid to Rosenau's (1995) definition due to its encompassing nature, which touches on the concept of 'rule' and 'goals'.

Global governance denotes "the exercise of authority across borders as well as consented norms and rules beyond the state, both of them justified with reference to common goods or transnational problems" (Zürn, 2018: 3). This definition alludes to global institutions such as the UN exercising some level of authority and control under a consensual agreement (sometimes forced by association), and an accepted normative approach to exchange goods or address common problems among states. James Rosenau similarly

> "*defines global governance as a system of rule at all levels of human activity - from the family to the international organisation - in which the pursuit of goals through the exercise of control has transnational repercussions*" (Rosenau, 1995: 13).

Global governance is differentiated from the national political system as political influence or forms of governance beyond what obtains outside its territorial borders (Zürn, 2018). Dingwerth and Pattberg (2006) posit that Rosenau's definition stems from understanding world politics and the theories behind global governance. It is evident in this definition that 'traditional global governance' pursues goals among member states with 'rules and authority', described as control with sanctions placed on erring members. These definitions and descriptions point to the efficacy of normative exercise of transnational control and authority, pluralisation of governance with multiple actors, world politics and world culture at play, as well as globalisation. Zürn (2018) notes that global governance operation occurs at diverse levels, such as various governments coming together under different umbrellas like the UN or global governance without a government for global standard regulation for businesses and enterprises.

Rosenau (1995) argues that governance in a global setting has ways of operation such as exercising its authority by commands, where goals are framed, directives are issued and all-adopt policies. These definitions of global governance contain certain vital elements that are worthy of mention. Firstly, it involves rule application cutting across levels as a guide with agreed norms; secondly, human relations from the society to global organisations; thirdly, the quest for goals through exercising control; and lastly, consequences for the states (Rosenau, 1995; Zürn, 2018). Thus, from this definition of global governance, it is pertinent that there is a system of rules at all levels guiding peaceful international relations among states. Rules at all levels connote all the state practices and control mechanism that spans the local, state or provincial, national, international and transnational levels (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006). It is only when there is a system of rules that there can be consequences for non-compliance. Otherwise, the state will constitute its laws. However, despite some of the goals, rules and

norms being agreed upon or negotiated as in the SDGs, contentions, contestations and legitimacy cannot be ruled out for reasons of interest, context, benefit and capacity (Zürn, 2004, 2018).

3.7.1 Differentiation between international relations and global governance

According to Weiss (2000), negative concerns rose among international relations stakeholders, especially the students in the 1970s and 1980s, who had viewed global governance as an international phenomenon without recognising the impacts of the non-state actors, technology and effects of globalisation. Hence, beyond all perceptions and misconceptions about global governance, it accounts for several "social organisations and political decision making" on global issues, which do not necessarily come from the state or are directed towards the state (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006: 191).

Furthermore, Rittberger (2002: 2) notes that while international governance would refer to

> "*the output of a non-hierarchical network of interlocking international (predominantly, but not exclusively, governmental) institutions which regulate the behaviour of states and other international actors in different issue areas of world politics*",

global governance would imply

> "*the decreased salience of states as well as the increased involvement of non-state actors in the processes of establishing norms and rules, including compliance, monitoring, and contributing at multiple levels of policymaking*" *(ibid*: Domínguez and Rafael, 2018: 4).

In theorising and understanding global governance, it differs significantly in four areas from what is understood through international or transnational relations among states (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006). Firstly, against the backdrop that international relations should be primarily between states, power and political issues between them, global governance thrives beyond state actors, institutions and corporations (Morgenthau, 1948). In contemporary times, global governance operates more on global agencies, NGOs and transnational corporations to address issues beyond states. It is important also to see the states and cities signing and ratifying agreements, but the actual workings of these coming together transcend the state and its actors, knowing full well that there are peculiarities and context specifics for each location.

Secondly, Dingwerth and Pattberg (2006: 192) note that interactions among states can be examined differently from the social form of interactions within international relations discourse. Whereas global governance exists in such a manner where world politics exist "as a multilevel system in which local, national, regional, and global political processes are inseparably linked" down to individual actors. Global governance is interested in knowing what effect rules made at the global level has on communities and similarly, how ideas at the global level filter down and the resultant effect of such ideas at local levels, regions or national levels (*ibid.*). Of particular interest to this study is understanding

how global urban solutions impact human settlements at local levels in the global political system (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006; Bull, 2012). This study argues that if the overall goal of a global policy is not achieved for whatever reasons, then global governance needs to be revisited. In this regard, this study is focussed on understanding the tensions around global goal settings that can only be interpreted, implemented and measured at the local levels. Thus, this study asks, what are the implications of the global governance agenda and, indeed, local development paradigms? And what are the imperatives for the global narratives being championed and implemented by the sub-national government for the benefit of people at the grassroots?

Thirdly, studies from international relations looking at world governance posit that "the world is too disaggregated for grand logic that postulates a measure of coherence" of a sovereign head or authority (Rosenau, 1995: 16). However, a hierarchy that cannot be easily deciphered exist within global governance with all forms of social and political integrations and interactions across different levels (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006). For instance, the UNGA exists with many organs and agencies operating at different levels and plurality of governance mechanisms with states, agencies, businesses, and NGOs to drive their agendas where the central head is not visible. This thought brings up again the concept of global governance without visible government. The UN-Habitat has played a significant role in global urban goal settings, which is linked to the objective of this study, in seeing how these goals are seen through its implementation at local levels where informality and all forms of housing exist (UN-Habitat, 2014; Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Graute, 2016; Parnell, 2016). It is crucial that priority should be given to the prevailing contextual need of the people at the local level through communicative action and advocacy planning through their representatives.

Lastly, global governance against international relations allows for innovation in authorities and decision-making systems void of sovereign states in global politics. International relations are hinged on stereotyped and hierarchical authorities with state actors, while global governance follows trends in technological changes and globalisation in world politics towards what is termed 'global cities' such as London, New York and Singapore (Sheppard *et al.*, 2013). The expected outcome will be a global urban environment with similarities in how the cities look and function. Pflieger and Rozenblat (2010) argue that cities exist with their specificities in supporting human activities based on the distinct feature socially, economically and politically, and at the same time networked with other cities. In all, global governance offers a different perspective toward the phenomenon of globalisation in contrast to international relations.

3.7.2 Global governance through goals-Sustainable Development Goals

As a departure from the traditional global governance using commands and control, the 17 UN SDGs pioneered global governance through goal setting that is non-binding on its member states but relies upon available institutional structure and resources within each state to drive these SDGs (Biermann *et*

al., 2017; Kanie *et al.*, 2017). Rittberger (2002) notes that the concept of global governance cut across many disciplines with all sorts of scholarships; thus, having a consensus categorisation becomes a difficult task. At best, he identified core thematic areas where global governance can be explored. These areas are in line with global sectoral challenges, which align with the core theoretical framework of this study; they are "politics, security, economic, environmental, civil society/human rights, and other emerging themes" (*ibid.*: 6). In these thematic areas, which are covered in the SDGs, the UN plays a significant role and function as iterated in the previous chapter. Notably, Rittberger (2002: 12) states that "global sustainable development governance provides an opportunity to address these global economic, social, and environmental issues in a coordinated, coherent, and collaborative manner". However, the non-binding nature of the SDGs leaves room for flexibility in the way these goals can be adapted or implemented by each state but does not affect its potency in advancing previous goals, such as the previous MDGs. Before the year 2000, MDGs and 2015 SDGs UNGA meetings, matters of goal setting about global issues such as poverty, climate change and sustainability were done in silos except for Agenda 21, which had a couple of issues for deliberations. The dawn of the NUA and SDGs positioned the setting of goals at the heart of global policy-making, thereby elevating global governance for all issues affecting the globe with a high level of consensus after many deliberations (Parnell, 2016; Bernstein, 2017; Biermann *et al.*, 2017).

According to Biermann *et al.* (2017), governance through setting goals, as in the SDGs, offers new directions in global governance that is different from global governance as described by Rosenau (1995). Firstly, there is liberty concerning the mode of adoption and the style of implementation since it is non-binding on member states. Hence, its adoption into national policies and implementation is at the prerogative of national leaders, constitutional mandate and available resources within each state. Secondly, there is a weak global institutional arrangement for implementing and monitoring local practice due to the non-binding nature; this is despite the advocacy for sub-national governments to pioneer implementation. These weak institutional arrangements explain why there is continuous sensitisation of the SDGs in the various nation-states through the localisation of the development goals in their national policies. Thirdly, the SDGs showed no form of hierarchical development of countries as observed in the MDGs. Still, the goals are conceived and aimed at global sustainability for the under-developed, developing and developed countries, despite having different resources and capabilities (Parnell, 2016). It should be noted that this study argues that maintaining the same non-binding goal for all countries that have different capabilities, resources, institutional and infrastructural background leaves plenty of room for practice and implementation challenges.

One of the biggest priorities for the SDGs in terms of global governance is for the goals to be adapted and translated into national or federal, state or provincial, and local policies. The success of transference and translation of global goals into implementable policies nationally and locally lies within available capacities at the national level and existing governance structure (Biermann *et al.*, 2017). Thus, requires

proper integration from global policies to national policies based on existing structures to drive implementation through public institutions. Due to the ambitious nature of the SDGs and their non-binding nature, and the lack of sanction to non-compliant member states, states have the liberty to interpret the goals as they see fit. Ultimately, this affects the implementation and realisation of the goals across the board (*ibid.*). However, member states need some level of commitment, forms of sanction for non-compliance, clear and unambiguous goals and a standard of measurement of the realisation of these goals laterally (*ibid.*; Young, 2017).

3.8 Theoretical perspective on urban policy and policy implementation

One significant consensus across literature and policy discourse between (urban) policy and urban governance is the problem associated with policy implementation. This study accounts for the disjuncture between what is agreed as a policy at the global level and what occurs at local levels. It is the disconnection "between global discourses and local realities" in human settlements that raises the question of whether and how "global circulating agendas and discourses meet the mediating forces of local context and practice" (Anand and Rademacher, 2011: 1751)? An important concern raised by Qadeer (1977) is the usefulness or the 'futility of world conferences' as to whether there is an accomplishment of the global agendas and the need for global and local politicians to be held accountable for the agendas they sponsor, its adoption and implementation. Similarly, Lane (1987: 543) states that

> *"without the notion of implementation as policy accomplishment, there is no basis for evaluating policies and holding politicians, administrators and professionals accountable. On the other hand, implementation as policy execution rests upon trust or a certain amount of degrees of freedom for politicians and implementors to make choices about alternative means for the accomplishment of goals".*

The concept of examining implementation raises questions about theoretical approaches, actors, institutions, policy formation issues, and practices within a policy environment. Sabatier (1986), in his implementation research, advocates for two general conditions that can foster the successful implementation of policies and agendas. The first set of conditions borders on its statutory nature in terms of clarity in policy and its aim; its legislation; the relationship between implementing agencies and institutions; modes of decision-making and authority; available financial and other resources; and skills, capacity and commitment by real actors (*ibid.*). The second set rests upon non-statutory conditions such as the effect of the prevailing socio-economic situation; public acceptance and support of the policy; publicity and attention given to it; support from leadership; and support from interest groups and non-direct implementers (*ibid.*). All these conditions fit well into the implementation of global agendas, with each variable having dire consequences in the implementation process. A central theme running alongside these conditions in the works of Hill and Hupe (2009) is the dichotomy and

interplay between policy formation and implementation. While some theorists believe that they are two separate processes, others think they are two processes, distinct but inseparable because of different government settings and policy domains with the diversity of institutions and actors (*ibid.*).

The word 'policy' is more frequent in the government's vocabulary, and it entails proposed or adopted principles as guidelines in achieving a course or addressing a situation. Menou (1991: 50) defines policies as "written statements of ideas, goals, and plans of action, proposed or adopted by some agencies". The NUA fits well into this definition concerning the collaboration between the UN-Habitat and member states of the UN to achieve a common global goal for cities and communities. Parnell's (2016) position on the NUA and the SDG11 categorically defined these separate and inseparable agenda/goal as a global urban policy prevailing in many countries toward achieving global urban sustainability. With the growth in the human population, additional cities and megacities, urban practitioners will have more issues to contend with through urban policy instruments, either at the global, national, provincial or local levels (Hall and Pfeiffer, 2000). The urban policy seeks to address and understand the nature of problems confronting cities as the city develops (*ibid.*). To execute the urban policy, the agency of urban governance needs to be active; in this case, urban governance proceeds from the global agendas through the national government to the provincial/ state, and down to the local government or municipality. The implementation of a global policy at local levels falls within the public policy domain, which involves government institutions and actors and other state sectors; hence, implementations experience some bottlenecks and bureaucracy.

Again, the process of policy travel is not always straightforward vertically from the global level to the sub-national or local levels (see section 2.4). As growing global competitiveness advances in cities (and city government) and SDGs are promoted, the national government can be bypassed in the implementation process as the global policy travels across states (Leaf and Pamuk, 1997; Bernstein, 2017; Kanie *et al.,* 2017). Despite the unpredictability of how a policy will travel globally, the UN-Habitat advocates for urban policies to be first adopted by the nation-state for buy-ins and easy implementation. Avis (2016: 4) describes urban governance (which is needed to implement urban policy) as the manner in which government at various levels and actors resolve "to plan, finance, and manage urban areas", and this involves some form of "politics, contestations, and negotiations". Human settlements are often zoned for different activities in regard to the designated land use where the level of infrastructure and development differs, and access to these places equally varies (Nwafor, 1986; Oyugi and K'Akumu, 2007; Watson, 2009b). The implementation, realisation and practice of global urban policies at local levels lie in the opportunities available within urban policies, institutional framework, available resources and urban governance. Urban policies are instruments of practice for which global agendas can be carried out, and this explains why governments of different nations sign off and ratify policies to aid implementation. Hence, urban policies require approval and support by the government, Ministries and authorities through urban governance for the smooth execution of such

policies (UN-Habitat, 2014). Kearns and Paddison (2000) argue that it is becoming more challenging to govern the urban space through policies due to various local and global changes. These changes affect the developing and Southern economies more in their inability to address peculiar urban challenges relating to their government, especially housing and infrastructural challenges, keeping the economy running while still remaining competitive to attract development (*ibid.*). Hence, the need arises to strengthen, prioritise and identify how well the urban policies through urban governance have found expression through global urban instruments to address local realities of the people.

3.8.1 Phases of policy implementation research

Policy implementation evaluation occurs in three ways: the output and the outcome, the policy impact, and if the policy has resulted in evidence-development of a society (Rahman Khan and Khandaker, 2016). These are pertinent criteria in weighing GUA implementations at local levels of member states that have adopted these policies to sustain human settlements. It is apparent in research that the schism between policy formation and implementation occurs in varying degrees, depending on the nature of policy, actors and agencies (Montjoy and O'Toole, 1979; McLaughlin, 1987). Implementation as a concept has remained a contemporary discourse for decades among scholars, political and economic analysts, and practitioners in the public sector and policy environment. However, there are no grand theories associated with policy implementation, unlike other concepts and phenomena, except for the foundation built by the works of Pressman and Wildavsky, published in 1973 (Rahman Khan and Khandaker, 2016). This absence of a celebrated theory can be attributed to every policy's context-specific nature, which is largely affected by the "political, social, economic, organisational and attitudinal factors" of every policy implementation chain (*ibid.*: 539).

Montjoy and O'Toole (1979) argue that the theorising of 'policy implementational challenges' in programmes carried out by government agencies occurs in two ways. Firstly, this happens when a new policy is formed to address specific issue(s), contending with the status quo, and a single agency carries out this policy; this is termed intra-organisational problems (*ibid.*). Secondly, when a new policy is formed that involves the combined effort of more than one agency and more than one actor controls the process of implementation, it is termed inter-organisational problems (*ibid.*). Inter-organisational challenges appear to be the case in implementing global urban policies such as the SDG11 and the NUA. Inter-organisational problems occur in what Lindqvist (2019) describes as collaborative policy implementation scenarios where policy's input, output and outcome involve many actors. This kind of policy case presents qualitative implementation issues, which form the focus of this study. Such an approach entails different levels of participation and actors aimed at realising the impact of global urban policies at local levels and the rebounding effect worldwide (*ibid.*; Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006). Similarly, Lindqvist (2019: 64) argues that policy implementation involves "dilemmas and paradoxes" for all stakeholders due to the difference in roles, commitments and expectations from the policymakers and other players down the implementation chain. Hence, studies on policy implementation and practice

are of great importance in many public sectors and governments towards realising organisational goals and objectives. In regard to this study, the implementation of the SDGs, and SDG11 in particular, is affected by the intra and inter-organisational problems based on the governance structure at the local level and other horizontal governance levels, respectively.

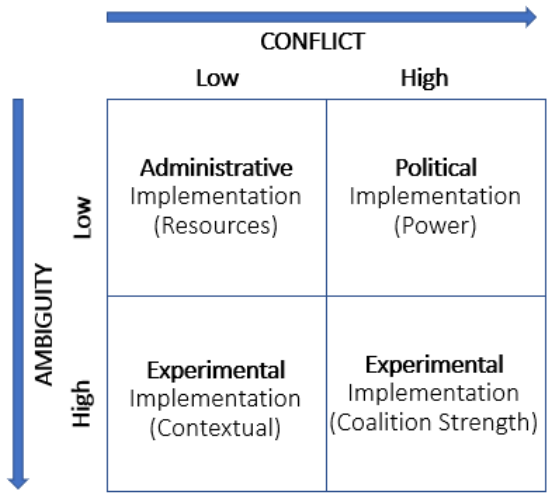
Policy implementation research has gone through three phases, namely, first, second and third generations, based on policy issues and failures in governance and other spheres of life as seen in the literature (Sabatier, 1986; Matland, 1995; Najam, 1995; Pal, 2005; Paudel, 2009; Conteh, 2011). Theorists in policy implementation scholarships have argued around the three phases of policy implementation, namely: top-down, bottom-up and the combination of both (Hiller and Hupe, 2002; Conteh, 2011). The way policies were formed and implemented changed significantly in the 1980s with "the structural changes in public administration towards decentralization, devolution of responsibilities, partnerships, and the restructuring of accountability relationships in service delivery" (Conteh, 2011: 124; Pal, 2005). Amid theories used in explaining phases in policy implementation, Conteh (2011) argues that the core issue is to offer an explanation of how various governments and their agencies interact with non-governmental institutions in policy delivery. Several problems exist within the governmental structure in the delivery of policies, and these are complicated by the external environment in the implementation chain. Hence, the emphasis is on advancing knowledge in policy implementation and theories where there are diversities of players, levels, loci and shareholders (Hiller and Hupe, 2002; Conteh, 2011). The formation of global agendas through the UNGA conferences typifies a hybrid of the top-down policy implementation approach with negotiation with key actors representing different states and not a full cultural representation of people at the local levels. These actors include government representatives, NGOs, CBOs, academics, urban practitioners and SDI members. These actors at such conferences do not constitute a statistical representative sample of the global population. Issues of implementation come to play at the local levels when the sub-national authorities are expected to be final implementers who were never part of the decision-making. For instance, this study is situated in Lagos, Nigeria where there is a diversity of actors horizontally across agencies and departments of the state and vertically along the government strata involved in realising the SDG11 and the NUA. This diversity of players is partly evidenced in the fieldwork involving diverse research participants and institutions towards realising a global agenda; this will be further highlighted in the methods and Lagos context chapters.

3.8.2 Policy ambiguity-conflict comprehensive model and policy critical variables

Beyond the three phases of policy implementation research mentioned in the previous section, Matland (1995), in line with Sabatier (1986), offers the ambiguity-conflict comprehensive model using four scenarios to explain why supposedly progressive policies do not consistently achieve the policy intent as shown in Figure 3.2. Ambiguity occurs when the policy is not clear, which gives room for different

interpretations, while conflict arises due to rationality and interest based on what is understood by the policy (Matland, 1995).

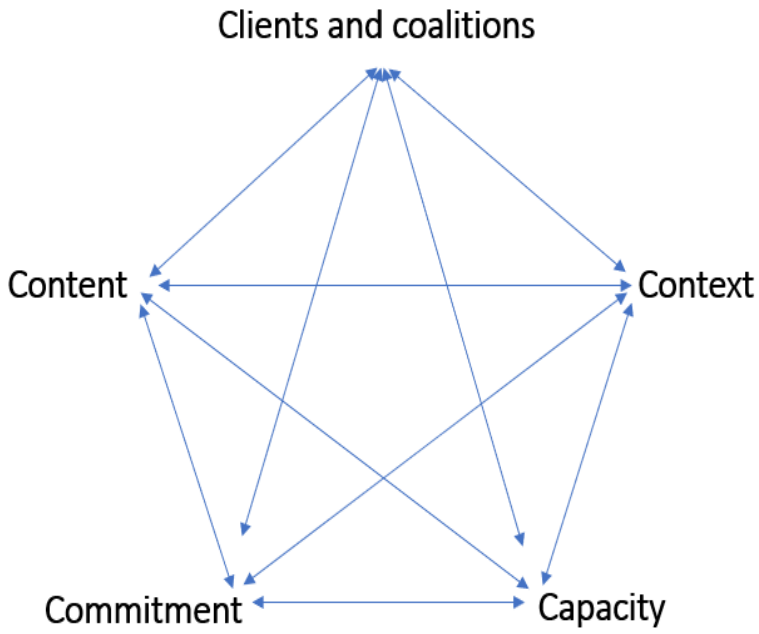
Figure 3-2: Policy Implementation Scenarios



Source: Matland, 1995

Here again, rationality and clarity are at play alongside the rational choice theory explained earlier. The issues and degrees of policy conflict and ambiguity give rise to various challenges and disputes on why policies fail and implementation is stalled in an inter-organisational environment described in the previous section (Montjoy and O'Toole, 1979; Matland, 1995). The first scenario of Matland's policy implementation occurs when ambiguity and conflict levels are low, thus, leading to administrative implementation challenges based on resource capacity (Matland, 1995). Secondly, when the level of ambiguity is low and the level of conflict is high, it gives rise to political implementation challenges relating to governance and power (*ibid.*). Thirdly, when the level of ambiguity is high and the level of conflict is low, it gives rise to experimental implementation challenges with different contextual outcomes (*ibid.*). Lastly, when both ambiguity and conflict are high, it gives rise to symbolic implementation issues relating to the strength of actors and alliances involved (*ibid.*). These scenarios presented in Matland (1995) can find expression with implementing global agendas across different levels and actors based on the problems in Chapter One. These problems include GUA implementation at local levels, countries trying to domesticate the agendas, and the challenge between national government adopting the agendas with expected implementation by the sub-national/local governments at local levels.

Figure 3-3: Implementation Critical Variables



Source: Najam, 1995

Najam (1995) put forward five policy interlinked critical variables responsible for either the success or failure of policies, as shown in Figure 3-3. These variables are policy content, context, commitment, capacity, and clients and coalitions (*ibid.*). Policy content refers to the policy intent or what the policy aims to do based on the underlying issues. The policy context in this regard relates to the set-out institutional environment or corridor through which the policy will travel to implementation. Commitment refers to the agreements and pledges made by participants and actors involved in implementation; in this study it will mean all the actors from the global levels down to the local levels. Najam stresses a need for international and global commitments to be initially domesticated into national, state and local policies by the national government for the clients and coalitions (individuals and institutions) involved to achieve the required goal. The international commitments are converted into national policies and afterwards into programmes and strategies that are implementable. Capacity in this regard means technical know-how and administrative level required to implement the policy. And lastly, clients and coalition refer to every stakeholder and strategy involved in the policy implementation that can affect the implementation chain either for good or bad (*ibid.*). In a way, Matland's (1995) scenarios are synonymous with Najam's (1995) critical 5Cs variables in regard to what makes or mars policy implementation. For instance, ambiguities, conflicts and variables are seen with countries localising the agendas, lobbying before Habitat III, and different levels of resources and capacities (human, legal framework, political, and institutional) to implement these agendas. O'Toole (2004) argues that applying implementation theory to practice has suffered several challenges including, but not limited to, normative thoughts of different practitioners in different scenarios and delineation of

theoretical-practice application for specific cases. In the world of governance, there is an increase in the gap between policy intents and actual practice at different levels.

One major challenge in regard to policy implementation theories lies in the many scenarios of implementation outcomes from policy intent, which result in no consensus, instead leading to a clash of different perspectives across practitioners and scholars (*ibid.*). O'toole (2004: 310) argues that policy implementation issues become convoluted by virtue of practitioners' mode of governance, thus making the subject "large and diverse with implicit and explicit norms" with no special explanation. These policy implementation issues become compounded along the implementation chain with different knowledge gaps between the policymakers and implementers (Lindqvist, 2019). While a lot of awareness has been given to the global agendas, particularly before and after the adoption of the SDGs, understanding these goals and expectations cannot be said to be explicit and the same at all levels or universal. As part of the measures to curb policy failure, McConnell (2015) advocates for the need to understand the workings and dynamics within the various contexts where policy can fail. This doctoral study looked at the broad paradigm of implementing a global policy at the local level through the state with the diversity of players and loci, offering an explanation using Lagos's case. A similar study involving seven cities (Buenos Aires, Cape Town, Gothenburg, Kisumu, Malmö, Sheffield and Shimla) across three continents is being conducted by the Mistra Urban Futures International Centre to monitor the adoption and implementation of SDG11, in particular. The study explored the adaptation and domestication of the SDGs and NUA agreed upon by the national governments and the taking off in the selected cities by local actors with a focus on urban boundary, integrated governance, actors, synergies, indicators, and trade-offs (Croese *et al*., 2021; Valencia *et al*., 2019:4). Consequently, this study will be able to contribute reflections from Lagos as one of the most populous cities in Africa to the global debate on policy implementation of the SDGs and the NUA with more insight.

3.9 Conclusion

The theories considered have offered an explanation and a framework for understanding the intersections between the global urban agendas and happenings at local levels beyond the talks at the global conferences and fora. This chapter explored normative theories related to procedural planning principles from global 'politicians' with emphases on advocacy, communication rationality, consideration for multiculturalism and diversity in planning toward achieving a just and equitable human settlement. Globalisation, which is dialectical, offers a critical framework promoting agenda across the world with an interplay of the world system theory and world polity theory. One significant trend along most of these theories is the normative nature of global urban agendas and the rationality in the implementation process. These norms and rationale offer explanations as to what is expected by actors and institutions, cutting across theories of planning and globalisation, and the institutional rational choice theory by all stakeholders through the global governance agency through goal setting with implementation issues down the line. Lastly, the chapter considered the dichotomy and challenges

between policy and implementation as the phenomenon that explains the intercession and complexities between the policies adopted at the many intergovernmental conferences by the state leaders and policy implementation at the grassroots level. The policy ambiguity-conflict concludes this chapter as the manifestation of what is responsible for policy failure. In agreement with Qadeer (1977) and Lane (1987: 543), without proper evaluation of previous and present global policies through many conferences, it becomes impossible to measure progress, regression and issues clogging the wheel of implementation towards realising these goals at local levels. As a build-up from this theoretical framework and insights, the next chapter considers the suitable research design and methodology based on the diversity of actors and institutions across multiple levels of implementing global urban policy at local levels.

4 CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY INFORMING GLOBAL URBAN AGENDA

4.1 Introduction

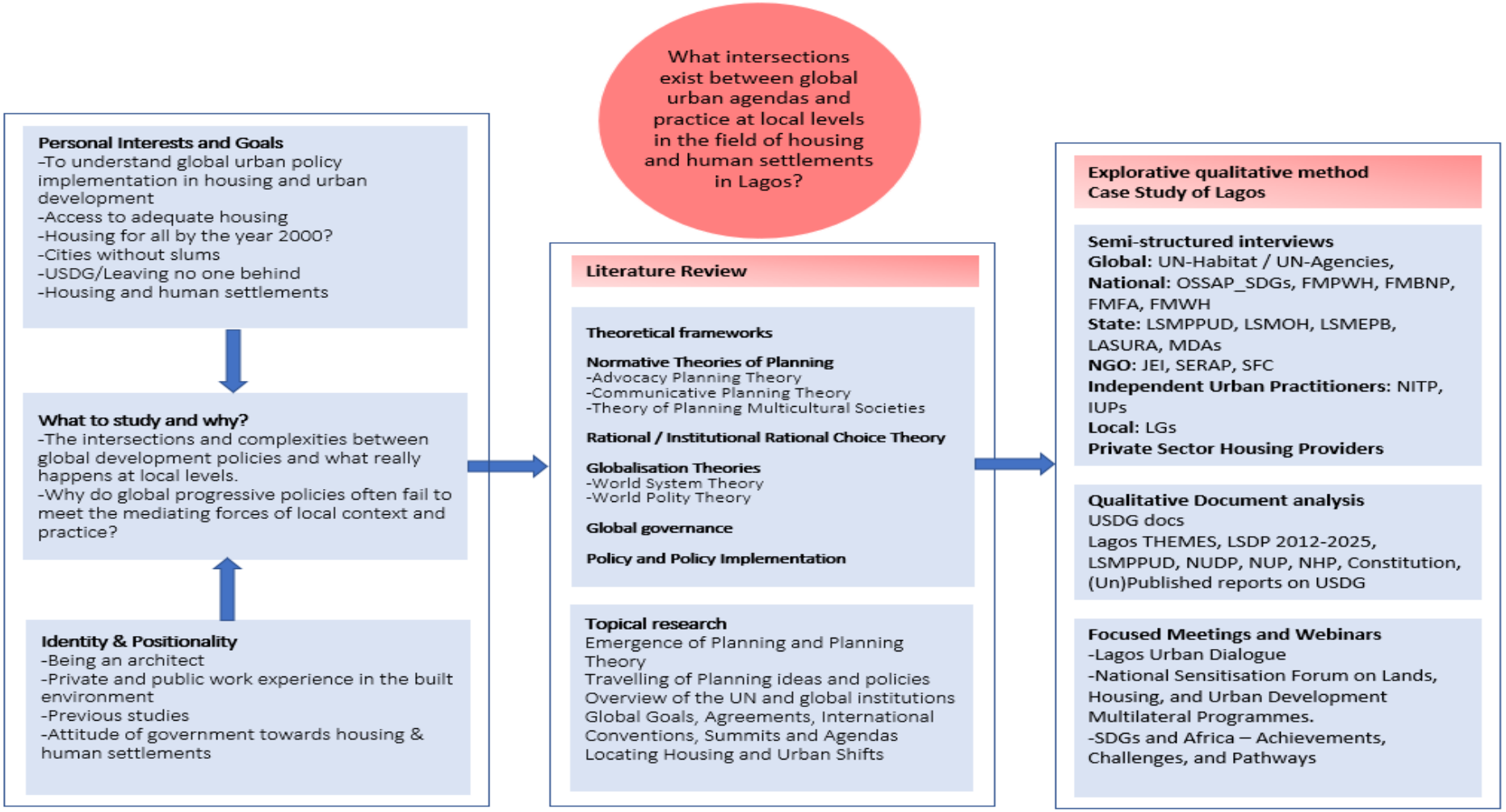
The procedure for research "is not a clear-cut sequence of procedures following a neat pattern, but a messy interaction between the conceptual and empirical world, deduction and induction occurring at the same time" (Bechhofer, 1974:73). Bechhofer's quote captures the unpredictability of a research process depending on the nature of the research. Research processes do not always follow a clear path from the initial research process as there will be new perspectives, issues and literature unfolding as the research develops. Hence, good research justifies the appropriateness of each method or methods in relation to each other for addressing the research question by linking all the various elements of the study. Thus, this study adopted the interpretative explorative qualitative research design paradigm based on the exploration of how the GUAs are being implemented and adapted in Lagos amid global debates. This study was carried out in line with the University's policy on research ethics with due consideration for matters relating to informed consent, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality. A formal research ethics approval was obtained before proceeding to gather empirical data. The empirical data was collected between mid-September 2019 and the end of February 2020 before the start of the novel COVID-19 pandemic and global lockdown in March 2020. This chapter is concluded with a section on data analysis.

4.2 Conceptual framework for the study

Ravitch and Riggan (2016) note that there are contestations from research design scholarships across disciplines in regard to the meaning of conceptual framework in research and its usage. While some authors believe that a conceptual framework refers to a diagrammatic illustration of the study and/or core theoretical background, others believe that a conceptual and theoretical framework refers to the same thing in terms of core theory(ies) or concept(s) that define(s) the research (*ibid.*). Also, Miles *et al.* (2014: 20) note that a conceptual framework can be represented in either a narrative form or graphically in regard to the research key elements such as "the factors, variables, or constructs, and the presumed relationships among them". Ravitch and Riggan (2016: 5) described the conceptual framework as an "argument about why a topic one wishes to study matters, and why the means proposed means to study it are appropriate and rigorous" using specific elements. Their position builds on the many different views on the importance of research and justification for the methodology through a rigorous logical sequence of elements that are well-connected and that illustrate a suitable means to address the research question by the researcher. Maxwell (2013) notes that researchers construct their conceptual frameworks as it is not readily available even though concepts and ideas can be borrowed from other research works. Essentially, Ravitch and Riggan (2016) identified some elements that this study has adopted, as described in this methodological chapter, bringing together all the aspects of this

research and why the chosen methods best help address the research concerns. The elements are the personal interests and goals of the study, identity and personality in terms of the positionality and the literature review, which is made up of topical research and the theoretical framework. The personal interests and research goals have been expressed in the aim and objectives of this research, while the literature review and framework guiding this study have been addressed in the previous chapters. Section 4.3 explains the identity and researcher's positionality and the motivation for the study with reflections on personal interests. Figure 4-1 shows the conceptual methodological framework with the elements discussed above. The rest of the sections address the appropriateness and rigours of the research design detailing each method.

Figure 4-1: Conceptual Methodological Framework



Source: Author‘s construct, 2021

4.3 Positionality and research motivation

Berger (2015) points out the importance of reflexivity on the researcher's part in social science research. The researcher's positionality concerning the subject of research has a significant influence on the study's conclusion based on pre-knowledge of the study, interest, biases, sharing the same perception with the participants or having sentiments (*ibid.*). The motivation for this study takes cognisance of the researcher's background as an architect, urbanist and housing practitioner, who has been actively involved in the built environment for over two decades and previously worked with the private sector and the government (Ogun State Property and Corporation) at the senior level officer cadre.

In 1989, in the wake of Nigeria returning to democratic rule after many years of military regimes (1983-1999), the LASG championed the "UN Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000", even though the military held on to power much longer beyond 1989. The famous radio jingle back then, 'housing for all by the year 2000', brought much hope for a better future for everyone. My interest in architecture and the built environment was ignited as a child under my Uncle's guardianship, who was a draughtsman. At that time, I visited many building sites with him during my primary school days. Also, the thought of 'housing for all' by the government, and the promise of a prestigious life as an architect, led to my decision to study architecture. By 1991, the city of Abuja became the capital of Nigeria, but then, the population of Lagos kept exploding with an increasing need for housing and infrastructure. However, by the turn of the millennium, 'housing for all' had not become a reality, and Nigeria and LASG adopted the MDGs, running with the new development goals, and gave periodic reports towards meeting the 2015 deadline. By 2015, the MDGs were modified to SDGs based on the shortcomings identified in the MDGs (Parnell, 2016; UN-Habitat, 2016). And now, it is about the SDG11 and SDGs. Growing up from childhood to adulthood, I have observed and experienced the inability of global agendas to meet the set goal in Lagos, and new agendas keep coming up. Reflecting as an architect and urban practitioner, the urban challenge in Lagos seems to be burgeoning since the 1980s despite global influences, and there has been no concerted effort by successive administration to chart a course beyond their political terms. I strongly believe that the LASG has the resources and capacity to address urban challenges by leveraging global agendas, intergovernmental organisations and international city networks. Many plans, programmes and policies of the government tend to have underlying ideologies of revenue generation beyond transforming the people and the city of Lagos.

This study argues that there are complexities adversely affecting the intersections of global agendas at local levels, especially in housing and human settlements; thus, the desired goal is not reached. This hypothesis is premised on having worked as an urban practitioner in the built environment in different capacities, both in the private and public sectors, particularly with a state government in the housing sector. Again, this claim is enforced based on a previous research study carried out by me titled 'Sustainable Housing through Urban Renewal in Contemporary Lagos' in 2017/2018 (Afinowi, 2018b).

The motivation for this study stems from global promises and realities using a lens-based personal practice, experience, observation and perception of the government's disposition to global agendas.

4.4 Overview of research method

Silverman (2013) affirms that most dissertations are judged from the theoretical perspective, methodology and nature of empirical findings. The theoretical framework explored in this study has provided a foundation for the chosen research design and the specific techniques to gather the empirical data. Sabatier (1986) argues that the methodology choice in examining policy implementation is largely dependent upon whether such policies are backed up by a piece of government legislation enacted guiding the implementation process. And by such a legislation, it brings about public participation of actors and institutions in the data collection towards examining the policy implementation. Regarding the SDG11 and NUA, many governments have ratified these global policies with commitments to implement, and a few are legislating upon them. The ratification and legislation will imply the commitment by the government to use public apparatus in terms of human resources and institutions, which will, in turn, affect how the implementation is carried out and evaluated (methodology). In this vein, Elmore advocates for a mixed-method or models in implementation research to triangulate the many responses from the different apparatus as a way of providing a balanced argument (Elmore, 1978, 1979). In this case, mixed-method does not necessarily imply a combination of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches but more of varying qualitative methods that best suit data collection from the actors, institutions, resources and legislation involved. In studying a complex phenomenon in regard to global policies and implementation with social elements, economic implications and several apparatus, Van Weesep (1994: 80) states that:

> *"Its signs, effects and trajectories are to a large degree determined by its local context; the physical and the social characteristics of the neighbourhoods in question, the positions and the goals of the actors, the dominant functions of the city, the nature of economic restructuring and local government policy"*.

Similarly, Hill and Hupe (2009: 133) assert that it is pertinent to consider the "salience of politico-administrative layers in the policy process and the complex relationships in respect of categories of policy-making activities" in research methods that involve policy implementation and evaluation. In this study, the methodology is influenced by the interplay of global institutions with the local implementing agencies with layers of public administration from the adoption to ratification to it being implemented with diverse actors. This consideration has influenced the methods and the choice of participants in the interrogation of GUAs.

4.5 Research methods

Theoretically, addressing the research objectives can be approached using the quantitative, qualitative and mixed-methods depending on the nature of the research (Creswell, 2009). The quantitative method

approaches the research objectives through quantities, coming up with numerical data and translating them into mathematical or statistical models (*ibid.*). The qualitative method approaches the research objectives in an explorative manner to gain the underlying reason behind a phenomenon or problem through qualitative data, while the mixed-method combines both the quantitative and qualitative methods (Mack, 2005; Creswell, 2009). While quantities and statistics are pertinent in research, this study is interested in understanding matters of global urban policy implementation at different levels and the reason for implementation issues as expressed in the previous chapter. As this study seeks to understand the problems of intersections between policy implementation of the global agenda and its practice at the local level, it will align with the qualitative research method and not the quantitative method based on the nature of knowledge required to conduct this exploratory study. The unique, in-depth knowledge and understanding needed to address the research questions about the implementation of GUAs cannot be provided by just numbers, any closed survey or statistical models. Beyond numbers and quantities, qualitative research deals with data that are "detailed, rich, and complex" such as words, experiences, emotions, real-life issues, feelings and images that can add to the richness and quality of research for analysis and final interpretation (Denzin and Lincoln 2011; Ormston *et al.* 2014: 4).

Ormston *et al.* (2014) highlight the importance of philosophical debates around how qualitative research is conducted underpinning the study area. Wahyuni (2012: 70) notes that social science pieces of research are guided by four fundamental research paradigms, which are "positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism". These research paradigms affect the basic belief system and philosophy that guides social science research conduct (*ibid.*). Creswell (2009) refers to the research paradigms as research worldview, which provides the researcher with a philosophical orientation with an underlying belief system that shapes research development and outcome. Positivism views research from an external and objective perspective free of any social actor, based on physical fact, figures and evidence, and data using a natural lens in relation to social science (*ibid.*). Post-positivism is a variance of positivism that views research through objectivity and taking cognisance of the social conditions and context of the study. Interpretivism views research as being subjective, constructed socially, and it equally takes cognisance of the prevailing social conditions in its explanation (*ibid*.; Lincoln *et al*., 2011). Lastly, pragmatism views research from multiple views seeking to address the research objective from the best perceived practical approach, which may be objective or/and subjective (Wahyuni, 2012). These four social science paradigms stem from two broad ontological positions of realism and idealism: what is reality, and what is ideal? (Ormston *et al.*, 2014). Social research scholars would argue that the perception of reality and ideal is subjective to the researcher amidst the research environment, audience and participants (Ormston *et al.*, 2014; Corona Lisboa, 2018). Hence, there is no absolute reality because knowledge acumen from research is a social construction from research participants and the environment, and it is subjective to the research paradigms and traditions (Corona Lisboa 2018). Regarding the intersections between global urban agenda implementation and practice at local levels,

this study is interested in the reality and nature of the practice-implementation and the ideal practice-situation considering the normative agendas. Ormston *et al.* (2014: 2) state that

> "*how researchers proceed depends upon a range of factors, including their beliefs about the nature of the social world (ontology), the nature of knowledge and how it can be acquired (epistemology), the purpose(s) and the goals of the research, the characteristics of the research participants, the audience for the research, the funders, and positions and the environments of the researchers themselves*."

Hence, the ontology and epistemology around social science philosophies and paradigms determine how the researcher approaches qualitative research, views data (collection and methods), analyses and interprets the findings (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Ormston *et al*., 2014). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) and Ormston *et al.* (2014: 2) would argue that qualitative research as a methodology is challenging to define because of its epistemological relations to research paradigms that cannot be put into one box, and it does not have one "distinct set of methods or practices" that are solely or entirely 'qualitative'. Corona Lisboa (2018: 72) describes qualitative research as an iterative process of inquiry where knowledge construction

> *"occurs in a collaborative, harmonious and dynamic manner, with reflection, the methodological procedure used by excellence, which enables the analysis and treatment of ideas and perceptions of transcendental consciousness, either through matrices of content analysis, triangulations of researchers and methods, allowing the contrast of the opinions of the participants in the study, with the analysis of impressions recorded in instruments such as: the field diary and anecdotal record in situ, with the theoretical frame of reference, based on the categories of analysis that emerged during the interaction between the researcher and the audience*."

4.5.1 The epistemological foundation of qualitative research

The qualitative research method is the most suitable for this study for several reasons, which will be enumerated below. It allows "reality to be constructed by social actors and people's perceptions of it" beyond the quantities (Wahyuni, 2012: 71; Lincoln *et al*., 2011). Rosenthal (2016) states that researchers use the qualitative research method to get a better insight and perception in regard to a specific topic and understand the reason behind certain actions, behaviours and phenomena. The art and science of translating global development policies into local realities and contexts present a phenomenon of this nature. The use of the qualitative approach for exploratory research has the advantage of bringing a significant and socially salient reply from the participants towards understanding the complexities between what happens at the global and local levels, which is rich and informative to the researcher (Mack *et al.*, 2005).

Based on the nature of this research and considering these paradigms, this study aligned with the interpretivism research paradigm based on the need to understand the reality behind global agendas and the social actors involved in the implementation process (Lincoln *et al*., 2011; *ibid.*). Hence, this research design adopted an explorative qualitative research method approach to give the best expression to this research using document analysis from policy-related documents and semi-structured interviews using the case of Lagos. Primary data is collected through interviews and field observations, while secondary data is collected from archives through relevant information across documents from the state, national and the globe. In addition to these structured methods, the researcher was able to attend three key 'focussed meetings' in the course of fieldwork at the national and state levels. 'Focussed meetings' (in contrast to focus groups) is a term coined by the researcher, which refers to public meetings and attendance with various experts and stakeholders directly related to the study where the researcher was able to collect the required data from these meetings. So, even though the researcher did not organise these meetings, the meetings happened in a 'perfect' period coinciding with the fieldwork for the researcher to attend and collect the required data.

The question arises, why adopt an explorative qualitative research method approach? It has the advantage of inducing an evocative and socially striking response from respondents, which can be very insightful and informative (Mack *et al.*, 2005). According to Stevens *et al*. (2006: 53), an explorative research design is comparable to the work of a detective where "it involves a search for clues to reveal what happened or is currently taking place" using multiple sources "insights and information" to unravel the dilemma. Here, the researcher's avid curiosity about how to address the research question(s) calls for an in-depth qualitative and investigative way to solve the research problem. As noted by Creswell (2009), a qualitative design approach offers specific characteristics that differentiate it from other approaches, making it appropriate for this study. Firstly, it affords the investigation to be conducted in the natural environment in contrast to being abstract research which gives room for more details, insight and quality research experience. Secondly, it allows for a combination of different methods, which are "interactive and humanistic", as a way of triangulating the data from the various methods to arrive at a better conclusion (*ibid.*: 181). Again, the design process for qualitative research gives room for the result to emerge in contrast to it being predetermined or a pre-decided outcome. Others are the allowance for the researcher's interpretation, the use of "complex reasoning that is multifaceted, iterative, and simultaneous", and lastly, the ability for the researcher to adopt and use multiple "strategies on inquiry as a guide for the procedures" (*ibid.*: 182-183).

4.5.2 Case study of Lagos

Creswell (2009: 241) states that case studies are a qualitative research design "in which the researcher explores in depth a programme, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals which are bound by time and activities". The case study method is embedded within the qualitative design; the researcher focuses the beam on what is being researched and every possible scenario that can give an understanding

or perspective to the study. The case study method is usually applied in social science research as well as in "practice-oriented fields" such as studies relating to the environment and societies (Ebneyamini and Sadeghi Moghadam, 2018: 1). According to Yin, a case study is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 1984: 23). Similarly, Robson (2002) defines a case study as a technique of conducting research where contemporary issues are investigated with the use of different forms of evidence. Due to the nature of knowledge required to address the research question, the case study method provides the needed foundation, and it is the most suitable method for this research to proceed in line with GUA practice and implementation at local levels in housing and human settlements. A good case study process will follow the research design thorough preparation before going to the field, followed by proper data collection, then the data collected would be analysed and reported in a sequential format (Host and Runeson, 2007; Runeson and Höst, 2009).

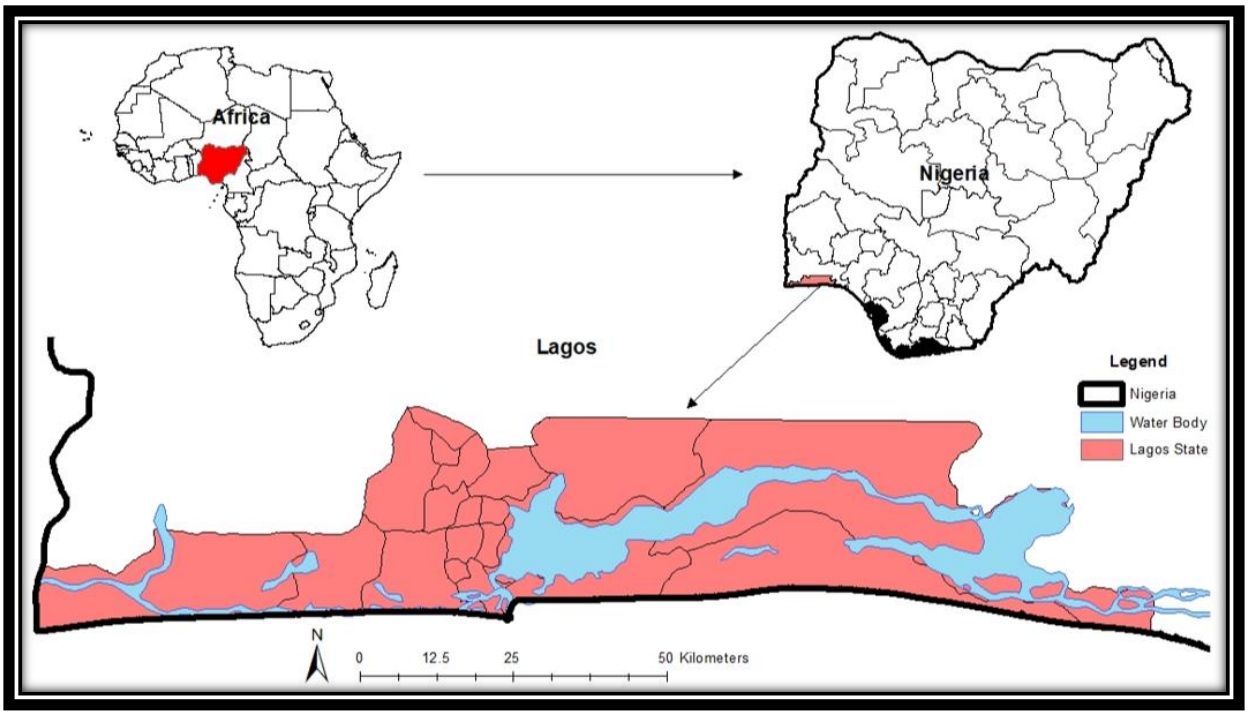
Some of the criticisms against using case studies border on the misunderstanding that generalisation cannot be made based on one case study, it is time-consuming, the possible ethical issues, and the likelihood of biases in regard to the choice of the case by the researcher (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Yin, 2006; Tellis, 1997a; 1997b). Despite the criticism against the use of research cases, Yin (2006) argues that case studies afford the researcher the skill to examine in a detailed manner a case within its real-life situation. Also, scholars like Vanessa Watson and others have called for more urban case works, particularly in the global South, to understand the urban dynamics beyond general categorisation (Watson, 2002; 2009b; 2013; 2021; Parnell and Robinson, 2012; Watson and Agbola, 2013). In this study, it is the case of Lagos with its peculiarities, narratives and similarities with other Southern and African cities. However, other scholars have argued that whether it is a single case or not, what is critical is that the research objectives are met, and the comparative sample size is used within the single case (Hamel *et al.*, 1993; Welsh and Lyons, 2001; Yin, 2009). The choice of Lagos meets this condition and offers many dimensions as a case in the implementation of GUAs with many significant and peculiar dynamics.

The primary technique of collecting data for the case of Lagos (Figure 4-2) is through documentary analysis, semi-structured interviews and focussed meetings attended. Why choose Lagos as a city to interrogate the intersections around GUA implementation? Besides having direct access as a researcher and having lived in Lagos for over three decades, it is a global South city based on the social relations and context that exemplifies all the complex relationships examined theoretically with multiple actors and multilevel institutions (Lawhon, 2020). Schindler (2017) asserts that the global South represents a different kind of space with a distinct locality that cannot be narrowed, which is different from the advanced or more developed countries. The author argues further those things peculiar to Southern cities are often not visible or comprehensible to pro-North theorists and leaders of developed worlds.

These factors explain why pro-Northern theorists cannot comprehend Southern human settlements, although they make assertions on cities of the South despite their knowledge deficiency and context relations. Schindler (2017) goes on to highlight some of the stubborn realities and urban issues experienced in cities of the South, many of which emanate from informality, poverty, ethnicity, inequality, spatial fragmentation and weak urban governance, especially at the local levels, weak economies, rapid urbanisation and inadequate infrastructure to support the citizens (Watson, 2009a; 2009b; 2013; Schindler, 2017). These challenges have given rise to the pertinent question of "who will plan African cities" as Southern cities continue to grapple with many urban issues (Watson and Agbola, 2013)? Southern cities and human settlements have different materiality and urban metabolism, with a disconnect between capital and labour, which is in contrast to what is obtainable in the North (Schindler, 2017). The inability of certain scholars to understand or see the illegible characters of Southern cities with certain peculiarities could be the reason for advocating a one-size-fits-all kind of planning in global agendas and paradigms. Hence, interrogating the practice of global agendas in a post-colonial city that is characterised by complex phenomena associated with Southern cities described above will offer a great insight into the reality, rhetoric and challenges of implementation.

Again, as a state in Nigeria, Lagos within a federal system of governance and an emerging global city with a megacity status with over 20 million population, offer several dimensions of it being chosen as a case study to interrogate GUA implementation. Lagos is also in the class of former capital cities such as Milan in Italy, Bonn and Munich in Germany, and New York and Baltimore in the US. The Mistra Urban Futures International Centre conducted a similar study involving seven cities (Buenos Aires, Cape Town, Gothenburg, Kisumu, Malmö, Sheffield and Shimla) across three continents to monitor the adoption and implementation of SDG11 spatially. Consequently, this study will contribute reflections from Lagos as one of the most populated cities in Africa to the global debate on urban policy implementation of the SDGs and NUA with more insight in Chapter Five. Again, Lagos is seen as a global 'city awful' in some of the literature in terms of being one of the world's largest and most unmanageable cities (Todes, 2011; Harrison *et al.*, 2021).

Figure 4-2: Map Showing Lagos State in Relation to Nigeria and Africa as a Continent



Source: Author's construction, 2021

4.5.3 Semi-structured interviews

Due to the nature of the investigation involving different actors and levels in GUA implementation, this research adopted semi-structured interviews as one of the methods to collect empirical data and provide a balanced opinion. The literature review, research focus and theoretical framework necessitate the choice of semi-structured interviews. Based on the theoretical framework, specific institutions were identified with key respondents cutting across all implementing institutions from the global to local levels. The implementation of the SDG11 and the NUA presents inter-organisational policy implementation issues with multiple actors and institutions, as noted by Lindqvist (2019) and Dingwerth and Pattberg (2006). This case of an inter-organisational policy scenario has influenced this method in the selection of these key participant institutions and actors (Dingwerth and Pattberg, 2006; Lindqvist, 2019). According to Seale *et al*. (2004: 16), interviews can be defined as a "social encounter where the respondent participates in recounting a previous experience, feelings, and opinions in regard to a subject matter", which helps the interviewer gain insight into the subject matter. This insight and understanding can be achieved through semi-structured interviews, and the interviewer can easily follow-up with another question to gain further insight into the subject matter. The relationship between the role of the interviewer and the respondent is vital to the quality of raw data that is made known. However, there is a need for interviewers to be able to decipher what is said, or not said during the discourse (Kvale, 1996; Knox and Burkard, 2009).

Due to the nature of this study, which cuts across different levels of governance from the global level down to the local level, the interviews also cut across all levels horizontally. The target population for the in-depth semi-structured interviews comprise key informants from the government and the UN/UN-Habitat, experts and policy analysts within the built environment professionals. The research participants include authorities who are involved in urban and housing policy and implementation. Participants in this study are broadly classified into institutional respondents and partly individual respondents. Sample frame selection for the semi-structured interview was carried out through snowballing and by identifying senior officers and management staff as key informants. All the interviews were conducted in person, and this gave room for further questions and clarifications. It is worthy of note that some key informants at the national and state levels also facilitated additional interviews beyond the planned interviews. One of the readers for this research during the proposal stage assisted in identifying the critical interviewees across all the levels.

The broad grouping of the interviews carried out includes respondents at the global level (UN-Habitat/UN agencies); national level (Federal Government Ministries in Nigeria and SDG office); state/local levels (LASG MDAs; NGOs; the NITPs; Independent Urban Practitioners (IUPs); and Private Sector Housing Providers). The interviews at the global level gave insight into the global strategic vision and international framework about the agenda and implementation challenges. Interviews at the national level gave practical and bureaucratic information across the nation and relationships upwards to the globe and downwards to the state. At the state level, respondents comprise government institutions, NGOs, the Town Planning Institute and IUPs. At the state and local levels, interviews provided local context and reality concerning these agendas, challenges and implementation. Beyond research insights gained from the three broad vertical levels-based categorisations, the other broad group of interviews brought about a balanced perspective to the study with different viewpoints from the various actors. In all, 44 interviews were conducted in person within six months from September 2019 to February 2020 (See Appendix A for the full list).

4.5.3.1 Research respondents guiding the emerging themes

In all, 44 interviews were conducted in person within six months between September 2019 and February 2020 as shown in Table 4-1. The respondents comprise 30 males and 14 females, with 23 government official participants, cutting across the national (three), Lagos State (12) and local governments (five). There are three participants at the global level, five non-governmental organisation participants, seven IUPs, two NITPs – Lagos Chapter, and four top management private sector housing providers from Lagos and Abuja. Apart from one of the global level participants, who is a non-Nigerian, every other participant spoke in their personal capacity and as a local level respondent based on their perception of GUAs. These figures represent a rich sampling frame of senior government officers and individuals in management capacity spanning over 27 different institutions and sectors. While Table 4-1 captures the

interview guide for the respondents in this study, the complete list and description of all respondents is captured in Appendix A.

The codes (and numbers) assigned to the respondents are pseudo identifications, and they do not in any way represent hierarchical positions for the various categories of respondents. In essence, GL01 is not higher than GL02 at the global level. Also, as shown in Table 4-1, some activities of some respondents cut across levels; hence, their perspectives are broader compared to respondents representing just one level. For instance, the IUPs and Private Sector Housing Providers (PSHPs) work on all levels. The gender ratio might suggest gender disparity in shaping debates and policies around housing and urban development in Lagos. The highest number of the respondent group comes from the state (sub-national) level because of their dominance in urban governance, policy development and implementation. Also, the dominance of the state level respondents reflects the level of redundancy of local government in matters of housing and urban development in Lagos and Nigeria as a whole. The prevalence of more respondents at the sub-national level reflects the core level where this study is situated, with inquiries upwards at the national and global level and downwards at the local level. The likely parity between government and non-government official respondents was not deliberate, but it brings about fairness in the outcome of this research, ruling out biases. Also, the gender ratio of the respondents implies male dominance in urban debates and matters shaping housing and urban development, even though this study did not set out to look at gender issues.

Two respondents sent additional written transcripts through email after the fieldwork, and one of them referred to the influence of the Covid-19 pandemic in her mail. To enrich the interviews, the attendance at three important ‘focussed meetings’ before the global Covid-19 lockdown and several webinars during the interview period gave a balanced perspective to the study as it affects SDG11 and housing. At the end of all interviews, they were transcribed alongside the fieldnotes, and this process was challenging and time-consuming. The semi-structured interview questions were guided by the key research questions and all the stakeholders involved in the framing and implementation of the GUAs. There are ten groups of questions distributed across the various groups of respondents (see Appendix B for the semi-structured interview guide).

Table 4-1: Interview Guide for the Respondents

S/No.	Code	Levels	Sex	Public Official
1	GL01	Global	Male	No
2	GL02	Global	Male	No
3	GL03	Global	Male	No
4	NL01	National	Male	Yes
5	NL02	National	Male	Yes
6	NL03	National	Female	Yes
7	NL04	National	Male	Yes
8	NL05	National	Female	Yes
9	NL06	National	Male	Yes
10	SL01	State/Local	Male	Yes
11	SL02	State/Local	Male	Yes
12	SL03	State/Local	Male	Yes
13	SL04	State/ Local	Male	Yes
14	SL05	State/ Local	Male	Yes
15	SL06	State/ Local	Male	Yes
16	SL07	State/Local	Male	Yes
17	SL08	State/Local	Female	Yes
18	SL09	State/Local	Female	Yes
19	S10	State/ Local	Male	Yes
20	SL11	State/ Local	Female	Yes
21	SL12	State/ Local	Female	Yes
22	NGO01	State/Local	Male	No
23	NGO02	State/Local	Female	No
24	NGO03	State/Local	Male	No
25	NG04	State/Local	Female	No
26	NG05	State/Local	Male	No
27	NITP01	State Chapter	Male	No
28	NITP02	State Chapter	Male	No
29	IUP01	State/Local/Local	Male	No
30	IUP02	National/State/Local	Female	No
31	IUP03	National/State/Local	Female	No
32	IUP04	National/State/Local	Female	No
33	IUP05	National/State/Local	Male	No
34	IUP06	National/State/Local	Male	Yes
35	IUP07	National/State/Local	Male	No
36	LL01	Local	Female	Yes
37	LL02	Local	Female	Yes
38	LL03	Local	Male	Yes
39	LL04	Local	Male	Yes
40	LL05	Local	Male	No
41	PSHP01	National/State/Local	Male	No
42	PSHP02	National/State/Local	Male	No
43	PSHP03	National/State/Local	Male	No
44	PSHP04	National/State/Local	Female	No

Code Legend	
Global Level	GL
National Level	NL
State Level	SL
Local Level	LL
Non-governmental Organisation	NGO
Nigerian Institute of Town Planners	NITPs
Independent Urban Practitioners	IUP
Private sector Housing Providers	PSHP

Source: Author's construct 2021

4.5.4 Qualitative document analysis

Documentary analysis is a "systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents" to gain an understanding of the actual meaning of the subject and develop "empirical knowledge" (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992; Spencer and Ritchie, 2002; Bowen, 2009: 27). Qualitative document analysis (QDA) can be defined as an "integrated method, procedure, and technique for locating, identifying, retrieving, and analysing documents for their relevance, significance, and meaning" (Altheide cited in Altheide *et al*., 2008). Furthermore, QDA can be described as an up-and-coming research method, also known as ethnographic content analysis, or merely content analysis in some pieces of methodological scholarship (Altheide, 1987; Altheide *et al.*, 2008). By ethnography, the researcher embeds himself as an investigator searching through the document for valuable data, related themes and concepts and essential evidence to provide a solution to the research (Altheide, 1987). Particularly for historical research, QDA can provide evidential data that other methods might not bring memories into an everyday occurrence. The QDA as a method goes beyond the literature review, which requires full engagement into the document(s), systematically using the writer's lens to understand content and context and the information being passed across as valuable data for analysis (Altheide *et al.*, 2008). The crux for QDA rests on "discovery and description, including searching for context, underlying meanings, patterns, and processes, rather than on mere quantity or numerical relationships between two or more variables, which is emphasised in quantitative content analysis" (*ibid.*, 2008: 128).

The onus is on the researcher to carefully locate key documents, retrieve such, do proper analysis and relate it to the subject matter. Also, the need to determine the "authenticity, credibility, accuracy, and the representativeness of the selected document, as well as being very objective in his analysis" (Bowen, 2009: 33). Bowen (2009) notes that QDA, like every other method, requires data for analysis, and these data can be in numerous kinds of documents that are not limited to agendas, policy documents, press releases, institutional reports, government communique, constitutions or televised programmes. The need for a QDA is essential for the triangulation data from the interviews, especially for information that might not be directly available through regular literature review, interviews or within the public domain, even though QDA can exist as a standalone method (*ibid.*).

Elmore (1978) advocates that by triangulating different data sources as in policy implementation research brings about reliability in the study. While this method can be affected by the researcher's bias in document selection and inability to retrieve quality documents, QDA offers some benefits as a method (Bowen, 2009). It is quite a reliable and cost-efficient method as well as being time-saving in the long run. As alluded to above, it can bring a new or historical perspective to the study that other methods may not be able to afford. While anyone can review or analyse any document, the researcher has a duty of care to be thorough, critical, analytical and vigorous in his approach to document analysis through proper identification, speed-reading, intense reading and data search. Furthermore, Bowen (2009) notes that researchers carry out QDA through content analysis, where core data are organised

into categories or via thematic analysis, where there is a search for common themes or patterns that can also be categorised for analysis.

A similar study used QDA in evaluating the UNDP report in comparing the human development index between different countries to measure poverty and inequality thematically (Bowen, 2003; UNDP, 2003). In deconstructing what the NUA means in Lagos, a documentary analysis was explored using the SDGs and NUA, and its reflections across the tiers of government in line with relevant literature, policies, declarations and plans. Among other documents, the Lagos State Development Plan (LSDP) 2012-2025, Lagos State Urban and Regional Development Law (LSURDL), the National Urban Development Policy (NUDP), the National Housing Policy (NHP), and the Constitution were assessed (see Chapter Five for details). During the semi-structured interviews at the state/local level, most of the respondents made particular reference to a Lagos (SDG) THEMES document which was not anywhere in the public domain except for similar references made by the LASG. However, through rigorous search and the help of a key informant in the LASG, a copy of the document was made available for review, which significantly helped to corroborate what the public servants had said.

4.5.5 Focussed meetings and webinars

This study is further triangulated by a method referred to as 'focussed meetings', which were attended between mid-September 2019 and February 2020. Also, a series of webinars were attended during the first wave of the Covid-19 pandemic. The focussed meetings are live meetings and conferences where experts and stakeholders are present and the subject matter was discussed. These meetings can provide deep understanding, insights, updates and perspectives on the subject matter. It also gives access to the researcher to ask direct questions if the occasion permits it and have direct access to experts without the rigours of booking an appointment (which ordinarily might not be possible).

On arrival in Lagos, Nigeria for the fieldwork, I made contact with the key respondents; I was fortunate to be officially invited by a friend in the Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development (LSMPPUD) and a respondent at the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing (FMWH) after scheduling an interview to a state, and a nationally sponsored programme that are directly focussed on housing, the SDG11 and the NUA in Lagos and Nigeria at Lagos, and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja, respectively. The significant aspect of these 'focussed meetings' is the avenue to have speakers and stakeholders share essential insight into the study and most importantly, hear from speakers that I do not necessarily have direct access to during my fieldwork. At the national and state events, some direct questions were asked, and it also led to a few other direct beneficial interviews within the purview of the approved ethics for this research. While a 'focussed meeting' method can be linked to the observation method, it has helped to give insight and perspective to this work. The first of the three critical 'focussed meetings' that I attended was the 'Lagos Urban Dialogue with the theme: Sustainable Development Goals – An Essential to Achieving Lagos 21st Century Economy', held on 30

September 2019 at Ikeja, Lagos, organised by the LASG in conjunction with the UN-Habitat. The second one was the One-day Sensitisation forum on Lands, Housing, and Urban Development Multilateral Programmes of Collaboration and the tenth Session of the WUF, held on 16 January 2020 at Garki, FCT Abuja, organised by the FMWH (Housing). The last one was the Faculty of Environmental Sciences, University of Lagos 2020 Conference titled Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Africa – Achievements, Challenges, and Pathways held on 18-19 February 2020 at the University of Lagos premises. Appendices J, K-1, K-2, K-3, K-4, L-1, and L-2 provide the 'focussed meeting' event fliers and programmes of events.

In the heat of the Covid-19 pandemic around March/April 2020, physical gatherings of all nature were banned globally, including conferences, classes and social gatherings; this led to a wave of 'online' 'focussed meetings' called webinars. Webinar, a combination of web and seminar, has aided data and information dissemination over the Internet, with critical speakers that might be very difficult to reach because of time, cost, mutual convenience and geographical location (Verma and Singh, 2010). I participated in several online meetings that directly speak to the issues around housing, 'stay at home', social distancing and SDG related conversations at various hierarchical governmental levels. Remarkably, webinars afforded online attendees to ask questions and benefit from 'best practices' across the globe during the pandemic. Lastly, I undertook a verified online course on sustainable cities organised by the Indian Institute for Human Settlements/SDG Academy. This course brought a clearer understanding of the SDGs for achieving sustainable cities with practical insight into pathways and challenges faced by the global North and South. The direct and indirect data that resulted from these 'focussed meetings' are elaborated on in the findings chapter.

4.6 Ethical considerations

In line with the University of Witwatersrand's policy on ethics, all ethical considerations about human subjects were adhered to, with the clearance approved before proceeding for fieldwork (See Appendices G-I for a few permission letters sought from the institutions before proceeding for the fieldwork). Careful attention was paid to matters relating to informed consent, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentially in line with the University's regulations. The University of Witwatersrand has a guideline for obtaining formal and informal consent from the respondent so that the respondent is not forced or coerced into participating in the research. Also, the nature and intention of the research were explained to the respondent, such that there will be no expectation of (financial) gratitude for participating. According to Creswell (2009), the researcher is duty-bound to uphold ethical rules and protect the respondent's interest and the information shared in good faith. Also, matters of anonymity and confidentially were handled with the utmost care so that respondents are not endangered in the line of participating in this study. Confidentiality for all participants was fully guaranteed throughout the data collection and reporting processes based on what the respondent had said during the interview. Also, anonymity was fully guaranteed for individual respondents who are not affiliated with any of the

known institutions because they do not seemingly occupy any public office. However, anonymity was an issue for participants classified under the institutions, but the researcher ensured that he carried out the duty of care to protect their confidentiality and personality and not endanger their lives. Most of the respondents have no issues with being seen through the eyes of the research.

All participants were given an option of giving their views with their identities made public in the reporting process, remaining anonymous. Virtually all the participants indicated that their names could be mentioned in the report except for three respondents in government institutions holding key positions. This study ensured that all sensitive information was treated with the utmost care and a high level of confidentiality. Based on the participant information sheet, the consent forms and research ethics guidelines of the University, an explanation was given to the participants in regard to anonymity and confidentiality. These can be guaranteed for individual participants with no direct link to any public office or institutions. However, confidentiality was guaranteed for all participants, but the research audience might decipher participants in public institutions based on the nature of this study and its importance. See Appendices C and D for copies of the participant information sheet, and the consent form, respectively. When the questions for the semi-structured interviews were framed, provocative or offensive triggers or questions directed at research participants were avoided, as well as putting any form of pressure on them to answer any question. Furthermore, all participants were informed of the option of redacting any statement they might have made in the course of the interview and there was such a case. A critical respondent at the national level requested that a section of the interview be left out because of the sensitivity of the information and its possible impact on her reputation. See Appendices E and F for the clearance certificate obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) and a certificate of competence in research ethics. The University of Witwatersrand obliges researchers to a unique course on research ethics and carry out some assignments before obtaining the certificate of competence in research ethics.

4.7 Data analysis

The data analysis process involves "preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data" alongside the research topic (Creswell, 2009: 190). Data analysis that requires profound reasoning constitutes the critical aspect of research that significantly determines what sense and outcome are made out of the data collected alongside the research question (*ibid:* Silverman, 2013). Spencer and Ritchie (2002: 176) emphasise that data analysis is a rigorous process that works based on critical "detection, and the tasks of defining, categorising, theorising, explaining, exploring and mapping are fundamental to the analyst's role". Based on the research question, common steps involved in the analysis will include concept definitions, mapping of data, creation and the finding of trends/themes along the study line with explanations (*ibid.*). Creswell (2009) asserts that qualitative data analysis is a reiterative process that is adapted differently based on the research design, whether a

case study, ethnographic, grounded, phenomenological or narrative research. However, specific steps are common to different qualitative research designs (*ibid.*). Essentially, the analyst is expected to read lightly and rigorously through and organise the data(sets) for analysis before coding them based on common trends or similarities. The coded data will result in themes and categories with descriptions of people and settings, and in this case, actors, institutions, settings, mode of governance and policy environment. A build-up of the previous step will lead to qualitative thematic description, interpretation, and meaning of the descriptions through narrations, discussion, visuals and tables (*ibid.*).

The 44 interviews were transcribed, forming a dataset that constitutes primary data. Also, data coming from the QDA and 'focussed meetings' are secondary data. The entire data set is coded based, or grouped based on similar concepts, theoretical patterns and contradictions. The outcome from the codes and coding are sorted into various themes by establishing forms of generalisation in response to the research questions along with the theoretical framework and literature review. The research explored the use of qualitative data processing software, NVivo 12, toward data summary, querying, word clouding and identification of themes. The themes coming out of the analysis and contradictions from the fieldwork form the basis of findings, discussions and interpretation in (out of) agreement with the literature review and the theoretical framework. While different questions were administered to the various respondent groups, some themes ran across the responses with varying perspectives on the debate around global agendas.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter details the research method employed in resolving the research question in line with the topic, the aim and objectives of this research, the literature review and the theoretical framework. The study employed an explorative qualitative research design using a case study, semi-structured interviews, QDA and fieldnote methods as a conceptual framing to gather data. This study was conducted under strict non-medical research ethics in line with the University's principle on ethics. The dataset collected was evaluated and transcribed accordingly with the field notes for analysis. In addition, to thoroughly work through all the datasets, NVivo 12 software was used to integrate all the datasets for easy selection and comparison towards the data analysis for discussion. The next chapter explores the contextual case study of Lagos with analysis of key documents in regard to global urban agenda implementation.

5 CHAPTER FIVE – CASE STUDY AND DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS OF LAGOS-NIGERIA, HOUSING, URBAN AND FISCAL PLANNING

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a historical perspective of Lagos from the pre-colonial era and examines how planning and urban development evolved until the present administration in Lagos. This chapter has two parts; the first part addresses the case study of Lagos, while the second part is the qualitative documentary analysis as a research method for gathering data to understand the urban space in relation to GUAs. Lagos was created as a state in May 1967 based on Nigeria's governance morphology; however, it had been in existence as far back as 1400. Its location and cosmopolitan nature made it a point of attraction for trade and commerce. Although it is statutorily referred to as Lagos State, it has existed as a town, city, British protectorate, capital city, economic capital and official capital. Hence, it is being referred to as a city, a state or a city-state in this study, depending on the emphasis and the context. Despite Nigeria being in the third decade of democratic rule, the country exhibits the full traits of a weak, failed and collapsed state, which adversely affects urban governance in human settlements. Also, the interference of the political class has made the effects of policies and agendas to be mere aspirations beyond realising the goals and agendas that could liberate the country. This chapter focuses on Lagos's housing, urban development and urban governance in relation to global agendas. Some of the existing housing and urban development laws in Lagos based on the provisions of the Constitution and NHP are considered. The documentary analysis section culminates in the Lagos THEMES agenda. The THEMES agenda is the development planning document of LASG that aligns its fiscal planning and sectoral medium plans with the 2015 SDGs by the 2019 Lagos State Government Administration.

5.2 Lagos as a case study

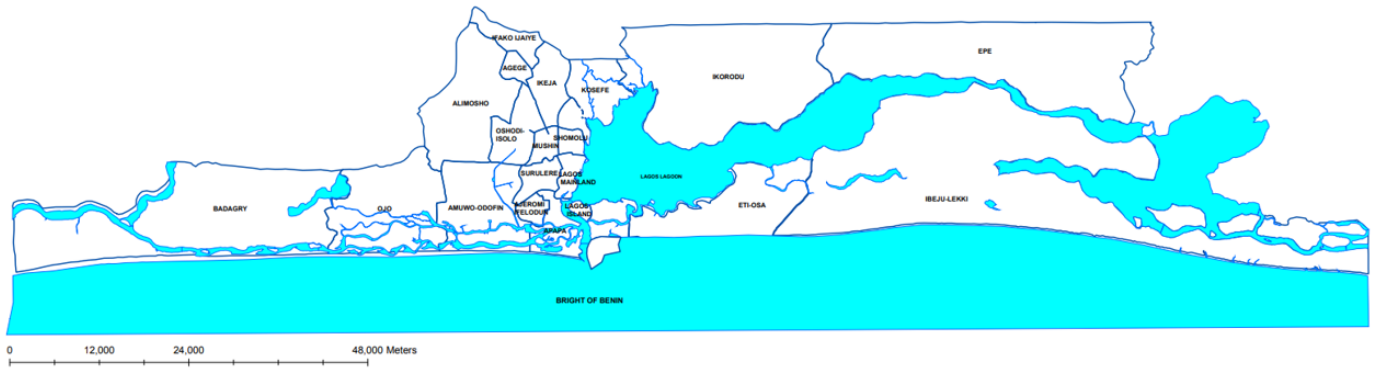
This study is situated within the Nigerian context and will focus on Lagos State, located in the South-Western region in Nigeria along latitude 6º35' and longitude 34º 5'E, 180 km along the Atlantic coastline (Figure 5-1and Figure 5-2). Lagos covers about 3 577 SqKm with a population density of about 5 000 people/SqKm and sometimes up to 20 000 people/SqKm in densely populated areas such as Alimosho LGA (Local Government Area) (Olajide and Lawanson, 2014). As a case study, Lagos offers a vantage point in the GUA practice discourse at a local level. It was a former colonial city and a former national capital city grappling with urban issues similar to that of Nairobi and Johannesburg in the global urban agenda implementation discourse (Taylor, 1988; Oyugi and K'Akumu, 2007). Lagos, with a population of about 24 million people, boasts to be the most urbanised city-state in Nigeria in reference to its history, metropolitan nature and it being a migrant city (Bigon, 1974; LASRO LASG, 2020). This is inclusive of the old nomenclature of the Lagos Metropolitan Area for spatial definition, covering the entire city-state boundary (Dano *et al.*, 2019; LASRO LASG, 2020).

Figure 5-1: Lagos State Land Use Map



Source: Lagos State Government, 2015

Figure 5-2: Map of Lagos Showing the 20 Local Government Areas and Water Bodies



Source: LASRO LASG, 2020

It is also one of the fastest urbanising cities in SSA, with an economic prospect bigger than many countries in Africa and a gross domestic product of 136.6 Billion Dollars (LASRO LASG, 2020). Despite no longer being the country's capital, Lagos remains the commercial nerve of Nigeria. Like many other former capitals of the world, Lagos experiences challenges with planning and development to manage population and urban growth alongside physical, economic and social infrastructure (Olukoju, 2003; Aluko, 2011; Alabi and Bako, 2018; Dano *et al.*, 2019).

For this study, attention will be paid to the period after 1999 when Nigeria returned to democratic rule. Studies carried out by the LASG revealed that the 1980 Lagos Regional Master Plan and guidelines were not implemented due to undemocratic incursions and neglect of urban planning principles and development plans across the city-state during the military era (MPPUD LASG, 2005; Dano *et al.*, 2019). Again, during the military era, international relations were suspended, and particularly, an economic embargo was placed on Nigeria internationally between 1993 and 1999, which had dire consequences on all sectors. Democratic rule in Nigeria post-1999 witnessed Nigeria signing and

ratifying global agendas, agreements and treaties, and consequently readmittance to the UN and allied global organisations.

Lagos continued to grow as a settlement since the 15th century because of trade and migrations, and in 1861 when the British made it the colonial capital city of Nigeria, the city further gained prominence, maintained its status and became the capital upon independence in 1960 till 12 December 1991 (Nwafor, 1986; Taylor, 1988). The Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) resolved to reconstruct the new capital for Nigeria in Abuja in 1975 because of Lagos's inability to support future urban and land development of a capital city based on the size, population growth, and the expansion constraint due to it being a coastal city (Figure 5-2 and Figure 5-3) (Nwafor, 1986; Taylor, 1988). Peil (1991) argues that another reason for the capital relocation stemmed from the need to have a capital city that is not dominated by any ethnic group, as the Yoruba dominated Lagos in the 1970s, despite Lagos being heterogeneous in population. However, despite the relocation of the seat of power to the FCT, Abuja, Lagos has continued to grow in all aspects, and the ramifications of this have exhausted and exasperated the state's living and housing conditions.

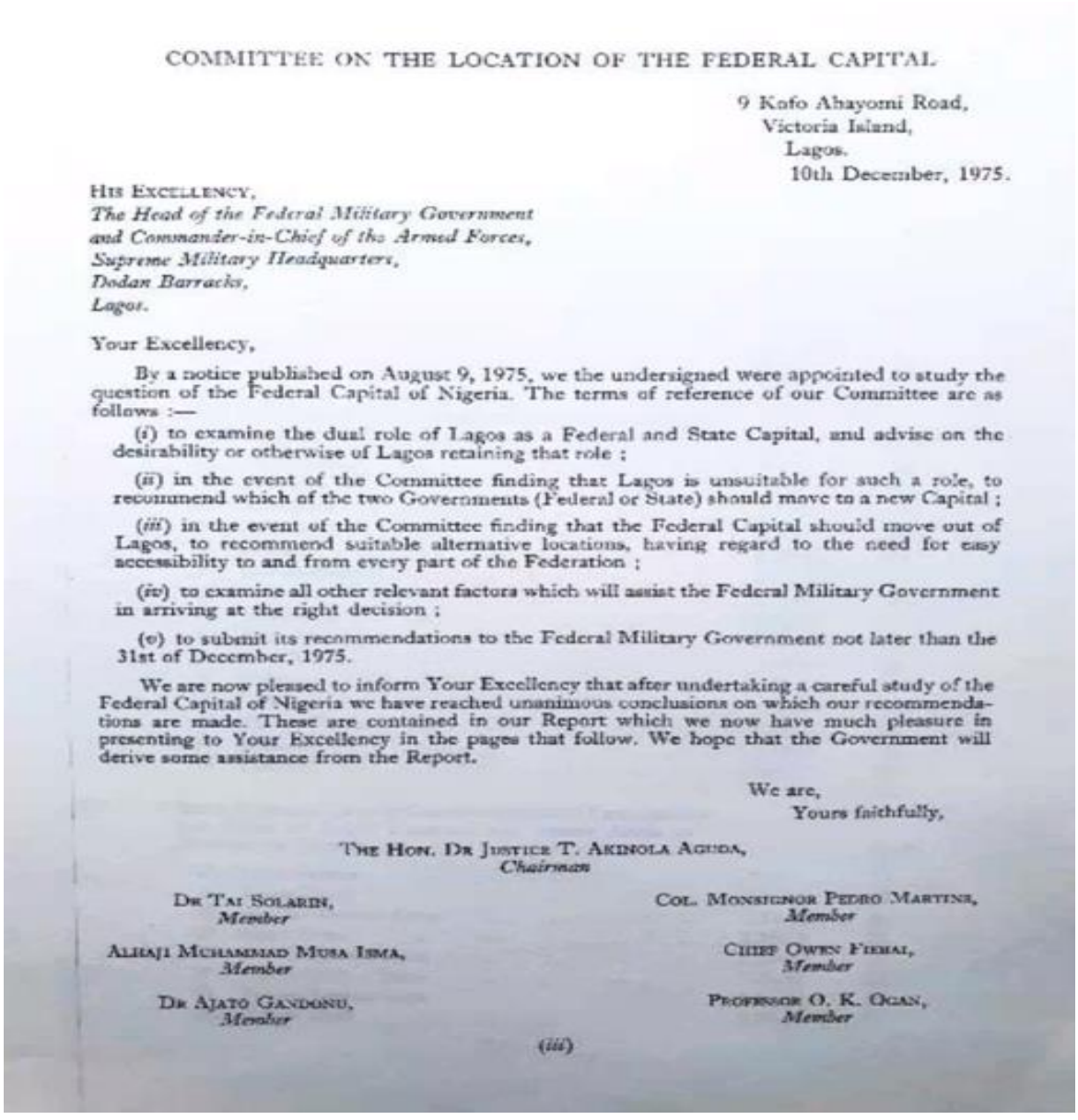
The housing deficit in Nigeria as of 2018/2019 was 20 million, and these figures have gone up significantly in the last three years (Moorev, 2019; Sanusi, 2019). Lagos alone has a deficit of three million, accounting for 15% of the national housing deficit (Gbolahon, 2017a, 2017b). According to the LSDP 2012-2025, "Lagos has witnessed the rapid deterioration of many neighbourhoods, resulting in the proliferation of slums", with "75% of the population living in places described as substandard housing" (MEPB LASG, 2013: 117). Also, being a coastal city with a 180 km coastline along the Atlantic Ocean, comprising several creeks, lagoons, rivers and areas lying below sea level, the horizontal extension of urban development becomes a significant challenge (Olajide and Lawanson, 2014; Gbolahon, 2017b). This urban challenge has led many architects, planners and developers to explore land reclamation in various parts of the state; this has been seen in Banana Island, Lekki, Ogudu and the famous Eko Atlantic City still under construction.

5.2.1 Brief history of Lagos

Lagos prides itself as a city of aquatic splendour and a traditional ancient home market, as revealed below in Lagos' panegyric in the Yoruba language (Table 5-1). The panegyric is usually recited during festivals and celebrations in Lagos. There is no dispute about the Yoruba tribe being the first settlers despite the Benin, Oyo or Abeokuta historical connection to Lagos (Bigon, 1974). Sadly, because of it being a significant economic hub for the whole of Nigeria and West Africa for centuries, a transit city, and its hospitable nature, many people make unguarded statements such as 'Lagos is no man's land'. Bigon (1974: 40) notes and states that from inception, "Lagos remains a Yoruba village with village mentality" based on "a 1946 report by the Lagos Town Planning Commission". The Yoruba race hailing from Ile-Ife predominantly occupy the South-Western region of Nigeria with diverse ethnic groups,

each having its own dialect, towns and villages; notable amongst these groups are the Aworis, Ifes, Egbas, Ijebus and Oyos (*ibid.*; Otero, 2010). Both local and foreign migrant groups from Nigeria, West Africa and Europe established trade merchants and settlements in Lagos due to its cosmopolitan nature in the 17th century (Otero, 2010). Remarkably, the Aworis (who were predominantly farmers and fishermen) as a Yoruba ethnic group first settled in Isheri, which is "about 12 miles North of Lagos" (Bigon, 1974: 40; Peil, 1991; Otero, 2010). The Oriki (Panegyric) of Eko (Lagos), shown in Table 5-1, causes a nostalgic and patriotic feeling in the citizens of Lagos when recited at festivals and state occasions. It portrays the coastal nature of Lagos with its aquatic splendour, its cultural heritage, and the famous Eyo festival celebrated in Lagos Island.

Figure 5-3: Report on the New Capital to Abuja from Lagos



COMMITTEE ON THE LOCATION OF THE FEDERAL CAPITAL

9 Kofo Abayomi Road,
Victoria Island,
Lagos.
10th December, 1975.

His Excellency,
The Head of the Federal Military Government
and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces,
Supreme Military Headquarters,
Dodan Barracks,
Lagos.

Your Excellency,

By a notice published on August 9, 1975, we the undersigned were appointed to study the question of the Federal Capital of Nigeria. The terms of reference of our Committee are as follows :—

(*i*) to examine the dual role of Lagos as a Federal and State Capital, and advise on the desirability or otherwise of Lagos retaining that role ;

(*ii*) in the event of the Committee finding that Lagos is unsuitable for such a role, to recommend which of the two Governments (Federal or State) should move to a new Capital ;

(*iii*) in the event of the Committee finding that the Federal Capital should move out of Lagos, to recommend suitable alternative locations, having regard to the need for easy accessibility to and from every part of the Federation ;

(*iv*) to examine all other relevant factors which will assist the Federal Military Government in arriving at the right decision ;

(*v*) to submit its recommendations to the Federal Military Government not later than the 31st of December, 1975.

We are now pleased to inform Your Excellency that after undertaking a careful study of the Federal Capital of Nigeria we have reached unanimous conclusions on which our recommendations are made. These are contained in our Report which we now have much pleasure in presenting to Your Excellency in the pages that follow. We hope that the Government will derive some assistance from the Report.

We are,
Yours faithfully,

The Hon. Dr Justice T. Akinola Aguda,
Chairman

Dr Tai Solarin,
Member

Col. Monsignor Pedro Martins,
Member

Alhaji Muhammad Musa Isma,
Member

Chief Owen Fiemai,
Member

Dr Ajato Gandonu,
Member

Professor O. K. Ogan,
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(*iii*)

Source: Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1975

Table 5-1: The Panegyric of Lagos

Words in Yoruba	Translation
"*Eko Akete Ile Ogbon*	Lagos the home of wisdom
Eko Aromi sa legbe	Lagos that sees water and steps aside gradually
Eko aro sese maja	Lagos that is peaceful
Eko akete ilu okun alagbalugbu omi,	Lagos the city of aquatic splendour
Ta lo ni elomi l'eko? ebiwon pe talo ni abatabutu baba omikomi, talo laabata buutu baba odo kodo	Who owns water in Lagos? Ask them who has the splash that is the father of all waters, who owns the pond of water that is the father of all ponds
Eko adele ti angere nsare ju eniyan elese meji lo	Lagos a place that a masquerade on pole runs faster than a person with two legs
Eni to o ba lo si ilu eko tiko ba gbon, Koda, bo lo si ilu oyinbo ko legbon mo	He who goes to Lagos and is not wise can never be wise even if he goes overseas
Afefe toni pon wa ni bebe okun ti yin, faaji to ni pan wa ni bebe osa	Powerful breeze is at the shore of our seas, serious enjoyment is at the bank of the river
Eko omo osha ni o ose, mase kutere, osha n gbobi, kutere n gbori	Lagos the son of the god of Kutere that accepts kola-nut, and accepts shea-butter
Eyin lomo afinju woja marin gbendeke, obun woja n wapa sio sio	The son of a cavalier who enters the market with pride, a stinking person that enters the market with timidity
Eyo o Ay"le Eyo o, Eyo baba n teyin to n fi golu n sere, eyin oni sanwo onibode, odilee"	Great Eyo that plays with gold, Eyo that does not pay tax until it gets home"

Source: Anonymous (undated).

Lagos's historical growth and development from the 15th century are connected to its proximity to waterways and the Atlantic Oceans, with many islands and lagoons that have aided transportation for slave trade, goods and services (Bigon, 1974; Otero, 2010). Over the years since the 15th century, there have been changes to the coastal city due to varying urban and infrastructural development, population increase and people's influx to the city for greener pastures. These changes have spanned the pre-colonial era, the colonial era and the post-colonial era/post-independence era.

There are different historical accounts of the formation of Lagos, rulership, settlers and the coming to being of Lagos, even though there are certain similarities in the various accounts, which also tallies with the researcher's family genealogy (George, 1904; Bigon, 1974; Peil, 1991; Olukoju, 2003; Otero, 2010).

By family genealogy, it implies accounts from my late Uncle. The researcher hails from Epe, a local government and one of the five foremost administrative centres after Lagos was created. There is consensus that Nigeria was colonised by the British in 1861, with Lagos being designated as the capital and the amalgamation of the Northern and Southern Province taking place in 1914 (*ibid.*). Lagos, from the many accounts, bore names like the Eko, Lagoas, Yourba Oko (meaning a Yoruba farm), Bini Eko 'Curamo and Onim'; however, "the name 'Lagos', which originates from the Portuguese lago or lagoa ('lake or lagoon') – replaced all the other names permanently only when the Portuguese influence started to fade and to give way to the British" (Bigon, 1974: 45).

From the first Lagos clearance of slums and huts in the 1930s by the Lagos Executive Development Board (LEDB), it is evident that Lagos has always experienced housing-related challenges such as overcrowding and houses without supporting basic services (Bigon, 1974; Peil, 1991). According to the Lagos Town Planning Ordinance Cap No. 45 of 1928, the LEDB was established to

> *"initiate and execute Town Planning Schemes with the general objective of securing proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in connection with the laying out and use of land to be made in accordance with the provisions of the Act," and to, "designate and recommend that an area be declared a Town Planning scheme and subject the area to planning and enforcement of building and sanitary codes."*

The slum clearance was a follow-up action to the bubonic plague in 1924 that ravaged Lagos for roughly six years; this led to many deaths, emphasising the important relationship between human health and planning. The clearance was necessitated because many houses were overcrowded and unsafe medically due to inadequate sanitary and waste management. During the colonial era and before the slum clearance, Lagos had established "the Public Works Department and the Sanitary Department in 1896 and 1898" respectively, to address the city's infrastructural and health needs (Bigon, 1974: 132). (Urban) Planning at this period focussed primarily on providing basic services such as water, sewage disposal and sanitation as against master planning and zoning for different land use (*ibid.*). Notably, the LEDB was instituted in the middle of the bubonic plague in 1928 with financial support from the British government to combat the plague and "to make provision for the re-planning, improvement and development of Lagos" (Bigon, 1974: 168).

Consequently, institutions were established following rational choice theory to address a social health challenge (plaque) that spread through travellers into Lagos. Because of the colonial influence and migration of white settlers to Lagos, "urban development occurred in response to the need for administrative and labour control and (the need for) effective exportable surpluses through modern means of transportation, particularly the railways" (Bigon, 1974: 11). Also, the extension of the British Crown to Lagos as an annexe was not for love for the people or the city, but as an avenue to exploit the continent's resources, exercise economic dominance, and control as well as foster trade after the

abolishment of the Slave Trade Act of 1807 (*ibid.*: 14; Otero, 2010). What was termed planning in the pre-colonial era had little to do with master planning, but more with the segregation of the city and division into different sites, with the choicest labelled as government reserved residential areas with the best infrastructure for the colonial masters (Bigon, 1974; Peil, 1991). However, beyond the slum clearance, the LEDB provided public housing estates with basic facilities in Lagos for the low-income earners and the slum clearance also gave Lagos a face-lift as a capital city of Nigeria (Bigon, 1974). New residential estates were built in Yaba, Ilupeju and Ikeja for Lagosians with separate residences for the Europeans in Lagos and Apapa areas as permitted under the imported Town and Country Planning Acts of 1932 and 1946 (Peil, 1991).

5.2.2 Historical perspective of governance in Lagos

The status, administrative and governance structure of Lagos have changed considerably from the pre-colonial era, 1960 post-colonial/independence era, as a township, city and municipality, until its creation as a state in 1967, and afterwards to the present day, as Lagos State and Lagos megacity by the current LASG administration. Table 5-2 shows notable dates in the history of Lagos. Again, Lagos had enjoyed the dual status of being a city-state and capital city post-independence, with dual control as a Federal Territory by the FGN through the Federal Ministry of Lagos Affairs and city administration through the Lagos City Council (LASG, 2020a).

Table 5-2: Historical Dates in Lagos

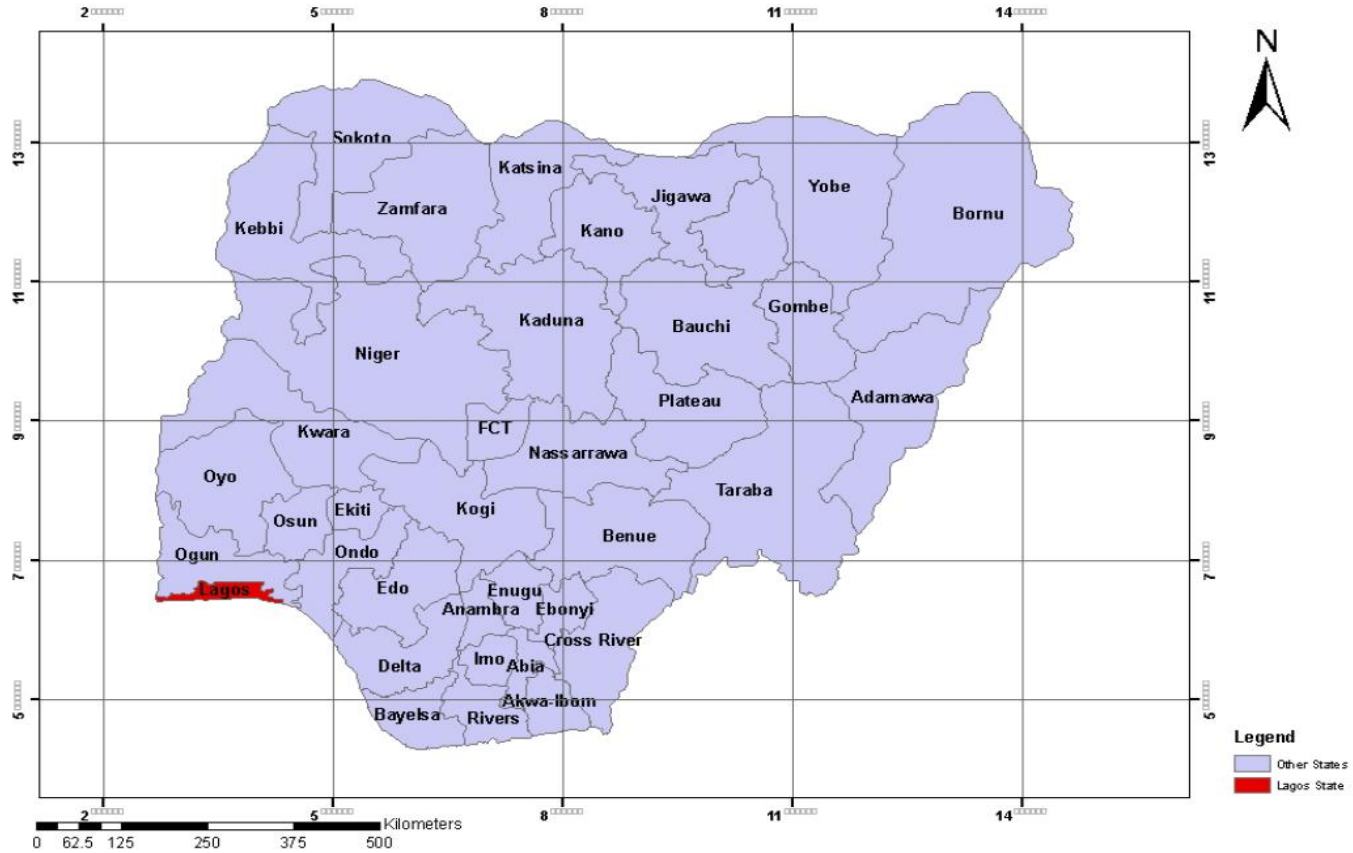
1848-1853	Under British administrator
1853-1861	Made a British Council
1861	The annexation of Lagos to the British Crown
1861-1866	Under a British governor
1866-1874	Under a Sierra Leone governor
1874-1886	Under the Gold Coast governor
1886 -	Had its own governor and administrator/Protectorate of Lagos
1900	Governed by Lagos City Council
1906	Colonial Headquarters for the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria
1914	Amalgamation/Unification of the Northern and Southern Protectorates/Capital of the Protectorate of Nigeria
1917	Declared as the only First-Class Township in Nigeria
1928	Establishment of the Lagos Executive Development Board
1934	Townships abolished in colonial Nigeria
1 October 1960	Nigeria became independent

27 May 1967	Created as a state based on the State Creation and Transition Provisions Decree No. 14 of 1967 (alongside 11 other states)
12 December 1991	Cease to be the capital of Nigeria
29 May 1999	Returned to full democratic governance till date

Source: Bigon, 1974; Peil, 1991; Olukoju, 2003; Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012.

The Nigerian government operates at three tiers, namely, the federal (national), state and local government, and this study was carried out at the state level as a local level in relation to the globe. Apart from Lagos State, there are 35 other states in Nigeria, and the FCT Abuja, as shown in . Nigeria is a county within West Africa, and it shares boundaries with countries like Cameroon, Chad, Niger and the Republic of Benin, and the Gulf of Guinea at the South along the coast. Nigeria operates a federal (republic) system of government.

Figure 5-4: Map of Nigeria Showing Lagos State.



Source: Adapted from Oduwaye and Lawanson, 2008

By virtue of the Constitution, every tier of government has three arms of government; in essence, Lagos State and Nigeria as a republic have three government arms, which comprise the executive, the legislative and the judiciary. For Nigeria, the executive arm of government includes the presidency and

the ministerial cabinet; the legislature consists of the senate and house of representatives. Lastly, the judiciary consists of the supreme court, other superior courts of record and the lower courts. Similarly, Lagos State Executive Council includes the governor, the deputy governor, the secretary to the LASG, the head of service, deputy and chief of staff, various commissioners and special advisers. The Lagos State Legislative comprises the Lagos State House of Assembly with honourable members, and the Lagos State Judiciary includes the multiple courts with different divisions within the LASG jurisdiction headed by judges. Post-independence in Nigeria, Lagos has five main divisions through which governance is administered, namely: Ikeja, Badagry, Ikorodu, Lagos (Island and Mainland) and Epe (IBILE) divisions. As a way of delivering the dividends of governance, administration and developments across the length of Lagos, the divisions are further divided into 20 LGAs and 37 Local Council Development Areas with 40 constituencies, each headed by an honourable member of the Legislative Assembly (LASG, 2020a).

5.2.3 Planning and land administration

Before the arrival of Europeans and the British, in pre-colonial times, Nigeria had its planning and land administration system, which was relatively different for Northern and Southern Nigeria (Afinowi, 2018a). Based on how Lagos developed from the 1^{5t}h to the 19th centuries (and up to the present time) due to rapid urban growth and development, these developmental changes have often necessitated urban planning, and not urban planning necessitating development. This implies that as places develop with population increase, urban development plans are produced to meet up with the physical development. The LASG under the administration of Alhaji Lateef Jakande (1979–1983) commissioned the first Lagos Metropolitan Master Plan Project and the Lagos Regional Plan for 20 years, from 1980 to 2000 as a tool for improving the living conditions, as well as controlling and resolving developmental issues (Peil, 1991; MPPUD LASG, 2005; LSMB LASG, 2015). The plans were prepared by Doxiadis Associates in association with UNDP and Sun-contractor staff while Wilbur Smith and Associates worked on the Lagos Metropolitan Master Plan Project. The Regional Plan was completed in February 1981, while the Master Plan was completed in 1980. The 1980 plans recommended "peripheral development to take the pressure off the central city, upgrading and filling industrial areas, land reclamation, and improving transport links within the city and with the countryside" (Peil, 1991: 1667). Also, it was recommended that there was a need for a Greater Metropolitan Lagos Planning Authority alongside the neighbouring Ogun State to achieve a futuristic efficient Lagos.

The LASG, under the newly inaugurated civilian government in April 2001, commissioned John Asiyanbi Associates to review the Lagos State Regional Plan (1980-2000), based on its conformity to the plans, and guidelines in line with the current realities (MPPUD LASG, 2005). Sadly, the report showed that the Plan implementation did not go beyond the late 1980s, and there was no capital vote budgeted for the state planning projects and urban development from 1983 to 2000 as prescribed. Thus,

the plans and development guides in the 1980 Master Plan were not followed through, and this non-adherence further worsened urban planning and development with the growth of slum/housing challenges and uncontrolled development across the state (*ibid.*). Additionally, many planning and developmental "issues were put in abeyance, relevant policies and guidelines for implementation, ecology conversation, and forestry development among others were neglected" (*ibid.*: 2). At present, there is no single regional master plan covering the entire city-state except for model city plans for different areas, and these plans are not readily available online or to the public. The military government that took over from 1983 to 1999, threw caution to the wind in terms of following the regional plan's recommendations, and subsequent politicians and interest groups used Lagos as a cash cow in contrast to promoting planning and development *(ibid.*; Peil, 1991). Consequently, and by precedence, "plans for Lagos…tend to be out of date before they were produced, and commitment to fulfilling the directions has always been weak" for implementation in the long run (Peil, 1991: 191).

The first British colonial planning law in the Lagos Colony was the 1863 Town Planning Ordinance, which was promulgated to address urban development control, land administration and sanitation (Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012; Afinowi, 2018a). The planning law paid attention to issues of drainage, sanitation, public health (against mosquitoes and the deaths of white settlers due to malaria), land reclamation for urban development and expansion (Bigon, 1974). However, the law also fostered spatial injustice with different planning standards for the Europeans and living areas for the indigenous people (Bigon, 1974). As shown in Table 5-2, Lagos was declared the only first-class township in Nigeria with a planning council based on the Township Ordinance No. 29 of 1917, while many towns along the coastline and railway lines were classified as second-class townships (Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012). This 1917 Ordinance set the precedence in planning towns and the country plans that cut across Nigeria in regard to physical layouts controlled by the then-District Planning Officers (*ibid.*). By the 1950s, towards independence, cities like Benin City, Ibadan, Port Harcourt and Kaduna also attained first-class township status based on the population, infrastructure available and governance (*ibid.*).

The Town and Country Ordinance No. 4 of 1946, enacted in Nigeria, was promulgated based on the 1932 British Towns and Country Planning Act and the 1940 Commonwealth Development and Welfare Act (Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012; Awuah *et al.*, 2015). Great Britain promoted the ordinance as a tool to exercise planning control over her colonies, which provided for national planning and development with different schemes (Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012). However, despite Nigeria gaining independence in 1960, Nigeria adopted this 1946 Ordinance and renamed it the Nigerian Town and Planning, which became its substantive planning law for urban planning and subsequent development regulations. The FGN passed the Urban and Regional Planning Decree No. 88 of 1992 as the first primary planning legislation devoid of the core British planning regulations (Aribigbola, 2007; Aluko, 2011; Awuah *et al.*, 2015). Aribigbola (2007) and Awuah *et al*. (2015), though, argue that Nigeria's urban governance and planning philosophies are still primarily guided by colonial planning principles, which also

substantiates an earlier argument of prevailing mainstream Western planning in the global South. The Urban and Regional Planning Decree No. 88 of 1992 spelt out the functions and responsibilities of each tier of government in Nigeria in regard to urban development, which is partly captured in Section 22(4)(3) of the National Development Urban Policy, as shown in Table 5-3 and Table 5-4, alongside the approved plans that each tier can prepare for urban planning, and development.

Table 5-3: Urban and Planning Functions and Responsibilities of the Federal, State and Local Governments

Federal Government	**State Government**	**Local Government**
"(a) the formulation of national policies for urban and regional planning and development; *(b)* the preparation and implementation of the National Physical Development Plan and regional plans on the recommendation of the Minister; *(c)* the formulation of urban and regional planning standards for Nigeria on the recommendation of the Minister; *(d)* the promotion and fostering of the education and training of town planners and support staff; *(e)* the promotion of co-operation and co-ordination among States and local governments in the preparation and implementation of urban and regional plans; *(f)* the promotion and conduct of research in urban and regional planning; *(g)* the making of recommendation and dissemination of research results for adoption by user organisations; *(h)* the supervision and monitoring of the execution of projects in urban and regional planning; *(i)* the development control over Federal lands; and	(1) A State Government shall exercise its physical planning responsibilities within the framework of the National physical development plan to ensure consistency in physical development at all levels of planning in Nigeria. (2) Subject to the provisions of Section 2 of this Act, a State Government shall exercise the following functions, that is- *(a)* the formulation of a State policy for urban and regional planning within the framework of national policies; *(b)* the preparation and implementation of regional, sub-regional, urban, and subject plans within the State; *(c)* the promotion and conduct of research in urban and regional planning; *(d)* the dissemination of research results for adoption by user organisations; and *(e)* the provision of technical assistance to local governments in the preparation and implementation of local, rural, and subject plans.	Without prejudice to provisions of sections on the Federal and State Governments of this Act, a local government shall have responsibility for the preparation and implementation of- *(a)* a town plan; *(b)* a rural area plan; *(c)* a local plan; *(d)* a subject plan; and *(e)* the control of development within its area of jurisdiction other than over Federal or State lands. *C: Execution"*

(j) the provision of technical and financial assistance to States in the preparation and implementation of plans.		

Source: Federal Government of Nigeria, 2011

Table 5-4: Approved Plan Jurisdiction for the Federal, State and Local Governments

Federal Government	**State Government**	**Local Government**
(a) a National Physical Development Plan; *(b*) regional plan; *(c)* a sub-regional plan; *(d)* an urban plan; and *(e)* a subject plan.	*(a)* a regional plan; *(b)* a sub-regional plan; *(c)* an urban plan; *(d)* a local plan; and *(e)* a subject plan	*(a)* a town plan; *(b)* a rural area plan; *(c)* a local plan; and (d) a subject plan"

Source: Federal Government of Nigeria, 2011

In Nigeria and Lagos, inclusive issues affecting urban development have been adversely affected since independence due to "inadequate land administration, planning and governance systems" (Awuah *et al*., 2015: 3). In regard to colonial land administration in Nigeria, while it was easier to convert lands in the North to the colonial administration based on the promulgation, the same action was met with opposition in Lagos and the Southern part of Nigeria (Oshio, 1990). This opposition is because the Southerners believe that all lands belong to the community of the dead people, people alive and the unborn generation; hence, land cannot be ceded or ascribed to individuals (*ibid.*). Despite this disagreement, land in Lagos environs was ceded to the British Crown at the 1914 Amalgamation with the pre-knowledge of "existing rights of ownership, and that land could be acquired from the natives" by the Public Land Ordinance No. 8 of 1876 (Afinowi, 2018a: 51). After that, the British elected governor was the only one who could grant rights of use or occupancy over land to interested parties, whether indigenes or foreigners (*ibid.*).

Owing to the many land-related issues experienced in Southern and Northern Nigeria based on the conflicts of interests in land ownership and tenure systems post-independence, the FGN made a decree in 1978 after a committee was set up to look into the various land scenarios over land rights, and the right to carry out any form of development. According to (Part 1 of) the Land Use Decree (Now Act) of 1978 of the FGN,

> *"Subject to the provisions of this Decree, all land comprised in the territory of each State in the Federation are hereby vested in the Military Governor of that State and such and shall be held in trust and administered for the use and common benefit of all Nigerians in accordance with the provisions of this Decree,*

(1) As from the commencement of this Decree

all land in urban areas shall be under the control and management of the Military Governor of each State; and

all other land shall, subject to this Decree, be under the control and management of the Local Government within the area of jurisdiction of which the land io situated". (Allott, 1978:137)

The Land Use Act is still in effect to date, and many planning and land practitioners have called for the Act to be repealed or modified based on the present-day circumstances around land rights, right of occupancy, the tenure system and the impediments land poses to housing production across the country (Omole and Akinbamijo, 2012; Babalola and Hull, 2019). However, practitioners have opined that the difficulty in amending the Land Use Act is, in fact, worsened by the Act being encoded in the Constitution of the FGN; hence, the amendment to the Act will first require the Constitution to be amended in the first instance (Heinrich-Böll-Stiftung and Arctic Infrastructure, 2017). However, government parastatals have benefitted significantly from the Act, especially the Nigerian Armed forces and government institutions. It is stated in the 1999 Constitution that nothing shall invalidate the enactment of the Land Use Act. Securing land for housing has become cumbersome with the Act vesting all land within the state in the custody of governors, the over-speculation of land by surveyors/real estate reactors for future development and the cumbersome process for securing land title (*ibid*.).

Lastly, planning as an entity is not contained within the Part 1 exclusive FGN legislative list for which the FGN can make laws or legislation according to the 1999 Constitution; instead, it is included in the Concurrent list; hence, states and local governments have the legislative right over planning. By virtue of this Constitutional position, and decisions of the Court, planning is strictly regulated at the state and local government levels. The Land Use Act with provisions in the Constitution, empowers the (state) governor to grant land lease or issue a certificate of occupancy in all urban areas, while the local government authority is in charge of leases in rural areas. To this end, planning in Lagos State is regulated by the Lagos State and Urban and Regional Planning and Development Law Cap, U2, Laws of Lagos State of Nigeria 2010. The Law has been amended twice, in 2015 and 2019. The entire section covering the Lagos State Physical Planning Permit Regulation was amended based on current planning trends and challenges. At the same time, the Lagos State Model City Development Section was repealed, and the Law is now referred to as the 2019 Lagos State Urban and Regional and Development (Amendment) Law. There is no separate legislation regulating housing; thus, housing and housing development primarily fall under the State and Urban and Regional Planning and Development Law. In view of this preceding fact, there is the need to explore the law, powers and functions of entities and individuals related to global urban and housing agendas.

5.2.4 Housing situation in Lagos

As stated above, the LEDB was established partly to address the housing situation in the middle of the bubonic plague that claimed many lives in Lagos due to overcrowding, poor sanitation and ill-health related living conditions. Apart from the slum clearance that took place in the late 1920s, Lagos experienced another significant slum clearance in the 1950s to make way for the 1960 independence with befitting layout, housing, social and public infrastructure for the capital city (Bigon, 1974). The LEDB undertook several land reclamations that resulted in public housing estates and schemes since its creation during the colonial era and post-independence period (Bigon, 1974; Peil, 1991; MPPUD LASG, 2005). Post Nigeria's independence with urban development and increasing housing challenges in Lagos, some institutions were merged, while other new ones were established to address the growing need of the city-state. By 1972, the LASG merged the LEDB, Epe Town Planning Authority and Ikeja Area Planning Authority to establish the Lagos State Development and Property Corporation (LSDPC) (Peil, 1991). Under this new Corporation, the LASG between 1980 and 1983 made the most successful effort of providing housing for citizens. This action of the Alhaji Lateef Jakande civilian administration ended unexpectedly in 1983 by the military administrator that took over. He commissioned and completed several low-cost housing estates in Nigeria: Amuwo-Odofin Housing Estate and Isolo Housing Estate, apart from the numerous urban development projects his administration carried out.

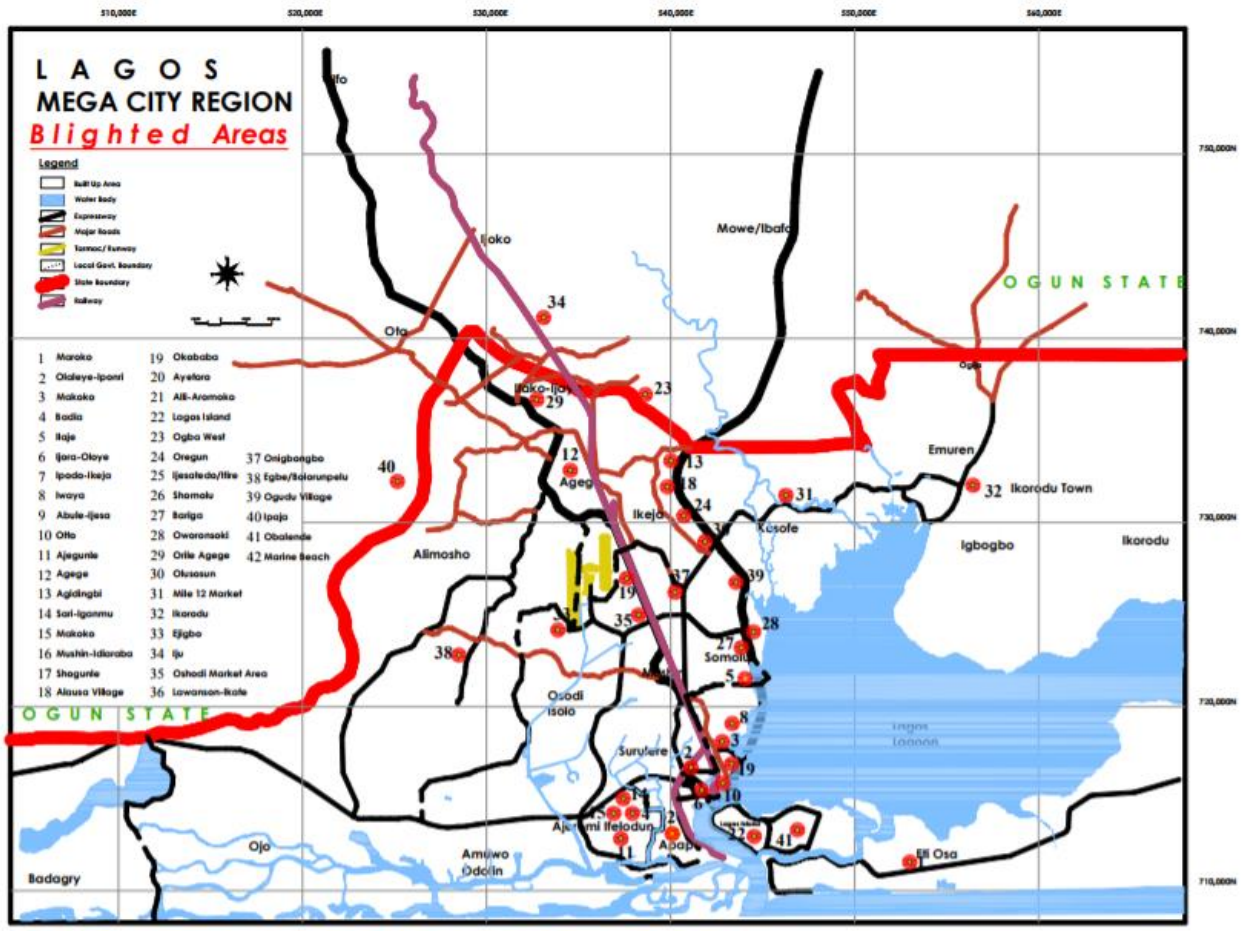
The Doxiadis Associates recommended the management of housing stock based on population projections in the Lagos Regional Plan from 1975 to 2000 to address in phases the growing concern of housing development (based on population growth and projection). Unfortunately, the dwelling stock and need analysis to address housing production in these periods were disregarded; hence, the housing deficit and proliferation of slums increased. As of 1985, the UNDP identified and assessed 42 blighted areas in Lagos, and by 1995, the SNC-Lavalin conducted a thorough study on those areas identified by the UNDP except for Maroko, which was demolished, and its inhabitants evicted in July 1990 (

Figure 5-5) (Agbola and Agunbiade, 2007). The 1995 SNC-Lavalin report revealed that the areas identified in 1985 had grown extensively with some blighted areas having a considerable degree of deterioration (*ibid.*). On the premise of the SNC-Lavalin report, the World Bank in 2007 through the Lagos Metropolitan Development and Governance Programme funded nine selected slums for an upgrade with various project interventions worth $200m (World Bank, 2015). Over the years, numbers of blighted areas/slums have also increased considerably beyond the initially identified number despite efforts made by the LASG and other entities in addressing housing provision, the upgrading of slums and informal settlements, and the provision of basic services (Gandy, 2006; Agbola and Agunbiade, 2007; Gbadegesin and Aluko,'2010).

Applying the UN-Habitat's definition of slums in Lagos based on the inadequacies of the five indicators (access to water, access to sanitation, quality/durability of dwelling, overcrowding and tenure security)

will imply that a greater portion of human settlements will be regarded as slums (United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, 2003: 47). Also, what constitutes a slum differs from one country to another country. For instance, beyond having a secured tenure in Lagos, a settlement will be referred to as a slum if the settlements and shelters are substandard, portray infrastructural decadence, lacked basic amenities and are overcrowded. Such settlements can also be likened to squalor or a blighted environment.

Figure 5-5: Map Showing Blighted Areas/Slums in Lagos.



Source: SNC-Lavalin, 1995.

Issues relating to housing and urban development have remained intractable despite efforts made by the present and previous administrations for many years, and this challenge has necessitated all sorts of programmes, partnerships and solutions with substantial financial commitments. Authors have attributed this challenge to urbanisation and inadequate planning, thereby calling for a sustainable approach to addressing the persistent concern (Gandy, 2007; Opoko and Oluwatayo, 2014; Fabienne, 2019; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). As earlier noted, Lagos has the smallest landmass compared to other states in Nigeria and many other countries in Africa, yet it has the highest population, thus, putting more

demand on housing and human settlements. This unmet demand has fostered the growth of slums, blighted areas and informal settlements (Fabienne, 2019). Also, as part of the effort to maintain a clean façade for the megacity and vision for the city-state, the government has carried out several evictions across the state to create new housing estates that are not readily affordable for the needy population. The bulk of new housing by the government and the private sector is targeted at people above the middle-class segment of the society. Notable forced evictions that have affected housing and human settlements in Lagos are Takwa Bay in January 2020, Otodo Gbame in April 2017, Ogudu Ori-Oke in 2008 and the famous Maroko eviction in July 1990. All these evictions were carried out without any resettlement plan for the former occupiers, and this menace has compounded the housing challenge in Lagos. Hence, the challenges of housing provisions, provision of basic services, urban governance and cases of evictions raise questions around gentrification, tenure security, safety, inclusivity and sustainability.

5.2.5 Geopolitical situation and urban governance in Lagos, Nigeria

Smit (2018) notes on one hand that urban governance is complicated in African cities due to the multiple actors, agendas and processes involved to address the huge urban problems facing the continent. Beyond the multiple actors, agendas and processes, urban governance is also fragmented without a unified strategy and proper coordination to govern among tiers of government and planning institutions (Gyau, 2018; Smit, 2018). Again, many cities of the South lacked the modern planning technology and innovative systems to address urban planning, land management and urbanisation challenges (Gyau, 2018). On the other hand, these challenges can be a greater opportunity for co-production, innovations and "collaborative urban governance processes" that combine the effort of all actors, agendas and resources to bring about the needed urban solution (Gyau, 2018; Smit, 2018: 55). Similarly, Gyau (2018: 28-29) noted that the failure of urban planning and governance in Nigeria is due to the contestations between "traditional and formal-sector actors", the three tiers of government, "particularly the political jurisdiction of the state and local governments in relation to the city and regional economies".

As it is in many African countries and Nigeria, the adoption of global agendas, policy-making, urban governance and revenue sharing occur mainly at the national and sub-national levels, which leaves out the local governments (Smit, 2018). Meagher (2011: 51) states that many local governments in Nigeria are "weak, disorganized, inadequately trained and staffed, and often under-resourced relative to the new range of responsibilities they are expected to take on". Similarly, power is held centrally by the LASG and its MDAs under the sitting governor and the cabinet members. Many of the local governments are handicapped and incapacitated looking up to the central government for monthly allocations to address issues within their geographical space. The weak nature of the local governments is prevalent despite the promotion of decentralisation, good governance, urban management practices and local democracies by the World Bank and UN agencies (de Oliveira *et al.*, 2013; Smit, 2018). Also, the

abysmal performance of local governments and other tiers of the government in Nigeria is directly linked to the direct influence of political parties and party affiliations. Particularly in Lagos and Nigeria, urban projects, urban governance and provision of social and public infrastructure are largely influenced by the dominant and ruling parties as a demonstration of power. Hence, urban governance and addressing developmental issues are affected because of the relationship between governance and politics.

Again, Lagos and Nigeria as a whole can be likened to what Rotberg (2003) described as a weak state, which has dire consequences on urban governance and the implementation of global developments agendas. Rotberg (2003: 4) states that

> "*Weak states include a broad continuum of states that are: inherently weak because of geographical, physical, or fundamental economic constraints; basically strong, but temporarily or situationally weak because of internal antagonisms, management flaws, greed, despotism, or external attacks; and a mixture of the two. Weak states typically harbour ethnic, religious, linguistic, or other intercommunal tensions that have not yet, or not yet thoroughly, become overtly violent. Urban crime rates tend to be higher and increasing. In weak states, the ability to provide adequate measures of other political goods is diminished or diminishing. Physical infrastructural networks have deteriorated. Schools and hospitals show signs of neglect, particularly outside the main cities. GDP* [gross domestic product] *per capita and other critical economic indicators have fallen or are falling, sometimes dramatically; levels of venal corruption are embarrassingly high and escalating. Weak states usually honour rule of law precepts in the breach. They harass civil society. Weak states are often ruled by despots, elected or not*".

Beyond the description of weak, failed and collapsed states given by Rotberg (2003), Nigeria had exhibited all the characteristics of a weak, failed and collapsed state, and unfortunately, the country is still exhibiting all these traits and characteristics post-1999 democracy era (Rotberg, 2003; Yagboyaju and Akinola, 2019). As of 2003, there were several geopolitical issues in Nigeria but the failure of the government led to many tribal wars, religious conflicts and the formation of several insurgent groups in the Northern and Eastern parts of Nigeria. Particularly, the Boko Haram terrorist organisation in Nigeria has led to the death of many Nigerians and the destruction of many human settlements and infrastructure. While Lagos is far from Northern Nigeria, the effect of the terrorist organisation is felt throughout the nation. As noted by many scholars, the beginning of civilian rule in Nigeria in 1999 brought renewed hope to the citizens with the expectation that democracy will bring about the needed social and economic developments with widespread urban infrastructure, but this hope was short-lived (Rotberg, 2003; Adejumobi, 2010; Yagboyaju and Akinola, 2019). Yagboyaju and Akinola (2019) stated that there was a military renaissance embedded in the civilian rule with many of the past military

heads of state becoming 'democratically' elected presidents through all forms of machineries. Hence, "political parties were dominated by ex-military officers, who introduced the military systems into the process of electioneering and governing structures" (*ibid*.: 9).

Having established that Nigeria faces multiple challenges in all spheres of the economy, Gyau (2018: 27) and Yagboyaju and Akinola (2019) argue that urban planning and governance approaches could be used to address these urban developmental challenges are "weak and ineffective". Hence, weaker states relegate their constitutional responsibilities to non-government actors such as the private sectors, international agencies civil society and NGOs to address core issues affecting the citizens while the leaders perpetuate themselves in power with all forms of corrupt practices (Adejumobi, 2010; Yagboyaju and Akinola, 2019). It is worthy of mention that many NGOs fight for the plight of slum dwellers in Nigeria when there are unjustifiable displacements and evictions by the state and the state apparatus. These authors noted with dismay the critical situation around governance, democracy and politics in Nigeria, and how governance is being eroded by the practices of the government. Generally, there is the prevalence of impunity and "executive arrogance of power, rampant rights violations, uncertainty of rules and procedures, poor accountability and flawed elections" by the political class and elites in Nigeria (Adejumobi, 2010: 4-5). Again, the national and sub-national governments have not been able to guarantee the security of lives and properties, yet there are massive corruption and no respect for the rule of law or constitutional mandate that empowers the pollical class to govern the electorate (Adejumobi, 2010; Yagboyaju and Akinola, 2019). While the bulk of governance issues occur at the national level, its endemic nature has permeated all sectors of the sub-government and local government. According to Yagboyaju and Akinola (2019: 4 cited in Shanum (2013)),

> *"No nation can enjoy lasting peace if her citizens live in abject poverty particularly if that nation is acknowledged as having the ability and substantial means to provide development and guarantee a good standard of living. Unfortunately, that is the tale of Nigeria. It is a tale of poor governance, insecurity and poverty in the midst of plenty".*

Unfortunately, the case in 2013 is not different from 2021 as noted by Shanum (2013). All the critical governance issues raised above have had adverse implications on governance and the implementation of GUAs in housing and human settlements across all levels in Nigeria. For instance, Lagos has experienced several forced evictions and demolitions of human settlements as mentioned in Section 5.2.4 with the support of the state actors and the disregard for the court rulings to compensate and resettle the evictees (Spaces for Change, 2018). Similarly, these evictions were carried out under the guises of illegal occupation, "environmental sanitation, fighting of crimes, and abatement of nuisances to pave way for private-sector-led developments" and personal interests (*ibid.*: 71). I (the researcher) have once observed and experienced a live eviction carried out at Ajelogun-Ketu environs in Lagos and the site of the eviction was a dreadful sour site. The construction of a new housing development started in the same settlement, and this has been a "disturbing and recurring pattern of displacement of

displacement" in Lagos (*ibid.*: 71). On one hand, there is an acknowledgement of the global agenda and constitutional mandate to protect lives and properties and to use political office to achieve manifestoes during elections. On the other hand, each successive administration blames the previous government for underperformance, yet there is the prevalence of nepotism, corruption, underperformance and a culture of distrust in the leaders.

5.3 Documentary analysis and account

As earlier stated in Chapter Three, a qualitative analysis of certain documents will be explored in regard to GUA implementation in Lagos and Nigeria as it affects urban planning and development, housing, governance, and SDGs. The considered documents are the Constitution, applicable laws in Lagos, the National Urban Development and Housing Policies, the LSDP, national economic plans and the THEMES agenda. These documents are discussed in the following sections.

5.3.1 The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (hereafter, the Constitution) is arranged in various sections and subsections under chapters (with parts) containing laws, powers, principles, fundamental human rights, schedules, codes of conduct and oaths, by which the Nigerian Republic and Sovereign State shall be ruled. This Constitution covers the federal, state and local governments with provisions for the executive, legislative, judiciary, MDAs of the republic to make Nigeria a governable state. The Constitution aims to promote good governance and ensure everyone's welfare based on the "principles of freedom, equality and justice, and for the purpose of" achieving unity among all (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999: C23-14). *Prima facie*, the Constitution is supreme, and everyone within the republic is subject to it, but it does not cover or speak to every life issue. Hence, the need for deductions from, and interpretation of certain sections of the Constitution and powers given to certain institutions under other legislation. For instance, the Constitution is not explicit as it affects planning, housing, sustainability and the environment. Also, specific issues fall within the Federal Government's exclusive jurisdiction alone, while others are shared with the state governments *vis-à-vis* local governments. In other cases, some issues fall within concurrent shared lists as a matter of rule.

According to Chapter 2: Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principle of the State Policy, Sec. 16(2)(d), it states that *the (Nigerian)*

> *"State shall direct its policy towards ensuring: that suitable and adequate shelter, suitable and adequate food, reasonable national minimum living wage, old age care and pensions, and unemployment, sick benefits and welfare of the disabled are provided for all citizens"* (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999: C23-24).

In this regard, the Constitution does not offer any guarantee or assurance of access to human shelter or even food for the citizens, invariably, securing shelter or food is the sole duty of the citizens. If the

Constitution does not make provisions for securing or accessing the necessities of life, it becomes a challenge based on adopted agendas. The Nigerian State is a party to the 1948 UDHR and the 1976 Vancouver Declaration on Human Settlement, yet her Constitution does not assure a citizen the right to access adequate shelter or housing. Similarly, in regard to the environmental objectives, Sec. 20 simply states that "the State shall protect and improve the environment and safeguard the water, air, and land, forest and wildlife of Nigeria" without adequate recourse to environmental sustainability (*ibid.*: C23-26). The vagueness in regard to specific issues in the Constitution leaves room for problems in the future as the government cannot be held liable. These are legal grounds for court cases and interpretations of the Constitution on fundamental rights of citizens and matters of sustainability,

5.3.2 The Lagos State Urban and Regional Development Law 2010

The Constitution allows the state governments to make their policies about housing. Planning and urban development have been found to fall within the purview of states (see Attorney General of Lagos State vs Attorney General of the Federation and 35 others). Hence, State Governments of the Federation are at liberty to make laws, policies and legislation for housing and urban development within their geographical jurisdiction and in line with the 1978 Land Use Act provisions. In its preamble, the Lagos State Urban and Regional Development and Planning (LSURPD) Law 2010 (As amended) (LASG, 2010: 1), is described as "a law to provide for the administration of physical planning, urban development, urban regeneration and building control in Lagos State and for connected purposes".

Consequently, Sec. 5(2) of the LSURPD Law states that:

> "for the purpose of preparing Development Plans in the State, the Ministry or relevant Agency shall from time to time invite relevant stakeholders including Ministries, Agencies, NGOs, Professional Bodies and Individuals for the purpose of considering any matter relating to physical planning and urban development" (LASG, 2010: 9).

The provisions of this LSURPD Law, 2010 empower the LASG to determine its regulatory and institutional framework in regard to physical planning and 'urban development within the state's geographical boundary. Housing is subsumed in this law, as housing development falls within the framework of urban development. The LSURPD Law, before its recent 2019 amendment, had seven parts and 103 sections and subsections addressing the following: administration of physical planning, urban development and building control; the planning permit authority; the building control agency; urban renewal, improved areas rehabilitation and upgrading; enforcement; acquisition of land and compensation; appeals and other matters (LASG, 2010). As stated earlier, the sections covering physical planning permit was amended in 2019 based on current planning trends, while the Lagos State Model City Development Section was repealed. In administering the LSURPD Law, the LSMPPUD has the supervisory and oversight function to see all matters relating to physical planning and urban development across the city-state. Other state agencies and authorities assist the LSMPPUD to ensure

compliance and enforcement; they comprise Lagos State Physical Planning Permit Authority, the Lagos State Building Control Agency and the Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency.

5.3.3 The National Urban Development Policy

The first NUDP was established in 1992 under the then military administration to address the peculiar urban challenges experienced within Nigerian urban settlements, to promote sustainable urban development and economic growth to achieve better living standards and sustainable human settlements (FGN, 2011). The growth of the human population and slums nationwide, unplanned developments and many other urbanisation related issues necessitated the review of the maiden NUDP that brought about the 2011 NUDP (*ibid.*; Paul, 2019). The 2011 NUDP also notes that many Nigerian cities suffer from poor urban governance due to their geographical size, without city or state mayors, and they are badly managed due to inadequate administrative, human and financial resources. The local governments in Nigeria are overseen by chairmen and governors for an entire state with designated local governments. The NUDP is a 23 chaptered document that addresses many urban development issues cutting across access to land, urban governance, urban renewal and slum upgrading, urban planning and resettlement, transportation, urban environment and urban infrastructure.

The policy thrust of the NUDP is to "promote a dynamic system of urban settlements, which fosters sustainable economic growth, promotes efficient urban and regional planning and development, as well as ensures an improved standard of living and well-being of all Nigerians" (FGN, 2011: 15). There are several objectives of the NUDP, which mainly rest on all tiers of government's functional role in achieving an efficient nationwide urban development, good governance and management of all urban spaces (*ibid*.). All the issues discussed in the NUDP have specific goals, objectives and strategies to achieve them; however, the policy document does not have any constitutional backing or financial mandate that will guarantee enforcement and compliance across the 774 local governments in the country. The NUDP is also not synchronised with the NHP despite the 1992 Urban and Regional Planning Law provisions calling for a national and development regulatory commission to mediate between urban and housing development. Hence, it is just another policy document that is not driven to promote sustainable urban and human settlements.

5.3.4 Lagos State and the National Housing Policy

The UN-Habibat has consistently advocated for housing to be the core of urban policies for sustainable human settlements. In the same vein, Choguill (2007) argues for a well-developed housing policy to address global urban housing crises that might worsen due to poverty and urbanisation trends (UN-Habitat, 2016). Fabienne (2019:19) states that in regard to housing and housing policy, "the shape, quantity, quality and locations of housing in any city will largely be determined by the depth and vibrancy of its regulatory, and institutional framework". The first NHP only existed in 1991, despite the general housing-related issues and the then Constitution provisions. The 1991 NHP aimed to

improve access to housing, housing ownership, or access to a conducive living environment with basic amenities by the Millennium (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1991; 2012). Around 1991, the LASG also promoted the Global Shelter Strategy for the Year 2000 with the slogan, 'housing for all by the year 2000', which was not achieved in Lagos or Nigeria. Ten years after the first NHP, several lapses were identified with it, and these lapses led to a review and the current 2012 NHP (*ibid.*). The review committee noted that there were issues impeding housing development relating to land and the Land Use Act, rapid urbanisation and population growth, lack of housing finance to support homeownership and rental housing, an active call for a legal, institutional and regulatory framework, and the need for partnership (FGN, 2012; Olayiwola *et al.*, 2005). Calls were also made for innovative housing technology, alternative building materials and private sector involvement (*ibid.*). The current 2012 NHP that resulted from the 1991 NHP is also overdue for review based on Nigeria's prevailing socio-economic situation and current population.

The 2012 NHP is an 11 chaptered document that speaks to some of the issues raised before its review, acknowledging many challenges relating to access and the right to adequate housing for the citizens. The NHP addresses land, housing finance, social housing, housing, institutional framework and other housing issues. The NHP has a well-written policy trust, objectives of realising housing, various programmes and possible strategies to deliver housing to her citizens, but it is not enforceable or governable by law. The 2012 NHP document appears more like a research report analysis into housing problems in Nigeria than a policy document backed by law that is meant to proffer solutions or ways to address housing issues. While the NHP acknowledges international agendas (which Nigeria is a party to) that support and guarantee the right to adequate housing, it is still a mere document. For instance, Sec. 1(3)(4) of the 2012 NHP categorically states that, regrettably, the objectives of the Sec. 16(2)(d) of the Nigerian Consitution

> *"of the State Policy is not actionable in law as no citizen can enforce it as a right, because housing is a right, this fundamental objective should be part and parcel of a section of the Constitution enforceable by Nigerians".*

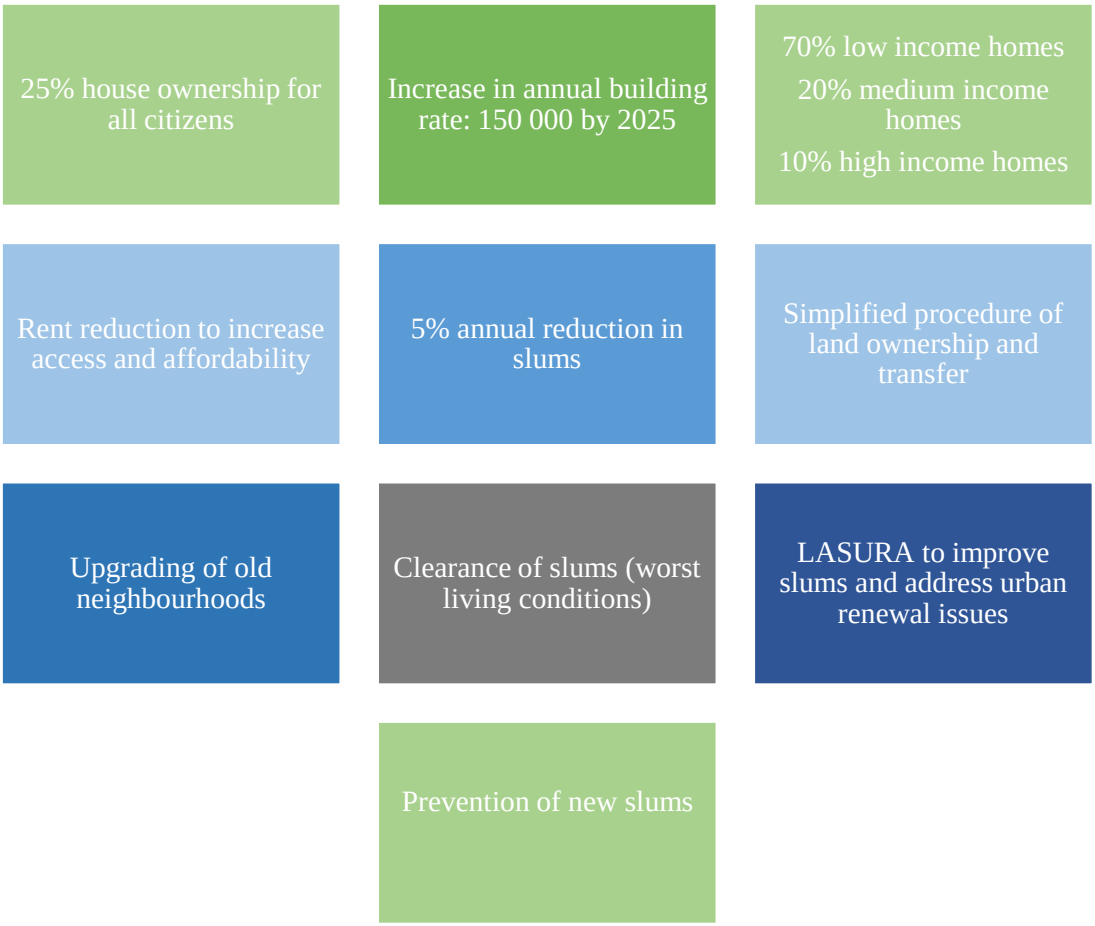
This acknowledgement is a clear case of the Constitutional devolution of the right to adequate housing to the NHP, and policies made by the State Governments, and clearly, the 2012 NHP stated that there is no constitutional power to engender the right to adequate housing. Hence, this disparity between the Constitution and the NHP partly explains why there are huge national housing deficits, increased evictions and displacements, and the proliferation of slums across the country. Lagos does not have its own housing policy, but many instruments and laws are enacted and institutions are established with several housing programmes by the LASG to drive housing provision. The next section examines plans and agendas that affect housing and urban development across the Lagos city-state.

5.3.5 The Lagos State Development Plan 2012-2025

During the Fourth Republic in Nigeria under the administration of Governor Babatunde Raji Fashola, SAN and the Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget developed a medium/long-term development plan document called the LSDP that was meant to envision Lagos plans with expectations in all sectors (MEPB LASG, 2013). The LSDP is the state's developmental strategic blueprint comprising policies, targets, strategies, programmes, goals and projected pathways to implementation and realisation of the plan (*ibid.*). The LSDP aims to achieve Lagos' vision of being Africa's model megacity by eradicating poverty and promoting sustainable economic growth through the renewal of state infrastructure and state-wide development. The LSDP has four pillars: economic development pillar, infrastructure development pillar, social development and security strategic area, and sustainable environment pillar (MEPB LASG, 2013). Matters relating to housing and urban development are captured under the Built Environment subsection of the sustainable environment pillar, and it also cuts across the other pillars. This indicates that housing is subsumed under a pillar, and is not a standalone pillar, which might imply that it is not an urgent or important matter to the LASG. Also, placing housing in the Built Environment subsection of the sustainable environment pillar might be an idea imported from the MDGs.

Section 7(7) of the LSDP gives effect to housing development in regard to the expectation of the megacity and policy targets by 2025 based on the expected growth projections. It is expected that there will be access to housing for all citizens in decent areas they have chosen to reside citywide, where new housing developments will tend towards a sustainable human settlement with ease of acquisition and ownership of land for housing development. The housing targets include scaling up decent housing access in the following measures: 25% house ownership for all citizens; housing production of 150,000 units by 2025; a built ratio of 10% high-income, 20% medium-income, and 70% low-income housing thresholds; slum reduction annually by 5% and rent reduction through state rental policy. The plans also hope to optimise housing production through many approaches by addressing affordability, increased social housing, land-related problems, innovations and technology. Figure 5-6 captures some of the key targets.

Figure 5-6: The LSDP Housing and Urban Renewal Targets by 2025



Source: Adapted from MEPB LASG, 2013

Section 10(6) of the LSDP aligns with the aims and objectives of the SDG11 (as the MDGs were winding down) despite it being drafted in 2012/2013 to promote environmental and urban sustainability for Lagos. It aims to achieve "a built environment that is clean, green, safe, attractive and organised", and to achieve "physical growth and sustainable urban development"(MEPB LASG, 2013:16). This aim became necessary for the LASG, having identified over 100 slums and well over 2 600 communities that required the LASG's interventions. The LSDP notes that the city-state has experienced a considerable decline in the dwelling environment, with about 75% of residents living in substandard housing areas and a massive housing deficit, and these occurrences have led to the growth of slums. The LSDP also advocates for "full complement of regional, district and neighbourhood master plans to guide the next phases of development" (MEPB LASG, 2013: 7). To address problems associated with the neighbourhood, regional and master plans for the city-state, the LASG decided to carry out model city plans for specific areas in Lagos to create a new all-encompassing regional master plan for the city-state. The LASG has completed Master Plans for Badagry, Lekki and Epe, and Model City Plans for Agege, Alimosho, Apapa, Ikeja, Ikoyi-Victoria Island, Lagos Mainland Central, Ikorodu and Oshodi-

Isolo as of 2020. The Kosofe Model City Plan is still outstanding and the review of Lagos Island Plans to produce the final New Regional Master Plan for Lagos. This goes to show that the LASG is still actively developing urban master plans and model city plans along seemingly traditional lines. Traditional master plans tend to be used as a form of dominant urban control with the top-down approach, and there is a need for an innovative approach with inputs from the people and communities. While traditional master plans are good and seek to "provide the basis for the integrated provision of transport, energy, water and communication with urban development"; it is driven in places like Eastern Asia to drive economic targets without recognising the local challenges and peculiarities by the government (UN-Habitat, 2009: 56). Similarly, Watson (2009b: 186) argues that planning in the global South suffers through outdated planning approaches and master plans that perpetuate "political advantage, social exclusion, and profit, and, therefore, there are vested interests in maintaining the status quo". Unfortunately, Watson's argument holds true in Lagos based on the findings from the fieldwork. Lastly, the LSDP is meant to be reviewed every five years based on new developments and prevailing circumstances since 2012; however, the LSDP has not been reviewed based on many political changes in the city-state across all sectors.

5.4 Government housing linked institutions and programmes in Lagos

Several Lagos institutions in both the private and public sector are directly involved in housing provision, housing finance and rental housing to increase housing stock in Lagos based on the housing deficit and population growth. While the Lagos State Ministry of Housing is directly involved in housing production as the statutory ministry in conjunction with other MDAs and the private sector, the LSURPD Law empowers the Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency (LASURA) under LSMPPUD to implement the state policy on urban Renewal and Upgrading of slums (blighted communities) in the State (LASURA, 2016; Gbolahon, 2017b). Some other institutions are also not directly involved in the actual supply side of housing, but they provide some support to reduce the deficit. Table 5-5 shows the public institutions involved in housing production across the city-state.

Table 5-5: Lagos State Government Housing Linked Institutions

S/No	Institution	Year Established	Role	Nature of Housing Intervention	Target Market
1	Ministry of Housing	1999	Statutory ministry for developing, managing, felicitating housing policies and implementation	Direct involvement/ public-private partnerships	High/medium/low-income brackets
2	Lagos State Development and Property Corporation (LSDPC)	1972	Mass housing, property development, and real estate for commercial purpose	Direct involvement/ public-private partnerships	High/medium-income brackets (Use to cater for all)
3	Lagos State Investment Corporation (LBIC)	1980	Providing mortgage finance facilities for housing development	Direct involvement/ public-private partnerships	High/medium-income brackets (Use to cater for all)
4	New Towns Development Authority	1981	Planning and implementing growth plans of Lagos for even development; Government site and services schemes	Direct involvement	High/middle-income brackets
5	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency	1991	Slum renewal and regeneration, housing development, and provision of services	Direct involvement/ public-private partnerships	Low-income brackets
6	Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development	2004	Planning and urban development	Supportive involvement	
7	Lagos State Physical Planning Permit Authority	1998	Building approvals and permits	Supportive involvement	
8	Lagos State Building Control Agency	2012	Enforcement of approved permits, safety and compliance	Supportive involvement	
	Lagos State Land Bureau	1999	Land acquisition and administration	Supportive involvement	

Source: Adapted from Fabienne, 2019

One of the vital housing programmes is the Lagos Home Ownership Mortgage Scheme (Lagos HOMS), which is an initiative of the Lagos State Mortgage Board (LSMB), which started in February 2014. While the LASG through the Lagos State Ministry of Housing made housing units available in different parts of the state, interested parties were expected to make a deposit of 30% of the unit cost, while the rest is paid monthly within a ten-year window period at 9.5% interest rate. The Lagos HOMS signalled, through the LSMB, a new way for homeownership apart from the previous interventions of the LSDPC and LBIC. Some of the locations for this scheme are Oba Lateef Adam-Iloro, Hon. Rotimi Shotonwa-Ikorodu, Hon. Olaitan Mustapha-Ojokoro, Gbagada llb and Iponri. Fabienne (2019) notes the Lagos HOMS scheme was technically halted for political reasons (change in government after elections), with

many of the buildings billed for completion stopped between May 2015 and December 2016 when another state administration took over administrative power. The Isale Gangan, LASURA urban renewal housing project suffered the same fate, with the project abandoned, leading to multiple variations and contract inflation. Again, political issues and differences within the same political party have affected housing production in Lagos. This happened primarily because the newly elected governor of Lagos State did not have the support of the outgoing governor; hence, many of the projects started by the previous administration were stalled. Thus, housing and other sectoral projects suffered the same fate and poor implementation due to political issues and strife in government.

The administration of Governor Akinwunwi Ambode in 2015 introduced the 'Rent-to-Own' rental housing scheme under the same LSMB, where existing housing stock under the Lagos HOMS is also used to champion this new scheme. As against 10% down payment, the Rent-to-Own allows for a 5% down payment after a citizen has been prequalified based on interest, and the balance is paid monthly for a period of ten years. While the Lagos HOMS operates mainly on the basis of mortgage finance directly provided by the LASG, the Rent-to-Own scheme thrives on the applicants paying their monthly rent for ten years, and subsequently, they become homeowners (for the same property they were paying rent for). The former mortgage schemes initially pay the bulk of 30% and enjoy a lower monthly payment than the higher monthly rental payment under the 'Rent-to-Own' rental housing scheme. The main argument against these schemes lies in the applicants' ability to service the monthly repayment or rent for a low-income earner, considering the minimum wage and salaries obtainable in Lagos.

Apart from the two schemes discussed above, the LASG also partners with the private sector through private-public partnerships (PPP) in different forms and capacities to increase the Lagos housing supply. Many of these interventions are premised on LASG making land available as equity while the private sector or developer funds the housing development based on a mutually benefitting agreement, which is a win-win situation (Afinowi, 2018b, 2019). The LASG absorbs houses under this programme and the earlier schemes for onward delivery to the end-users. Fabienne (2019) notes that the LASG signed a pact with Echostone Housing Limited to provide 20 000 units between 2018 and 2021, a partnership where the LASG provides the land while Echostone is funding the development in three locations. Beyond the efforts of the LASG, there are also notable PPP through the FGN interventions in Lagos to provide mortgage finance facilities for housing development from the Nigeria Mortgage Refinance Company (NMRC), and the FMBN (*ibid.*). Mortgages provided by the NMRC and FMBN are disbursed to end-users to buy houses or finance home acquisition through primary mortgage banks (PMBs) and housing corporations. The LASG has also commenced rebuilding and redevelopment of old government housing estates through PPP as well, where the old layouts are densified due to insufficient land, thereby increasing density and capacity in the long run in the same location. The Lagos State Ministry of Housing and LASURA partly manage these redevelopments. Many of the targets in the LSDP 2012-2025 are far from being met, which is a significant concern for sustainable housing in Lagos.

According to the NHP, the housing function in Nigeria is a joint responsibility of the three arms of government, individual, voluntary organisations, the private and the public sector due to the nature of Nigeria's housing deficit, with recommended roles for the three tiers of government (FGN, 2012). However, due to the local governments' incapacitated state based on constitutional provisions, the federal and state governments are actively involved in housing production and urban development, while the local government remains redundant. This study's primary focus is on Lagos (as a city and a state) and the relationship examined upwards to the national government and the globe and downwards to the local governments. The local government as an arm of government is missing in the equation of housing delivery in this context of Lagos, and consequently, it is not part of the process to realise global urban housing agendas in Nigeria (Adeyemi *et al*., 2012; Boris, O., 2015; Olaiya, 2016; Lawanson, 2018).

5.5 National and Lagos State economic planning

Nigeria has experienced changes in its governance ruling between civilian and military rule and now is the fourth Republic since 1999, with six national elections from 1999 to date. Different administrations have adopted various development and economic planning strategies to rule in the three tiers of government since independence. While the local governments usually defer to the state government in power, the elected presidents and state governors, and their cabinet members always develop economic plans or strategies to rule-based on their manifestoes, political affiliations (parties), economic situation and prevailing circumstances. As such, development planning plays a crucial role in every administration to deliver the dividends of governance and democracy to the citizens. The importance of the development plans lies in their ability to decide on targets and budgetary provisions that will considerably affect all sectors, and in this case, housing, sustainable human settlements and urban development.

In the democratic dispensation of Nigeria’s history since 1999, the FGN has employed different economic plans: the National Economic Direction (1999-2003); National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) (2003-2007); 7-Point Agenda of President Umaru Musa Yar’Adua (2007-2011); Transformation Agenda of President Goodluck Jonathan (2011-2015); Nigeria Economic Recovery & Growth Plan (2017-2020); and Nigeria Economic Sustainability Plan (2020-2023). During the second term era of President Olusegun Obasanjo (2003-2007), the FGN also cascaded this plan to the state and local governments to mirror the same strategies in its decentralisation move, which gave rise to State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS), and Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy. It is evident that every administration wants to champion a new plan or strategy; hence, there is hardly any continuity of development plans, even though the strategies seem to be changing with new names and acronyms, but none of these development plans have transformed the economy and the citizenry since 1999. Marcellus (2009) argues that the previous plans have always been faulty, and failing due to either the plans being wrong, or that the problem lies

within the implementation. The development plans adopted by different administrations in the past always promise to reduce poverty and create economic activities to improve the lives of the citizens, even though there is increased urbanisation of poverty in Nigeria (*ibid.*).

With recourse to Lagos, there appears to be a continuity in the administrative drive to transform the state (and not the people of Lagos) since 1999 due to the smooth succession of the same political party/ideologies, even though the different administrations have had different focuses during their four-year terms. The administration of Bola Tinubu as governor of Lagos state (1999-2003; 2003-2007) in 1999 had many reforms, urban and developmental issues to deal with after the 1999 democratic election, where LASG has had three successive military administrations (Filani, 2012). Many documents and reviews carried out by the LASG show that the outgone military government disregarded many of the development plans and guides stated in the 1980-2000 Lagos Regional Master Plan (MPPUD LASG, 2005; LSMB LASG, 2015). In 2005, the LASG ran with the SEEDS, tagged LASEEDS with focus on ten-point agenda considering the following areas: "environmental and physical planning; roads and transportation; power and water supply; education; employment; health; physical security; food security; shelter; and revenue enhancement" (Filani, 2012: 18). At the implementation of the LASEEDS, the LASG came up with the vision for Lagos to be 'a model African city'.

The subsequent administration of Babatunde Raji Fashola (BRF) (2007-2011; 2011-2015) followed in the same direction as the previous administration of Bola Tinubu to transform the state by continuing with all the projects started by the previous LASG with several reforms, the creations of new laws and the LSDP. During his first tenure starting from 2007, Lagos experienced considerable development across the entire Lagos in all the ten-point agenda areas with many new functional MDAs addressing development issues. The second term of his administration gave attention to four critical sectors while also boosting other sectors based on the previous administration's foundation. The four critical areas are Power, Agriculture, Transportation and Health, alongside LASEEDS. By 2015, a new administration of Akinwunmi Ambode took over from BRF; even though they both belong to the same political party and share ideologies, the schism between the two past governors led to a detour in continuity, which considerably affected development planning, strategies and projects in Lagos State. Governor Ambode pursued four key pillars from 2015 to 2019: economic development, infrastructure development, social development and sustainable environment. While focusing on these four pillars, every sector of the economy was transformed despite the peculiar challenges faced by Lagos in terms of population influx, scarcity of land, massive traffic congestions, overstretched social and public infrastructure.

In 2019, Governor Babajide Sanwo-Olu took over the reins of the LASG, aligned his development planning with the SDGs under six pillars, and strategic development agenda tagged THEMES. Apart from the LSDP, Lagos's THEMES Agenda document is significant for the present administration of LASG formulated along the lines of sectoral governance and fiscal policies for achieving the SDGs.

The THEMES stands for "Traffic Management and Transportation; Health and Environment; Education and Technology; Making Lagos a 21st Century Economy; Entertainment and Tourism; and Security and Governance". The next section elaborates more on the THEMES development agenda for Lagos State.

5.6 Lagos State THEMES agenda alignment with the sustainable development goal

The THEMES Agenda was developed in May 2019 by the Lagos State Government Transition Committee (LASGTC) and Sub-committee comprising key LASG officials, external tax and audit consultants, resource managers, planners, economists and experts from all the pillar areas with several consultations. The pillars were developed with significant inputs from LSDP as a long-term policy, medium-term fiscal plans and medium-term sector strategies of LASG following annual budgets. Figure 5-7 captures all the pillars, sub-sectors and how each one relates to the UN 2015 SDGs. The next sections elaborate on each agenda as a development planning tool used by the LASG cutting across all government sectors.

Figure 5-7: Lagos State THEMES Agenda



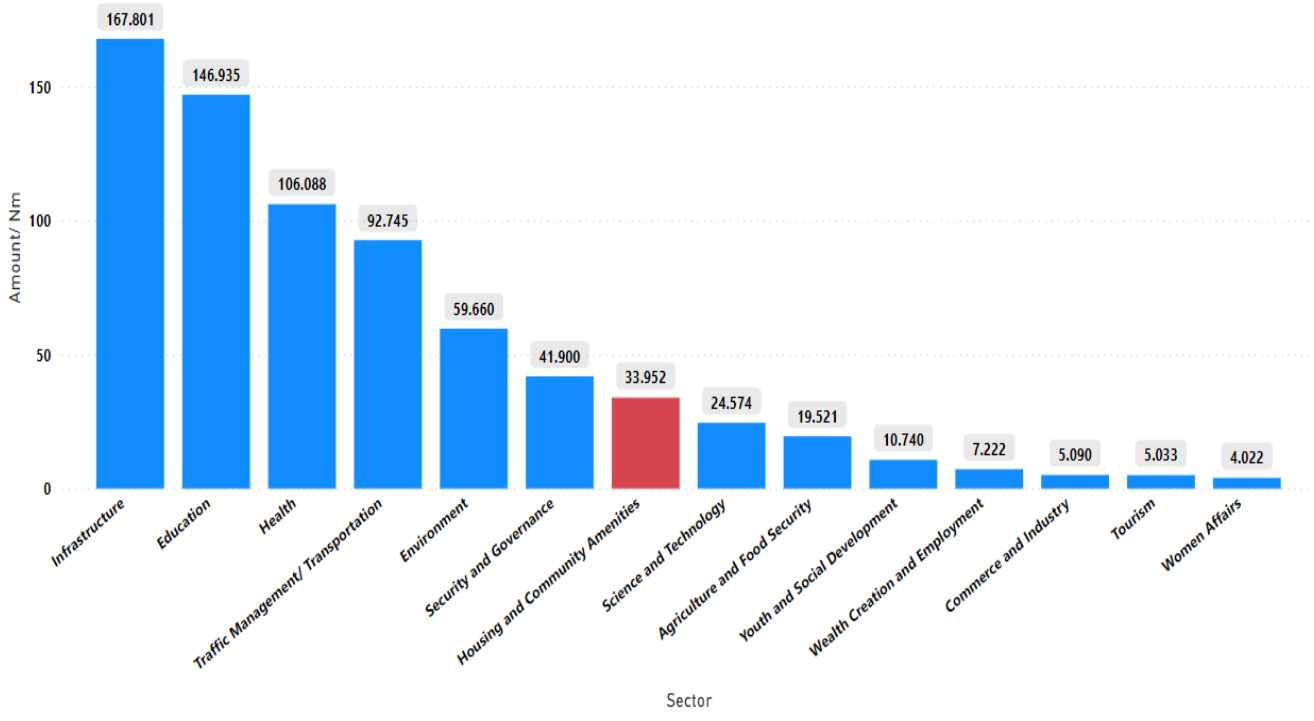
Source: LASG, 2020b.

For this study, the focus will only be on the theme of 'making Lagos a 21st-century city/economy' due to matters of housing and urban development captured under this theme. The LASG budget for the fiscal year 2021 after the establishment of the THEMES Agenda and during the Covid-19 pandemic was tagged 'the budget of rekindled hope', was valued to the tune of 1.155 Trillion Naira ($2.81bn)[1] (Proshare, 2021). At the budget presentation, it was stated that the government will focus on the following: traffic congestion, health, environment, education, technology, security and the entertainment industry (Proshare, 2021). It is worthy to mention that housing is not one of the priority areas as argued by this thesis nor the theme of making Lagos a 21st-century city was highlighted as a focus area by the LASG. Again, Figure 5-8 and

Figure 5-9: Lagos State Government 2021 Sector-based Budget by Percentage

capture the sectoral-based budget based on government priority areas and the housing sector is lumped with community amenities. In the LASG 2021 budget, housing alongside community amenities only accounts for 4.68% of the sectoral budget allocation; this goes to show that the government places more attention and priority on other sectors of the economy compared to housing and human settlements.

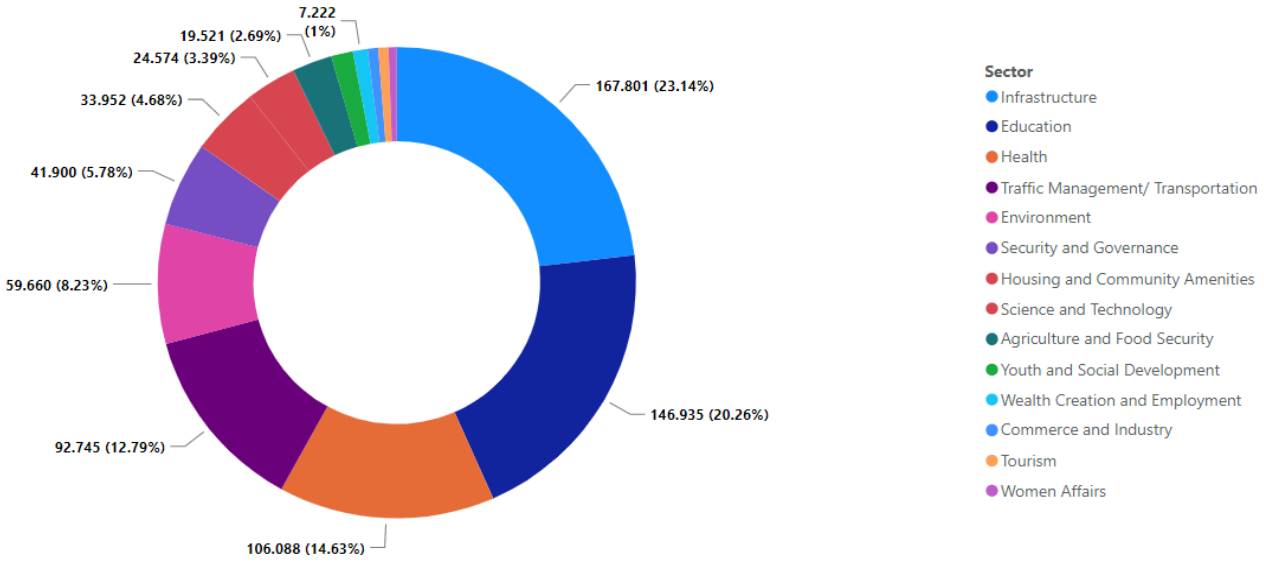
Figure 5-8: Lagos State Government 2021 Sector-based Budget



Source: Adapted from Proshare, 2021

[1] Based on online Google Exchange Rate of $1=N410,62 on 11 November 2021.

Figure 5-9: Lagos State Government 2021 Sector-based Budget by Percentage

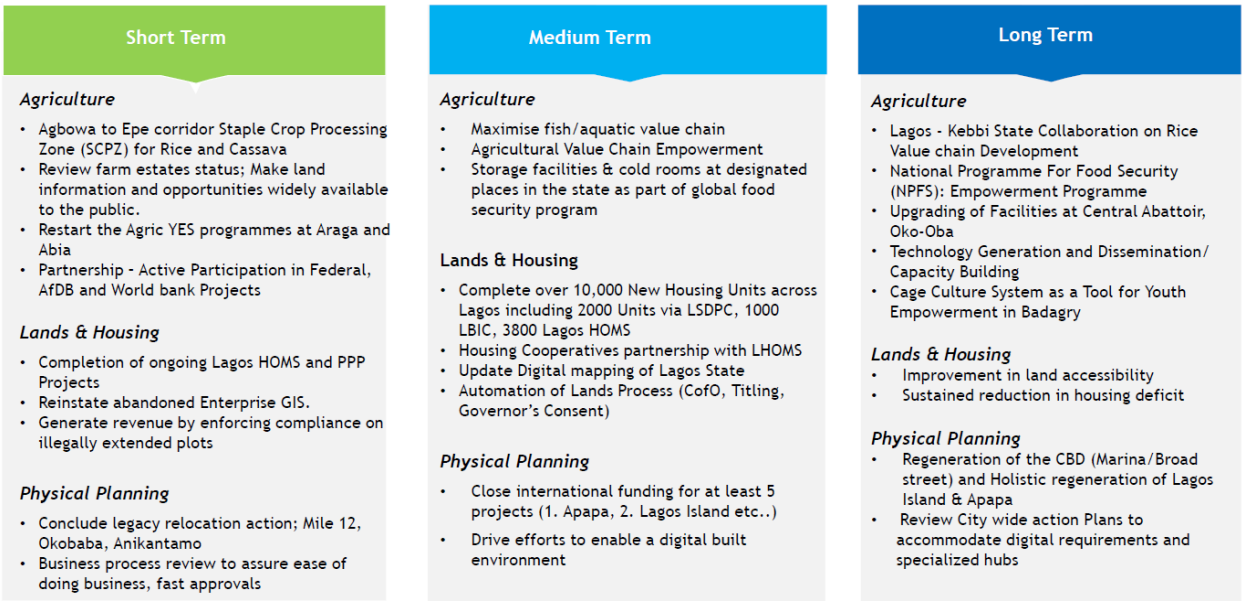


Source: Adapted from Proshare, 2021

5.7 Making Lagos a 21st-century economy

Making Lagos a 21st-century economy pillar relates more to the aim and the objectives of this study and beyond the SDG11 (11). It covers SDG 1, 2, 5, 7, 8 and 17. It has the mandate to "develop initiatives and strategies to make Lagos a 21st-century economy by focusing on key economic sectors, improving the ease of doing business at global standards and ensuring social development, wealth creation and inclusion" (LASGTC, 2019d: 8). The scope also covers sustainability pillars, with the economic sector focusing on agriculture, land and housing, and physical and urban development. Unfortunately, housing in the Lagos THEMES agenda is grouped under the economic sector and not under the social sector, and this categorisation by the LASG reflects the mindset towards housing. The social services focus on women's affairs, social development, youth development and wealth creation for Lagos' citizens. Lastly, the enterprise services focus on the ease of doing business, commerce, cooperatives, PPP/Lagos Global and IBILE Holdings. The principal implementing MDAs are Ministry of Agriculture, Lands Bureau, Ministry of Housing, Ministry of Energy and Natural Resources, Ministry of Commerce, Industry & Co-ops, Ministry of Wealth Creation, Ministry of Women Affairs & Poverty Alleviation, Ministry of Youth and Social Development, Public-Private Partnership, Lagos Global, IBILE Holdings, Lagos State Residents Registration Agency, and Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development. Part of the suggestion made in this pillar is for the realignment of MDAs that can deliver the same output and efficiency, considerably reducing overhead. In regard to agriculture, lands and housing, and physical planning, Figure 5-10 captures the short, medium, and long-term projections for Lagos.

Figure 5-10: Short, Medium, and Long-term Actions Plan



Source: LASGTC, 2019d:12

Concerning lands and housing, the THEMES agenda aims at achieving five significant initiatives based on the prevailing urban infrastructure in Lagos. The pillar aims to complete outstanding Lagos HOMS projects (valued at 4.05 billion Naira ($9.9m)[2]), upgrade Lagos electronic-geographic information system projects (13.8 billion Naira ($33.6m)), PPP projects (400 Billion Naira ($974.1m)), regularise title to land within uncommitted government acquisition (124 Million Naira ($0.3m)) and regularise illegal extended land/extension. The LASG hopes to achieve emergency shelters, transitional housing for vulnerable groups, subsidised housing for low-income earners, sustainable rental housing, increase rental housing towards ownership (rent-to-own), and ultimately promote home ownership. Achieving this target by the LASG is enormous and cannot be quantified in financial terms, but the projects can be achieved in phases based on the many projections made by the LASG with funding sources.

With the LASG THEMES Agenda, the present LASG administration has aligned its development plans with the 17 SDGs under six key themes and other sub-themes as highlighted in Table 5-6 (with complete SDG11 in Appendix M), with the SDG11 targets and the NUA. However, the issues of urban and housing development do not appear to be at the forefront of the agenda, but it is contained under the agenda of "Making Lagos a 21st Century Economy". Again, there is practically no mention of the NUA in many dealings of the state and the THEMES Agenda. As argued by Afinowi (2019), and observed in the sections of the LASG THEMES Agenda, the LASG has shown more preference to promote economic development, make the city look attractive to foreign investors, and promote the image of

[2] Based on online Google Exchange Rate of $1=N410,62 on 11 November 2021.

Lagos as a world-class city. While there is no problem with this preference, it has only shown that sustainable housing is not the primary concern of the LASG.

Table 5-6 captures a nexus between the two prevailing GUAs, the 2012-2025 LSDP and the prevailing LASG THEMES agenda (discussed in the previous section). While the LSDP was instituted in 2012/13 for the winding down of the MDGs and the inception of the SDGs, its content captures key elements and concerns for sustainable urban and housing development in Lagos. The more recent 2019/2020 Lagos THEMES agenda was designed with the SDGs in mind, considering the urban environment as captured under making Lagos a 21st-century economy. Hence, Table 5-6 finds the meeting point where each of these agendas speaks to each other alongside the Lagos 2012-2025 Development Plan. While it might be too early to assert the working and non-working of the SDG11/NUA in Lagos, a careful observation as an architect and urbanist alongside the many interviews and focussed meetings indicated the GUAs acceptance by the government makes it clear that it is more an international parameter for development. This is based on the missing drive to implement these agendas.

While the LASG is a sub-national government without a direct link towards signing and ratifying GUAs, Lagos is being promoted with global competitiveness as part of the world-class cities with neoliberal policies as part of globalisation trends (Leaf and Pamuk, 1997). The promotion of world-class cities and the preference is given to cities in the SDG11 and the NUA affords major world cities to participate in world conferences and fora, and be part of global networks in the global strategy for sustainability. The alignment of the development plans with the 17 SDGs shows a semblance of the city-state being a part of the global city with a global reporting standard and more of an international parameter of development.

Despite the LASG developing and establishing this detailed, lofty and carefully thought-out agenda to guide Lagos in realising the 2030 UN SDG Agenda, the city has suffered a significant setback in its implementation with the global Covid-19 pandemic since early 2020. Even though they have financial projections and different funding sources to implement the THEMES agenda, Nigeria has suffered economic depression pre-pandemic and during the pandemic. These developments have changed the focus of national and state governments towards survival for the citizens and contain the pandemic's effect. According to the special adviser to the Governor of Lagos on SDGs about the impact of the Coronavirus on the implementation of the THEMES AGENDA in Lagos, she states that:

> *"The outbreak of the Coronavirus (COVID-19) has heightened the call for renewed dedication to sustainable development by governments at various levels, which Governor Babajide Sanwo-Olu has taken as a great priority and infused in the state's development agenda codenamed THEMES. "While the pandemic has significantly exacerbated some of the problems SDGs are set to solve, it has also triggered the necessity for more concerted actions in addressing many developmental issues troubling our world.* (LASG, 2020b: para 3)

Table 5-6: SDG-NUA-LSDP-LAGOS THEMES Agenda Linkages

2015 SDG11 Framework Target	**Urban SDG (11) Monitoring Indicator**	**2016 Relevant and Related New Urban Agenda (NUA) Paragraphs**	**2012 Lagos State Development Plan**	**2019 Lagos State THEMES Agenda**
11.1 By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe, and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums.	Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements, or inadequate housing	32 We commit ourselves to promoting national, subnational, and local housing policies that support the progressive realization of the right to adequate housing for all as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, that address all forms of discrimination and violence and prevent arbitrary forced evictions and that focus on the needs of the homeless, persons in vulnerable situations, low-income groups, and persons with disabilities	100% of citizens will have access to decent homes; At least 25% of citizenry will own their home by improving access to affordable mortgages. Annual house building rates to be progressively accelerated over the plan period to achieve 20,000 units p.a. by 2015, 50,000 units by 2020 and 80,000 units by 2025. New housing-built ratio of 70% low-income homes; 20% medium-income homes; 10% high-income homes.	Complete over 10,000 New Housing Units across Lagos including 2000 Units via LSDPC, 1000 LBIC, 3800 Lagos HOMS (rent-to-own) Housing Cooperatives partnership with Lagos HOMS Laying the framework for mass housing through PPP Rent control through rent-to-own & LASRETRAD. Upgrade of infrastructure in existing estates Reduction in the number of Slums through LASURA
		32 We commit ourselves to promoting the development of integrated and age- and gender-responsive housing policies and approaches across all sectors., and at all levels of government — policies and approaches that incorporate the provision of adequate, affordable, accessible, resource efficient, safe, resilient, well-connected, and well-located housing.		
		33 We commit ourselves to stimulating the supply of a variety of adequate housing options that are safe, affordable, and accessible for members of different income groups of society...We will take positive measures to improve the living conditions of homeless people…, and to prevent and eliminate homelessness, as well as to combat and eliminate its criminalization.		
		34 We commit ourselves to promoting equitable and affordable access to sustainable basic physical and social infrastructure for all, without discrimination, including affordable serviced land, housing, modern and renewable energy, safe drinking water and sanitation, safe, nutritious, and adequate food, waste disposal, sustainable mobility, health care and		

			family planning, education, culture, and information and communications technologies.	5% annual reduction in slums; Prevention of new slums. Rent reduction to increase access and affordability.	Encouraging even development across the State Strategic goals for emergency shelter, traditional housing, subsidized housing, sustainable rental housing, and home ownership.
		46	We commit ourselves to promoting the role of affordable and sustainable housing and housing finance, including social habitat production, in economic development… at the national, subnational, and local levels		
		105	We will foster the progressive realization of the right to adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living. We will develop and implement housing policies at all levels, incorporating participatory planning and applying the principle of subsidiarity, as appropriate, to ensure coherence among national, subnational and local development strategies, land policies and housing supply		
11.2 By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women,	Proportion of the population that has convenient access to public transport disaggregated by age group, sex and persons with disabilities	50	We commit ourselves to encouraging urban-rural interactions and connectivity by strengthening sustainable transport and mobility, and technology and communications networks and infrastructure, ... This should include connectivity between cities and their surroundings, peri-urban and rural areas, as well as greater land-sea connections, where appropriate.	By 2025, 90% of population lives within 15 mins walking distance to public transportation. By 2025, the capacity of the public transport sector increases from handling 7 million passenger trips per day to 12 million passengers trips per day. By 2025, there is a 50% fall in the numbers of unroadworthy vehicles	Enhanced mobility and affordability of transport services and transport network resilience Provision of world-class infrastructure facilities for a comfortable, reliable, and accessible public transport Integration between different modes of transport making it seamless to travel. Roll out implementable segments of the Bus
		54	We commit ourselves to …sustainable and efficient transport infrastructure and services, where possible, achieving the benefits of connectivity and reducing the financial, environmental, and public health costs of inefficient mobility, congestion, air pollution, urban heat island effects and noise. We also commit ourselves to giving particular attention to the energy and transport needs of all people, particularly the poor and those living in informal settlements.		
		113	We will take measures to improve road safety and integrate it into sustainable mobility and transport infrastructure planning and design.		

children, persons with disabilities and older persons.		114	We will promote access for all to safe, age- and gender-responsive, affordable, accessible, and sustainable urban mobility and land and sea transport systems, enabling meaningful participation in social and economic activities in cities and human settlements, by integrating transport and mobility plans into overall urban and territorial plans and promoting a wide range of transport and mobility options.	on the Lagos State registered vehicles on the roads. By 2025, there is a 70% increase in traffic system management awareness by the public. By 2015, there is a well-articulated and adopted transport policy and strategic management framework	Reforms; making water Transport more attractive and available; promotion of walking and cycling. Drive the State towards becoming a smart and moving; Reduction of traffic congestion with the corresponding reduction in travel time.
11.3 By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated, and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries.	Ratio of land consumption rate to population growth rate Proportion of cities with a direct participation structure of civil society in urban planning and management which	26	We commit ourselves to urban and rural development that is people-centred, and to the realization of all human rights and fundamental freedoms, facilitating living together, ending all forms of discrimination and violence, and empowering all individuals and communities while enabling their full and meaningful participation. We further commit ourselves to promoting culture and respect for diversity and equality as key elements in the humanization of our cities and human settlements.	By 2025, increase in participation of women in politics and decision-making. By 2020, 60% of the youth and women population are economically empowered and effectively participate in State development programmes.	Ensure inclusive development. Reformatory framework to reposition physical planning departments and agencies for enhanced synergy, effective and efficient service delivery. Review city wide action plans to accommodate digital requirements and
		21	We commit ourselves to promoting institutional, political, legal, and financial mechanisms in cities and human settlements to broaden inclusive platforms, in line with national policies, that allow meaningful participation in decision-making, planning and follow-up processes for all, as well as enhanced civil engagement and co-provision and co-production.		

	operate regularly and democratically	43	We recognize that sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, with full and productive employment and decent work for all, is a key element of sustainable urban and territorial development and that cities and human settlements should be places of equal opportunities, allowing people to live healthy, productive, prosperous, and fulfilling lives.		specialized hubs in all segments of planning."

Source: MEPB LASG, 2013; UN-Habitat. 2015; 2016; Lawanson, 2018; LASGTC, 2019a; 2019b; 2019c; 2019d; 2019e; 2019f; LASRO LASG, 2020; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021.

5.8 Conclusion

Lagos's urban development, economic, and population growth have been mainly influenced due to its location as a coastal city, a formal British colony, and Nigeria's former capital. Despite the relocation of the capital city to the FCT, Abuja, in 1991, the catalysed growth set in motion by the previous statuses has been relentless; hence, the city-state remains the national commercial nerve and the most active, and dynamic city in Nigeria. However, this growth has equally affected the housing situation in human settlements. This chapter has explored Lagos' historical development over the centuries and its evolution into a megacity despite changing urban morphology. Being a formal colony has also impacted its laws and legislation on planning. Its coastal nature and location aided the slave trade and the movement of goods and services. Lagos's case offers many advantages in exploring the practice of global urban agendas and SDGs in a Southern city in SSA with a population of over 20 million people. The geopolitical situation and modes of urban governance in Nigeria affirm many challenges experienced in Lagos and Nigeria with the adverse effect of the pollical class and immature democracy on urban governance and the implementation of global agendas. The documents explored have shown that the Constitution does not guarantee access to adequate shelter or housing. The Land Use Act impedes housing development amid other challenges impeding housing production to address the housing deficit. The LASG has established many laws, plans, and agendas towards aiding housing and urban development, but the city-state suffers from being a coastal city, small landmass, huge population, and the non-implementation of the 1980-2000 Lagos Regional Master Plan, and guides proposed by the consultants. The THEMES Agenda is a step in the right direction, but its early implementation has experienced some setbacks with the country's recession and the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic that has made every government reappraise their fiscal and development plans towards sustainable livelihood and economy. However, the smooth implementation of the THEMES agenda in line with the GUA framework towards Agenda 2030 will go a long way in achieving urban and housing sustainability in Lagos if the agenda is followed through.

6 CHAPTER SIX – PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter advances the case study of Lagos and documentary analysis carried out in Chapter Five with the findings based on the semi-structured interviews conducted, focussed meetings, and webinars attended. The hypothetical argument in this study is that the agendas formulated at the global levels (and universal rights), especially in regard to housing and human settlements, do not always reflect in like manner at local levels, even though such agendas are well-crafted with many deliberations and consultations. They are usually signed and ratified at the national level for the benefit of all, while implementation is expected to be carried out at the sub-national and local levels. This study set out to explore the intersections that exist between global urban agendas and urban practice at local levels in the realm of housing and human settlements in Lagos.

The findings show that the intersections of global agendas have several dimensions, which significantly affect the implementation of these agendas at local levels. As alluded to by the respondents and the findings, there is a limit to what success can be reached considering underlying local context and peculiarities in terms of urban policies and governance, the political will to implement, available resources, and mechanism for local implementation (Lawanson, 2018; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). The dimensions of the intersection of global agendas in Lagos, and Nigeria as a whole, reflect the themes and how the respondents perceive, believe and understand the agendas' efficacy. Despite the strategies that have been put in place, the rational choice theory comes to play with the multi-actors and institutions in determining the outcomes of GUAs.

6.2 Research respondents guiding the emerging themes

Table 6-1, copied from the methods chapter, captures all the respondents in this study (please see Appendix A for the complete list and description of all respondents). The semi-structured interviews were analysed using thematic analysis with NVivo 12 qualitative analysis software after transcribing all interviews. While different questions were administered to the different respondent groups as shown in Table 6-1, some themes ran across the responses with varying perspectives on the debate around global agendas. The themes and topics arising from the interviews are generally arranged hierarchically from the global respondent narratives to the national, to the state, and, lastly, to the local level using the research questions as guidelines. Again, while the broader umbrella of the study looks at GUAs, housing and human settlements are used as a lens at the local level in this study. The arrangement of the emerging themes has also been aided by following the sub-research questions and objectives. This chapter focuses on the workings of the GUAs interfacing with the country-Nigeria, chapter seven addresses challenges in implementing the GUAs and chapter eight presents the housing situation in Lagos and Nigeria.

Table 6-1: Interview Guide for the Respondents

S/No.	Code	Levels	Sex	Public Official
1	GL01	Global	Male	No
2	GL02	Global	Male	No
3	GL03	Global	Male	No
4	NL01	National	Male	Yes
5	NL02	National	Male	Yes
6	NL03	National	Female	Yes
7	NL04	National	Male	Yes
8	NL05	National	Female	Yes
9	NL06	National	Male	Yes
10	SL01	State/Local	Male	Yes
11	SL02	State/Local	Male	Yes
12	SL03	State/Local	Male	Yes
13	SL04	State/ Local	Male	Yes
14	SL05	State/ Local	Male	Yes
15	SL06	State/ Local	Male	Yes
16	SL07	State/Local	Male	Yes
17	SL08	State/Local	Female	Yes
18	SL09	State/Local	Female	Yes
19	S10	State/ Local	Male	Yes
20	SL11	State/ Local	Female	Yes
21	SL12	State/ Local	Female	Yes
22	NGO01	State/Local	Male	No
23	NGO02	State/Local	Female	No
24	NGO03	State/Local	Male	No
25	NG04	State/Local	Female	No
26	NG05	State/Local	Male	No
27	NITP01	State Chapter	Male	No
28	NITP02	State Chapter	Male	No
29	IUP01	State/Local/Local	Male	No
30	IUP02	National/State/Local	Female	No
31	IUP03	National/State/Local	Female	No
32	IUP04	National/State/Local	Female	No
33	IUP05	National/State/Local	Male	No
34	IUP06	National/State/Local	Male	Yes
35	IUP07	National/State/Local	Male	No
36	LL01	Local	Female	Yes
37	LL02	Local	Female	Yes
38	LL03	Local	Male	Yes
39	LL04	Local	Male	Yes
40	LL05	Local	Male	No
41	PSHP01	National/State/Local	Male	No
42	PSHP02	National/State/Local	Male	No
43	PSHP03	National/State/Local	Male	No
44	PSHP04	National/State/Local	Female	No

Code Legend	
Global Level	GL
National Level	NL
State Level	SL
Local Level	LL
Non-governmental Organisation	NGO
Nigerian Institute of Town Planners	NITPs
Independent Urban Practitioners	IUP
Private sector Housing Providers	PSHP

Source: Author's construct, 2021.

6.3 Operations of the UN-Habitat in Nigeria and partnerships toward global urban development agendas

This section briefly captures the history and the operations of the UN-Habitat in promoting GUAs and urban sustainability in Nigeria. The UN and its agencies cannot just access and promote urban policies and agendas in the territory of member states; they usually come through a government agency with a memorandum of understanding (MOU) to guide the relationship between the two parties. According to **GL03**, the UN-Habitat began its operations in Nigeria in 1994 to implement the Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP). The UN-Habitat initiated the SCP to address the challenge of indiscriminate and uncontrollable growth in many cities around the world, including Nigeria. Specifically, the SCP picked Ibadan, Oyo state and the pilot project was on the management of waste within the ancient city. **GL03** noted that when the SCP programme was initiated in Nigeria, the UN-Habitat had no physical presence in the country, and they had to collaborate with government agencies on the ground, such as the FMWH. The respondent highlighted that a lack of presence within a country did not preclude global agencies such as the UN-Habitat from implementing global policies; the implication, as noted above, was that they partnered with domestic government agencies to carry out the necessary action.

GL03 and **NL03** note that the UN-Habitat eventually began full operations in Nigeria after an MOU between it and the government of Nigeria in 2003. At the same time, the global agency has carried on several activities in various states within Nigeria, including the development of general guidelines on urban development at both federal and state levels. **GL03** noted that not much had been done in Lagos as they could not agree with the LASG on the proposed slum upgrading programme. This disagreement indicates a schism between global agencies and sub-national governments coming to a consensus on carrying out GUAs in Nigeria. **GL03** stated that the UN-Habitat essentially comes through the national government for their operations in every country, and they execute a separate agreement with the sub-national governments at local levels. In regard to the UN's role in Nigeria, **GL03** states that *the UN-Habitat role is to encourage the government, to advocate to them on the why and the how regarding global agendas and the when. We will give them some techniques for technical support, but the onus is on the government to deliver that on the ground because anchoring support has to be done; it increases sustainability*.

In regard to the implementation of any GUA at the national and local (municipal levels), collaborations and partnerships with the government in Nigeria are essential for the success of the activities of the UN-Habitat in Nigeria. **GL02** notes that the former President Obasanjo of Nigeria was instrumental in establishing the presence and facilitating the agency's activities in Nigeria; with the former President's cooperation, UN-Habitat established one of its first country offices in Africa in Nigeria. Further, **NL03** noted that the Nigerian government was instrumental in developing the Common African Position on Habitat III (CAPH3). The CAPH3 is a strategy document containing Africa's contribution and position towards the Habitat III held in 2016. **NL03** noted that the purpose of the CAPH3 was to have a united

and harmonious, integrated approach for the African region to meet the goals of affordable housing and sustainable urban development. According to **GL03**, most of the collaboration in Nigeria occurred with the federal and state governments. Since the local governments are subsumed within the state governments, there have not been many interactions with the local government toward promoting and implementing the GUAs. However, **NL03** notes that the agency has had to formulate ways to impact its local programmes. For instance, **NL03** pointed out that the UN-Habitat's future interactions with the government in Nigeria would ensure *inner roads into the local governments and get them* [local governments] *to do what they are supposed to be doing,* as captured in the NUA, SDG11 and GUAs. In summary, there is an agreement between the voices at the global and national levels on the importance of the operations of the United-Habitat operations in Nigeria. The Nigerian government has also embraced this partnership, welcoming the technical support and initiatives around GUAs.

6.4 Perception and understanding of global urban development agendas

This section captures the respondents' perception of GUAs as regards their effectiveness, implementation, and trust in the ability of GUAs to transform local levels with urban prosperity with 'shared right to the city', inclusivity and 'leaving no one behind' (UN-Habitat, 2016). Gregory (1980: 182), in his work on perception, claims that "many perceptual illusions correspond to and may receive explanations from understanding systematic errors in science". Hafri and Firestone (2021: 1) assert that perception around a phenomenon provides a "rich content with consequence for long standing debates in the philosophy" beyond what is visible to all. Hence, the semi-structured interviews required respondents to give information about their perception and attitude towards the GUAs in Lagos, and Nigeria as a country. Arguably, many respondents showed depth in understanding the need for development agendas across the globe, while some public (government) respondents show a lack of depth around global debates, understanding and implementing GUAs.

Against the backdrop that the NUA was taken out of SDG11, which is a general understanding from literature, **GL03** states that *it was like a co-agenda; it was an upgrade of the Habitat agenda that had been in existence since 1996. So, while the 2030 agenda, which is the SDG, was being negotiated, work was already ongoing on the NUA… they are concurrent agendas and strategies, all talking about the same thing, and they are all integrated.* Many respondents applaud the importance and benefits of GUAs and their positive impact on all forms of governance in Nigeria across all the sectors since Nigeria's independence. In the same vein, the respondents expressed doubts on the practicality of achieving the goals and agendas in the global development frameworks. The doubt is premised on the nexus between the agendas and the prevailing conditions, challenges and implementation trends. For instance, **IUP06** states that the GUAs are good and questions its success within the country. **IUP06** notes that with the MDGs, the government was unable to actualise up to 30% of the goals by the programme's termination in 2015. It was noted that a significant drawback was the continuous review of goals, which local agencies were unable to keep up with, and the same challenge could be

experienced with the SDGs as time was running out and not much has been done in actualising the SDGs. **IUP05** and **GL03** hold the view that global agendas are essential in driving a common agenda and aspiration amongst nations, as are necessary tools in guiding development and building capacity following the same set of goals. *Specifically,* **NL03** notes, *we keep on shooting these targets, but it is better than not doing anything at all. So, I would say they are like a guideline, and they are strategies* [through which] *we have also been able to make sure that our citizens are better lifted out of poverty, we have been able to develop housing programmes where at least some people have been housed, which they normally would not have been. Under some of our programmes, we have been able to improve infrastructure and provide basic services.*

Some respondents believe that the GUAs are superfluous and sceptical about the impact of GUAs at local levels. For instance, **NL05** holds the view that *the GUAs are the same idea presented in different forms at different periods.* According to him, *when you say basic urban housing, then later, MDG, then SDG, if you look at it, they say the same thing; If you look at it, urban governance, all those things they say are just recycling them and giving them different names, that is the way I feel.* Also expressing some scepticism, **IUO05** notes that the GUAs are not at a tangent with the reality in Nigeria and other developing countries that struggle to keep up with these global goals. The respondent notes that *there is a complete divergence between the fantastic agendas on papers and the reality on the ground, which is the main problem. It does not matter how great those agendas are; the everyday practice is completely divorced from these agendas*. Further, they note that the reliance on the government to implement these agendas is a significant factor in the lack of success.

Several respondents noted that most global agendas have not been very successful in Nigeria, and various reasons were given for the unsuccessful implementation of these agendas. For instance, **GL03** says that the vast development discrepancy between the first world, the second world and the third world accounts for the limited successes of the various agendas such as the MDGs and SDGs towards 2030. It was also noted that apathy on the part of the government and a lack of deliberate government action accounted for the poor implementation of the various agendas (**GL03, LL06, IUP04**). **IUP04** puts the point succinctly as follows: *There is no policy, there is no executive order, there is no direct government instruction that the SDG must be the 'front and centre', but different activities of the government shows that their body language is more attuned towards recognising the SDG as an international parameter of development.* This response goes to show that the government at various levels will adopt the global agendas for different reasons and not necessarily to see the implementation to fruition. While sharing the same view as the others, but somewhat on a positive note, **GL01** notes that, while the challenges remain, the key to success was to keep attempting to pre-empt the problems by continually initiating discussions on all the goals of SDG, the NUA and AU Agenda. This is to achieve sustainable development in the short and long run. On the 17 SDGs, **GL03** states that *the SDGs are very broad, so the implementation will naturally have different levels of achievement in compliance.*

My perspective is that certain goals enjoy a lot more activities at the national level, depending on developmental priorities in such countries. And so, if you look at issues like health, those are key intervention areas that enjoy a lot of attention; you look at even economic issues. In the area of housing, it is not, unfortunately, and it is not because, under the agenda, housing is given less priority in Nigeria. The reason for less priority given to housing development is associated with the cost of housing and land, and infrastructure to support the house.

Furthermore, while agreeing on the limited successes of global agendas in Nigeria, **PSHP03** argues that the failure of GUAs to achieve set goals is because all countries are required to work towards the same global goals. He notes that *when you now create what you call the SDGs and you lump all countries together and tell them to meet them, I think it is a disservice to the purpose. Needs are not the same everywhere, and when you talk about SDGs, basically, you are talking about no poverty, zero hunger, good health and well-being, good education and gender equality. So, I think many of these goals, while they sound good, are not necessarily practical. You are dealing with countries where people are struggling to get decent shelter, and you now start talking about, they need to have certain number of people per room, or they need to have a certain grade of water, or they need to have a certain grade of sanitary conditions. While all these are important, however, they people do not even have a place to put their heads in the first instance at the very base level, and GUAs are stipulating standards.* The consensus across all the levels shows that the GUAs are well-intentioned, but the perception and understanding in Lagos and across Nigeria show that there are mixed feelings about GUAs. It is coming through as rhetoric, and the GUAs are yet to achieve the intended purpose.

6.5 The possibility of attaining 2030 global urban agendas deadline

The possibility of achieving the GUAs generated many contentions among respondents, pointing to other issues around policy, governance, the attitude of the government, and the rhetorical nature of agenda-setting and conferences. The unanimous consensus around achieving global agendas, and the implementation is affected by several reasons, particularly the lack of administrative, legal, institutional, financial and political will to accomplish the agendas. Also, there is a lack of clear implementation strategy, milestones or targets, and because there is no punishment for non-achievement, it is easy for political heads and politicians to keep signing and ratifying agendas. As such, goals and agendas tend to be political slogans and aspirations with no urgency to realise the goals till their expiration.

On the realisation of the GUAs in Nigeria, participants held various opinions; **GL01** held the view that it was a rhetorical question but also noted that non-realisation did not mean nothing had been achieved; instead, it presented opportunities for conversations and discussions on what had been done, and what could still be done. **GL02** and **IUP01** believe that something could be achieved where there is political will and capacity to synchronise GUAs at the local levels. Other respondents were more outright in their scepticism about Lagos or Nigeria achieving the goals of the GUAs by 2030. According to **IUP03**, *all*

these goals are not reflective of reality and what is on the ground. They are not practical measures. What should happen is that if you sign up for these goals, you should create certain plans and policies that can be put in place within your own city, town, local government and country that can be followed to ensure that you reach these goals. I do not think, and I do not know if these exist, but I think that we go away from these meetings (and conferences) and come back and then sit down. I am not sure we will be able to meet the 2030 agenda because there is no concrete plan on the ground. Also, **PSHO04** states that *with 2030 being just a few years away, it is difficult to confidently say the SDG goals can be fully achieved as Nigeria has a lot of ground to cover, particularly economically and socially*.

Categorically, **IUP05** states that *part of the reasons is (we may not realise these goals are that) we do not take policies too seriously because the value of policy* [in Nigeria] *is aspirational. It is more of emotional thinking than a concrete road map; that is the problem. We have to distinguish between a concrete policy and just a slogan; various policies are slogans, and they are very aspirational, but they are not grounded in reality and not grounded in any real research. You may be wondering why policies are not effective in our clime; you will ask yourself: what is the basis of drawing out that policy?*

Similarly, **NITP02** highlights that Nigeria has a penchant for signing agreements and being unable to meet goals. According to the respondent, *looking at how the trend of events has unfolded over the years, I think it is just a bandwagon effect. Because this slogan we heard in 1989 was already being heard of in the 70s, we came with vision 2010, during the Abacha regime, we could not meet vision 2010. Vision 2020 was converted to vision 20/20/20, saying that we will be one of the 20 countries that will lead the world's economy by 2020. Here we are the year 2020, and then we signed on to the SDG agenda 2030; there is also the Africa Agenda of 2063, I can tell you that if the approach does not change, 2063 will come here, and there would have been no difference made*. Participants further noted the need for the government to set measurable milestones to check the sequence of goals attainment, rather than having a fluid system of urban governance. It was also noted that while the government had a lot of policies and development plans, commitment to the goals is largely lacking, and there is no evidence to show that the plans are respected or actualised in any way (**NITP02, IUP04, SL11** and **NGO05**). This is largely because, there is a culture of always signing and ratifying global development frameworks without the political will to implement the frameworks. Generally, and across all the levels of government and respondents, there is a consensus that the Agenda 2030 deadline is not feasible, just a mere date and towards 2030, another agenda or date will be brought to the fore.

6.6 Attitude towards ratifying and signing of global urban agendas

The question around understanding ratification, signing and processes involved before and after adopting global agendas by the national government is of interest to this study. Hence, the opinions of respondents were sought during the interviews. The respondents gave different insights and institutional perspectives into how the GUAs are adopted and ratified. Generally, the respondents gave insights into

the nonchalant nature of the Nigerian government about the act of always signing and ratifying agendas and goals, and being party to international conventions without any concrete plan to see them to fruition or implement them.

The respondents noted that most of the development agendas assented to by Nigeria are adopted by a delegation to the UN, or any of its agencies. A problem highlighted is that, often, the representation for the country is at the national level and sometimes, the choice of the delegates is politically motivated. The assenting is at the federal level, while the implementation takes place at the state and local levels (at this level, there is usually minimal input to the negotiations) **(GL03, NL06). NL06** further highlights the process of negotiation of international agreements in Nigeria: *When Nigeria participates in an international conference, and the body comes out with a draft agreement on an issue which is to be binding on all state parties and to domesticate such an agreement, it will be brought to the country mainly through the Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which is the ministry that participates in the conference and will bring along the relevant MDAs. Then, it goes to the Presidency, and the Senate will sit on it before returning. The last stage is the deposition of the legal instrument with the relevant international institution (as evidence of domestication) …stating that the government of Nigeria has ratified this with the date of ratification*. **NG06** states that the national government adopts global agendas as it is, and sometimes these agendas are adopted, and nothing is done towards implementation based on the expectation of the global community.

Some of the participants note that while a lot of efforts go into negotiations and ratification, Nigeria does little to follow-up on the execution of signed agreements and agendas. They noted that it is essential for the country to have a platform to itemise its various goals as per international agreements, ways to actualise the goals, and for there to be necessary sanctions at the regional or international levels for non-compliances or non-execution of the set goals (**GL02, IUP01, NGO02**). On the issue of execution of global agendas, **SL11** notes that the LASG has set up an SDG office to ensure that the government's policies and agendas on infrastructural development are tailored after the SDGs. From the national level, there is a general pattern where the country easily ratifies and signs agendas, however, other respondents note that the government does not see through these ratifications and signing of global agreements. It is more of a tradition for the government to be part of many global frameworks, but these frameworks do not trickle down to the lower levels. As rightly noted by **NL06**, there are instances where these agendas are signed and ratified, but the government does absolutely nothing afterwards.

6.7 The localisation of global (urban) development agendas

The localisation through sensitisation and mainstreaming of these generic agendas play a significant role in the implementation process at different local levels. Again, this raises the question in regard to understanding the actors and what needs to be done. The UN and UN agencies have continually advocated for these agendas to be localised. This study has argued that, despite the level of engagement

and consultations before adopting the SDGs (particularly SDG11) and the NUA, the GUAs are still fraught with challenges. Again, why is there so much need for localisation and advocacy? This theme questions the notion of what is signed, ratified and agreed upon by the leaders, what is understood by the national actors, and how it is mainstreamed through the MDAs, sub-national government, actors and implementers at the local levels.

On this theme**, IUP04** points out the need to interpret, reinterpret and modify the agendas to fit into the local context at the city and community level. According to him, *if we are going to localise, we must bear in mind how people are navigating the city, what this agenda means to them in their everyday life and to move beyond the rhetoric to have how the agenda can be used to shape or reshape our cities for a better urban future*. Similarly, **SL04** notes that while the GUAs are very good programmes, they are too generic; thus, they need to be domesticated and brought down to local and community levels to take in the peculiarities of Lagos. For instance, **NL01** notes that the government is working *to mainstream and monitor progress on the actualisation of the SDGs through the MDAs' periodic administrative data sources and periodic surveys*. This is done through a data bond signed through the MDAs in the three tiers of government under the Statistician-General of the country.

Participant **NL03** highlights the need for the professionals who act on the SDGs to be continuously sensitised and educated on the need and means of actualising the SDGs and other global agendas. In reiterating this point, **IUP06** and **NITP01** emphasise the need to translate the global agenda into measurable and actualisable local goals. The respondents further note the need to involve community members in knowing the urban issues, contributing their part towards solving the problems and directly benefitting from the SDGs and the NUA (**NIPT01, NGO02, NITP02, GL02**). There is a clear indication from the national and state levels that there are efforts made by the government at the federal and state levels to localise the GUAs based on the public institutions created and designated officials appointed. However, the consensus across all the respondents is that there is a need to do more localisation of the GUAs, raising awareness, and mainstreaming the SDG11 and the NUA so that the impact of the GUAs can be more effective at the local levels.

6.8 Strategies for implementation and monitoring

These are strategies employed by the national government and the LASG in line with guidelines provided by the UN and UN-Habitat in the GUA implementation. While generic guidelines are provided at the global level, countries are expected to localise their implementation and develop strategies to actualise Agenda 2030. Respondents provided insights on the various strategies, successes, and challenges of monitoring and implementing the global agendas in Nigeria, particularly Lagos.

According to **NL01**, having learnt from the failures of implementing the MDGs, Nigeria acted very quickly to implement the SDGs. Upon adopting the 2030 Agenda in September 2015, Nigeria began to

take action by establishing an office attached to the Presidency to monitor and implement SDGs in Nigeria. The office was established with the following mandates:

- strategic planning and guidance for the SDGs;
- presentation, advocacy and partnership building;
- resource mobilisation management; and
- monitoring, evaluation and reporting for the SDGs.

NL01 noted that the FGN engaged with more players across sectors to ensure SDG implementation has been mainstreamed and integrated into government action at the national level in a bid to ensure that the SDGs are actualised. When the FGN makes a pronouncement, it is sometimes translated into a development plan and passed on to the legislation to be passed into law. This, for instance, is the case with the government's plan to lift 100 million Nigeria citizens out of poverty (**NL01**). In terms of monitoring and funding, **NL01** notes that part of the strategies applied by the FGN includes fiscal decentralisation, multilevel and sectoral engagement across all 36 states and 774 local governments in the federation, and phased implementation. **NL01** notes that in the overall implementation of SDGs in Nigeria, the first four or five years of implementation were to build on an existing foundation, sensitisation and advocacy. According to **NL01**, *building on the existing foundation entails the institutional framework that would enable us to implement the SDGs, scale-up intervention and track progress towards the last lap of the SDGs. And this realignment, for example, is strategic because once we do this, we will be the first African country to have completely realigned our national statistical system with the indicators. So, by and large, as I explained, you could begin to see the strategic initiative that we have been putting in place to ensure that we are on track. We will have data coming to us on an annual basis that is disaggregated by states and possibly the local government. So, then we will see the states in Nigeria that are doing well and in which of the dimensions and the ones that are not doing well and in each of the dimensions. And then, we are now able to provide targeted and well-informed guidance for the sub-national governments*. Respondent **NL01** also notes that *the high domestication of the SDGs provides a framework for the integration of the goals at various levels of governance. In addition to this structure, the FGN has a partnership framework with various non-state actors for the implementation of the SDGs. These are the donor partners forum, led by the UN system; the private sector advisory group on SDGs; and the civil society strategic group, which is all about impact, mobilising the expertise and financial resources of the non-state actors supporting the SDG implementation in Nigeria.*

Further, GL01 notes that the UN has developed a strategy called the resident coordinator system on implementation and monitoring action on the SDGs. By this system, every country has a resident coordinator who establishes a common country assessment through which the UN can create a development framework for the country to help the government translate the SDGs into locally

attainable goals. Further, on the role of international agencies in actualising the goals of global agendas, **GL03** notes that there usually are partnership agreements evidenced in the MOUs signed with individual countries. The MOUs outline the structure of operations, that is, things to be done and the methods adopted in carrying out the tasks. The respondent noted that by virtue of the MOU, all agency activities are subject to the laws of Nigeria, and they report to the Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning. **GL02,** in his response, emphasised the need for data storage as evidence of goals actualised at the local level. This was highlighted to be essential in reporting the implementation of the SDGs, especially at the local level. Other respondents were not so enthusiastic about the monitoring of work done on the SDGs, as they pointed out that while some work had gone into ensuring implementation of the goals, there was not enough machinery to do the actual work and monitor the work done on the implementation (**NL03, NL04**). The global level has indicated the need for more work to be done at the national level, while the national level has created some mechanisms to implement and monitor progress nationwide. However, these mechanisms are not feasible at the state and local levels, implying that the strategy at the national level is not yielding enough outcome at the local level that is worth noticing or reporting about.

6.9 The extent of SDG11 and NUA implementation/incorporation amid urban challenges in Lagos

In regard to the extent to which Lagos has incorporated the SDG11 and NUA, **SL11** states that Lagos state has tried to incorporate the SDGs and the NUA into its principles, especially the administration through its policies incorporated in the THEMES agenda. The research shows that the method adopted by the LASG is to match the government's development agenda with the various goals and targets of the SDGs and domicile an SDG office within the Executive arm of government. Thus, Lagos state has the office of the special adviser to the Governor on SDGs. **SL12** notes that SDGs and Investments office was created, formerly called the Lagos State Overseas Affairs and Investment Agency. *So, it is really the funnel for supporting investors in Lagos State and attracting investment to Lagos State to address the things that we think are our priorities. And what we have done by combining that with the SDGs as the lens for these priorities. Also, to ensure implementation of the SDGs, the LASG aligned the SDGs with the THEMES outcomes and agendas, that is, the development and framework that LASG came up with* (**SL12)**. The respondent notes that having aligned the SDGs with the state's THEMES agenda, the state ensures that all projects carried out under the state's agenda also drive the implementation of the SDGs.

Further to the synchronisation with the THEMES agenda, the research shows that LASG incorporated the SDGs into the state's development plans under specific headings such as economic development, infrastructural development, social development and security, and sustainable environment (**SL09**). **SL09** also highlighted the state's partnership with civil societies to provide sensitisation to the government, and people at the grassroots on the need to act on actualising the SDGs. More specifically,

respondents itemised actions taken across sectors, such as transportation – the efforts made to create a more sustainable transport system and reduce travel time, such as the introduction of various lines of BRT and the construction of rail transport systems across the city to other neighbouring cities. The respondent also highlighted efforts at ensuring the availability of primary, secondary and tertiary healthcare services for citizens of the state (**SL09**).

Many respondents have identified several urban challenges plaguing Lagos, apart from the huge context described above. Generally, the respondents identified poor infrastructural services such as water supply, power supply, poor sanitation, transportation, pollution, healthcare, waste management issues, housing challenges and congestion. There is also poor physical infrastructure in power, a bad road network and crime. **IUP04 and IUP02** point out that two significant challenges in Lagos are poverty and inequality. These manifest as a high degree of informality about the human settlement and the economy (the majority of Lagos inhabitants get their daily living from the informal economy). They note that the economic divide is particularly wide, and it manifests, for instance, an emphasis on development control in areas inhabited by wealthier citizens. The inequality in planning is evident in the prevalence of gated communities and the criminalising of informal settlements. Issues around poverty and inequality raise questions about inclusivity in SDG11, and the promise of leaving no one behind in the NUA. Iterating the above, **SL05** states that *a lot of the poor people live on the outskirts due to a lack of economic empowerment. On the other hand, the wealthy live within the cities and enjoy the benefits of better-planned environments, with relatively better infrastructure*.

Narrowing the scope of urban planning to housing development in Lagos, the respondents identified several militating issues in Lagos state. Primarily, it was noted that Lagos has a limited landmass, and a substantial part of the landmass is waterlogged, wetlands or susceptible to floods. Respondents identified several challenges, the primary of which is the exponential rate of population growth. **SL02** and **PSHP01** note that the population growth makes it difficult and challenging for the government to implement the master plans for building development. The non-adherence to building codes was also identified as negatively affecting housing development in Nigeria. The research shows that spatial planning in Lagos state is difficult, as the inhabitants still live in a city designed for the 17th century. In essence, the planning system needs to be updated to accommodate 21st century housing development and infrastructure realities. **PSHP01** particularly noted the need for planning within the state to de-emphasise horizontal building and encourage vertical constructions given the land constraint of the city-state.

6.10 Perception of the urban sustainable development goal

The SDG11 aims to "make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable" with four key dimensions: inclusivity, safety, resiliency, and sustainability (UN-Habitat, 2015: 12). While the core objective of this study speaks to urban sustainability and urban agenda implementation in

housing and human settlements, which are common trends from the responses, issues around urban safety and health were not significant concerns at the time of the interviews. Out of the four dimensions of the SDG11, the holistic SDGs speak to the sustainability dimension, and matters relating to safety did not come through as a significant issue when compared with other concerns. However, in many interviews, urban inclusivity and resiliency came through as key themes and matters of consideration in the global urban agenda debates. Hence, the following two sections address inclusivity and resilience, and not sustainability and safety. As it is, agendas relating to pandemics are likely to be included in the next GUAs and upcoming conferences.

6.10.1 Inclusivity in Lagos, Nigeria

The general opinion from public respondents is that the government is doing a lot in their drive for inclusion and diversity for everyone in line with SDG1 (Poverty), SDG4 (Inclusive and Equitable Education), SDG5 (Gender Inclusivity and Roles), SDG10 (Reduced Inequality) and the SDG11. However, non-government respondents argued that the policies and government's approach to governance are anti-poor, with a clear-cut division in urban infrastructural development favouring the wealthier communities.

Particularly, **SL11** noted that the government in Lagos state considered inclusivity in implementing its policies by trying to ensure that everyone was carried along and by considering the interests of various vulnerable and underrepresented groups such as women, children, youths and indigenous communities. However**,** other non-government participants had a different perspective. For instance, **IUP01** noted that the current outlook of the city made it impracticable to attain inclusivity. He noted that the city is highly stratified, and this has created an economic gap. Thus, certain wealthy neighbourhoods and settlements of the city have more government presence and infrastructural investments than more impoverished human settlements. **IUP01** further notes *that the lack of infrastructure, or government presence in most parts of the city contributes to the inequality and lack of inclusivity. This is so since citizens have had to provide basic services for themselves, such as the supply of electricity through generating sets, access to water through privately drilled boreholes, private disposal of waste and sewage. Thus, the enjoyment of otherwise basic services, which ought to be common to all, is based on economic capacity.* In the words of **IUP01,** *since everyone is trying to be their own government by providing their own services and infrastructure, the people feel like yes, we are not part of the city, so all the principles of inclusiveness have been really thrown overboard in those circles.*

In further emphasising the absence of inclusivity in Lagos, **IUP03** notes that inclusivity should imply looking out for the lowest person within the society or the people who earn the least to ensure they are as much catered for as other members of the society. She notes that this factor is missing in the urban governance of the city of Lagos. She noted that instead, the government focuses on the most taxable population in the provision of houses and urban infrastructure, and in most cases, these are middle-

income earners. Furthermore, **NGO05** states that the government lacks genuine interest to engage in dialogue with poor people around solving the urban problems in Lagos. He points out that the government has a perception and attitude that they know everything and that they have all the answers. According to **NGO05**, *the urban planners and architects from the government come from the traditional schools of architecture and urban planning, where they sit in their offices, pull down the blinds, where they cannot see outside. They draw a big fine map that looks beautiful, and they say this is the official map, we are going to do this one. Maps that have no relationship with people whatsoever on the ground and does not involve any drawing showing a reality that involved talking to people that are actually on the ground; that is how the government operate in this state.* In essence, there is no agreement between the public and non-public respondents at the local level. While the respondents at the state level (who are public officials) believe that the government is doing everything to address inclusivity, every other respondent at the state and local levels (NGOs and IUPs) are of the view that there is a general urban divide, and the governor is party to this divide, with little or no consideration for the poor.

6.10.2 Resiliency and people's effort

This section captures responses based on how the respondents relate to the issues of resilience in the agenda and the effort of the people toward urban issues. Harrison *et al.* (2014: 2) defined resilience as "the capability of individuals, social groups, or social-ecological systems including towns and cities not only to live with changes, disturbances, adversities or disasters but also to adapt, innovate and transform into new more desirable configurations". This definition encompasses an individual's effort and the city's capability to withstand shocks and bounce back.

At a webinar tagged 'Cities Beyond Pandemic: Perception of Lagos' (as part of the focussed meeting attended), Tomaselli states that urban resilience is a cross-cutting concern in addressing urban issues in Lagos, which spans adequate housing, safe mobility, water and sanitation and food security, and there is a need to focus on the most vulnerable people and address informality, which is a living reality (Tomaselli *et al.*, 2020-Webinar). She notes that cities are places of opportunity, and they will not be resilient if they are not inclusive. Also, at the webinar, urban and political leaders were tasked to make informed decisions based on scientific findings and data in the renewed drive towards urban planning, urban renewal and urban regeneration amid Covid-19 effects on human settlements in matters of resilience in Lagos (Tomaselli *et al*., 2020-Webinar). At the webinar, it was emphasised that local governments are the key actors responsible for addressing the pandemic and, as we advance, there is the need to leverage institutional knowledge, collective response and adaptation toward achieving urban resilience (Tomaselli *et al*., 2020-Webinar). While the semi-structured interview questions were directed toward the city and state's ability to implement the GUAs, the responses showed that Lagosians (residents) are resilient against all the odds, without adequate infrastructure, fitful service delivery and bad urban governance. **NGO02** points out that the responses from many public officials about measures

to address urban sustainability and resilience issues are always fixated on pointing to public institutions created, state policies, documents and LASG membership of global urban governance network, such as ICLEI 100RC and C40, instead of pointing to real and tangible results.

In line with **NGO2**'s assertion, **SL11** states that *Lagos is one of the hundred resilient cities* [100RC], *and it was granted so by the Rockefeller Foundation. This led to the opening of the Lagos Resilience office in 2018. And so far, so good, they have come up with the resilience strategy, which is a good one, a handbook that helps us bounce back from shocks that affect us as a state* (at the state level for LASG). It is worthy of mention that Lagos benefitted from the 100RC network, and the network concluded its operations in 2019 in helping countries towards achieving urban resilience. Beyond the state apparatus on resilience, **IUP02** notes that resilience in Lagos can be viewed from two perspectives. The resilience is based on the availability of basic services and infrastructure that is grossly inadequate, while the people have developed resilience due to the unavailability of basic services and infrastructure. In his words, *we need to look at resilience from two lenses: the lens of service delivery and infrastructure provision in the city… whether in the areas of healthcare, education, water delivery, delivery of sanitation system, transportation… these are critical areas that could drive resilience in any city, and they are not available. The second lens that we need to understand resilience is from the people who reside in Lagos ... the deficit in services and infrastructure has really grown to become a culture to the people who live in the city... people have developed that resiliency to withstand those deficits over the years.* In line with **IUP02**'s argument about the lack of basic services and infrastructure, **NGO03 (**an NGO respondent) states that the Nigeria Slum and Informal Settlements Federation, with the help of the dwellers, have identified and profiled over 100 slum communities. **NGO03** notes that efforts at slum upgrade in Lagos enlist the cooperation and contribution of the slum dwellers themselves. He noted that the slum upgrade is carried out *in situ* and incrementally to cause as little disruption as possible without the government's help.

To determine the level of resilience or liveability of some of these slums, **NGO04** notes that certain parameters are applied in profiling the slums so that his NGO, through the SDI, can provide technical support. These parameters include primarily mapping the global positioning system coordinates to determine the location on the map; identifying the number of structures within the community; the housing challenges experienced in the community; the demographics; the amount paid as rent, the tenure or tenancy; access to electricity, the amount paid for electricity consumption, and whether electricity is metered; access to water, the amount paid, and whether water consumption is metered; access to, and modes of waste disposal; an average level of education, and other questions to determine the liveability of the slums and well-being of the dwellers. All these are carried out as an initiative of the NGO in communities that the state should be doing. In matters relating to resiliency in Lagos, there is a consensus at the local level by the NGOs, IUPs and local levels that the people are more resilient than any institution or government strategy to address this dimension of the SDG11. Public respondents

are quick to point to government institutions as a solution to urban resilience in contrast to real scenarios of how the government has been able to alleviate real urban concerns of the people.

6.11 Conclusion

The findings reveal the importance and well-meaning purpose behind the formulation of GUAs as a veritable tool that national and sub-national governments can use to address global problems and challenges. Despite all the efforts of the UN and UN-Habitat, and strategies employed by the government in Nigeria, it is believed by respondents from all levels that there is no possibility of Nigeria meeting the 2030 deadline. This impossibility of attaining this deadline brings to a fall what is termed the rhetoric of national government continuously ratifying and adopting GUAs as mere slogans or aspirations, without the political will and concrete plans to see them to fruition. It is also evident that some structures have been put in place by the national and state governments with specific institutions and the infusion of the GUAs into development planning. However, the ratification and adoption of global goals and agendas without taking reasonable steps or seeing it to fruition, make the whole process of framing global agendas mere rhetoric. But how far-reaching these structures are is still very minimal, based on the responses from the fieldwork. Against all odds, the Nigerian citizens in Lagos are more resilient than the city in their ability to provide for their basic services and make alternative provisions with the failure of public services amid inadequate infrastructure and disjointed service delivery. Again, urban governance techniques employed by the LASG have revealed the nature of imbalance inclusion in the way the city is partitioned with infrastructural development directed towards the wealthier human settlements in Lagos. GUA implementation in Nigeria does not seem to have the required effect at the local levels for several reasons, but its adoption by the national government has helped to draw the government's attention towards development. The next chapter focuses on the challenges affecting the implementation and realisation of the GUAs.

7 CHAPTER SEVEN – CHALLENGES AFFECTING GLOBAL (URBAN) DEVELOPMENT AGENDAS IMPLEMENTATION AND REALISATION IN LAGOS-NIGERIA

7.1 Introduction

The findings of this study show that the understanding and perception of GUAs at the local level do not decipher the intentions behind GUAs despite them having gone through a series of negotiations, consultations and processes before the final adoption. Hence, the need to understand the challenges and impediments affecting the implementation of GUAs in Lagos-Nigeria. Based on the responses, these challenges include but are not limited to the absence of data for planning, the huge context of urban challenges, the disjunction between GUAs and local legislations, the government's attitude and inadequate resources to deliver these global commitments. The respondents across all the levels, both public and non-public respondents, identified several challenges impeding the implementation of the GUAs in Lagos. While the last findings chapter focuses on how global agendas intersect at the national level and ended with the dimensions of the SDG11, the following sections detail the themes emanating from challenges impeding GUA implementation.

7.2 Huge context and peculiar nature of Nigeria and Lagos as a city-state

The huge context in terms of population and urban challenges faced in Nigeria and Lagos make it a significant challenge in implementing global agendas in all ramifications considering the limitations as a global South human settlement. While no government will readily agree to relinquish power because of the magnitude of the problems, all tiers of government in Nigeria have several issues to deal with. These range from the security of life and property, maintaining the social, economic and political affairs of the country, managing human settlements, protecting all sectors and maintaining international trade. In the context of Nigeria, the challenges have significant impacts and dire consequences on food production, housing, employment, infrastructure, service deliveries, transportation, public services, and maintaining peace and order.

The findings of this study show that there is a lack of progressive and strategic planning in governance in Nigeria. According to **NL02,** Nigeria has not fared well in forward planning, modelling projections and simulations due to a lack of demographic information and data. This may be attributed to unstable governments occasioned by a number of military coups in the past. **NL01** also notes that *the huge demographic context is a militating factor in implementing the 2030 Agenda of the SDGs.* The respondent notes that *approximately 200 million people, 923,000 square kilometres divided into 36 states and the FCT and 774 local governments is a huge context by whatever standard* to govern with limited resources. The respondent further contended that the large context of implementation had overbearing implications in terms of interfacing, for instance, the number of people and administrative

structures to be dealt with implementing global agendas. Also highlighted, were the insecurity problems in various parts of the country – tribal fights, Boko Haram in the North, and all forms of banditry and insurgencies all over Nigeria. *Whichever progress you would have made, some of this progress was reversed, some people are displaced, the hospitals are destroyed, school children no longer go to school* (**NL01**). In addition to the above, the magnitude of poverty in Nigeria worsens the huge context in regard to GUA implementation. Also, **GL02** notes that there is increasing *urbanisation of poverty, with more people getting poorer and poorer in the urban area,* which is a growing concern in Nigeria.

Narrowing the context down to Lagos, the first point to note is that it is the most populated city-state in Nigeria and Africa, and the population explosion poses a challenge on its own (**IUP05**). He stressed that people keep migrating to Lagos and the LASG cannot give any accurate bracket of the human population. A significant challenge highlighted in implementing *GUA is the scale of the problem versus available resources to address it.* A respondent noted that to live up to the GUA, Lagos needs to address issues around rail, road and water transportation, housing (**SL12**). On the challenge of a population explosion, a respondent noted that the net migration into Lagos every day is in the range of 2000 persons per day. Most of these people put pressure on housing, urban development and infrastructure in Lagos state; unfortunately, only a few of them pay any form of taxes or contribute to the economy of the state (**SL12**). All the levels and respondents have agreed that Lagos's population and geographical size, and the entire country constitute an impediment towards implementing GUA.

7.3 Data and blind planning

The importance of data for day-to-day planning, urban planning, development planning and all forms of planning cannot be overemphasised in the implementation of GUAs. The last census that was carried out in Nigeria was in 2006, 15 years ago, and afterwards, all forms of planning were based on unrealistic projections and estimations. Hence, realistic development, infrastructure, housing and economic planning have been based on mere predictions. Many respondents lamented the lack of data for planning, which is akin to blind planning in terms of the actual population, population growth, population density and future projections. As noted earlier, the continued migration into Lagos makes GUAs and all forms of planning, forecasting and projections difficult. Again, the absence of data makes it challenging to classify cities and human settlements across Nigeria based on required urban interventions to realise the SDG11 and the NUA. **IUP01, IUP05, NGO03, SL12, and NL03** iterate the point that urban challenges in Lagos are further aggravated by a lack of proper understanding of the demographic indices and how to plan appropriately. The respondents point out that a lack of data makes it seem like the LASG is planning with fictitious figures. For instance, **NGO03** notes that there is no specific figure on the population of Lagos; the information varies: 18 million, 21 million and 26 million. **SL12** notes that insufficient data makes it difficult to ensure accountability and the ability to track government action properly. Again, there is consensus across all levels on the lack of planning data that will cause the easy implementation of GUA. Also, the lack of data makes it impossible to monitor

progress or retrogression based on the targets and indicators in the monitoring frameworks of the SDGs and the NUA.

7.4 Outdated urban planning legislations and disconnection between local legislations and global urban development agendas.

A common trend among the respondents is the disjunction in GUAs and existing planning legislation in Nigeria, making it difficult for the national government to mainstream or implement global urban development agendas at sub-national and local levels (**GL02, GL03**). Based on existing legislation and court cases, the national level (the FGN) can only implore the state and local governments to implement the GUA, despite making commitments, signing, ratifying GUA and putting up a 'face' implementation strategy. Again, despite many changes and shifts in population, urban density and urban developments in 2021, the inoperable 1992 NUDP and the NHP, and the controversial 1978 Land Use Act (backed by the Nigerian Constitution) are still operational. As discussed earlier, a glance into the NUDP, the NHP and the LUA shows considerable policy import from the colonial legislation. The respondents note an inadequacy and weakness in plans and policies relating to the full implementation of the SDGs (**IUP01**). For instance, it was noted that there is a weakness in policies that relate to advocacy on the SDGs, ways of partnering with other stakeholders and the various means of actualising the SDGs.

On the issues of legislation, there is a lack of legislation relating to the actualisation of the SDGs. Instead, the implementation is often left to the whims of various government agencies put in charge of such implementation. On this point, **GL02** notes that a structural problem in implementing the GUAs is that of disharmony in legislation. For instance, as far as urban planning and development are concerned, the FGN no longer has a role and is struggling to be a significant player in the GUAs. This is based on the constitutional provision that urban and regional planning is a reserved matter for the state government (sub-national government) and not on the concurrent list for the national government. So, only the state governments can legislate on such matters.

Further, as iterated by respondents, land governance falls directly within the purview of the states and local governments by virtue of the Land Use Act of 1978, this division creates a problem for international agencies who interact more with the government at the national (federal) level. As **GL0**3 notes, *even though we [UN] have a strong relationship with the federal government, most of the activities, if one talks about deliverables, must be at the state levels, which poses a greater challenge in implementing of the GUA.* In a bid to address such issues, most international agencies have had to enter into separate MOUs with state governments (**GL03**). **GL02** makes the powerful argument that if the FGN enters into an international agreement on urban development, it is essential that the government adopts a bottom-up approach in its implementation, as against the top-down system of governance practices in Nigeria. This point goes to the root of the governance structure in Nigeria, and is fundamental to the implementation of the GUA, as the local government, which is the government at

the grassroots, is quite weak, and most of its duties are carried out by the state governments. In regard to GUA, **NITP01** iterates the need to discuss public policy and for those in public policy implementation to understand the context stating that *we must debate visioning, envisioning, and the need to plan the policy. Now, on many issues, we have what is seemed like policy, a policy like a statement or a document; on many others, we do not have real policies to liberate our urban environment. Now, those that we have, most times, policy implementers do not refer to them; they speak out of context.* The responses have shown that there is a conflict between global, and national mandate; hence, it becomes difficult to achieve the GUA when there is a disjunction between what is adopted at the global level and what is obtainable at the local level.

7.5 The attitude of government towards realising the Global (Urban) Development Agendas

This section provides the respondents' perception of the government's attitude and perception towards implementing the GUAs based on their interactions with the government and matters relating to GUA and SDGs generally. Many respondents (**IUP03, IUUP05, IUP07, NGO01, NGO03, NGO05, GLO02 and SL05**) contend and have identified the government's attitude, public officials and politicians as a principal challenge in implementing and realising the GUAs and the SDGs. This challenge played out in various ways, including the insincerity and lack of political will to implement the agendas, to apathy, exclusion of the urban poor, the notion of anti-informality as development, corruption and lack of accountability, being an 'elite' government, and changes in government tenure and manifestoes. A major trend in the respondents' responses is that the government tends to be elitist and is not in touch with the realities of the people at grassroot level. **NGO05** notes that most top government officials belong to elite families in Lagos state and tend to see low- or no-income earners and slum dwellers as social misfits. In his words, he noted with disdain, *look at the LASG public press release around the eviction of Otodo Gbame; they say things like all these people are criminals; all these people that walk around, all these people are misfit. Those are official words of the LASG; I am not making this up.*

Further on the need for the government to be in touch with the grassroots**, IUP03** notes the need to consider the local context to realise the GUAs. The respondents' contributions tilt towards adopting a community-based approach to ensure that the GUAs benefit the poor within the society. Contrary to what exists now, where the government has little or no understanding of the problems and challenges at grassroot level, a community-based approach or bottom-up approach allows the government to grasp and address these problems adequately. The research shows that members of civil society view the approach towards realising the GUAs as a somewhat 'whitewash' approach. Specifically, NGO**05** notes that *government [is] not taking action to extend access to water, to building (sic), sanitation, structure or ensuring that people have adequate housing, but in fact, quite the opposite, what we see are government policies aimed at pushing out the poor and building houses for the rich, eliminating informal livelihoods, and chasing out common traders. So, it is very clearly counterproductive; they are not interested in implementing the SDGs by not bringing everyone to that level, but instead, they*

are interested in implementing the SDGs by eliminating the poor people from the city and delivering services to the rich.

Furthermore, also highlighted in this study from the fieldwork is the need for the governance structure to engender principles of accessibility and acceptability to ensure the realisation of the GUAs. **NGO03** laments that the people do not have access to the government, nor are they accepted because they are perceived as being informal. According to the respondent, *using the UN statistics (and even LSDP 2012-2025), 75% of the Lagos population are urban poor (and largely) belonging to informal sector This 75% do not have any access to the government, neither are their needs considered in creating laws, and policies within the state*. This disconnect is evidenced in the incessant evictions, demolition of informal structures, banning of street trading and destruction of local markets to give way for shopping malls because that is a sign of development or modernity (**NGO03**). The respondent notes that the notion of modernity by the LASG is the destruction of informality, which is their response to realising the SDGs.

Another challenge highlighted in the research is the incessant mismanagement of funds and the continuous drive to generate money through any development initiative. According to **IUP02,** *when you talk to people interested in developing government ideas, the main thing is now, how can LASG make money out of the development? So, it is always another impression that we need money before we can do development. So, anything in Lagos is now, how do we generate income? So, everything is about discussions about development is about income generation for LASG, which now becomes a norm in many sectors.* The respondent further noted the lack of transparency and accountability in the government's conversation with civil societies. According to **IUP02**, it is challenging to follow money management or analyse the government's budget due to the continuous claims about the lack of data.

Other challenges identified include political alliances and loyalty, godfatherism and changes in government tenure. **IUP07** highlight these points by noting that part of the challenges affecting the implementation of GUAs stems from bad governance and godfatherism in Nigeria. *Those in government are often more concerned about their loyalty to the political parties than they are to the public; also government officials remain timid and inept due to the fear of speaking or acting against the government.* Further, **IUP07** stated *that being in government is seen as a money-making venture due to the high level of corruption*. Research also shows that most government officials are there for personal gain on a four-year cycle; thus, GUA implementation frameworks often lack continuity (**IUP07**). Such changes in government tenure after four years weakens the already vague implementation frameworks, and policies are not followed to the letter, especially at the local level (**LL04)**. **LL04** asserts that *as a country and as a government, we have misplaced priorities, we do not follow decisions and policies to the letter, especially with the changes in government that happens every four years, policies will die a natural death with the new government coming up with their own policies and initiatives, and we have*

seen the same sequence and patterns for many years. In the same vein, **SL05** notes that *every government coming into power has its own agenda, its own agenda is what they are going to face when he comes, and if the government refuses to implement GUA, there is nothing you can do.*

However, apart from government officials the attitude of residents also is a factor. There is also the issue of apathy and lack of trust in the government. **SL12** says that a major challenge experienced by the government in delivering urban governance and implementing the SDGs has to do with apathy. *The problem comes with anyone who does not have anything to do with the government who thinks everybody is corrupt, lazy, inefficient, and a thief and they are doing nothing. So, we need to involve the citizens in governance, we need to connect with the people, and one of the initiatives we are doing for that is Volunteer's Corp.* All in all, respondents across all levels generally believe the government and their officials constitute a bottleneck in the implementation of GUAs, in addition to public (respondents) officials who are always in defence of the government and always are giving excuses for the government.

7.6 Institutional challenges

The implementation of the SDG11 and NUA rely solely on institutions such as the UN and UN agencies, MDAs (on the part of Nigerian's three-tier government), individuals, NGOs, CBOs and the private sector for financial support. Apart from the government's apparatus to drive the implementation process, the non-government apparatus also plays a significant role, but institutional challenges exist. **NL01** highlighted that there are three strategic platforms to bring non-state actors to support the implementation of the SDGs. The donors' partners forum led by the UN system, the private sector advisory group on SDGs and the civil society strategic group. However, despite the arrangement made, **NL04** notes that a major problem in Nigeria about implementing the GUAs is the lack of coordination between federal, state and local governments. The non-state actors are more able to track their activities and financial commitments, while it is difficult for the government to do the same. In addition to the lack of coordination, there is also a capacity gap and a lack of capacity building across the levels of government (**NL01, SL12).** Also, apart from the SDI as part of the city networks (mentioned in section 2.5) that could aid or influence GUA implementation, many of the global city networks are non-existent in Lagos (**NG03, NG05, LL05**). Over the last five years, the relationship between the SDI and the LASG has not been smooth due to cases of evictions and the absence of basic services in slums in Lagos. Lastly, another institutional challenge to the realisation of GUAs is the fact that the civil service takes an active part in their implementation (**IUP03).** She noted that often implementation becomes a problem as the entire civil service may not subscribe to GUAs, leading to apathy. Hence, buy-ins into GUAs are pertinent for implementation by all tiers of government, and individuals. This challenge speaks to inadequacy, and it ties back into the scale of the issues mentioned in section 7.2.

7.7 Inadequate resources

Lack of financial resources is another common factor identified by respondents as a significant challenge in realising the GUAs across all levels and respondents. Respondents **NL01** and **NL03** identified the availability of funds as a major militating factor in the realisation of the global agendas. This, according to them, is particularly so, as the country went into recession in 2016, shortly after the country began implementing the SDGs**. SL12** noted that the fund's limitation exists mainly at the state level because funding should be made available from the federal government to all. According to the respondent, funding had only been made available from the national government once since 2016.

On the part of civil society, the opinion is that it is not necessarily a case of inadequacy of funds but of disinterest and lack of proper management of available funds. In the same vein, **NGO02** noted that the wise and judicious application of resources was essential to realising the SDGs and GUAs. In her words, *…the funds locally and budgetary allocations, if they are used wisely and judiciously, is enough. So, are the goals realisable? Very realisable, yes, but do we have the political will and the technical know-how to do the right thing? That is what is holding the SDG11. Please, do not ever write anywhere that lack of funds is responsible for the non-realisation, do not ever write it anywhere, the problem in Nigeria is not lack of funds, if anyone has told you, it is lack of funds, please tell the person that he has not done his homework.* **NGO02** alludes to widespread corruption in government where the budgeted fund for implementing the GUAs, and building houses are not used for the same purpose. Apart from **NGO02** and **IUP02** who expressed a lack of accountability in government, there is a consensus about inadequate resources to actualise GUAs in Lagos.

7.8 Lack of true consensus in global urban agenda decision-making

Also, the issue of participation and how the agendas are negotiated and arrived at is central to nations' ability to implement them. Nations with better-negotiating powers can better agitate for terms favourable to them. Thus, preference is given to more developed nations as far as the GUA is concerned. This trend affects under-developed or developing countries with little or no resources to actively participate and voice their concerns effectively. The lack of negotiating power by many developing nations implies a lack of consensus, and these countries are burdened with the inability to properly implement an agenda to which they did not contribute. Put in other words, the developing countries are dealing with a difficult agenda foisted on them to which they had little input (**NL04, GL03**). **NL04** noted the need to domesticate global agendas, arguing that the agendas cannot apply to all nations in the same way. In his words, *when they say go and apply it, you come home and look at it and start wondering, where do we start from? How do we start?*

The participants in the study noted that while there is the need to domesticate global agendas, the issue of implementation and domestication is unfavourably skewed against developing nations right from the period of negotiations (**IUP06**). Several participants noted that in addition to the fact that the agendas

cannot apply everywhere in the same way, there is also the problem of insufficient wherewithal (on the part of developing countries) to sponsor and successfully negotiate their own agendas. **NL04** noted specifically that the negotiated agendas are usually the ideas of more powerful nations from the global North, and the 'agreements' often create a dilemma of implementation for many developing countries. In the same vein, **GL03** notes that *unfortunately, in many respects for developing countries particularly, the least developed, the lower-income and the lower medium-income countries, are unable to influence the development agenda because they do not really have a voice at the table. Many people do not have the resources to attend these meetings, preparatory meetings to these agendas*. According to participants, the UN-Habitat rendered some support to African countries, with Nigeria playing a major role by committing three million USD to support African countries' representation in the preparatory process for Habitat III. **GL03** notes *that is why in many cases, Habitat III has more issues that are relevant to countries in Africa because they were able to be represented.* Across all levels, it came through that there are implementation challenges because there was no full buy-in due to contextual inadequacies compared to more developed countries. This raises a question: How does one deal with the issues and agendas that are very much agency driven, agencies like the UN-Habitat, which are more focussed on poorer nations yet the poorer nations do not have the voice at the table?

7.9 Local governments and the relationships between the tiers of government (and actors) in the implementation of global urban agendas

This section presents responses about the role of local governments in implementing the GUAs and their relationship with other arms of government. The literature and the UN-Habitat expect the local government to play the lead role in the GUA implementation because of their proximity to the grassroots (Adeyemi *et al.*, 2012; Boris, 2015; UN-Habitat, 2015; 2016; Lawanson, 2018; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021).

According to **GL02,** planning and urban development are centred at the sub-national level, while there is no 'top-level' support, and the local government has little or no contribution to planning and implementation in Nigeria. On the lack of participation by local governments, the respondent noted that *there is no local planning authority in Nigeria as we know it; maybe in Johannesburg, you will see the city of Johannesburg or the city of London. So, wherever you have a planning office at the local government in Nigeria, it is just a state machinery there, like a colonial office.* **GL03** emphasises the point that *when you talk about local governance, you have to define your area, and since the area you are defining cannot be constitutionally defined (in Nigeria), there is a conflict of sorts, where that also happens, provide or pre-empt a problem of urban governance in the human settlements.* The city structure is non-existent in Nigeria. It is noteworthy that a single city often spans up to two or more local governments. Again, **GL02** notes that *urban local governments have been fragmented to the point that they cannot see themselves as belonging to the same city. In the rural areas, several settlements are agglomerated as one local government, so they have lost their true identity. We only talk about the headquarters-town, in urban, it is fragmented, in rural, it is agglomerated, at the end of the day, we*

lose urban city government. **IUP02** laments that *one serious problem or urgent challenge* [affecting GUA implementation] *is the lack of local government structures because that is how cities thrive; cities never thrive as a whole.* Also, **NGO05** notes that *the challenges in Lagos (and Nigeria as a whole) towards GUA and urban governance is that they effectively have only two tiers of government; we have the federal and state governments.*

Feedback from various respondents points to much faith in the local government system, which is lacking in Lagos. **GL01** noted that a strong local government structure would solve the GUA implementation issues and most of the public governance challenges in Nigeria. Similarly, **GL02** assert that the challenges in the realisation of the GUA would be minimised with a strong local government, rather than the system where the duties of the local government are placed on government agencies at the sub-national level who are unable to deliver the required service properly. The research shows that beyond the redundant local governments, a strengthened local urban governance would aid the realisation of the GUAs. In such instances, the local government determines the form of urban governance that is most suitable for it, unlike the blanket provision contained in the Constitution of Nigeria. The position of the Constitution on local governments is seen as the most incapacitating factor; the local governments are subsumed by the state governments and lack any autonomy in the real sense of the word. The Constitution allows for the state (sub-national) governments to determine the extent of the powers of local governments, and financial allocations also go through the state governments. This position limits the local governments' activities in terms of housing, urban development and provision of infrastructure. **LL04**, a respondent at local government level, laments the ineptitude at that level. He noted that although the maintenance of infrastructure such as roads fell within the purview of the local government, they lacked the financial capacity to carry out the required work. This is due to insufficient revenue allocation to local governments by the government at the centre. It is evident from all levels of governance that the local government or the city structure is non-existent in Lagos, and the GUA is exactly meant to thrive on the proper functioning at the local government level.

7.10 Conclusion

The GUAs are well-intentioned by the UN, and member nations with the commitment to implement them; however, the empirical data from the respondents across all levels of governance have shown that underlying impediments are inhibiting implementation. While inadequate resources would have ranked one of the core challenges, other issues such as the huge context of Lagos and Nigeria, lack of capacity, insufficient data, a non-existent local government structure and policy implementation environment contribute to impede GUA implementation. The most significant of all these challenges stem from the government's attitude to implement the GUAs, conflicts between global and local frameworks, the lack of political will to implement the GUAs, and a culture of paying lip service to these agendas. This is a deeper state of malaise in the state towards realising the global development frameworks. For this study, it is pertinent to point out that the national government that adopts SDG11 and the NUA has no

constitutional mandate to enforce urban planning laws at the state (sub-national) level. This singular challenge poses a concern for GUA implementation. Hence, there is a disjunction between the commitment to implement the GUAs and the mandate to implement. This situation is aggravated by the non-dominant role of local governments, and institutional and capacity deficiency among the three tiers of governments in Nigeria. The next chapter focuses on the dilemma of sustainable housing and the government's response to the housing situation in Lagos, Nigeria.

8 CHAPTER EIGHT – THE DILEMMA OF SUSTAINABLE HOUSING AND GOVERNMENT RESPONSE TO HOUSING IN LAGOS-NIGERIA

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the dilemma of sustaining housing production in Lagos, and Nigeria as a whole, amid the prolonged housing deficit, the problem with land and legislation, non-operational housing policy and the government's attitude to housing development over the years. The respondents identified several challenges as impeding sustainable housing despite the global agendas (to which Nigeria is a signatory) that speak to housing and the provision of basic services for the citizens. This chapter presents findings on the level of the LASG and FGN's responsiveness towards housing provision for the citizens based on the available housing programmes, challenges and the forces inhibiting housing provision. At the time these interviews were conducted, there were no Covid-19 pandemic issues; hence, this study did not focus on the impacts of the pandemic on housing. However, there were a few email conversations with some of the respondents and attendance of focussed meetings as reflected below.

8.2 Housing and the global urban agendas

There have been previous housing agendas, as discussed in Chapter Two, and these housing agendas have been affirmed in the SDG11 and the NUA, which are the prime focus of this research. Global leaders from different countries, including Nigeria, committed that by 2030, they will "ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums" (Target 11.1 of the SDG) (UN-Habitat, 2015: 12) and

> "*stimulate the supply of a variety of housing options that are affordable and accessible for members of different income groups of society, taking into consideration socio-economic and cultural integration of marginalised communities and homeless persons and those in vulnerable situations and preventing segregation. We will take positive measures to improve the living conditions of homeless people, with a view to facilitating their full participation in society, and to prevent and eliminate homelessness, as well as combat and eliminate its criminalisation*" (Para 33 of the NUA) (UN-Habitat, 2016: 12).

The question is, to what extent do these commitments "global circulating agendas and discourses meet the mediating forces of local context and practice" in Lagos State and Nigeria as a country (Anand and Rademacher, 2011: 1751)? Varying responses from the fieldwork indicate that Nigeria is far from meeting its commitments under the global agenda. According to **NL01,** going by available statistics, Nigeria has not reached the benchmark to show that it has fulfilled its promises. **IUP01** iterates this failure to meet the target by highlighting the lack of proper strategy, pathway, technique or manpower. He further noted that the city of Lagos lacks the resources to meet the housing needs, which increases

daily since it is compounded by daily migration. Furthermore, **IUP05** argues that the agendas and government policies differ from the realities of the people. He points out that *when a policymaker sells affordable houses, what they have in mind is not what an average person in Lagos calls affordable houses because the average person in Lagos believes that affordable houses are houses they are able to afford.* **NL03** and **NL05** state that the government has not been able to meet the global agendas mainly because housing is an expensive venture that the government cannot afford. Particularly, **NL05** holds the view that 'no-income' housing is unrealistic and utopian regarding the GUAs.

Lastly, **PSHP02** and **PSH03** share the view that the actualisation of the global agendas is a work in progress throughout the country, with Lagos state moving at a 'snail speed'. **PSHP03** further notes *I have been in development for 20 years, and I have watched different administrations come and go and claim they were going to 'house all'; you cannot house all. Even the Nordic countries that pride themselves on having very good social welfare, they do not house everybody, it is not just possible. What government should be doing is creating safety nets for the bottom of the pyramid. that is, the people who are unable to afford it, and then create enabling environments for the rest of the economy for people to be able to afford homes.* From all the responses, the housing agenda or housing production in Lagos is grossly inadequate to meet the growing demands in terms of quantity and quality.

8.3 Housing and Covid-19

The Covid-19 pandemic exacerbated the burden on access to housing globally for everyone, including housing practitioners. According to Rogers and Power (2020: 177),

> *"the Covid-19 pandemic is rapidly emerging as a housing emergency. In this moment of crisis, let us state our position on Covid-19 and the journal at the outset: Housing scholars, housing policy and our homes have a pivotal role in this health crisis. The Covid-19 pandemic incorporates a suite of health, economic and political challenges; housing is emerging as one of them. Housing scholars have an ethical responsibility to intervene in this evolving housing emergency both as experts and researchers. In the short term we can support rapid policy making that is done well. In the longer term we can bring perspective to the changes that are taking place across our housing systems and that are required to deal with this crisis*."

SL11 (in an email conversation during the pandemic in mid-2020) laments:

> *"…as a citizen myself, I would say that the government has not done much in taking care of the populace, especially the urban poor. The Covid-19 pandemic has exposed our inadequacies as a government to care for people. I mean, the informal settlements, the pandemic came with instructions such as social distancing, avoiding the crowds, but they barely had anywhere to go. What do you tell someone who lives in an apartment or in a place, 'in a face me, I face you'? In a room containing six to eight people and a building of this kind contains about 20*

rooms. How do they maintain social distancing? So, I am not sure that our government has done well, you know, all that it can for its citizens, especially the urban poor. And this is evidenced in the kind of informal settlement and communities we have in Lagos, I mean, we are trying to count now, people have given us all kinds of figures, but we know that we are no longer at the 42 blighted areas that we adopted officially a few years ago. Presently, we have identified about 120 slum communities at the agency, and we are not done yet. So, all these people for a population of over 20 million and where our housing stock is so low. No, I do not think we have done very well in housing provision."

In a Covid-19 housing webinar (another focussed meeting attended during the pandemic), Nubi Timothy (a professor and expert in housing finance and urban regeneration based at the University of Lagos) asserts that the majority of housing interventions in the past have focussed on the working-class citizens who can afford such houses; however, the majority of Nigerians are poor, and they live in slums; hence, giving orders of 'stay at home' is not favourable to them (Chimphonda, 2020). Also, Andrew Chimphonda (at the same webinar), the MD/CEO of Shelter Afrique, decries the inability of affordable housing production to meet the level of urbanisation in Africa, which is worsened by Covid-19's economic and social impacts, even though the UN continues to call for decent, accessible and affordable housing (Chimphonda, 2020). The housing deficit in Africa sits at 56 million (with the city of Lagos accounting for three million), requiring about three trillion US Dollars to address this housing shortage, hence the need for foreign support and investment in housing (Chimphonda, 2020). In the wake of the first wave of Covid-19 in Nigeria, Jumoke Akinwunmi stresses the interrelation between housing, and every other sector of the economy, especially the health sector, and the frailty of public housing institutions in Lagos and Nigeria to address the housing challenge (Chimphonda, 2020). Hence, the need for an integrated approach to address housing challenges, prevention of urban sprawl with vertical development to ease up more land (with social distancing), and green public spaces for outdoor activities and recreation.

8.4 Government's responsiveness to housing provision

A pertinent question in line with the objectives of this research is the level of government's responsiveness to housing production, especially for the urban poor as a basic and physiological need from the demand and supply side. Consistently, and as alluded to by many authors and respondents (**NL01-05, SL03-4, IUP03, LL05**), Nigeria's housing deficit is put at over 20 million, and Lagos at over three million, but without any verifiable evidence since no census has been conducted since 2006 (Tomaselli *et al.*, 2020-Webinar; Moorev, 2019; Sanusi, 2019; Gbolahon, 2017a). So, based on the earlier figures on housing deficits in Africa, Nigeria alone accounts for about 36% (a third) of the continent's deficit (Bah *et al.*, 2018; Chimphonda, 2020). The growth of the housing deficit has consistently cast doubt on the notion of how responsible the government is, and what they are doing to reduce the deficit to make housing accessible and affordable for all. Respondents have also argued that

the growth of the deficit and housing affordability issues have also led to the growth of slums. **IUP04** notes that the responses to the housing deficit in Lagos state are characterised by a lack of integration, and cooperation from all housing stakeholders and providers. She notes that *the professional housing development, real estate development sector is doing their thing, the government is doing their own thing, and everyday Lagosians are doing their things, getting their housing by incremental means.* **NGO04,** on the other hand, argues that market forces determine the availability of housing in Lagos. She notes that these market forces are left to find a solution to the housing deficit, which has excluded a vast majority of inhabitants of the city.

GL03 and **NGO01** highlight the fact that there is a sense of non-commitment to housing on the part of the government. **GL03** points out that the national and the state Ministries of Housing are usually one of the first ministries to go under in the event of dwindling resources. GL03 states that it has changed its name nationally *from the Ministry of Works and Housing, Ministry of Works, Housing and Power, Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development. So, in a way, it reflects the hierarchy and the low-down hierarchy (or priority) given to the government's housing sector because the government is adjudged most of the time on the things able to do to affect the day-to-day living of people*. Also, **NGO01** notes that there is no deliberate act by the government to provide housing with basic axillary infrastructure; instead, the focus is often on gentrification, which eventually works as a disadvantage to the people, especially the urban poor.

In regard to the housing deficit in Nigeria**, NL02** points out that the deficit increases in the same way that the population explodes; in essence, it is counterproductive to continue to work with the same figure of housing deficit as years earlier. The research also brought to the fore the need to contextualise the housing deficit given the peculiar challenges Lagos faces. For instance, **IUO04** notes that a major cause of the housing deficit in Lagos is that *good houses are built in places where there is no infrastructure, and so those houses do not show up in the data because they are not in areas with public infrastructure.* Similarly, **PSHP01** states that *thousands of homes… are not within the purview of the government and these houses are built through self-help without public access. There is no proper sanitation; there is no water supply*. The respondents note that the lack of any form of government participation implies that the government has no record of such houses; in turn, there is no provision for basic infrastructures such as power and water. **SL09** points out that it would be difficult to keep track of the housing deficit in Lagos due to what they described as a *day population and a night population*. She noted that numerous people work in Lagos but live in neighbouring states. Thus, the statistics on the housing deficit may be inaccurate depending on the means of gathering such information. Also, the day and night population significantly impact the housing situation, basic services and urban infrastructure.

PSHP04 identified certain factors contributing to the housing deficit in Lagos, and Nigeria generally, and these include high land premiums, high costs of construction, lack of infrastructure/adequate

government regulation/necessary amenities in satellite urban communities, and a lack of strategic planning/government incentives. In buttressing the above point, **IUO05** notes that housing presents a peculiar problem due to the necessity of land for housing and that land is a scarce commodity, especially in Lagos. Further iterating the lack of government's response to housing**, NGO02** argues that although it exists in government policy documents on housing, in reality, there is no such thing as housing for the urban poor, *this is due to the absence of the social housing policy or affordable housing.* **PSHP03** points out the need to differentiate between affordable housing and social housing, noting that social housing is providing housing as a social need for everybody, while affordable housing is providing housing that meets people's expectations and desires, which they can afford based on their earning power to sustain it. Several other respondents noted the absence of social housing or government-aided housing development in Nigeria. **GL02, GL03** and **LL05** note that most of the housing interventions in Nigeria are individual initiatives, with citizens having to build according to their financial capacity. While acknowledging that the government is unable to provide housing for all, they note that there must be some positive action on the part of the government for the provision of housing. According to **GL03,** *if you take the census of all the houses, housing corporations, and houses government's programmes have delivered, they will be far, far minimal compared to what the people have done. So, to that extent, the government agenda in housing has not been that strong.* Also, **NGO05** notes that there has not been a single government, apart from the Jakande government in the early 1980s, that has built social housing or housing for the poor. Lastly, **PSHP03** asked pertinent questions with answers about the government's political will to address housing issues in Nigeria and provided some answers. *Can the government afford to provide housing for all? No. Can the government afford to incentivise and create systems that make private money provide housing? Yes. Is the government trying to do that? No. So, the government is fixated on 'we have got to provide housing'. They cannot provide housing, they lack the capacity, they lack the resources, they lack the skills, they lack the land, so how are they going to do it? They cannot.* In all, the government's response to housing production is very poor. The measures to address the housing deficit in Lagos are not gaining traction with the government, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

8.5 The challenge of housing and land availability

The commonest threads among all the respondents as the biggest hindrance to housing development in Lagos and all other parts of Nigeria stems from land, land availability, (bad) land administration, and the 1978 Land Use Act backed by the Constitution. According to **IUP05,** *housing is not so easy, and the reason housing is not so easy is because it is tied to land and land is ultimately a scarce commodity.* The respondent notes that the government has a major challenge in terms of making land available, especially in Lagos, which is mainly bordered by water and wetlands. The lack of available of land makes it difficult for the government to address the problem of housing as effectively as it would other social problems. **IUP02** decries the fact that despite issues associated with land availability, the LASG

wants to make money out of everything, and land is the best commodity for them, and they are making money out of it. So, as long as they want to continue making money out of it, there is no hope either for the poor people nor for the middle class to have access to decent housing. **PSHP02** points out that the Land Use Act has created some problems concerning housing. He notes that the Act created some implementation bottlenecks, such as governors' consent to certain land transactions. These bottlenecks have made basic housing scarce, and people have had to resort to living in slums and informal settlements through self-help and incremental building**.**

Furthermore, **PSHP02** states that the FGN has a unique problem in regard to the Land Use Act, as land ownership is vested in the state governments. So, the FGN does not seem to have any land of its own apart from the FCT; this fact makes it difficult for the FGN to bring about a law that will equally affect all the states because the state governors have rights over the land within their states. So, as far as housing and land availability is concerned, the FGN cannot compel the state government to take a particular line of action. As a developer, **PSHP04** laments the high premium placed on land by the government. She notes that the *Certificate of Occupancy fees, for instance, were increased about 500% at once in certain areas of Abuja.* The respondent notes that while the hike in fees was ostensibly meant to be channelled towards infrastructural development in the various human settlements, it directly impacted the construction sector by reducing the number of landowners' ability to develop units after paying the high premiums. The increase in land charges resulted in landowners and landlords increasing the sale and rent value of built property in a bid to recover from the high cost of land and associated charges. **PSHP04** notes further that, *because these sales and rent values, along with the land premiums, were not based on any fixed economic and/or infrastructural metrics, the housing market created a false economy with potential homeowners and renters bearing the brunt.* The conclusion here is that unnecessarily high land premiums discourage the construction of more houses to cover the housing gap. So, it creates another challenge without meeting the population's housing needs.

8.6 Other challenges affecting sustainable housing in Lagos, Nigeria

In another webinar on housing provision, Fakeye Oladapo decries the housing situation in Nigeria with low mortgages and many challenges affecting homeownership from the supply side, apart from rental housing (Dangiwa *et al.*, 2020). Some of the challenges identified are land availability, an unfriendly legal structure for processing certificates of occupancy for land, the lengthy process of transferring title documents, and the very high cost of perfecting (completing or finalising official) documents for ownership, titles and transactions. Others are the high cost of building materials and construction, high cost of the building environment, high cost of infrastructure needed for roads, electricity and water, and lastly, the high cost of financing housing projects between 20 to 25% for planning approvals. Similarly, Ugochukwu (at the webinar) notes that there is an urgent need to change the present housing structure in Nigeria due to the unfriendly operating environment for many reasons, but not limited to many charges by the state (sub-national) governments, lack of state computerised land registry and poor land

administration (Dangiwa *et al.*, 2020). Also, too many building laws are exclusive of each other, which creates a bad working environment, thus leading to calls for the government to intervene and create an enabling environment. In addition, land vested in the governors through the Land Use Act has been turned into 'cash cows' and used as revenue generation for the state governments through various building permits and excessive charges. In highlighting the challenges for housing delivery in Lagos State**, GL03** notes that *the requirements for housing delivery (per individual) are numerous and complicated; apart from the house itself, the cost of extending basic services and infrastructure is enormous. Due to the challenges and the lack of government-provided housing, most people instead privately seek funding from family and friends and acquire the most affordable land available, which is often in rural areas, such as their hometowns and build incrementally with the aid of support from cooperative societies, employers, families and the community.*

Other notable challenges identified include the inadequate infrastructure and necessary amenities in satellite urban communities (**PSHP04**). The respondent notes further that there is a lack of strategic planning in non-core urban areas and a lack of government incentives for private developers to enter housing provision. In the words of PSHP04, *this dearth of infrastructure and amenities (roads, sewage, drainage systems, electricity, reliable transport systems) repel developers and potential homeowners from building homes in these areas, which tend to be more affordable. By ignoring the development of these satellite areas, the sale and rental values of properties in developed areas of the city skyrocket, causing a deficit through unaffordability*. Other challenges identified are government bureaucracy, lack of continuity in government, a lack of political will and overpopulation (**SL11)**; high taxation and charges on land (**PSHP03**); lack of strong institutions to drive housing (**IUP05**); and the unavailability of housing components and building materials, most of which are imported from other countries, thereby raising the price of housing commodity (**IUP06**, **PSHP04**). Housing as a verb and a noun, as noted by John Turner, and in line with the General Comment 4 and 7 of the ICESCR, requires a lot of input, hence, the enormous challenges affecting housing production (Turner, 1972a, 1972b; UN Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights, 1991).

8.7 Challenges associated with implementing the National Housing Policy

Towards achieving GUAs in housing and human settlements, it is expected that GUAs are equally driven by NHP for any country. However, as noted earlier, the NHP in Nigeria is fraught with many issues apart from it not meeting current realities. Hence, this section provides views about the NHP in line with GUAs. According to **NL03** and **NL04,** the main goal of the NHP was to provide adequate and affordable housing for Nigerians in well-serviced communities. The respondents, however, note that most of the objectives of the NHP have not been met, and there is a need to review the policy, especially in line with the new urban agendas. **NL03** (a member of the committee that set up the NHP) stated that, *since the NHP was adopted in 1992, it is unfortunate that most of the provisions have not been met; we advocated for social housing and PPP in housing, although we have not implemented much for this*

now. We need a review, first, to determine why we have not been able to meet the goals of that policy; the way it should have been met as set out in the policy documents. There is also a need to review because between 1992, and now, there have been so many new developments, we have adopted the NUA, which places housing at the centre of our development that must be integrated into the policy document in ways that are applicable to our course.

According to **NL04**, the NHP was a broad policy document, and there was no consideration for finer details, for example, the specific roles of the various stakeholders, such as the FGN, states and local governments, the private sector and other stakeholders in the housing sector. The respondent also noted that the lack of specific milestones was a significant omission in the NHP. Further, it was noted that various issues not envisaged by the NHP had bedevilled the country. Such issues include the provision of housing for internally displaced persons and climate change. In agreement with the respondents, it is argued that if the NHP were subject to periodic reviews based on specific milestones, these novel issues would have been captured in the NHP to aid the GUAs.

8.8 Housing programmes and supports in Nigeria and Lagos State

The participants in this research assert that there is no coordinated approach to housing programmes and housing finance in Nigeria; however, there are several institutions at the national and state levels, alongside financial institutions, housing funds and the private sector involved in housing production and housing finance. In the 'Crisis in Perspective: Affordable Housing Post Covid-19' (webinar), Nubi Timothy notes that existing housing institutions in Nigeria work in silos without integration but as competitors with over 25 different laws and legislations on housing, access to the mortgage and insurance (Akinwunmi *et a*l., 2020). Charles Iyangete (at the same webinar) advocates for the need to have a National Housing Commission to consolidate all the efforts of all actors and institutions involved in housing production and housing finance with defined roles and responsibilities (*ibid.*).

In regard to housing institutions and programmes at the national level, **NL03** notes that we have the Federal Housing Authority *churning out adequate and affordable housing at their own level* across Nigeria. Notable housing programmes at the FCT are the Federal Integrated Staff Housing for FGN staff and the Federal staff loans housing bond, which offers loans to civil servants to be able to afford their own houses. Further on support in the provision of housing, **NL03** says that *we* [FMWH] *have also been able to engage very closely with Shelter Afrique, and you are aware that Nigeria is a foundation member of Shelter Afrique, the second-largest shareholding country of Shelter Afrique. And we have been able to sustain, and we are continuing discussions with them to be more impactful in providing loans for housing developers. Moreover, we also have REDAN, our Real Estate Developers Association of Nigeria, they are doing a fantastic job or they are also helping to relieve the housing deficit in Nigeria. And I think with all these different agencies, working together not to talk of agencies at the state level. I work on the federal level, so I am more familiar with the processes and programmes*

on the federal level. But I am also aware through exchanges and networking that the states are also doing a great lot also to meet the housing needs of the people. So, I think the most important thing is to keep these conversations going and provide housing at the top of the urban agenda. So, it is ingrained into the consciousness of people, you know, so that when governments come when they go, they know that they have left a legacy in terms of housing provision for our people.

About housing finance, there are three critical financial secondary institutions at the national level apart from the PMBs. **PSHP02** notes that there are about two tiers of mortgage financing in Nigeria, the primary originators (PMBs) and the secondary mortgage institutions. The Mortgage Banks are the primary originators of mortgages in Nigeria to individuals. The secondary mortgage institutions are the Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria (FMBN) and the NMRC. These are secondary because they do not originate loans to individuals but to the PMBs and other housing institutions, and corporations in the country.

In addition to the finance institutions, the fieldwork shows that there is also the Family Homes Fund (FHF). FHF has a fund of about 500 billion Naira ($1.2b) to be invested in affordable housing in Nigeria; they fund housing development and equally, at the back end, pave the way for reduced mortgage loan rates to off-takers. It is interesting to note that the houses provided by the FHF are from 10 million Naira downwards; they thus target the lower level of the economic ladder. **NL03** further notes that *the FHF is one of the social assistance housing projects of the federal government through the National Social Investment Programme Office, under the office of the Vice President. So, the government is also addressing mass housing using the FHF. It is a facility that is World Bank-supported, that will also help with housing finance.* **PSHP02** notes that the NMRC has aided housing delivery in Nigeria. According to him, *before the advent of NMRC that lessened the burden of long-term funding for PMBs, you would be asked to bring in about 50 to 60 % of the amount you need, and the bank would give you 30 to 40 % of the sum to make up the cost of housing and again, you will even pay within five years. However, the advent of the NMRC has lessened the burden that financial institutions face with long-term funding. Now we* [PMBs] *can lend for a very long time, for up to 15 or 20 years since we can refinance.* **PSHP02** points out that the FMBN was established in 1956 (formerly known as Nigerian Building Society) to anchor piecemeal payment for houses by way of mortgage banking. The FMBN is a tertiary mortgage provider and anchors the national housing fund (NHF) scheme. The NHF scheme is a scheme where all employees who earn 3,000 Naira and above must contribute 2.5% of their basic salary every month, and this grants them access to the fund to buy their houses at a 6% interest rate as against the 18% to 26% interest rates charges by commercial banks (this is as provided for in the National Housing Fund Act of 2018). The 18% to 26% interest rates charged by the commercial banks is as a result of high-level inflation in Nigeria and very low federal reserve to keep the economy running.

NL03 states that *presently in the ministry* [FMWH], *there is a programme called the National Housing Programme. It was an initiative that came about during the first term of Mr BR Fashola, as the Minister of Works and Housing, then it was Power, Works and Housing. The programme aims to deliver in the first phase about 5000 housing units across the nation.* On the execution of the National Housing Programme, **NL04** notes that *the* FMWH was able to secure five hectares from every state in Nigeria for the housing project, excluding Lagos, Rivers and FCT because Lagos and Rivers States could not provide land for the Federal Government. The inability of LASG to provide land for the National Housing Programme (which may be attributed to land-related challenges) has also affected the possible increase in housing production. And on each site in other states, the Ministry built between 72 and 80 units of housing of different types, one, two or three-bedroom bungalows across about 34 states. As part of data gathering, the Ministry also kept track of how the housing projects contributed to local economies and the use of local building materials and innovative designs that fit each culture. Also, as part of the development planning in Nigeria to address the recent recession and the Covid-19 pandemic, the government came up with the National Social Housing Programme under the Economic Sustainability Plan to provide more affordable housing for the citizens. The FHF supervises the National Social Housing Programme, and it is also used to provide employment to the people.

For Lagos State, **SLO3** states that *the government's policy of rent-to-own allows the lower cadre people to come on board.* The rent-to-own basically enables more low-income people to come on board so that they can have accommodation. According to SL03, *In a situation where probably, you are talking of the cost of a unit of say one-bedroom in some of our estates, they are selling them for as low as about Two Million Naira* [$ 4871*], and they were asked to pay 5% person of that* [$ 243,56], *it means if you put One Hundred Thousand* [$ 243,56], *you can get your allocation.* To address housing issues in Lagos, the government is also working on urban regeneration and the redevelopment of old estates through the LASURA. **SL05** explains that, for instance, the Adeniji estate built in the early 1980s during the Shagari and Jakande governments is now being regenerated in phases. The regeneration is to be carried out in conjunction with a private developer through a PPP arrangement.

NGO01 says that government needs to demonstrate the willingness to provide and address the needs of the people through a strategic long-term approach and planning. The respondent noted the need for government to create an enabling environment that will foster conducive housing for all with reliable transportation systems for commuters, good roads and infrastructure that works. **NGO04** argues that government policies are bureaucratic in nature without a clear pathway to deliver housing to the people. **NITP02** and **SL04** hold the view that the government should provide an enabling environment for housing development rather than going to direct housing construction. They further note that the first step is to create a standardised housing industry and easy accessibility of loans through mortgages. Further on creating an enabling environment, **PSHP02** argues that *the government should set a clear agenda and let the private sector who understands housing build the houses; government can then buy*

from them. For instance, the government could roll out an agenda and say, this year, we want to build one million low-cost houses; these are the price ranges, we are not going to pay until the houses meet these specifications. So, the private developer can go to the bank to get loans to build these houses to meet the requirements. And then, if the money is already budgeted for, there should not be a delay. In fact, there should be a system whereby once the specification is met, they get their money without pursuing money from one table to the other. [Based on precedence of the government defaulting in paying contractors] *This further discourages banks from financing people who get such jobs from the government. They do not fund government projects because it is so uncertain that changes in government can affect everything, and you start all over again.* There is a need for more government-sponsored housing programmes that are affordable with social consideration in line with the GUAs.

8.9 Conclusion

Housing constitutes a significant percentage and the most conspicuous element in the fabric of urban development in many cities and human settlements, except for natural landscapes. Housing also comprises one of the most expensive commodities every household invests in through self-help, incremental building, rent or full homeownership. Due to its many benefits and importance, there have been housing agendas and commitments, but the reality of the housing situation in Lagos is not in line with the GUAs and is plagued with many challenges, particularly, issues relating to the high cost of land, housing, providing infrastructure and mortgage. Also, there is no substantive housing policy to drive the supply despite the huge demand and housing deficits in Lagos. While it appears there are institutions, plans and housing initiatives to address the shortage with no consolidated plan, all previous housing efforts by the government have had little or no impact on the housing deficit at the expense of the lower-income class and urban poor. The inability of the government to provide an enabling environment for the private sector to thrive in housing production has fostered the proliferation of slums. As a way of addressing the GUAs in housing, many respondents have suggested the need for government to make housing production attractive by providing an enabling environment. These suggestions entail land reforms, abolishing outdated legislation, removing too many charges, providing incentives by making housing production look attractive, reviewing the housing policy and proper regulation of the housing sector.

9 CHAPTER NINE – ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION AROUND THE GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS

9.1 Introduction

Previous studies have demonstrated that the implementation of global agendas is met with different contextual issues, peculiar challenges and definitions, thus, affecting the outcome of these agendas (Simon *et al.*, 2015; Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Patel *et al.*, 2017; Valencia, 2019). This study also builds on previous studies with the case of Lagos, Nigeria, on the intersection between GUA implementation and practice at the local levels. The specific objectives explore these intersections, the challenges affecting implementation, the extent to which these agendas have been incorporated, the relationships between the government institutions and lastly, the urban housing situations toward sustainable housing in Lagos. As Lane (1987: 543) stated, "there is no basis for evaluating policies and holding politicians, administrators and professionals accountable" in regard to these agendas for effectiveness and efficiency in the implementation for achieving the overarching goal of global agendas. Chapter Three explores the theoretical basis underpinning this study, Chapter Four illustrates the methodological framework, and Chapter Five presents Lagos's case and documentary analysis. Chapters Six, Seven, and Eight present the findings from the fieldwork alongside the documentary analysis and focussed meetings described in Chapter Four. This chapter provides answers to the research questions with analyses and discussion of the result from the previous chapter with the relevant theories and literature. The following sections provide answers to each of the research sub-questions, with a summary of findings, core discussion and the implication of the result in line with GUAs.

9.2 Answer to Research Question (1) – What intersections exist between the global agenda implementation and practice at the national level?

In regard to where global agendas meet local levels in Lagos, Nigeria, the finding played out in varied dimensions through different themes in Chapter Six. Remarkably, the UN, its agencies and allied intergovernmental organisations have been operating in Nigeria for decades, as Nigeria is a party to global and international agreements, treaties, conventions, frameworks, commitments and agendas. Also, the national government and other sub-national governments have made significant efforts towards creating an enabling environment for global development agendas to thrive in Nigeria. Particularly, with the creation of the Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on SDGs at the national level and the SDGs and Lagos Global Office at the state level towards implementing the SDGs. Furthermore, these global frameworks have helped the government to align their plans and policies with global practices in development planning alongside expectations and guidelines, highlighting deficiencies and areas of improvement in urban governance in all sectors. This is evident through the Lagos State THEMES agenda highlighted in section 5.6, but this is dependent on how the THEMES agenda is implemented, considering the challenges presented in the last three chapters.

Although the Nigerian government supported the African representation leading up to the adoption of the NUA, unfortunately, many developing countries do not have a voice at the table and the resources to attend the preparatory meetings for these agendas. Also, the results from chapter six show that even when you bring your views to the table, the person with the money strings overrules others. This notion questions the true consensus and participation in framing global agendas based on lobbying records by different interest groups and countries at Habitat III and other development agendas (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017). The process of formulating and adopting development agendas have been described as rigorous and complex, with many deliberations and consultations among member nations (Barnett and Parnell, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017; Xue *et al.*, 2018). On adopting these global agendas, it is expected that the national government and representatives will go back to their respective nations to localise, domesticate, sensitise, and mainstream these agendas. The results show that the process brings about a set of new challenges. The generic global framework comes out of conversations between the intergovernmental organisations, and national governments and implementation are expected at the sub-national and local governments. So, if there is so much clarity in the agenda that was formulated, signed, ratified, and adopted at the global level, why is there advocacy for localising and domesticating them? Localising these agendas comes with a cost and challenges around actors, institutions, and the understanding of all stakeholders. This brings to the fore the differences in local context and peculiarities, but much more, institutional understanding, and challenges between what is agreed upon at the global level and what is practiced at local levels. As discussed in Chapter Six, Nigeria as a nation and Lagos as a city-state have established some strategies for implementation with designated national and state-wide offices to champion the mainstreaming and implementation of the SDGs. However, the result indicates that in many instances, when public officials are asked what the government is doing to implement the GUA, they usually refer to institutions, offices created, and portions of the development plans where these GUA are mentioned without concrete outcomes.

The findings show that the global frameworks do not match the reality at local levels despite all efforts, where the GUA are perceived as mere international parameters of development beyond the expected impact at local levels. While peculiar local challenges impede the realisation of these global frameworks, they are seen as mere rhetoric with timelines where leaders commit to implementation as part of international relations. There is also a record of the government continually adopting several agendas without a clear path to achieve them, partly because there are no sanctions for non-implementation. There is a mechanism for holding national governments to account at the UN through the Voluntary National Review to the High-Level Political Forum of the Sustainable Development. While there are no sanctions and it is voluntary, it provides good examples and raises competitive efforts to create a positive impression among member states. Consequently, the findings show that the possibility of attaining the SDG Agenda 2030 is unlikely because there is no clear implementation

strategy, no political will to implement the goals and a lack of administrative and financial capacity. Lastly, the governments in Lagos and Nigeria do not take policies too seriously because the value of a policy is more aspirational; it represents emotional thinking or political sloganeering, rather than a concrete road map.

In regard to the adoption of GUA by nations, herein Nigeria aligns with the normative theories of planning and global agendas in terms of what ought to be, "how things should be and what they should be that way" around development issues (Jenkins *et al*., 2006:325; Morgenstern, 1972). There is also much planning advocacy from the UN, and many intergovernmental organisations to achieve the GUA across borders as advocated for through advocacy planning theories (Mazziotti, 1974; Checkoway, 1994). The GUA is described as the instrument of the UN-Habitat, along with other UN agencies, developed over the years to assist and guide development in countries around the world through programmes and strategies with an end goal. For the SDG Agenda 2030, the UN periodically monitors implementation through the indicator while the UN-Habitat focuses on what Susan Fainstein calls the 'just city approach' to achieve sustainable cities and human settlements (Fainstein, 2000, 2013; Watson, 2002). Again, many conversations, meetings, debates, and communicative actions around development issues and urban and housing challenges result. A couple of 'focussed meetings' attended during the fieldwork and webinars have shown the efficacy of communicative planning action through different representatives at the table for addressing urban, housing challenges, and other governance issues (Niemi, 2005). Furthermore, seeing GUA as an international parameter of development and benefits accrued to membership of international institutions substantiates reasons for signing, ratifying, and adopting these agendas. Consequently, being a party to these commitments promotes globalisation and partnerships with other countries; thus, promoting world polity and system approaches around global governance.

The findings for this study about implementing GUA at local levels, are consistent with other research works and corroborate studies (Simon *et al.*, 2015; Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Patel *et al.*, 2017; Valencia, 2019; Valencia *et al.*, 2019). Simon *et al.* (2015:60) state that for the SDG11 to prove worthwhile as a development reflective tool to achieve urban sustainability, it must be "widely relevant, acceptable, and practicable" in a study to test the workings of the targets and indicators in five cities. The five cities across the global South and North are Bangalore, Cape Town, Gothenburg, Greater Manchester, and Kisumu. Issues around relevance, acceptability, and practicality around GUA are still playing out among all local actors, authorities, and institutions in heterogeneous cities. Notably, the study shows significant disparity across the cities with difficulty ascertaining universality in reporting standards with differences in local contexts, realities, and approaches (Simon *et al.*, 2015; Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Patel *et al.*, 2017). This earlier study highlights the wide variance between the universality of implementing a global agenda locally amid different local definitions, and reporting standards despite prior consultations before adoption (*ibids.*).

Particularly in Gothenburg City, while efforts are made to adapt the SDGs for implementation with major programmes and plans, the city only considers about 60% of the SDG (100/169) targets relevant based on the nature and morphology of human settlements and political mandate (Valencia, 2019). Notably, Gothenburg City has more issues to address beyond the Agenda 2030, which explains the disparity between city mandate, plans made, and the actual implementation, thus requiring more partnerships (*ibid.*). Despite being a global North city, Valencia (2019:8-9) states that there was "a clear mandate on the 2030 Agenda from the top political levels" with "no explicit budget lines directed to the Agenda". The assumption is that it will be easier with direct resource management and executive order to implement the agenda in global North cities. Equally, there was no concrete awareness about the NUA, which shows that ratification and adoption of global agendas by national governments (and politicians) do not necessarily have the desired impact at local levels. The case of Lagos mirrors some of the issues in Gothenburg for implementing GUA. Valencia (2019) rightly note that it is pertinent that the SDGs/GUAs are not seen as a mere checklist for what the government is doing but as a reflective tool for achieving global sustainable development. Within the first five years, Valencia (2019) states that "the potential role of the Agenda in contributing to urban sustainability in Gothenburg is yet to be realised" even though there are growing interests, plans and programmes being implemented. When GUAs such as the SDG11 and NUA are used as mere reflective and urban planning tools (based on the case of Gothenburg) by governments who have made commitments to implement the GUAs, then, it raises questions and concerns around GUAs being mere rhetoric in human settlements. In the Cape Town pilot study, Patel *et al.* (2017) state that SDG11 success beyond global level deliberations rests upon changes happening at local levels, and the enablement of initiatives and opportunities. In another extensive and more recent study on SDG11 and NUA implementation, involving seven cities (Buenos Aires, Cape Town, Gothenburg, Kisumu, Malmö, Sheffield and Shimla), Valencia *et al.* (2019:19) assert that

> *the complexity and comprehensiveness of these agendas as well as their inclusive and participatory aims call for an integrated governance approach that facilitates the creation of partnerships and dialogues between different levels of government (both horizontally among adjacent local authorities within a single urban agglomeration, and vertically), across sectors and with different societal groups.*

Arguably, the global agendas beyond the urban sphere are well-intentioned and they provide frameworks and directions for different countries to adopt instead of reinventing the wheel to address problems, and challenges, besides others. The findings from Lagos, Nigeria, and other cities in other studies clearly show that the aim of the SDG11 and the NUA as GUA are yet to be realised or achieved. The results depict a disparity and discrepancies between what is agreed at the globe and what is practiced at local levels. The need for an integrated governance approach across all the levels has been stressed by Valencia *et al.* (2019). As it is in the case of Lagos, Nigeria, and other cities, the ratification

of global agendas by the national government has not translated into political will to implement the global agendas at local levels. In reality, the GUA in many countries is a mere tool for check-listing and a sign of measuring up to international parameters and acceptance, even though there are global differences in local definitions when it comes to "common international standards and coherence of reporting mechanism" (Simon *et al.*, 2015:61).

One major limiting factor in implementing the GUA is the financial capabilities of the government and the municipalities. However, the lack of synergy, understanding, and cooperation between the national actors and institutions and the players at the sub-national levels appears to be a significant clog in the wheel for implementing GUA at local levels. In conclusion, it is one thing for the national government to commit to implementing GUA amid their political mandate, national interest, and manifestoes; it is another thing for them to provide the political will for the sub-national government to implement such an agenda with the necessary support and backings. According to Yagboyaju and Akinola (2019:1), "governance and political leadership in Nigeria have been driven by self-interest and other primordial considerations, which take priority over that of the public". This attitude by the political class adversely affects the implementation of national urban development plans and consequently, impacts GUA implementation. Here, the rational choice theory of individuals and institutions comes to play for the politicians, various actors, and institutions to follow the normative course in implementing the GUA. In all, the realisation of GUA is largely affected by the commitment of the national government and how these commitments are seen through in all ramifications to the sub-national and local levels.

9.3 Answer to Research Question (2) – What challenges affect the implementation and realisation of global urban agendas in Lagos, Nigeria?

The UN, alongside national leaders in 2015, dedicated themselves to an ambitious SDG and other agendas with the commitment to do everything humanly possible to free humanity from the challenges of poverty and underdevelopment, and the need to protect the environment sustainably. Attending these UN and other allied global conferences, committing, signing, and ratifying global frameworks does not necessarily translate into realising these goals, and agendas from the findings. While the agendas are excellent and well-intentioned, having gone through a series of talks, consultations, and processes before final approval, the understanding and perception at the local level do not match the aims and intents. The findings show that several challenges affect the implementation of GUA at local levels.

Lagos and Nigeria have a substantial urban context to govern in terms of population, landmass, inadequate administrative and financial capacity, and a high poverty level. The respondents at the state level, local levels, IUPs and NGOs, all alluded to the fact that people keep migrating to Lagos every hour to pursue better opportunities. This migration puts much strain on the government in every sector, ranging from transportation to food security, housing, waste management, delivery of basic and public services, and waste management. Closely related to this challenge is the lack of data for accurate and

adequate development, and urban planning for the populace by the government. The last contested and controversial census carried out in 2006 was fraught with "varying degrees of over enumeration of population" and political interference; and there have been several failed attempts to carry out another census (Abijoye, 2021; Serra and Jerven, 2021: 238). Hence, most plans have been based on mere projections, estimates, and external sources, which do not reflect the reality on the ground. Consequently, the lack of data is synonymous with blind planning, which has invariably affected GUA in Lagos and any form of monitoring and reporting through the indicators. Hence, if the monitoring and reporting framework described in Section 2.10 are hampered due to lack of data, an aspersion is cast on the whole process surrounding the GUA implementations (UN-Habitat, 2015; United Nations, 2015; Fukuda-Parr and McNeill, 2019; Valencia *et al.*, 2019).

In regard to GUAs, a significant clog in the wheel of implementation stems from outdated urban planning legislation. The NHP and NUDP date to the 1990s, while the problematic Land Use Act dates back to 1978 and is backed by Nigeria's Constitution. Hence, it makes it difficult to change the Act. Despite the national government going to sign and ratify GUAs, there is a substantive Supreme Court Ruling in Nigeria in 2002 that places all forms of urban planning under the state (sub-national) governments, which the 1978 LUA also backs. As argued by this thesis, the implication of this judgement incapacitates the national government in participating in GUAs and conferences because it does not fall within their jurisdiction to legislate or promote such agendas. This ruling calls for effective multilevel governance across the national, state and local governments. Hence, the national government can also incentivise sub-national governments into implementing the GUAs in housing and human settlements.

Apart from the challenge of outdated urban planning legislation, the government's attitude towards realising the GUAs is not encouraging. Beyond signing and ratifying GUAs, many politicians have their individual and party agendas to implement within their four-year political term. As such, the GUAs are cleverly tucked into their manifestoes during their campaigns and as part of the development plans. The GUAs are used as a sign of being part of the global community and identifying with global parameters and indicators. Clear evidence from the findings shows that there is no sincerity and political will by the government to implement the GUAs. While there is the promise of leaving no one behind in the NUA-Habitat III, the plans and policies in 2020/2021 are still largely anti-poor by the doing away with informality in clever ways. The urban governance portrays a top-down approach with elements of symbolic consultations to depict public participation. As decried by the respondents, the notion of development by the LASG translates to 'modernity' by doing away with the poor, doing away with all forms of slums and informality at the expense of the poor. Again, this notion is achieved by focusing primarily on economic development and making the city attractive for foreign investments. Also, the framework for the implementation at the local government level and institutional capacity is not yet

there. Where there are some frameworks, those frameworks are quite vague and weak; they cannot sustain the implementation of any global agendas.

The lack of financial resources to meet the GUAs is also another constant challenge in the result despite the domestic resource management provisions for domestic resource mobilisation to assist different countries to develop their financial resource mobilisation. A significant reason for the failure of the MDGs, especially in the global South, stems from inadequate resources to achieve the goals. As noted in Gothenburg city, a global North city, there was no direct budget line for the SDGs; this scenario significantly affects the goals and the timelines. Similarly, in Lagos, despite coming up with the THEMES Agenda, the physical evidence, and the findings have equally shown that what is needed to implement the SDGs is not available to the LASG. Other challenges inhibiting GUA implementation are lack of trust in government based on precedent and a history of disappointments and lack of participation of local actors and implementers in global agenda decision-making. As noted by respondents from the LASURA, there are pushbacks from many local communities in Lagos when the government plans to implement urban renewal and slum upgrading projects. These pushbacks occur because of the distrust in government's intervention based on precedence, and because of perceived government ulterior motives to carry out evictions or gentrify the community. Again, the result shows that the decision at the global level lacks true consensus and impetus of local realities and peculiarities. As noted by Simon *et al.* (2015), the definitions and indications of realities and complexities at local levels differ considerably in monitoring the implementation of the GUAs.

McCann (2011: 124) equally asserts that while these development policies work very well in specific contexts, they fail to transform "the wider historical, geographical, cultural, and political-economic context" in other places. Signe (2017) asked a pertinent question on why development policy and agendas often fail in different contexts, especially in SSA, because it is not a new trend. Signe (2017) argues that in many cases, too much emphasis is placed on best practices without an understanding of the power dynamics at play in another context. He also stresses the absence of incentives, preferences and beliefs of key actors in the implementation wheel, and lastly, the roles played by existing legislation. Many authors have given several reasons why MDGs failed due to many shortcomings, and they were replaced then with the SDGs; however, the SDGs and the NUA are also not immune to these shortcomings, as revealed by the respondents (Huchzermeyer, 2008b; Fukuda-Parr, 2014; 2016; United Nations, 2015; Parnell, 2016; Watson, 2016). For instance, the MDGs are criticised because they were not universal, with countries categorised based on the levels of development and the lack of promised support by the wealthier countries to the poorer countries (Parnell, 2016). Although, the SDG framework made mention of the domestic resource management to support countries in the implementation of Agenda 2030, all the government respondents complained about the inadequate financial capacity to drive the SDGs based on the population size, landmass and instability in the country. Similarly, the case of Lagos exemplifies all the possible scenarios on why policies can fail due

to policy ambiguity-conflicts, and unresolved critical policy variables (Matland, 1995; Najam, 1995; Signe, 2017). There is a culture of successive administration reversing the policies, plans, and programmes of previous administration in Lagos despite a symbolic adoption of GUAs as an international parameter of development and belonging to global organisations. Consequently, every administration comes up with different manifestoes, policies, plans and programmes irrespective of the substantive policies and development plans.

The case of Lagos confirms that many impediments are affecting GUA implementation, and it is evident that placing a global South and North city in the same category and expecting similar results will prove abortive (Simon *et al.*, 2015; Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016). Even placing two global South cities in the same category will yield a different result because of different constitutions, capabilities, resources, institutional and infrastructural backgrounds. Clarke (2012) argues that the local context will determine the extent of success of policies, such as the GUAs, even though they are considered to be hemogenic, and best practices that could transform different countries. Also, Sorensen (2010: 133) states that issues of "different cultural settings, political systems, and policy context" being manifested in Lagos, Nigeria is a significant impediment towards realising the Agenda 2030. The result of this study typifies a global South description of urban planning issues, where there is "rapid population growth, particularly in peri-urban areas; lack of access to shelter, infrastructure and services by predominantly poor populations; and weak local governments" (Watson, 2009a: 151; 2009b).

Many of the GUA implementation challenges experienced in the global South, based on a different spatial and urban materiality, are not accounted for in the formation of GUAs, which hinders the smooth implementation (Schindler, 2017). While it might be very difficult to account for this, given the big role of agencies such as the UN-Habitat, knowledgeable representatives at global meetings and deliberation have the role to bring up specific issues. Also, beyond the agreement by the global leaders, the advocacy and the promotion of GUAs, there are issues in planning of multicultural societies (Sandercock and Kliger, 1998; Sandercock, 2000; Watson, 2002). For instance, a typical Yoruba tribe living in Lagos will have complete housing satisfaction when owning a home on a fully detached plot or stand, not in an apartment or flats (**SL11**). While a typical Ibo tribe can have multiple houses in Lagos, the complete housing satisfaction comes when he can also have a house in his hometown or village. These are cultural housing habits exhibited by different Nigerian tribes and experienced during tribal celebrations and events. For instance, having lived in the south-western part of Nigeria for about four decades, it is common knowledge that the Ibo tribe and many others, living in Lagos environs, will always go to their hometowns in eastern Nigeria at the end of the year to celebrate. And it is a thing of pride to point to their personal houses in their villages during festive periods and events, in contrast to staying with families or staying in a hotel. Schindler (2017) asserts that the global South represents a different kind of space with a distinct locality that cannot be easily narrowed, explained and converged under planetary urbanisation. Also, Schindler (2017) states that the peculiarities of Southern cities are often not visible

or easily comprehensible (*ibid.*). In regard to outdated urban planning legislation and disjuncture with the GUAs, many of these legislations have their root in the colonial planning systems using master plans and zones that have negatively impacted the poor (Watson, 2009a; Gyau, 2018). Even though these imported planning legislations have undergone revisions to suit the prevailing urban conditions, the legislation through the master plans and urban development by the LASG is tailored towards making Lagos look attractive for economic investments. This is carried by the state government beyond realising the goals of GUAs at the expense of the poor and everything that looks 'informal'. Gyau (2018:29) states that "the philosophy of the colonial planning ordinance still drives these laws in Nigeria" and "these laws continue to enjoin planning to follow the centralised technocratic and bureaucratic processes and procedures, as well as the restrictive demands of the colonial ordinance". Again, these planning legislations do not promote the right to city and social inclusion, and unfortunately exclude most of the urban population in urban planning and governance. These outdated urban planning legislations do not support the current reality in terms of population, and they do not align with the GUAs; hence, many people are left behind, and the commitment to a 'shared vision for the city' is mere rhetoric.

Lane (1987) advocates for policy evaluation and for actors involved to be held accountable for their roles. The non-binding nature of the GUAs on the part of global leaders and politicians makes it challenging to hold them accountable for the commitments they have made. Particularly, the non-binding nature of the SDGs and the NUA leaves room for liberty to localise and implement the agendas the way they like without any consequences. Nigeria is a member of the Commonwealth, the UN and other organisations; they keep signing and ratifying agendas, but they do not have strategic plans to see them to fruition. The results show that there is no political will to transform the citizens and human settlements despite a show of institutions, persons appointed and programmes with GUA slogans. The talks towards implementing the GUAs are visible, but the actual implementation through the local actors is missing. While the leaders and politicians can easily sign or ratify policies or global agendas, the core operations and implementation lie within the back-end actors and institutions. Here, the leaders follow the consequence-ruled under the normative rational institutional theory, which allows them to implement agendas as they deemed fit and for full expression of personal conduct to be exhibited by individuals without consequences in public office holders (Ostrom, 1991; 1999; Scott, 2000; Boudon, 2003). For instance, based on the rational choice theory premised on normative decision-making, when a national leader makes an un-informed (urban) decision at global conferences, this will have dire consequences on the people (Ostrom, 1991; 1999; Boudon, 1998; Graute, 2016). Hence, the participation of more actors with a better understanding of their environment counts. Again, the absence of systems of rules without any form of consequence in adopting GUAs by the national governments through global governance makes the agendas mere rhetoric to keep adopting global development frameworks (Finkelstein, 1995; Rosenau, 1995; Nanz and Steffek, 2004; Weiss and Wilkinson, 2014).

Also, local leaders and politicians in each country have individual interests, time frames and political party agendas apart from the contentions and contestations, which may or may not fully support the implementation of the GUAs. For instance, even though the LASG identified with the GUAs with the THEMES Agenda, some of the LASG respondents do not understand the GUAs, including officers at the directorial level. Also, the allegiance of the government officials is more directed to political affiliations than to urban sustainability. According to Yagboyaju and Akinola (2019), "the Nigerian civil service is politicized to the extent that most top bureaucrats and junior officers openly support political parties of their choices… civil servants always ascribe political meanings and prejudices to government activities, policies and programs on the basis of primordial, religious, ethnic, and regional sentiments". Coupled with the prevalence of impunity and "executive arrogance of power, rampant rights violations, uncertainty of rules and procedures, poor accountability and flawed elections" by the political class in Nigeria, GUA implementation is adversely affected (Adejumobi, 2010: 4-5). Consequently, the individual and (public) institutional rationality choice come into play in Lagos for officials and institutions without personal convictions to implement the GUAs. It becomes a symbolic reference to development plans and public institutions in contrast to the actual implementation of the GUAs and staying true to the norms and values of the normative GUAs.

Essentially, there is a conflict and mismatch between expected GUA and local legislation resulting from Lagos. As such, this is already a failure from the beginning where the arm of the government committing to GUAs has no political will or constitutional power to see to its completion. Also, as a global South city, Lagos still operates imported planning legislation with master plans that exclude the poor from owning the city; and many GUAs do not take cognisance of real and contextual issues in agenda forming. Even though the Nigerian government supported the CAPH3 based on the peculiar urban challenges and limitations synonymous with Africa (as a global South region), the views expressed above are still missing in the NUA. Furthermore, there are no sanctions or consequences for partial or non-implementation. Thus, it makes it easy for leaders to keep ratifying and making commitments without the political will to implement the GUAs.

9.4 Answer to Research Question (3) – To what extent have the SDG11 and the NUA been incorporated into planning principles and urban policy at the local level in Lagos?

As mentioned earlier, Lagos experiences a high level of in-and-out daily migration. This phenomenon with its population accounts for the huge context of challenges and strains for the government to maintain order, security of lives and properties, and daily functioning of all sectors of the state and economy. At all three arms of government, different development plans and strategies have been employed by different administrations with the incorporation of foreign planning ideas and policies. Healey (2010: 7) noted that the travelling of planning ideas has been aided by "regional, transnational, global networks of planners and academics, and international aid agencies" such as the UN-Habitat and UNDP. As a member of the UN and many international organisations, Nigeria has incorporated a series

of global agendas due to her being party to many agreements, conventions, frameworks and treaties. Across the three arms of government, there is a general awareness and acceptance about the SDGs in Nigeria, which can be attributed to the apparatus of the erstwhile MDGs and the reporting standard by the previous administrations. However, the 2016 NUA seems not to have the same popularity among the recipients; except for the global respondents, very few respondents at the national and state levels and some professionals showed understanding of the NUA. Unfortunately, many respondents at the urban department of the LASG have no idea of what the NUA is all about. The FMWH at the national level seems to understand better the NUA, the dealings, operations and expectations of the UN-Habitat in the sphere of housing and human settlements. However, the understanding of the NUA, its objectives, commitments and guidelines for implementation is lacking at the sub-national governments. Also, the NUA was missing in many of the documents used in the qualitative documentary analysis. As mentioned earlier, the national government can only persuade sub-national governments to implement the commitments contained in the NUA because state urban planning is beyond the federal government's jurisdiction.

As earlier stated in Chapter Five, Lagos does not have its own housing policy except for pockets of policies and legislation related to housing and the LSURPD Law (as amended), which makes no mention of the SDG11 or the NUA. The LSURPD Law sees the general administration of buildings and urban development without consideration for urban sustainability. However, the LSDP 2012-2025 by the LSMPB, which was concluded in 2013 before the adoption of 2015 SDGs, incorporated strategic planning and promoted environmental, urban sustainability beyond housing and urban development (MEPB LASG, 2013, see Table 5-6). However, many of the projections and strategic plans in the LSDP are not followed to the letter by the subsequent administrations in housing and human settlements. This indicates the failure of plans and policies due to a lack of buy-in by the politicians and supports earlier assertions that policies are more aspirational than reality in Nigeria.

To simply answer the question, as to what extent Lagos has incorporated the SDG11 and the NUA into its planning principles and urban policy, there are clear indications that the government is aware of the SDGs and specifically the SDG11 as shown in the THEMES Agenda to guide development planning, and the LASG has instituted the Lagos Global and SDG office to this effect. Despite the show of the LASG Agenda, awareness about the SDG11 and NUA is significantly low among the state officials and MDAs. The planning principles and state urban policies have followed the patterns described by Watson (2009b), using imported and outdated planning legislation with master plans and zoning systems that exclude the poor. Despite the LSURPD Law, as amended in 2019, the law focuses on building and urban administration, regulations, demolition, contraventions and penalties without recourse to sustainability issues. When the plans, master plans and operations of the LASG are weighed with "leaving no one behind"; "shared right to the city"; and the overarching global agenda goals of ending poverty, reducing inequality, protecting the environment, and promoting inclusive and sustainable

development, the adopted principles by the LASG are only rhetoric. Based on historical urban development in Lagos, observation of the built environment as an urban practitioner, and the history of evictions, the LASG has paid more attention to the physical façade, and presentation of Lagos as a global city with affluent neighbourhoods, the development of 'modern markets', and doing away with informality and traditional markets. The general feedback from the NGOs, SDI and IUPs has shown that state officials acknowledge the principles, urban policies and institutions of urban sustainability, but the actual practice and attitude negate reality and the urban context in Lagos. Despite opportunities available to cities around the world through city networks and city diplomacies such as ICLEI and United Cities and Local Governments, Lagos has not taken full advantage of these organisations, nor has it harnessed possible potential toward realising the GUAs in housing for local implementation and delivery (Acuto *et al.*, 2017; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). The results reflect business as usual in Lagos without the possible benefit of capacity building, strengthening urban governance, city to city peer learning, and passing legislation on urban and housing sustainability. Lagos, as a city-state, as empowered by the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, has the power to legislate urban policies and make concerted GUA laws that will aid the implementation of 'leaving no one behind' and urban sustainability. However, this is not coming through from the actions of the LASG. Instead, there is constant promotion of economic development in Lagos with a picture of promoting the city-state as being attractive and beautiful (without 'informality') to investors. Here, there is a conflict between the adoption of GUAs (towards urban sustainability with the promise of 'leaving no one behind and inclusivity') and yet embracing global competitiveness and the adoption of neoliberal policies alongside globalisation trends (Larner, 2003; Rennen and Martens, 2003; Huchzermeyer, 2011; Fainstein, 2013; Pannilage, 2017; Fukuda-Parr and McNeill, 2019). The case of Lagos depicts another city that shows a full semblance of the GUAs beyond 'tangible implementation path' but is more of a symbol of development and international recognition (like cases of cities explored by the Mistra Urban Futures) (Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Simon, 2016; Valencia, 2019).

9.5 Answer to Research Question (4) – What relationships exist between the tiers of government (and actors) in regard to the implementation of global urban agendas?

The effective implementation of GUAs largely rests upon public institutions and actors, and in this case, the arms of the government are pivotal for effective delivery, especially the actors at the local governments. Nigeria practices the federal system of governance with many of its apparatus imported or retained from the colonial systems and is now primarily influenced by the long years of military rule even though it returned to civilian rule in 1999. The 1999 Nigerian Constitution clearly defines the principles of separation of power and outlines the functions, responsibilities and limits of the federal, state and local governments as contained in the exclusive and concurrent lists under the various sections. Despite the full acknowledgement of the local government in the Constitution, the results of this study

from Lagos show that there are only two functional arms of the government in Nigeria for implementing GUAs: the federal and the state governments. The local governments' activities and functions are subsumed under the LASG; hence, they are redundant, and they depend solely on the state governments and governors to function in their roles or duties. Invariably, there is no city (urban) governance except a central state government in Lagos that controls everything across the state, with over 20 million people in the city-state.

Like other states in Nigeria, the local government structure in Lagos is not contiguous with urban city governance and land area as it is in places like London or Accra, where one mayor sits over the entire geographical location. There are still political differences accounted for in the constitution of each country. The problem with this arrangement in Nigeria is that while there is one governor per state, there is no guarantee that the leader of the local governments belongs to the same political party as the governor, which adversely affects the local government in the long run. The local governments are considered an essential arm of the government internationally and administratively closest to the people at the grassroots for delivery of basic services, social infrastructure and democratic participation; hence the advocacy for them to be at the forefront of implementing GUAs. However, in the case of Lagos, they are relegated to the back seat, and they are not visible in the implementation of the GUAs. This is because the state government controls the entire state centrally, using its MDAs to create awareness and programmes related to the GUAs. They are also starved of resources to carry out their constitutional mandate due to powers granted to the state governments to oversee their affairs without any precise form of autonomy to operate generally and financially. Many scholars have highlighted the importance of the local government through the role of the cities and within broader discussions around global sustainability towards the implementation of GUAs (Parnell, 2016; Curtis and Acuto, 2018; Fukuda-Parr and McNeill, 2019; Kosovac *et al.*, 2020; Watson, 2021). Their roles as significant actors and agents of urbanisation and sustainable development are pertinent to Agenda 2030; apart from being the direct recipients of urban challenges, they are also the entry point towards addressing housing, unemployment and climate change challenges. The results in Lagos show that the local governments are starved of funds to effectively address the most basic and social needs of the people. Hence, the bulk of allocations received covers overheads and salaries at the local governments in Lagos with no budget to implement either the SDGs or NUA. Unfortunately, the local governments are headed by chairpersons with political agendas who usually are subservient to the political parties they belong to (Adeyemi *et al.*, 2012; Boris, 2015; Olaiya, 2016). As such, they go after personal gain, and hardly govern with the mindset of achieving GUAs. All in all, there is a lack of coordination within the government institutions and actors for achieving the GUAs in Lagos. By virtue of the local government mandate in Nigeria, every local government council area (774 in number) is recognised as an urban centre with the full functions stated under the fourth schedule of the Constitution (Mabogunje, 1965; 1990). According to Lawanson (2018: 27), the summary of their functions are

> *"first, as a mechanism for democratic participation and inclusive governance; second, as an efficient service delivery tool that is tasked with the provision of social services and basic infrastructure; and finally as a tool for national development and a medium through which the grassroots can share in the national wealth".*

These functions for local governments in Lagos are non-existent. What remains is a central government from the LASG; thus, preventing local government from reaching or achieving the expected potential for GUA implementation. This thesis argues, along with the SDGs, NUA and scholars, for the relevance and importance of the local governments as the arm of government that should drive the implementation of the GUAs at the local levels because of their proximity to the grassroots (Adeyemi *et al.*, 2012; Boris, 2015; UN-Habitat, 2015; 2016; Lawanson, 2018; Lawanson *et al.*, 2021). Graute (2016) asserts that the local actors understand their urban environment and context, and for the best performance of global urban development agendas, their concerns need to be registered, as well as their presence for global policies.

Many of the respondents talked about the disjunctions between the tiers of government to the detriment of implementing the SDGs. The local governments are relegated to the extent of making them redundant. While there have been calls for full local government autonomy, financial (autonomy) independence and devolution of power to the local governments, the impact of these local governments remains unfelt in the implementation of GUAs (Nwafor, 1986; Adeyemi *et al.*, 2012; Lawanson, 2018). According to Watson (2016: 446), which is also confirmed in Lagos,

> *"in many parts of the global South, governments are weak, under-resourced and under capacitated, and still highly centralised: they may not have the institutional hierarchy like regional, metropolitan, local governments assumed in the Revised Zero Draft to carry out this extensive and comprehensive planning, let alone reversing trends of inequality and exclusion, structurally defined".*

Clearly, Watson's (2016) argument holds true in Lagos, where the sub-national LASG tries to govern the entire Lagos boundary without an effective local government system that is contiguous with city governance. The effective implementation of the GUA largely rests upon an effective governance system where every arm of the government is aware of its responsibilities, and they are also equipped and adequately capacitated. Also, good governance for the benefit of the citizens at local levels appears to be missing in Lagos. Furthermore, changes in government with elections every four years in all the arms of government affect the implementation of GUAs; these changes have dire consequences for development planning, which is also partisan. Hence, projects are affected if the new government or party in government has a different plan from the previous administration, and there is no continuity. The results also show that new governments always come up with a new political agenda as a sign of relevance in bringing something different or better from past administrations; in the process, past

national and global agendas are jettisoned. Again, these changes in government and the lack of continuity affirm the rational choice theory of individuals and institutions where actors' belief systems and rationality affect agenda outcomes and processes.

This result from the Lagos fieldwork aligns more with the top-down phase of policy implementation with many inter-organisational problems regarding collaborative policy implementation challenges within the arms of the government (Pal, 2005; Conteh, 2011; Lindqvist, 2019). The top-down phase of policy implementation connotes so much of the government planning for the people in contract to planning with the people towards co-producing the solutions and implementation. Conteh (2011) argued that the relationship in the implementation of the GUAs between the government arms and non-government institutions (especially the NGOs and IUPs) poses a severe challenge in the wheel of implementation. Clearly, the NGOs and IUPs directly indicated that the state and national government have less regard for implementing the goals and, essentially, no acceptance or access to the poor people. Also, there is a case of policy ambiguity-conflict in the case of Lagos; the understanding, interpretation and expectation differ across the various government and non-government actors and institutions (Matland, 1995). While there are pockets of activities at the national and state levels, there is a clear case of political, contextual and administrative ambiguity-conflict challenges impeding the realisation of the GUAs (*ibid*). Lastly, Najam's (1995) five policy interlinked critical variables come to play here, every stakeholder, and strategies involved in the GUA policy implementation are not working in unison, without commitment and buy-ins at the lower levels, and the capacity is inadequate to achieve the global agendas (Lindqvist, 2019).

In conclusion, the relationship between the three tiers of government in Nigeria is not cordial or favourable to aid the smooth implementation of the GUA at local levels because of the clear relegation of local governments to the background. According to Lawanson *et al.* (2021: 16), there are three critical elements for effective local implementation of the GUA: "the government structures, means of implementation, and evidence base and practical guidance". These elements are not clearly defined in the case of Lagos, which makes the realisation of the GUA challenging. While the national and state governments have designated offices and programmes to implement the SDGs in a centrally controlled manner, this is lacking in the local governments with minimal understanding of the SDGs and nothing at all about the NUA. Hence, the prescribed local government that should be at the forefront of driving and implementing GUAs, are missing from the equation. Unfortunately, many of the local governments in Lagos and Nigeria are equally not part of urban global networks (with capacity and funding resources) like Local Governments for Sustainability (ICLEI), Commonwealth Local Government Forum, and United Cities and Local Governments. Lastly, there is a strong need for cooperative governance as well as good governance in the realisation of local and global agendas for the benefit of the citizens (Simon, 2016).

9.6 Answer to Research Question (5) – What are the challenges mitigating sustainable housing in Lagos despite the globally circulating Housing Agendas and efforts made by successive governments in Lagos?

Apart from challenges affecting GUA implementation at local levels, the SDG Target 11.1, which aims to "ensure access for all to adequate, safe, and affordable housing and basic services", presents a peculiar scenario and dilemma in Lagos (UN-Habitat, 2015: 12). The fieldwork for this study was concluded before the full manifestation of Covid-19 in 2020, but several webinars were attended, and one response to the interview questions online at the peak of the Covid-19 pandemic in Lagos gave some insight into how the Covid-19 pandemic showed the nexus between housing and health, and the impact of the pandemic on housing. While the focus of this study is not on Covid-19 and housing, the Covid-19 pandemic exacerbated the burden of access to housing globally for everyone, including housing practitioners. According to Rogers and Power (2020: 177), "the Covid-19 pandemic incorporates a suite of health, economic and political challenges; housing is emerging as one of them". This is important as the WHO and national instruction of 'stay at home' questions the notion of home, access to home and quality of homes for many citizens to dwell in and combat the pandemic. Particularly in Lagos and Nigeria, the pandemic exposed the housing inadequacies and government's response to housing, especially for people that dwell in 'slums' based on the UN-Habitat definitions in terms of the number of people and basic services available per room.

The closest public national and sub-national campaign of housing for all (under the global strategy for shelter) towards the Millennium in Lagos dates to the 1990s, and ever since, there have been pockets of campaigns by the national and state government programmes and support for housing. Unfortunately, all the housing targets set nationally and by the LASG since independence have never been reached by any administration since independence, despite ambitious commitments in manifestoes (Afinowi, 2018b; 2019). The inability of previous administrations amidst other housing challenges to meet housing demands in Lagos partly explains the increasing housing deficit in Lagos and nationwide. The results clearly show that the framework or pathway to achieve housing for all by 2030 based on Target 11.1 and leaving no one behind commitment in the NUA is absent. The Habitat II and the UN-Habitat Global Strategy for Shelter emphasised housing rights and access and provided a better pathway for GUAs in housing. The NUA of the Habitat III was a major departure from the Habitat II and Global Strategy for Shelter on housing matters, except for the SDG11.1 targets and a few paragraphs in the NUA as noted in Table 5-6 and Appendix M. This thesis argues that the use of "shared right to the city" in the NUA is a mere global political statement that defies the enforcement and justifying of the right of access to adequate housing, and the right to the city. This may be attributed to the mode of participation and communicative action during the negotiations.

Lagos does not have its own housing policy except for a few state laws and legislation with some housing, and the existing NHP is obsolete as well as redundant. It lacks the power to address housing

challenges in Lagos in line with the GUAs. Despite the mention of social housing in the NHP with numerous housing programmes and availability of mortgages to the wealthier citizens, there is practically no housing subsidy or assistance for the people, either poor or vulnerable. The NHP stipulates that housing provision is a function of all arms of the government, including the private sector, but the reality shows the private sector as the key player. Again, while the LASG has the power to develop its own concerted housing policy to drive housing production through the local governments and the private sector, the LASG has refused to do that. A respondent (with hidden identity) reliably mentioned that a previous administration in LASG commissioned a committee (where he was a member with housing experts) to develop a housing policy for Lagos. The would-have-been 'Lagos Housing Policy' was completed as scheduled to address the core housing issues in line with the GUAs, but the same governor refused to sign off on it on political grounds, stating that he has limited time to hand over to the new governor. Equally, the new governor of the new LASG administration refused to sign the policy because he did not commit to developing any housing policy. This goes to buttress the point made earlier on political interference (politics), and policy summersault affecting GUAs in Lagos and Nigeria in general (Held *et al.*, 2000; Purcell, 2003; Choguill, 2007).

The findings in Lagos show that anytime the government's resources are dwindling, the housing sectors are the first affected and relegated because of the enormous resources to complete housing units, from land to materials, labour, fittings and infrastructure. This is supported by the argument of King (2003) and Wells (2019) that politicians generally use inadequate resources as an excuse, amplifying other socio-economic needs above the housing need. Thus, the federal ministry of housing has not only been a standalone ministry for decades, but there has also been a name change as well as mergers with other ministries. Housing as a commodity constitutes the most expensive expenditure in many households, and in the case of Lagos, it has been left open primarily for the open market to determine prices and quality. Leaving housing provision, and production largely to the market because of the government's inability to play fairly in the market has led to the exclusion of many, especially the urban poor and vulnerable members of society. While the private sector is significantly involved in housing provision, there is a lack of government incentives or rebates to private developers. Hence, the end-user homebuyer bears the brunt since there is no subsidy for either the end-user or the developers. Consequently, many citizens have resorted to buying land and building incrementality through self-help for many years because they cannot access bulk sums to complete their houses in shorter periods. Drawing from the works of Turner (1972a; 1972b) on housing by the people and self-help initiatives evident in Habitat I, poverty reduction in Habitat II focussed on the right to adequate housing for all, and the promise of leaving no one behind in Habitat, all speak to paying attention to housing the poor and the vulnerable. Again, theoretically, the normative planning theories mentioned above address matters of housing advocacy and more towards a just city where the needs of the people are prioritised, especially the poor (Davidoff, 1965; Watson, 2002; Fainstein, 2013; Birch, 2016). Hence, leaving housing production to

the market to determine price without provisions for social and affordable housing negates planning principles and GUA ideologies.

Apart from the high cost of completing a housing unit with supporting infrastructure, the 1978 LUA, land availability and land administration are portrayed as significant impediments to adequate housing and housing provision. There are many land-related issues nationwide and court cases. Where land is available without encumbrances, it is very expensive and over privatised, which negatively impacts the final price of housing units in such neighbourhoods and human settlements. The dynamics and reality of the human population and human settlements from 1978 have changed significantly. As such, the Constitutional provision of the Land Use Act needs to be revised as it impedes access to housing. In all the challenges affecting housing alongside the GUAs, many respondents believe the government should hand over housing delivery to the private sector by creating a conducive environment for them to thrive. In contrast, the government focuses on regulating the market and freeing up land for housing development.

The results of this study align with the Report of the Special Rapporteur on adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living in Nigeria by Leilani Farha, the UN Special Rapporteur. The report states and concludes that

> *"despite considerable economic growth, poverty is acute, inequality is increasing, and housing conditions remain grossly inadequate for the millions of Nigerians who are excluded from the formal housing sector. As a result, informal settlements are growing, with inhabitants lacking the most basic services and facing forced evictions. Meanwhile, luxury developments remain vacant….The Special Rapporteur calls for the cessation of forced evictions, an ambitious tax reform that will increase public revenue and tackle inequality, and the creation of a rights-based housing strategy that focuses on the most vulnerable groups of society"* (UNGA, 2020:1).

The exclusion of many citizens from formal housing exists primarily due to the private sector being the major player in housing provision. Therefore, since many people cannot afford what is available, they resort to self-help and incremental construction of homes. There is no form of adequate housing accessible to the poor or the vulnerable members of society; as such, there is an increase in informal settlements and slums without basic services. As regards the right to an adequate standard of living, Nigeria as a federation is a party to the Revised Treaty of the Economic Community of West African States and has ratified the ICESCR on 29 July 1993 and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on 22 July 1983. Clearly, the FGN has made several commitments and ratified many global frameworks without a resultant effect on the citizens in regard to economic, social and cultural rights.

There have been previous agendas concerning housing as discussed, and these housing agendas have been affirmed in the MDG 7 Target 11, the SDG11 Target 11.1, and the NUA, which is the prime focus of this research. Global leaders from different countries, including Nigeria, committed that by 2030, they will "ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums" (Target 11.1 of the SDG) (UN-Habitat, 2015: 12), and

> "*stimulate the supply of a variety of housing options that are affordable and accessible for members of different income groups of society, taking into consideration socio-economic and cultural integration of marginalised communities and homeless persons and those in vulnerable situations and preventing segregation. We will take positive measures to improve the living conditions of homeless people, with a view to facilitating their full participation in society, and to prevent and eliminate homelessness, as well as to combat and eliminate its criminalisation*" (Para 33 of the NUA) (UN-Habitat, 2016: 12).

The question is, to what extent have these commitments, "global circulating agendas and discourses meet the mediating forces of local context and practice" in Lagos state and Nigeria as a country (Anand and Rademacher, 2011: 1751)? Sec(16)(2)(d) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of the State Policy does not guarantee the access or the right to adequate housing (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). There is only a vague statement stating "the state shall direct its policy towards ensuring that suitable and adequate shelter" (*ibid*.). Unfortunately, this vague statement (Sec(16)(2)(d)) in support of the right to access adequate housing is not justifiable or enforceable in Nigeria in any Court of Law based on Sec(6)(6)(c), which states that

> "*The judicial powers vested in accordance with the foregoing provisions of this section shall not except as otherwise provided by this Constitution, extend to any issue or question as to whether any act of omission by any authority or person or as to whether any law or any judicial decision is in conformity with the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy set out in Chapter II of this Constitution*".

Again, despite Nigeria being a party and signatory to the 1948 UDHR, and many other global commitments and the 2015 SDGs, Sec(6)(6)(c) of the Constitution clearly affirms that the part of the Constitution that speaks to housing and economic, social and cultural rights is not enforceable. This assertion buttresses the point that there is no functional housing policy towards sustainable housing in Lagos and the disconnect between existing local legislation in Nigeria and GUAs. Choguill (2007: 145), in his quest for policies to sustain housing through local relevant policies, states that government "housing initiatives must be economically viable, socially acceptable, technically feasible and environmentally compatible".

The benefit of adequate housing to the well-being of humans cannot be overemphasised. Again, housing inadequacy has severe and dire consequences on the physiological and psychological well-being of humans (Crull, 1996; Campagna, 2016). Studies in the US show that housing affects every household's health, education, social and economic well-being, especially in low-income and poor households (Zedlewski, 2002). This is because housing is the most expensive commodity a family buys or services in terms of rent or mortgages where it is available (*ibid.*). Hence, there is a need for housing assistance or subsidies to support families and reduce the burdens of access to housing. Sadly, for the children in poor households, this considerably and negatively impacts their studies (Gaitán, 2017). Gaitán further asserts that "housing unaffordability also leads to problems with housing quality and instability, which can have detrimental effects on children's mental and physical health" (*ibid.*: para 4). Apart from the many benefits accruing from access to housing, housing production also improves the economy and addresses the unemployment of unskilled labour; this point was mentioned by one of the respondents during the fieldwork.

Efforts for achieving sustainable housing in Lagos and Nigeria clearly defy all the policies advocated for areas by Choguill (2007). Firstly, many of the government's housing programmes and initiatives carried out lacked the community's involvement. As noted by the NGO respondents, the government is far removed from the people, and they provide no access to the urban poor. There is also the prevalence of a top-down planning approach, where the government plans for the people and rarely plan with them from the account of SDI in Lagos and its environs. Secondly, there is a significant challenge with "access to good quality building materials at a cost" everyone can afford and controlled building standards (Choguill, 2007: 147). All respondents echoed this assertion, especially the private housing sector providers, where the bulk of building materials are imported without government incentives or subsidies for the people or the private sector. Hence, the overhead cost of housing and infrastructure is transferred to the home end-users. Thirdly, housing finance constitutes a significant challenge in sustaining housing in Nigeria, even though there has been an improvement in this since 2016, with primary and secondary mortgages making way to the market for the middle class. In the case of Lagos, many of the houses built by the LASG under the Lagos HOMS and many schemes are not affordable for the core population earning the minimum wage. The government's lack of housing assistance and incentives have shown that it has dire consequences for the populace's well-being and general welfare (Zedlewski, 2002; Gaitán, 2017). Lastly, the need for government involvement is essential in regulating and freeing up land for housing, ease of land acquisition, transfers, proper land administration, and affordable titling and building approval for tenure security. For instance, the LASG was unable to provide buildable land for the national government for the national housing programme, where houses are built nationwide.

In conclusion, the housing situation in Lagos is faced with numerous challenges that impede sustainable housing development, and clearly, the government is complacent in its roles and duties to realise the

right of access to adequate housing for all. While there are programmes and efforts to deliver housing, the result shows that there is no clear path to achieving sustainable housing due to missing legal, institutional, administrative capacity and frameworks. Also, there is no political will on the part of the national and sub-national governments to drive the agenda of housing for all. A thorough look at the Constitution, NHP, LASG LSDP 2012-2025 and the recent Lagos THEMES Agenda, shows housing has never been viewed by the government as a priority or as an urgent matter. Instead, it is typically subsumed under other plans and programmes. In the Lagos THEMES Agenda and LSDP, housing did not feature as a key theme and a central pillar, respectively, indicating that it is not a significant priority like health or transportation. Even at the national level, housing is not a standalone ministry; it has always been merged with other ministries and buried under other issues. There is a need for the government to be sincere in providing an enabling environment that will aid sustainable housing development since they have not successfully addressed housing challenges despite the advocacy for housing in GUAs for global sustainability.

9.7 Conclusion

According to Rittberger (2002: 12), GUAs offers an avenue to "address these global economic, social, and environmental issues in a coordinated, coherent, and collaborative manner", as provided for in the various global commitments. However, the results of this study in regard to each of the objectives has shown that stronger local impediments are mitigating the smooth implementation of GUAs in Lagos and Nigeria at large. These impediments lead to a disjunction between the GUAs and local constitutions, policies and mandates. These impediments include population and urban density, the seeing of the GUAs and local policies as mere political aspirations, the lack of political will to implement the GUAs, substantive outdated planning legislation, lack of institutional and financial capacity, and the redundancy of the local government, to mention a few. Unfortunately, because there are no sanctions or consequences for non-implementation of GUAs, present and past commitments have not been seen through to the letter, while the government continues to sign and ratify agreements lackadaisically. It comes across that the national government participates in global commitments because of the benefits and possible aid the country can receive from such associations beyond the outcome of the GUAs. It comes down to an attitude of righteousness because they belong to the UN and other allied associations, and there are concomitant benefits because members of such organisations have access to development loans and grants. As to a sustainable housing agenda in Lagos and Nigeria, the government has never paid much attention to housing development or policies to foster access to adequate housing, and never more so than in the case of vulnerable citizens who are poor or disadvantaged. Unfortunately, there is no constitutional backing to realise sustainable housing and the right of access to adequate housing despite Nigeria being a party to many global economic, social and cultural rights. In many of the development plans and policies, matters relating to housing are subsumed under other issues. Consequently, there is a need to review the development of GUAs, and development agendas for its

effective implementation beyond mere commitments by the global leaders because of the complexities involved. Otherwise, the argument raised by Qadeer (1977) on the futility of world conferences for planning will hold true in some human settlements across the world.

10 CHAPTER TEN – THE REAPPRAISAL OF GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS AT LOCAL LEVELS

10.1 Introduction

This chapter completes this thesis with an overview of the intersections of implementing GUAs and practice at local levels, focusing on urban housing in Lagos, with conclusions drawn from the analysis and discussion in Chapter Nine. It summarises and reflects on the global debate on the effects and complexities of GDA implementation at local levels and its implications beyond national governments making the global commitments. This chapter answers the main research question posed in the Chapter One, highlighting this study's contribution within the existing body of knowledge, with recommendations for policy, practice and governance of global policies at local levels. The concluding section looks at global governance issues and suggestions for future research beyond Lagos.

10.2 Overview and concluding remarks

This qualitative explorative study started out to understand the nexus between global goals and development agendas the (national) government committed itself to and the reality of actual implementation at local levels. As evident in the GUA, the all-encompassing goal is achieving global urban sustainability and improving the living conditions of humanity, but there are GUA implementation challenges. The global (urban) development agendas are outcomes that have emerged from decades of deliberations and consultations of multiple actors and stakeholders from the globe, regions, nations and sub-national governments to address issues beyond borders. As demonstrated in Chapter Two, these agendas date back many decades from the period of WW2 to the present SDGs, and other agendas cutting across issues of sustainable development. These issues cut across poverty, inequality, health, education, law and order, climate change, global peace, economic growth, basic and public services, as well as sustainable cities. While every goal is essential, urbanisation and population growth have placed more strain on housing, cities and human settlements to maintain a balanced, sustainable socio-cultural, economic and political life. The case of Lagos, Nigeria, is another example of where urban development continues to precede planning due to urban and population growth. Of particular interest and focus to this study is the urban housing agenda in Lagos based on previous studies, work experience in the public sector and the government's attitude to global agendas. Nigeria signs, ratifies and is party to many global frameworks based on theories of globalisation in world polity and world system theory based on the benefits through the many international and global associations.

Globally, multiple heterogeneous local contexts exist in all the continents; and it is expected that there will be a mismatch in the GUA implementation due to the normative and generalised nature of GUAs. This raises the question of local representation to amplify local realities, which can be achieved through city network mechanisms such as the ICLEI, United Cities and Local Governments, or transnational local government organisations. However, a city like Lagos is not affiliated with many of these

networks, and it lacks the urban local government structure contiguous with the geographical space to implement the GUA. Despite the status of Lagos in terms of population within the most populous country in Africa, among other peculiarities and local contexts, this study shows that the city's voice (and representation) is missing in many global deliberations. The 'implied form' of GUA implementation in Lagos reflected in the development plan does not reflect reality in the living conditions of the people. The reflection of the GUA through the THEMES Agenda development seems to be just a symbolic international parameter of sustainable development instead of actual efforts to implement the GUA.

The 2020 Voluntary National Review for Nigeria to the United Nations High-Level Political Forum contains no report on the SDG11, or the NUA for the last five years. Lagos is mentioned four times, and merely from a reference point of view, and not in regard to GUA implementation. This corroborates the point made by Croese *et al*. (2021) that many national voluntary reports are carried out without inputs from the sub-national and local governments. This makes the Nigerian report questionable in terms of accurate reflections in regard to local levels. It also shows a problem with data, reporting and monitoring mechanisms in Lagos, and Nigeria at large. Although the UN Sustainable Development Report for the SDG11 targets and indicators shows that there is a persistence of a substantial challenge; there is also a decreasing trend in terms of being on track with implementation (Sachs *et al.*, 2021). The considerable challenge is the urban population living in slums with inadequate access to basic services, with slight satisfaction in transportation (*ibid.*). However, several challenges impede the implementation of the GUA, thus making the whole exercise futile and ineffective.

Firstly, the national government signs or ratifies urban agendas, but implementation is expected to be carried out by local actors and implementers at sub-national and local levels. Also, the national (federal) government in Nigeria has no jurisdiction or constitutional mandate over urban planning across the 36 states of the Federation, except for areas of land belonging to the FGN and the FCT. All state (sub-national) governments preside over urban planning within their geographical locations. Secondly, sustainable housing and urban planning development in Lagos and Nigeria are fraught with outdated legislation that does not account for the contextual and current reality, which are not consistent with the GUA. Apart from the legislation being outdated, there is no coordination between it and the implementing institutions. Also, as of 2021, there is no single development master plan for Lagos that would be a helpful aid in the implementation of the GUA, except for a fragment of the city, and master plans that are not available to the public but are sold on request.

Thirdly, there are only two functional tiers of government in Nigeria, the national (federal) and the state governments. However, the local governments, which are the closest to the grassroots level for effective policies and agendas, are almost non-existent. They act more as an administrative extension of the state government, much like the old colonial offices. The result clearly shows that the national and state

government are too far removed from the people. Unfortunately, the relationship between the three arms of government and other agencies is not cordial, with many issues to thwart smooth GUA implementation.

Fourthly, development planning in Lagos and Nigeria is based on mere projections and estimates due to a lack of data for adequate planning. Even though there is a huge context in terms of population and grossly inadequate infrastructure to meet the teeming population, there is no adequate planning data, yet the challenges are undeniable. Hence, the idea around sustainable development to achieve the kind of world we want is hampered. Again, there are challenges relating to inadequate financial, institutional capacities and technical competence.

Lastly, housing provision or development for sustainable housing remains a tall order in Lagos, and Nigeria in general based on the existing frameworks, programmes, legislation and lack of constitutional mandate to promote access to adequate shelter for the citizens. The last time the LASG promoted the 'housing for all by the year 2000' strategy under the UN Global Strategy for Shelter was in 1989/1990. Since then, there has been no public call for the agenda except for housing being used as a manifesto during elections. Unfortunately, the previous administrations have never met housing targets; even the targets proposed in the LSDP in 2012/2013 are just on paper. Under the LASG LSDP and THEMES Agenda, the housing agenda is not at the forefront; instead, the LASG has consistently put economic development matters above human settlement along the lines of making Lagos a global city. While there is nothing wrong with promoting economic development, its outlook is to do away with any form of informality or slum appearance. While housing development is not a strength for the state and national government, they also do not encourage the private sectors to play effectively in the market. Thus, leaving housing development open to the market significantly, excludes most citizens, thus, they must resort to self-help or other means they can afford to house themselves. Unfortunately, housing development in Lagos is fraught with high costs in the building environment; very high cost of construction, infrastructure, and building materials; difficulties in accessing housing finance, a high cost for obtaining title deeds, building transactions, and tenure agreements. Then, housing development is further compounded by the access to land, the 1978 Land Use Act and very poor land administration. In the short and long term, many people are left behind, and many people's lives are rarely improved. Also, most of the government housing schemes are not even within reach of civil servants earning the minimum wage, let alone the urban poor or the vulnerable residents.

To answer the main research question (as answers to the sub-questions have been provided in the Chapter Nine), What intersections exist between global urban agendas and practice at local levels in the field of housing and human settlements in Lagos? The previous paragraphs provide a background to the answer. The hypothetical argument stated in the introductory chapter is that global goals, agendas and universal rights implementation at local levels do not always reflect in the same way, particularly in

housing and human settlements, even though the efforts put into these agendas at the global level remain genuine. The GUAs have had little or no effect in the actual sense at the local level. The fieldwork shows that SDGs have been aligned with the development plans, with a designated government agency to drive the agendas. While the NUA is not reflected in the LASG THEMES Agenda and plans, the four critical components of SDG11, inclusivity, safety, resilience and sustainability, are, arguably, of significant concern in Lagos. The urban space is experiencing and reflecting the prevalence of inequality and segregation in urban settlements through using development control to criminalise many informal settlements' activities, and in this way breeding a culture of discontent, mistrust and increasing anger. Despite the LASG launching the Lagos Resilience Strategy for monitoring, and observing disasters, such as flooding, multiple gas explosions and fire incidences, it has shown that the strategy is little more than a paper document without real effect on the urban space.

The GUA can be unsuccessful and remain mere rhetoric if the aims at local levels are not achieved, which Qadeer (1977) questioned and described as the futility of world conferences. He argues that every country is aware of its local challenges, what are they doing right and wrong. The critical question he asked has remained unanswered until now, which this study has provided some answers to: "how does one judge the success of international conferences" and the outcomes (Qadeer 1977: 14)? The (national) government has not taken the necessary steps to realise the outcomes of the global commitments based on the research result. Hence, the interface between the GUA and practice at the local levels in Lagos is fraught with many challenges and complexities. As part of the measures to address global policy failure at local levels, it is pertinent to recognise the workings and power dynamics within the different local contexts to optimise effective implementation.

This thesis argues that the generic GUAs are well thought out, with many consultations and deliberations, but the contextual local socio-spatial and political processes intercept the realisation of the GUA in a critically poor manner. In line with the above, it is evident that these global urban housing agendas and discourses are not aligned with the mediating forces of local context and practice in Lagos. Thus, the expected result is not achieved. Hence, there is a need to rethink and re-examine how GUAs are formulated, adopted and implemented at local levels. Otherwise, it remains by and large just rhetoric, and a futile effort in certain contexts like Lagos, Nigeria, because the mediating forces in the local context impede the implementation of the GUA.

10.3 Contribution to knowledge

The significant original contribution of this study to the body of knowledge is in the fields of housing, urban planning, governance, urban practice and global policy, specifically in SSA cities and other cities of the South. This thesis builds on the works of Susan Parnell, David Satterthwaite, Michael Cohen, Clive Barnett, Michael Leaf, and other scholars (Simon *et al.*, 2015; Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Caprotti *et al.*, 2017; Patel *et al.*, 2017a; Valencia *et al.*, 2019; Croese *et al.*, 2021) on global and

Habitat agendas. Particularly, it provided a reflection on the questions raised by Qadeer (1977) on how scholars appraise or judge the success of international conferences and agendas, its justifications and who are the beneficiaries? In appraising and applauding GUAs and the elaborate conferences, what is the reality of the people at the local levels in the human settlements and which reality really counts beyond the reports at the national and global level? This thesis provides a thematic analysis of the intersections and contradictions of the global urban development agenda and global governance as it relates to localised multilevel governance in Nigeria. It provides empirical findings on the implementation of GUAs by offering an understanding from Lagos considering the geopolitical context amidst global debates. It provides a detailed insight considering the inputs from respondents from the global, national, sub-national and local levels on why seemingly carefully thought-out agendas at the global levels fail at local levels due to their context, urban practice and mediating forces not being accounted for during deliberations. While there has been praise and promotion of GUAs globally, this research has proven that the universality of the SDG11 and NUA has been meted out with significant tension, as the Lagos study case presented, and if not addressed, makes GUAs mere rhetoric. The narratives from Lagos are also similar to the studies carried out in Buenos Aires, Cape Town, Gothenburg, Kisumu, Malmö, Sheffield and Shimla (Valencia *et al.*, 2019; Croese *et al.*, 2021).

While different authors have carried out different studies on the subject of GUAs (Simon *et al.*, 2015; Arfvidsson *et al.*, 2016; Parnell, 2016; Patel *et al.*, 2017), Lagos presents a peculiar case for sustainable urban consideration as a global South city with all the characteristics described by various authors (Watson, 2009b; 2013; Watson and Agbola, 2013) and as one of the fastest-growing cities in SSA. It can be said that the assumption drawn from many GUA implementation models is that sub-national and local governments can carry out extensive and comprehensive planning, but that assumption does not hold true in this case and many others. This research has provided another insight into why global progressive development policies fail to transform Southern cities on how to think about these processes in the context of the reality of institutional systems and how the local politics affect implementation. Invariably, this study addresses the gaps in the failure of global development policies.

This study contributes to the sustainable housing discourse concerning GUA as it relates to the NHP, practice, urban governance and the universal human right to access adequate housing. Choguill (1996; 2007) argued that the NHP plays a vital role in achieving sustainable housing and that the absence of a functional NHP or a local housing policy impedes the implementation of GUAs. Thus, an understanding and the effectiveness of the prevailing NHP in a local context will be an impetus for GUA to achieve the desired result in the housing sector. The concerns raised in this study are valuable for refining government policies, the local government's constitutional empowerment, and concerted efforts toward housing delivery. The outcome of this study will be of great importance for Lagos, and other Southern cities in SSA, considering its urban legislations, dynamics, urbanisation, inadequate housing and infrastructure. These dynamics are not peculiar to Lagos but speak to human settlements in African

cities and countries, as it is in Kenya, South Africa and India (Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Anand and Rademacher, 2011; Mwaniki *et al.*, 2015). As shown above, there are tensions between local and global interpretation and implementation of development policies that impact the everyday lives of citizens. The outcome of this research will also be helpful in the planning process of African and Southern cities, particularly in regard to housing provision, invoking global agendas for promoting urban sustainability, safety and inclusivity in human settlements. With a view to future urban conferences and fora, UN-Habitat IV slated for 2036, and many other GUAs, the findings of this research present a sound impetus for consideration in terms of progress evaluation, holding political leaders to account and the greater need to rethink GUA. Hence, this contributes to timelines in the life of GUA as we move towards 2030 and beyond in terms of monitoring and implementation of GUAs.

Methodologically, this research design employed a multilevel form of interrogation beyond the respondents at the local level by interviewing key informants at the UN-Habitat, senior officials at government MDAs at the three tiers of governments, and horizontally, NGOs, urban practitioners and the private sector. This multilevel form of interrogation, combined with the documentary analysis and attendance of focussed meetings, helped me better understand GUA discourse and its workings. Attendance and auditing of focussed meetings as a qualitative method in contrast to mere focus groups provided access to experts on the subject matter in public fora and the rationality behind their work and performance. Unfortunately, key documents and plans on Lagos are not easily accessible and available to the general public. Apart from the Lagos THEMES agenda that seems to tie the development of the LASG, many government departments and agencies are working in silos, and the understanding around GUAs differs, especially between the urban and housing ministries. Generally, there were good responses across the levels and participants, but some government respondents at the national level were very sceptical at the sound of research and interviews.

10.4 Recommendation

Based on these conclusions, there is a need for the devolution of global urban development agendas, either based on the level of development or similar regions where local and contextual issues are similar for effective implementation. Despite the MDGs being criticised for their non-universal nature and praise for SDGs being universal and providing a generic agenda for all nations, the latter seems to be thwarted by local impediments, thus making the global agenda impracticable to achieve the desired outcomes. In retrospect, countries with the same level of development and goal expectations should be grouped, with attention paid to the socio-economic, political, financial and intuitional capacities. At this junction, it is safe to say that not all countries or cities are ripe enough to adopt GUAs because they do not have the capacity to implement them. With regard to the attendance of global conferences, knowledgeable officials and professionals at local levels who are aware of their contextual capabilities and limitations must be part of delegations beyond political heads and heads of MDAs.

The result shows there is a lack of political will to implement these agendas and the government's attitude is not encouraging either due to the amount of freedom for leaders and implementers to make certain choices based on the rational choice theory that will aid or mar the realisation of the agendas. In rethinking how GUAs are formulated, adopted and implemented, it is important that the policy implementations are evaluated. The global leaders, politicians and administrators are held liable and accountable for the agendas they ratify. The introduction of some forms of sanctions or consequences should be considered for governments and political leaders who fail to stay faithful in their community to implement the GUA without a genuine explanation. Also, when the government have failed in realising these agendas, there should be a form of relegation and prevention of signing new commitments. This form of sanctions should also come with certain consequences, such as barring access to development loans or aid, thereby encouraging all nations to deliver their best efforts. This calls for the accountability of leaders and the government in power to monitor the progress of the GUA. In a similar way, praise and acknowledgement should be given to performing leaders who stay true to their commitments.

While the UN and other agencies as a global intergovernmental organisation do not get involved in countries' local constitutions and politics, there is a need to promote and strengthen the local governments with full autonomy, power and constitutional backing beyond partisan politics to drive urban governance at local levels. The case in Lagos has shown that the local governments are incapacitated and redundant resulting in the facile implementation of the GUA.

Regarding sustainable housing, the government has never lived up to its expectations in housing provisions for its citizens; neither have they respected the global commitments and various economic, social and cultural rights. Based on the inability of the government to meet the housing demand, it is recommended that the private sector be allowed to play the lead role. Then, the government plays the role of regulation while providing an enabling environment for the interested private sector with incentives, tax holidays and support by way of building materials. Consequently, there is a need for the government to deliberately address housing, especially for the vulnerable members of society and those who cannot afford it. This should be done by addressing and reviewing the NHP based on its inadequacies regarding GUAs and many obsolete laws, with the backing of the constitution and the justification of the right to access adequate housing for all. Again, due to the impact of housing on the general well-being of every household, a form of housing subsidy or assistance should be introduced for the urban poor and vulnerable people in Lagos and Nigeria. Lastly, government interventions around land availability, infrastructure, planning and promotion of sites and services will help to realise sustainable housing agenda in Lagos.

There is a need for policy and development planning documents to be made available and accessible publicly and in the online depository for public awareness. In carrying out the fieldwork in Lagos, key

governance and policy documents such as the LASG THEMES Agenda and the segregated city master plans for different areas of Lagos are not available online or made available to the public. The city master plans are sold at a fee, while the THEMES Agenda policy document is unavailable. Although the LASG officials referred to the THEMES Agenda as a development plan in many fora, it was only available to the core cabinet members and senior officials of the LASG. It took the intervention of a close informant to gain access to these documents.

The call for a census and data investment cannot be overemphasised in Lagos and Nigeria. There is a need for an urgent census to be carried out to help with an effective population count and development plans for housing, urban infrastructure and general urban development. As argued in this thesis, when the magnitude of the challenge cannot be quantified, it is synonymous with blind planning. Using the term in the RIO+ 20 outcome, how do we achieve the future we want sustainably without data? There is a need to plan for the people who occupy the human settlements and an even greater need to plan for the unborn generation (Brundtland, 1987; Doyle, 1998).

10.5 Areas of further research

To better understand the implications of these results on the intersections and complexities in implementing GUAs at local levels, future studies can address the following areas as encountered during this study, which were not within the scope of this research. Further research and comparison studies ought to be carried out to dispute the argument against the futility of global conferences or support the need for global conferences and agendas at local levels, as stated by Qadeer (1977). Some respondents have opined that there is nothing new in many agendas, except statements being rephrased. More contextual studies will help to evaluate the GUAs' implementation for improving its formation, adoption and localisation. Studies in the global South against studies in the global North might also be a pointer to specific contextual issues as against issues identified in Lagos.

Methodologically, despite the interviews cutting across respondents at the global, national, sub-national and local governments, NGOs, private sector and urban practitioners, an extensive study focusing on residents and their notions about urban governance and development towards GUAs will also contribute to knowledge. This is based on the assertion by a respondent that the government's notion of development and modernity is to do away with anything that is informal in the state, which considerably affects the urban poor and vulnerable citizens. Also, a quantitative method might also be deployed to evaluate understanding and satisfaction around the impact of GUAs in communities and how they can be improved.

As noted earlier, the GUA is beyond the field of housing and human settlements; hence, further research can explore other areas such as resilience or the Paris Agreement implementation on climate change in Lagos. Also, using multilevel investigations around the GUA can be explored in other cities to see if the results will be similar or significantly different based on socio-cultural and political situations in

other contexts. Lastly, as mentioned earlier, this study was conceived and the fieldwork concluded before the Covid-19 pandemic; studies around how the pandemic has affected GUA implementation globally with its impacts on housing and human settlements will be worthwhile.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview guide

S/No.	Code	Institution	Position	Representation Level	Sex	Public Official	Date
1	GL01	UN-Habitat / Reg Office for Africa	Head of programmes	Global	Male	No	16/01/2020
2	GL02	Former Head, UN-Habitat Nigeria	UN-Ex Staff, IUP, Academia	Global	Male	No	5/12/2019
3	GL03	UN-Habitat/HAPSO Nigeria	Country Representative	Global	Male	No	20/01/2020
4	NL01	Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on Sustainable Development Goals (OSSAP_SDGs)	Senior Technical Advisor	National	Male	Yes	17/01/2020
5	NL02	Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning	SDG planning officer	National	Male	Yes	17/01/2020
6	NL03	Federal Ministry of Power, Works and Housing (FMWH)	Director	National	Female	Yes	21/01/2020
7	NL04	Federal Ministry of Power, Works and Housing (FMWH)	Director	National	Male	Yes	21/01/2020
8	NL05	Federal Ministry of Power, Works and Housing (FMWH)	Director	National	Female	Yes	21/01/2020
9	NL06	Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Secretary UN Nations Division	National	Male	Yes	17/01/2020
10	SL01	Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development (LSMPPUD)	Director	State/Local	Male	Yes	14/01/2020
11	SL02	Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development (LSMPPUD)	Director	State/Local	Male	Yes	10/02/2020
12	SL03	Lagos State Ministry of Housing	Director	State/Local	Male	Yes	03/02/2020
13	SL04	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency (LASURA)	Project Manager	State/ Local	Male	Yes	27/11/2019
14	SL05	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency (LASURA)	Director	State/ Local	Male	Yes	19/11/2019

15	SL06	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency (LASURA)	Director	State/ Local	Male	Yes	25/02/2020
16	SL07	Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning & Budget (LSMEPB)	Planning Officer	State/Local	Male	Yes	13/01/2020
17	SL08	Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning & Budget (LSMEPB)	Chief Planning Officer	State/Local	Female	Yes	13/01/2020
18	SL09	Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning & Budget (LSMEPB)	Asst. Director/ Head, Data Bank	State/Local	Female	Yes	31/01/2020
19	S10	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency (LASURA)	Director	State/ Local	Male	Yes	25/02/2020
20	SL11	Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency (LASURA)	Director	State/ Local	Female	Yes	21/02/2020
21	SL12	SDGs and Lagos Global Office	Head	State/ Local	Female	Yes	31/01/2020
22	NGO01	NGO-Socio-Economic Rights and Accountability Project	Director	State/Local	Male	No	02/10/2019
23	NGO02	NGO-Spaces for Change	Executive Director	State/Local	Female	No	25/09/2019
24	NGO03	NGO-Justice and Empowerment Initiative	Middle level staff	State/Local	Male	No	22/11/2019
25	NG04	NGO-Justice and Empowerment Initiative	Middle level staff	State/Local	Female	No	22/11/2019
26	NG05	NGO-Justice and Empowerment Initiative	Director	State/Local	Male	No	25/2/2020
27	NITP01	Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITPs) - Lagos Chapter	Head. MOA Planners	State Chapter	Male	No	03/02/2020
28	NITP02	Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITPs) - Lagos Chapter	Head	State Chapter	Male	No	07/02/2020
29	IUP01	Independent Urban Practitioners (IUPs) - Artic Infrastructure	Managing Director Artic Infrastructure	State/Local	Male	No	11/12/2019
30	IUP02	HBS, Goethe Institute Nigeria	Head	National/State/Local	Female	No	26/11/2019
31	IUP03	IUP- Lagos Urban Development Network	Director	National/State/Local	Female	No	22/11/2019
32	IUP04	IUP- University of Lagos /Centre for Housing Studies	Ass. Prof/ Director	National/State/Local	Female	No	14/11/2019

33	IUP05	IUP- Future Cities Nigeria at Adam Smith International	Head	National/State/Local	Male	No	03/03/2020
34	IUP06	IUP- OGSG MUPPUD	Head	National/State/Local	Male	Yes	27/02/2020
35	IUP07	IUP-ABUJA	MD	National/State/Local	Male	No	24/02/2020
36	LL01	Lagos State Local government	Officer	Local	Female	Yes	25/02/2020
37	LL02	Lagos State Local government	Health Officer	Local	Female	Yes	25/02/2020
38	LL03	Lagos State Local government	Compliance officer	Local	Male	Yes	25/02/2020
39	LL04	Lagos State Local government	Director	Local	Male	Yes	25/02/2020
40	LL05	Lagos State Local government	Resident	Local	Male	No	22/11/2019
41	PSHP01	Private Sector Housing Providers (PSHP)	Chairman	National/State/Local	Male	No	28/01/2020
42	PSHP02	Private Sector Housing Providers (PSHP)	MD/CEO	National/State/Local	Male	No	23/01/2020
43	PSHP03	Private Sector Housing Providers (PSHP)	MD/CEO	National/State/Local	Male	No	24/02/2020
44	PSHP04	Private Sector Housing Providers (PSHP)	MD/CEO	National/State/Local	Female	No	26/02/2020

Appendix B: Semi-structured interview guide

Group 1A: UN-Habitat and UN agencies

How would you rate the level of compliance and implementation of the SDGs/SDG11?

Which are the relevant implementing agencies for SDG11/NUA?

What are the networks of actors in the process of implementing SDG11/NUA?

What are the power relations within & between agencies?

How does the broader social, economic, political, and legal context affect the implementation process and agencies?

Who are the target group/beneficiaries for the SDGs/SDG11?

Who are other relevant stakeholders?

What are their stakes and activities in the process?

How do the clients and coalitions relate with the actors and the process of policy implementation?

At what points in the process could lack of commitment affect implementation efficiency?

What is the relationship between the UN-Habitat and FMPWH towards the implementation of the SDGs/SDG11?

What are the challenges of achieving SDG11 in Nigeria *vis-à-vis* Lagos?

What do you think is responsible for the non-implementation or improper implementation of the SDG11 in Nigeria? What do you think is the problem of SDGs/SDG11 not being implemented, and realised based on how it was formulated at the UN-General Assembly /HIII?

What capacity is required to achieve the SDG goals and the SDG11?

Where specifically, and at what levels are these capabilities required to be located for the good of people is it required?

How can these capacities be generated and mobilised?

What are the key outcomes towards the SDG11 and NUA from the first session of the UN-Habitat Assembly?

Group 2A: Office of the Senior Special Assistant to the President on Sustainable Development Goals

How well has the present government responded to the development challenges captured in the Goals?

What is the level of compliance of Nigeria to the SDGs?

What relationships exist between your office and other states in Nigeria? And in particular, Lagos State?

Do you have reports or indicator to measure our progress as a country?

What are the biggest issues/challenging impeding the implementation of SDG across the nation?

Are there plans or progress towards policy/institutional reforms to ensure the SDGs are incorporated into our policies as a Country if they are not already incorporated?

What specific programmes or initiatives do we have for targeting the poor in fulfilling the SDGs? Where? Progress?

There is a belief that issues of SDGs are mere talks without actions, particularly in Nigerian context with a huge level of poverty, and that Nigeria has taken over from India as the capital of poverty, what are your reflections?

How can Nigeria as a country achieve, and Lagos achieve the goal of making the state, safe, resilient, sustainable, and inclusive with housing issues addressed?

Why do we have disconnections between what the goals say and the reality in housing and human settlements?

Is there any other information you would like to share that would be useful for my research project?

Group 2D/F: Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning/ and Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs

What is the process of ratifying, signing, and importing foreign policies and agenda?

What is the relationship between Nigeria and the international community towards policy import towards urban housing and human settlements?

What is the level of our compliance, acceptance, and implementation of the SDGs?

Is there a budget for SDGs in Nigeria?

If yes, what precisely are these budgets used for, in terms of projects, programmes and location?

Do you get foreign aids towards the SDGs?

What are the benefits and implications of implementing the SDG/SDG11?

Group 2E: Federal Ministry of Works and Housing

How does policy address the housing and urban problems in Lagos/Nigeria for the common man?

What are the goals and objectives of the Lagos/Nigerian urban policy?

What are the tools & methods for implementation?

Are there specific programmes or strategies to achieve the housing and urban policy?

How does the policy relate to the SDG11?

Does the policy engender safety, inclusion, resilience, and sustainability?

The 2012 National Housing Policy has been criticised and there is a call for a review for a number of reasons, can you shed some lights on this?

What relationship(s) exists between FMPWH and UN-Habitat towards achieving the SDG11?

What do you think is responsible for the non-implementation or improper implementation of the SDG11 in Lagos? What do you think is the problem of SDGs/SDG11 not being implemented and realised based on how it was formulated at the UN-General Assembly /HIII?

How responsive is the government in their role in regard to housing provision with basic infrastructural facilities?

Group 3A/B: Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development; Lagos State Ministry of Housing

How responsive is the government in their role in regard to housing provision with basic infrastructural facilities in line with the SDG11 in Lagos?

How does urban policy in Lagos address the housing and urban problems for the common man?

What are the goals and objectives of Lagos LSURDL in line with the SDG11?

Are there specific programmes or strategies to achieve the housing needs in line with the LSURDL for the good of all citizens?

How does the LSURDL relate to the SDG11? / Does the LSURDL engender a safety, inclusion, resilience, and sustainability for the citizens?

What do you think is responsible for the non-implementation or improper implementation of the SDG11 in Lagos? What do you think is the problem of SDGs/SDG11 not being implemented and realised based on how it was formulated at the UN-General Assembly /HIII?

Are there any emerging constraints/limitations, and what can you attribute to these challenges/limitations?

Group 3C: Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency

Do you think is the government has been responsive in urban renewal or regeneration of the human settlements especially as it affects slums and squatter settlements?

Is your agency in any way an implementor of the SDG11?

Does your agency have any relationship with the UN-Habitat/ UN agencies towards realising the SDG11?

Do you get funding from the LASG, FGN, UN-Habitats or other UN agencies towards implementing the SDG11?

How responsive is the government in their role in regard to housing provision with basic infrastructure in line with the SDG11?

What do you think is responsible for the non-implementation or improper implementation of the SDG11 in Lagos? What do you think is the problem of SDGs/SDG11 not being implemented and realised based on how it was formulated at the UN-General Assembly /HIII?

What do you think is responsible for the proliferation of squatter settlements in Lagos?

How can Lagos achieve the sustainable goal of making the city safe, inclusive for all, resilient, sustainable, and efficient?

In your own view, do you think there is a deficiency or the need to review urban planning laws to make Lagos more efficient in addressing the housing situation and general planning?

Is there any other information you would like to share that would be useful for my research project?

Group 3D: Lagos State Ministry of Budget & Economic Planning

THE LSMBEP has been involved in the planning of the LSDP 2012-2025, are plans or provisions to review the LSDP in line with the SDGs and SDG11 the same way the MDGs were implemented and monitored in Lagos?

Considering the population of Lagos, what specific plans or programmes exist with the laws/provisions of Lagos to endanger a Lagos that is safe, inclusive, resilient, and sustainable for all citizens, especially the poor people and the masses?

What relationships do you have as a ministry with the UN-Habitat toward sustaining the human settlements?

What relationship(s) exists between your ministry and the Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning/ and Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs in line with the implementation of the SDGs and SDG11?

Is there a budget for SDGs in Lagos to implement and achieve the SDGs?

Do you receive aids or supports to implement and achieve the SDGs?

Group 4: Lagos State Local Governments

What do you understand by the SDGs?

What are the urban challenges peculiar to this local government?

What kind of support do you get from the federal government, state government and the international community towards housing and basic service provisions?

And how adequate are the supports to meet the challenges of the people?

Are there specific urban sustainable development projects in this local government?

If yes, what is the impact on the people?

How do you address issues of housing and provision of services for the communities here?

How do you think these challenges can be addressed?

Is there any other information you would like to share that would be useful for my research project?

Group 5/7: Nigerian Institute of Town Planner-Lagos Chapter/Independent Urban Practitioners

What is the level of awareness of the SDG/NUA among planners in Nigeria and Lagos?

At the 49th NITPs conference, it was tagged "New Urban Agenda: From Agenda to Action, Localising A Global Issue", what does it mean to localise the NUA in Lagos, Nigeria?

To what level has Nigeria and Lagos localise the NUA? As far as compliance is to the SDG11/NUA, how far is Lagos?

What are the biggest urban challenges in Lagos, and can these challenges be addressed?

What are the policy instruments driving urban and housing development in Lagos?

How have these policies address these challenges?

Are there elements of SDG concepts (resilient, sustainable, safe, and inclusive) linked to these policy instruments?

What are the challenges towards implementing the NUA in the context of Lagos and Nigeria at Large?

What do you think is the problem of SDGs/SDG11 not being implemented and realised based on how it was formulated at the UN-General Assembly /HIII?

How can Nigeria as a country achieve, and Lagos achieve the goal of making the state, safe, resilient, sustainable, and inclusive with housing issues addressed?

What provisions are within the urban framework of Lagos to address the housing situation of the people, especially people considered to be poor?

What deficiencies do you think exist within the Lagos and Nigerian urban legislation and constitution to implement the SDG11/ NUA in Lagos?

Is there any other information you would like to share that would be useful for my research project?

Group 6: NGOs

How responsive do you think the government is to the plight of the poor people in Lagos? Especially in housing and human settlements?

Is your NGO in alliance with any international organisation towards achieving and implementing the SDGs/SDG11?

Do you think Lagos as a state engenders a city that is safe, inclusive, resilient and sustainable for the citizens?

If yes/no? Why?

What do you think is the problem of SDGs/SDG11 not being implemented and realised based on how it was formulated at the UN-General Assembly /HIII?

Appendix C: Participant information sheet



Participant Information Sheet

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Taiwo Afinowi and I am a full-time PhD student at the School of Architecture and Planning, University of Witwatersrand in Johannesburg, South Africa. As a major requirement for the award of a PhD, I am conducting a research on the Sustainable Development Goals for cities and the New Urban Agenda in the context of Nigeria and its effect at the grassroots. The aim of the research is to understand the intersections between global urban housing agendas and practice at the local level.

As part of this research, I will like to invite you and seek your consent to participate in this research in the form of an interview. Your involvement through this interview is aimed at gathering information regarding the challenges of implementing global agendas at local levels and your participation will go a long way in steering this research in the right direction. The interview will take between 30 - 60 minutes, and preferably, the interview will take place in your office or any other venue convenient for you and conducive for an interview.

Please note that this research is undertaken solely for academic purposes and you will not receive any benefit from participating in this research and there are no consequences or penalties for not participating either. Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to answer any question you feel uncomfortable with during the interview, you may also choose to withdraw from this research at any time without bearing any negative consequences.

The interview will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not be interested in your name or any identifying information, and the information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else. I will be using pseudonyms (false name) such as 'Respondent XYZ' in the collation and analysis of the data and you will not be personally identified in the final report except if you are willing to be quoted in the final report. However, government entities and other institutions may be identified to give credence to the study. Please note that I will like to record the interview using an audio recorder in order to get every detail of the session and also take handwritten notes. The audio recordings will be subsequently transcribed for proper analysis. At any point of the study you may choose to redact any statement made in the interview or If you experience any distress or discomfort at any time in this process, we will stop the interview and resume another time.

If you have any questions during or afterwards about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below, the completed study will be available electronically, and can be accessed publicly through the University library website. If you wish to receive a summary of this report, I will be happy to send it to you.

If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za or my supervisor, Prof. Aly Karam on +27 117177707, aly.karam@wits.ac.za.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Taiwo Afinowi
MBE-Housing (Wits), MED-Arch (Lagos), BSc (Hons)-Arch (OAU), amNIA, Reg Arch (ARCON).
PhD Candidate
School of Architecture and Planning
University of Witwatersrand

Email: taiwo.afinowi1@students.wits.ac.za

Tel: +234 8033944792, +27 63 475 2153

School of Architecture & Planning
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3 Wits 2050
Johannesburg South Africa
www.wits.ac.za

T + 27 11 717 7623
F + 27 11 717 7649

Appendix D: Consent form

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND JOHANNESBURG | SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE PLANNING

Research Title: The intersections between global urban housing agendas and practice at local levels: A case study of Lagos.

Researcher: Taiwo Afinowi

FORMAL CONSENT FORM

I hereby agree to participate in this research and confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, **Afinowi Taiwo**, of the purpose and, procedures of this research, and my rights as a participant. I have received, read and fully understand the written participant information sheet. I have also been informed of:

- ☐ The nature of my participation in the form of an interview
- ☐ The place and duration of the research
- ☐ The reasons why I was selected to participate in the study
- ☐ The voluntary nature, and my right to refuse to answer, and the freedom to withdraw from the study
- ☐ No payment or incentives will be received for participating in this research
- ☐ No loss of benefits or risks
- ☐ Anonymity
- ☐ Confidentiality
- ☐ How the research findings will be disseminated

	(please circle)	
I agree to audio-recording during interviews.	**YES**	**NO**
I agree to my name being used.	**YES**	**NO**
I agree that my participation remain anonymous	**YES**	**NO**
I agree that the researcher may use anonymous quotes in his research report	**YES**	**NO**
I agree that the researcher may take photos of me and urban environment	**YES**	**NO**

PARTICIPANT

_____

Printed name

_____

Signature and date

Appendix E: Approved University of the Witwatersrand ethics certificate clearance

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Afinowi

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H19/07/03**
PROJECT TITLE	The intersections and complexities between global urban housing agendas and practice at local levels: A case study of Lagos
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Mr T Afinowi
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Architecture and Planning/
DATE CONSIDERED	19 July 2019
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	01 September 2022

DATE 02 September 2019 **CHAIRPERSON** J-Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Prof A Karam

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

T Afinowi
Signature

30 / 09 / 2019
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix F: Certificate of competence in research ethics.



CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCE IN RESEARCH ETHICS

Full Name: Taiwo Adekanmi Afinowi

Student No: 1744446

Date of Certification: 15 April 2019 - 14 April 2022

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND JOHANNESBURG

TRAINED BY:
Professor Jasper Knight (Research Ethics)
Signed:

ACKNOWLEDGED BY:
Dr Robin Drennan (Director: Research Office)
Signed:

This certificate is confirmation of successful completion of a training course in Research Ethics for Non-Medical Human Research, based upon achieving a minimum level of competence in different assessment tasks. This certificate is valid for a period of three years from the date given above.

Appendix G: Permission letter from the UN-Habitat

UN-HABITAT
FOR A BETTER URBAN FUTURE

United Nations Human Settlements Programme
P.O. Box 30030, Nairobi 00100, KENYA
Tel: +254-20 7623120, Fax: +254-20 7624266/7
infohabitat@unhabitat.org, www.unhabitat.org

02 July 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This letter is hereby granted to **Mr. Taiwo Afinowi** a student of University of Witwatersrand, the permission to conduct Research Interviews at UN-Habitat.

The purpose of the research is solely for academic purposes which will assist him in his doctorate studies at the School of Architecture and Planning in the University of Witwatersrand

Any assistance rendered to **Mr. Taiwo Afinowi** would be highly appreciated.

HARIS PAJTIC
Human Resources
UN-HABITAT
FOR A BETTER URBAN FUTURE

Haris Pajtic
Human Resources Officer, Chief
Management and Operations Division
UN-Habitat

Appendix H: Permission letter from the Head of Service – Lagos State Government



PERMANENT SECRETARY
Ministry of Physical Planning & Urban Development Secretariat
18 JUL 2019
RECEIVED
Sign ... Time ...

LS/C.530/T/589

11th July, 2019

MINISTRY OF HOUSING
RECEIVED
18 JUL 2019
TIME 12:23pm SIGN.....
PERM. SEC'S OFFICE

PERMANENT SECRETARY OFFICE
RECEIVED TIME 03:04pm
16 JUL 2019
SIGNATURE.....
MIN. OF ECONOMIC PLANNING & BUDGET

LAGOS STATE URBAN RENEWAL AGENCY
Old Secretariat Oba Akinjobi,
Secretariat Ikeja
18 JUL 2019
RECEIVED
Time 1:58pm

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Physical Planning & Urban Development
The Secretariat,
Alausa-Ikeja.

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Housing,
The Secretariat,
Alausa-Ikeja.

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Economic Planning & Budget,
The Secretariat,
Alausa-Ikeja.

The General Manager
Lagos State Urban Renewal Agency,
The Secretariat,
Alausa- Ikeja.

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
RE: RESEARCH ON THE INTERSECTIONS AND COMPLEXITIES BETWEEN GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS AND PRACTICE AT LOCAL LEVELS: A CASE STUDY OF LAGOS

I have the directive of the Head of Service to introduce **Mr. Taiwo Afinowi**, a Ph.D Student of the School of Architecture and Planning, University of Witwatersrand (Wits), Johannesburg.

2. The Researcher is conducting a research on **"THE INTERSECTIONS AND COMPLEXITIES BETWEEN GLOBAL URBAN AGENDAS AND PRACTICE AT LOCAL LEVELS IN LAGOS STATE."** The aim of the research is to understand the intersections, complexities and disjunctions between global urban agendas and what is practiced at local levels.

3. On the basis of the foregoing, the Student is requesting for permission to carry out a one-on-one interview with Senior Staff Members / Directors in your Ministry.

4. I am to respectfully ask that you accord him all necessary assistance towards the successful implementation of the Research project.

5. Kindly note that **Mr. Taiwo Afinowi** can be contacted on 08033944792

6. Thank you.

Toyin Onanuga (Mrs.)
For: Permanent Secretary

Appendix I: Permission letter from one the NGOs based in Lagos

10 June 2019

Taiwo Afinowi
MBE-Housing (Wits), MED-Arch (Lagos), BSc (Hons)-Arch (OAU), amNIA, Reg Arch (ARCON).
PhD Candidate
School of Architecture and Planning
University of Witwatersrand

JUSTICE & EMPOWERMENT INITIATIVES - NIGERIA
community legal support initiative

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW

Dear Taiwo Afinowi,

It's with pleasure that I write to grant your request to interview myself or members of my team for the purposes of your research on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) for cities and the New Urban Agenda in the context of Nigeria and its effect at the grassroots titled "The intersections and complexities between global urban agendas and practice at local levels: A case study of Lagos."

Looking forward to seeing you in Lagos.

Best regards,

Andrew Maki
Co-Director, JEI

Appendix J: Focussed meeting 1 programme of events

UN HABITAT
FOR A BETTER URBAN FUTURE

LAGOS URBAN DIALOGUE

Theme: Sustainable Development Goals: An Essential to Achieving Lagos 21st Century Economy

30th September, 2019
Lagos - Nigeria
Time: 10:00am -4:00pm

PROGRAMME OF WORK

09:00 hrs.	REGISTRATION
Moderator	Tpl Roy Layinde- Hakeem
SESSION I	
10:00 - 10:30 hrs	Hon. Commissioner, Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development, Lagos State
	Dr Omoayena Odunbaku, Human Settlements Officer, Regional Office for Africa, UN - Habitat
10:30 - 11:00 hrs	Sustainable Development Goals: An Essential to Achieving Lagos 21st Century Economy. ***Mrs Solape Hammond, Special Adviser to the Lagos State Governor on Sustainable Development Goals***
11:00 - 11:30 hrs	***Questions and Answers***
11:30 - 12:00 hrs	**Group Photograph and Tea Break**
SESSION II	
12:00 - 12:20 hrs	Implementing and Monitoring the SDGs and NUA in Lagos State ***Prof Leke Oduwaye***
12:20 - 12:40 hrs	***Questions and Answers***
12:40 - 13:40 hrs	**Panel Discussion:** *Academia* *Private Sector* *LGA Chairperson* *Civil Society Group*
13:40 - 14:00 hrs	***Questions and Answers***
14:00 - 15:00 hrs	**LUNCH**
SESSION III	
15:00 - 15:20 hrs	**World Urban Forum (WUF10)** Dr Omoayena Odunbaku, Human Settlements Officer, Regional Office for Africa, UN - Habitat
15:20 - 15:40 hrs	***Questions and Answers***
15:40 - 16:00 hrs	**Wrap up and Closing remarks** - UN - Habitat - Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development, Lagos State

Appendix K-1: Focussed meeting 2 invitation letter

FEDERAL MINISTRY OF WORKS AND HOUSING (HOUSING)

Headquarters Mabushi P.M.B 111, Garki - Abuja

URD.200/FMWH/USMP/TC/ Vol.1/107 9th January, 2020

Taiwo Afinowi,
School of Architecture and Planning,
University of Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg,
South Africa.

INVITATION TO A ONE-DAY SENSITIZATION FORUM ON LANDS, HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT MULTILATERAL PROGRAMMES OF COLLABORATION AND THE TENTH SESSION OF THE WORLD URBAN FORUM (WUF10) HOLDING ON THURSDAY 16TH JANUARY, 2020

I am directed to inform you of the intention of the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing to organize a One-Day Sensitization Forum on Lands, Housing and Urban Development Multilateral Programmes of Collaboration and the Tenth Session of the World Urban Forum (WUF10) scheduled to hold as follows:

Date: Thursday 16th January, 2020.
Venue: Main Conference Hall, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, Abuja.
Time: 10.00 am – 5.00 pm.

2. The Forum will hold with the theme, **'Achieving National Housing and Urban Development Goals: Opportunities for Partnerships and Technical Cooperation.'** It is intended to mobilize and sensitize key Nigerian stakeholders on the programmes of relevant multilateral organizations, and to explore opportunities available for technical assistance, capacity building and collaborative partnerships for sustainable lands, housing and urban development programmes.

3. The meeting will in addition discuss holistic, harmonized and effective participation of Nigeria at the forthcoming UN-Habitat organized **10th Session of the World Urban Forum (WUF10)holding in Abu-Dhabi from 8th - 13th February, 2020** with the theme **'Cities of Opportunities: Connecting Culture and Innovation'.** WUF10 is a strategic opportunity for multi-stakeholder cooperation in the implementation of the New Urban Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), especially SDG11: Make Cities and Human Settlements Inclusive, Safe, Resilient and Sustainable. Kindly visit www.unhabitat.org/wuf for more information. The Draft Programme is attached.

Appendix K-2: Focussed meeting 2 invitation letter continued

4. Your personal presence and participation at this important Session will establish a pathway for the attainment of collective National goals of achieving economically, socially and environmentally sustainable cities and communities through sustainable partnerships, collaboration and technical assistance from regional and international development partners.

5. I would be grateful to receive confirmation of your availability and details of your delegation by Friday, 10th January, 2020. Kindly note that participation costs will be borne by participants.

6. For further information, kindly contact **Edna Deimi Tobi,** Director, Urban Sector Multilateral Programmes at email: ednatobi@hotmail.com or Tel: 0803.305.1952 or **Roland Uwakwe** at email: rolanduwakwe69@yahoo.com or Tel: 0803-597-6016.

7. Please accept, the assurances of Honourable Minister's highest regards.

S. O. Olusola.
Director, Urban and Regional Development Department
For: Honourable Minister

Appendix K-3: Focussed meeting 2 programme of events



Federal Ministry of Works and Housing

ONE DAY SENSITIZATION FORUM ON LANDS, HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT MULTILATERAL PROGRAMMES OF COLLABORATION AND THE TENTH SESSION OF THE WORLD URBAN FORUM (WUF 10)

Date: Thursday, 16th January, 2020 | Time: 10.30am - 5.00pm
Venue: Main Conference Room, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, Abuja

PROVISIONAL PROGRAMME

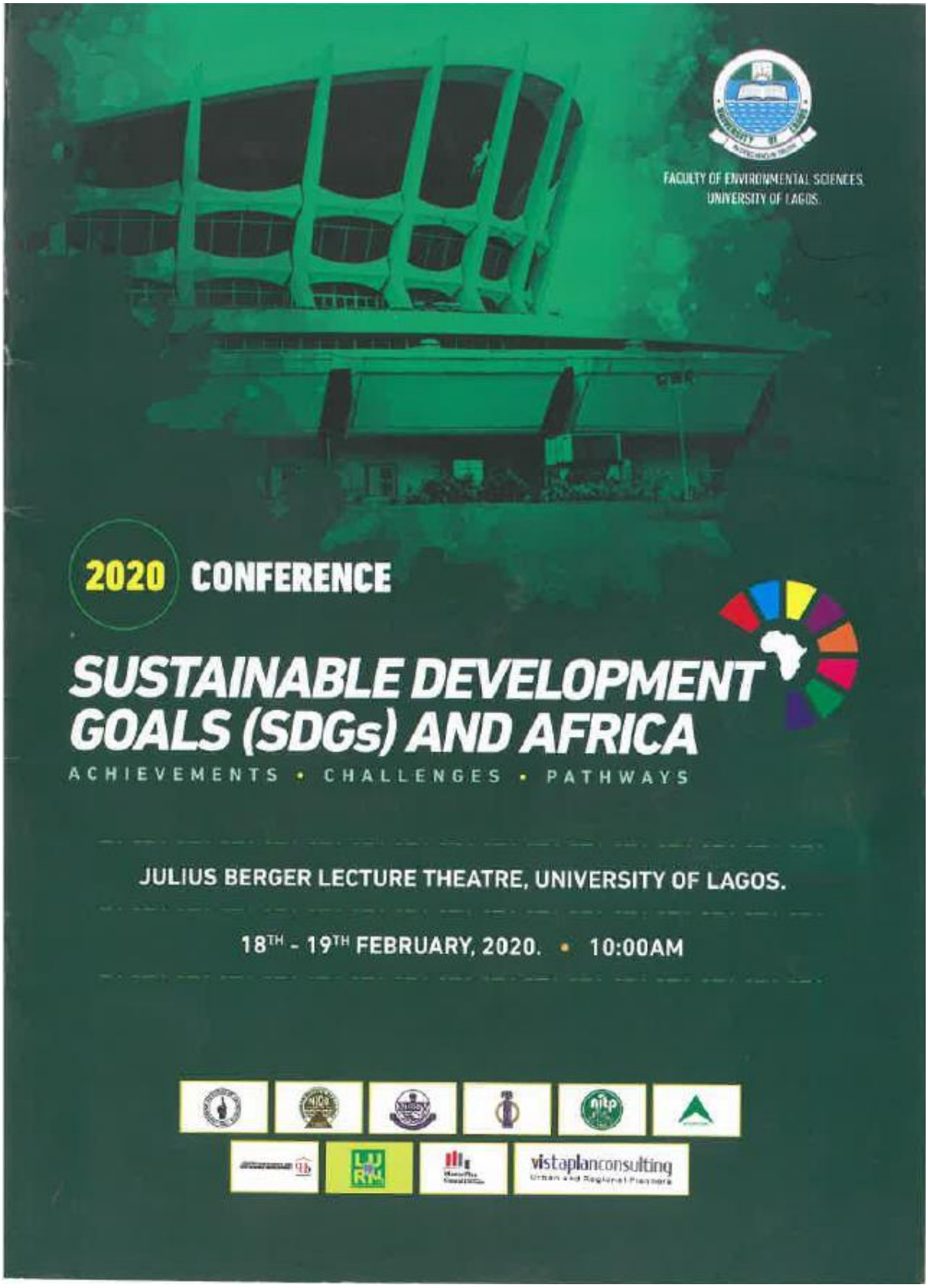
Theme: Achieving National Housing and Urban Development Goals: Opportunities for Partnerships and Technical Cooperation

TIME	ACTIVITIES
	OPENING CEREMONY **(CHAIR: Honourable Minister of Works and Housing)**
10.00am -10.30am	Registration of Participants
10.30am - 10.40am	National Anthem / National Prayer
10.40am – 10.50am	❖ **Welcome Statement** *(including Objectives and Expected Outcomes of the Sensitization Forum)* - Permanent Secretary, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, **Mohammed Bukar**
10.50am – 11.00am	**Remarks:** ❖ Chairman, Senate Committee on Housing, **Senator Sam Egwu** *(2min)* ❖ Chairman, House of Representatives Committee on Urban Development and Regional Planning, **Hon. Jide Jimoh** *(2min)* ❖ Chairman, House of Representatives Committee on Housing and Habitat, **Hon. Mustapha Dawaki** *(2min)*
11.00am – 11.15am	❖ **Opening Statement** - Honourable Minister, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, **Babatunde Raji Fashola, SAN** *(15min)*
	PRESENTATIONS I **Sensitization on Mandates, Activities and Opportunities for Partnerships and Technical Cooperation from Multilateral Organizations**
11.15am – 11.35am	❖ **Shelter-Afrique : Housing Development and Financing Options –** Andrew Chimphondah, Managing Director, Shelter-Afrique *(20min)*
11.35am – 11.55am	**Discussions** *(20mins)*
11.55am – 12.15pm	❖ **Partnerships and Technical Cooperation for Sustainable Urbanization –** United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) *(20mins)*
12.15pm - 12.35pm	**Discussions** *(20mins)*
12.35pm - 1.00pm	**Tea/Coffee Break**

Appendix K-4: Focussed meeting 2 programme of events continued

	Data – United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) *(20mins)*
1.20pm - 1.35pm	**Discussions** *(15mins)*
1.35pm – 2.25pm	❖ **National Housing and Urban Development Initiatives** - **Overview of UN-Habitat Programmes in Nigeria** - Paul Okunlola, Consultant, UN-Habitat *(8mins)* - **Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria (FMBN)** - Managing Director/Chief Executive *(8mins)* - **Family Homes Fund** – Femi Adewole, Managing Director *(8mins)* - **Nigeria Mortgage Refinance Company (NMRC)** – Mr. Kehinde Ogundimu, Managing Director/Chief Executive *(8mins)* - **Centre for Affordable Housing** - Arc. Sam Ordia, Chief Executive Officer, Millard Fuller Foundation *(8mins)* - **EchoStone Housing Development Nigeria** - Sammy Adigun, CEO *(8mins)*
2.25m - 2.45pm	**Discussions** *(20mins)*
	PRESENTATIONS 2 **Tenth World Urban Forum (WUF10)**
2.45pm – 3.05pm	❖ **Preparing Nigeria for the Tenth World Urban Forum (WUF10) - Tpl. Edna Deimi Tobi**, Director, Urban Sector Multilateral Programmes, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing *(20mins)*
3.05pm – 3.15pm	❖ **Protocols and Conduct** – Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Abuja *(10mins)*
3.15pm - 3.45pm	**Discussions** *(30mins)*
	CLOSING SEGMENT
3.45pm – 3.55pm	❖ **Closing Remarks** - UN-Habitat *(3mins)* - UNECA *(3mins)* - Shelter-Afrique *(3mins)* - Others
3.55pm – 4.05pm	❖ **Wrap Up and Closing Statement - Engineer Abubakar D. Aliyu, FNSE** Honourable Minister of State for Works and Housing *(10mins)*
4.05pm – 4.10pm	❖ **Vote of Thanks - Tpl M. O. Dunmoye,** Director/Head of Department URD, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing *(5mins)*
4.10pm	**Interactive Lunch**
5.00pm	**Departure**

Appendix L-1: Focussed meeting 3 flier



Appendix L-2: Focussed meeting 3 programme of events

PROGRAMME OF EVENTS

DAY 1 (TUESDAY 18TH FEBRUARY, 2020)

TIME	EVENTS	VENUE
08:30 - 10:00	Registration	Julius Berger Hall
10:00 - 10:10	Introduction of Guests: Dr. I. B. John / Uyi Osagie	
10:10 - 10:15	National Anthem	
10:15 - 10:20	Opening Prayer: Prof. M. M. Omirin	
10:20 - 10:25	Address by the Chairman LOC: Prof. 'Leke Oduwaye FNITP	
10:25 - 10:35	Welcome Address: Dean, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Prof. Mike Adebamowo FNIA	
10:35 - 10:45	Address by the Vice Chancellor, University of Lagos: Prof. Toyin Ogundipe FAS	
10:45 - 10:55	Book Launch: Smart City Development Issues In Nigeria	
10:55 - 11:05	Goodwill Messages: Tpl. Idris Salako, Lagos State Commissioner for Physical Planning & Urban Devt. Arc. Kabiru Ahmed Abdullahi, Lagos State Commissioner for Waterfront Infrastructure Professional Bodies	
11:05 - 11:20	Keynote Speech: Sustainable Development Goals: The Lagos State Experience - Mrs. Solape Hammond, Lagos State Special Adviser on SDGs and Investment	
11:20 - 11:35	Keynote Speech: An X-RAY of Unsustainable Development and Construction Practices in Nigeria - Blar. Kunle Awobodu FNIOB, President, Nigerian Institute of Building (NIOB)	
11:35 - 12:05	Lead Paper Presentation: 2030 Agenda and the Challenge of Rapid Urbanisation in Africa - Paul Okunlola, UN-Habitat, Abuja.	
12:05 - 12:20	Questions and Answers	
12:20 - 12:30	Presentation of Awards	
12:30 - 12:40	Group Photographs	
12:40 - 12:50	Tea Break: In Parallel Sessions	
12:50 - 14:20	Parallel Sessions	

HALL 1 - JULIUS BERGER HALL	HALL 2 - ARCHITECTURE STUDIO I	HALL 3 - ARCHITECTURE STUDIO II
Infrastructure Chair : **Prof M. O. Dada** Rapporteur : Arc M. Adio-Moses Logistic Support: Miss Damilola Odekunle ; Mr. Ozioma Oguejiofor	**Health and Safety** Chair: **Dr G.K. Babawale** Rapporteur: Dr A. A. Soyingbe Logistic Support: Miss Damilola Oluwo; Mr. Victor Irekpanor	**Housing** Chair: **Prof M.O. Shaibu** Rapporteur: Dr V.U. Ilechukwu Logistic Support: Mr. Quadri Olugbile; Miss Tobi Adeyemo

RAPPORTEUR GENERAL: DR. J.O. AMEH, DR. O.J. OLADIRAN & DR. MOKOLADE JOHNSON

14:20 - 15:30	Lunch	Parallel Session Location
15:30 - 16:00	Recap and Announcement: Dr. Taibat Lawanson	

DAY 2 (WEDNESDAY 19TH FEBRUARY, 2020)

08:30 - 09:00	Registration
09:00 - 09:05	National Anthem
09:05 - 09:10	Opening Prayer
09:10 - 09:15	Opening Remark and Recap: Dr. Taibat Lawanson
09:15 - 10:00	Lead Paper Presentation: Sustainable Development Goals and Urbann Development Policy in Africa - Professor Adamu Ahmed, Bauchi State Commissioner for Lands and Survey.
10:00 - 10:30	Technical Sessions Paper: Path to Sustainable Thinking - Dr. Muyiwa E. Agunbiade
10:30 - 10:35	Presentation of Awards
10:35 - 10:55	Tea Break: In Parallel Sessions
11:00 - 14:00	Parallel Sessions

HALL 1 - JULIUS BERGER HALL	HALL 2 - ARCHITECTURE STUDIO I	HALL 3 - ARCHITECTURE STUDIO II
Project Management Chair: **Dr H.N. Onukwube** Rapporteur : Dr. T.I. Salau Logistic Support: Mr. Richard Unaigboje; Mr John Favour	**Transport** Chair: **Dr Wole Alade** Rapporteur: Dr. Yemi Akindeju Logistic Support: Mr Peter Oyelami; Miss Igudia Blessing	**Risk and Disaster Management** Chair: **Dr. M.B.O. Adegbile** Rapporteur: Dr Basirat Oyalowo Logistic Support: Mr. James Olusegun; Mr. Abejirin Henry

RAPPORTEUR GENERAL: DR. J.O. AMEH, DR. O.J. OLADIRAN & DR. MOKOLADE JOHNSON

14:00 - 14:15	General Recap/Communique: Rapporteur General Team
14:15 - 14:20	Vote of Thanks: Sub-Dean, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Dr. Hikmat Kolesho
14:20 - 14:30	Closing Remarks: Dean, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Prof. Mike Adebamowo FNIA
14:30 - 14:35	National Anthem
14:35 - 15:30	Lunch
15:30	Departure

Appendix M: URBAN SDG-NUA-LSDP-LAGOS THEMES Agenda Linkages

2015 SDG11 Framework Target	Urban SDG (11) Monitoring Indicator	2016 Relevant and Related NUA paragraph	2012 Lagos State Development Plan	2019 Lagos State THEMES Agenda
11.1 By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe, and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums.	Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements, or inadequate housing	32 We commit ourselves to promoting national, subnational, and local housing policies that support the progressive realization of the right to adequate housing for all as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, that address all forms of discrimination and violence and prevent arbitrary forced evictions and that focus on the needs of the homeless, persons in vulnerable situations, low-income groups, and persons with disabilities	100% of citizens will have access to decent homes; At least 25% of citizenry will own their home by improving access to affordable mortgages. Annual house building rates to be progressively accelerated over the plan period to achieve 20,000 units p.a. by 2015, 50,000 units by 2020 and 80,000 units by 2025. New housing-built ratio of 70% low-income homes; 20% medium-income homes; 10% high-income homes.	Complete over 10,000 New Housing Units across Lagos including 2000 Units via LSDPC, 1000 LBIC, 3800 Lagos HOMS (rent-to-own) Housing Cooperatives partnership with Lagos HOMS Laying the framework for mass housing through PPP Rent control through rent-to-own & LASRETRAD. Upgrade of infrastructure in existing estates Reduction in the number of Slums through the LASURA
		32 We commit ourselves to promoting the development of integrated and age- and gender-responsive housing policies and approaches across all sectors., and at all levels of government — policies and approaches that incorporate the provision of adequate, affordable, accessible, resource efficient, safe, resilient, well-connected, and well-located housing.		
		33 We commit ourselves to stimulating the supply of a variety of adequate housing options that are safe, affordable, and accessible for members of different income groups of society...We will take positive measures to improve the living conditions of homeless people…, and to prevent and eliminate homelessness, as well as to combat and eliminate its criminalization.		
		34 We commit ourselves to promoting equitable and affordable access to sustainable basic physical and social infrastructure for all, without discrimination, including affordable serviced land, housing, modern and renewable energy, safe drinking water and sanitation, safe, nutritious, and adequate food, waste disposal, sustainable mobility,		

			health care and family planning, education, culture, and information and communications technologies.	5% annual reduction in slums; Prevention of new slums. Rent reduction to increase access and affordability.	Encouraging even development across the State Strategic goals for emergency shelter, traditional housing, subsidized housing, sustainable rental housing, and home ownership.
		46	We commit ourselves to promoting the role of affordable and sustainable housing and housing finance, including social habitat production, in economic development… at the national, subnational, and local levels		
		105	We will foster the progressive realization of the right to adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living. We will develop and implement housing policies at all levels, incorporating participatory planning and applying the principle of subsidiarity, as appropriate, to ensure coherence among national, subnational and local development strategies, land policies and housing supply		
11.2 By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable	Proportion of the population that has convenient access to public transport disaggregated by age group, sex and persons with disabilities	50	We commit ourselves to encouraging urban-rural interactions and connectivity by strengthening sustainable transport and mobility, and technology and communications networks and infrastructure, ... This should include connectivity between cities and their surroundings, peri-urban and rural areas, as well as greater land-sea connections, where appropriate.	By 2025, 90% of population lives within 15 mins walking distance to public transportation. By 2025, the capacity of the public transport sector increases from handling 7 million passenger trips per day to 12 million passengers trips per day.	Enhanced mobility and affordability of transport services and transport network resilience Provision of world-class infrastructure facilities for a comfortable, reliable, and accessible public transport Integration between different modes of transport making it seamless to travel.
		54	We commit ourselves to …sustainable and efficient transport infrastructure and services, where possible, achieving the benefits of connectivity and reducing the financial, environmental, and public health costs of inefficient mobility, congestion, air pollution, urban heat island effects and noise. We also commit ourselves to giving particular attention to the energy and transport needs of all people, particularly the poor and those living in informal settlements.		
		113	We will take measures to improve road safety and integrate it into sustainable mobility and		

situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons.			transport infrastructure planning and design.	By 2025, there is a 50% fall in the numbers of unroadworthy vehicles on the Lagos State registered vehicles on the roads. By 2025, there is a 70% increase in traffic system management awareness by the public. By 2015, there is a well-articulated and adopted transport policy and strategic management framework	Roll out implementable segments of the Bus Reforms; making water Transport more attractive and available; promotion of walking and cycling. Drive the State towards becoming a smart and moving; Reduction of traffic congestion with the corresponding reduction in travel time.
		114	We will promote access for all to safe, age- and gender-responsive, affordable, accessible, and sustainable urban mobility and land and sea transport systems, enabling meaningful participation in social and economic activities in cities and human settlements, by integrating transport and mobility plans into overall urban and territorial plans and promoting a wide range of transport and mobility options.		
11.3 By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated, and sustainable human settlement	Ratio of land consumption rate to population growth rate Proportion of cities with a direct participation structure of civil society in urban planning and management which	26	We commit ourselves to urban and rural development that is people-centred, and to the realization of all human rights and fundamental freedoms, facilitating living together, ending all forms of discrimination and violence, and empowering all individuals and communities while enabling their full and meaningful participation. We further commit ourselves to promoting culture and respect for diversity and equality as key elements in the humanization of our cities and human settlements.	By 2025, increase in participation of women in politics and decision-making. By 2020, 60% of the youth and women population are economically empowered and	Ensure inclusive development. Reformatory framework to reposition physical planning departments and agencies for enhanced synergy, effective and efficient service delivery.
		21	We commit ourselves to promoting institutional, political, legal, and financial mechanisms in cities and human settlements to broaden		

planning and management in all countries.	operate regularly and democratically		inclusive platforms, in line with national policies, that allow meaningful participation in decision-making, planning and follow-up processes for all, as well as enhanced civil engagement and co-provision and co-production	effectively participate in State development programmes.	Review city wide action plans to accommodate digital requirements and specialized hubs in all segments of planning.
		43	We recognize that sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, with full and productive employment and decent work for all, is a key element of sustainable urban and territorial development and that cities and human settlements should be places of equal opportunities, allowing people to live healthy, productive, prosperous, and fulfilling lives.		
11.4 Strengthen efforts to protect and safeguard the world's cultural and natural heritage.	Total expenditure (public and private) per capita spent on the preservation, protection, and conservation of all cultural and natural heritage, by type of heritage (cultural, natural, mixed, World Heritage Centre designation), level of government (national, regional, and local/municipal), type of expenditure (operating expenditure/investment)	37	We commit ourselves to promoting safe, inclusive, accessible, green and quality public spaces, including streets, sidewalks and cycling lanes, squares, waterfront areas, gardens and parks, that are multifunctional areas for social interaction and inclusion, human health and well-being, economic exchange and cultural expression and dialogue among a wide diversity of people and cultures, and that are designed and managed to ensure human development and build peaceful, inclusive, and participatory societies, as well as to promote living together, connectivity and social inclusion.	Increase the influx of tourists to the state by 15% p.a. Increased revenue generation for the state from tourism to 10% of gross domestic product. Revive all existing and functional tourism sites 50% increase in citizenry participation of cultural events. 10 new rural community	Position Lagos as a Top five tourist destination in Africa for authentic, insightful, and exciting heritage experiences: Become the choice location for regional & international sporting activities, events, conferences, and serene beaches in Africa. Rebrand to international standards and actively promote our cultural events like Fanti Carnival, Eyo Festival, Boat Regatta etc.
		38	We commit ourselves to the sustainable leveraging of natural and cultural heritage, both tangible and intangible, in cities and human settlements, as appropriate, through integrated urban and territorial policies and adequate investments at the national, subnational and local levels, to safeguard and promote cultural infrastructures and sites, museums, indigenous cultures and languages, as well as traditional knowledge and the arts, highlighting the role that these play in rehabilitating and revitalizing urban areas and in strengthening social participation and the exercise of citizenship.		

	and type of private funding (donations in kind, private non-profit sector, sponsorship).	60	We commit ourselves to sustaining and supporting urban economies to transition progressively to higher productivity through high-value-added sectors, by promoting diversification, technological upgrading, research and innovation, including the creation of quality, decent and productive jobs, including through the promotion of cultural and creative industries, sustainable tourism, performing arts and heritage conservation activities, among others.	tourist infrastructures developed. All museums and historic sites refurbished.	Revive inter-community sport competition, street sports championship and community shields periodically to promote wellness, community spirit and generate employment. Restore all historic sites in Lagos State at the rate of 20 cultural sites per annum. Develop parks, culture, and heritage sites; film, art and entertainment; revamp and upgrade state-owned museums; sports and wellness; beach, nature, and adventure; encourage communication and civic engagements.
11.5 By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people	Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disaster per 100,000 population.	63	We recognize that cities and human settlements face unprecedented threats from unsustainable consumption and production patterns, loss of biodiversity, pressure on ecosystems, pollution, natural and human-made disasters, and climate change and its related risks, undermining the efforts to end poverty in all its forms and dimensions and to achieve sustainable development.	Reduce incidence of flooding in Lagos State from 40 to 20% of urbanised and semi-urbanised areas of Lagos	Expand the Lagos State Health Scheme with a target of 500,000 households.

affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations.	Direct economic loss in relation to global gross domestic product, damage to critical infrastructure and number of disruptions to basic services, attributed to disasters.		Given cities' demographic trends and their central role in the global economy, in the mitigation and adaptation efforts related to climate change, and in the use of resources and ecosystems, the way they are planned, financed, developed, built, governed, and managed has a direct impact on sustainability and resilience well beyond urban boundaries.	by 2015 and eliminate all by 2025. Develop a stormwater drainage master plan for the entire Lagos and implement by 2025. Develop a regulatory framework for wetlands management. Sustain the continuous monitoring of flooding problems through the establishment of flood disaster early warning and advocacy mechanisms through the drainage offices within the 20 LGAs and 37 LDCs.	Increase health spending from 8.86% to 15% of budget in line with the Abuja Declaration; Access additional funding for our primary healthcare centres through the National Basic Health Care Provision Fund. Expand and maintain the linked seven channel drainage system to effectively prevent flooding. Expand Lagos State Ambulance and Emergency Service coverage by increasing ambulance points by 50%. Introduce public-private partnership programmes to enhance the management of primary healthcare centres.
		64	We also recognize that urban centres worldwide, especially in developing countries, often have characteristics that make them and their inhabitants especially vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change and other natural and human-made hazards, including earthquakes, extreme weather events, flooding, subsidence, storms, including dust and sandstorms, heatwaves, water scarcity, droughts, water and air pollution, vector-borne diseases, and sea level rise, which particularly affect coastal areas, delta regions and small island developing States, among others.		
		67	We commit ourselves to promoting the creation and maintenance of well-connected and well distributed networks of open, multipurpose, safe, inclusive, accessible, green, and quality public spaces, to improving the resilience of cities to disasters and climate change, including floods, drought risks and heat waves, to improving food security and nutrition, physical and mental health, and household and ambient air quality, to reducing noise and promoting attractive and liveable cities, human settlements, and urban landscapes and to prioritizing the conservation of endemic species.		
		78	We commit ourselves to supporting moving from reactive to more proactive risk-based, all hazards and all-of-society approaches, such as raising public awareness of risks and promoting exante investments to prevent risks and build resilience, while also ensuring timely and		

			effective local responses to address the immediate needs of inhabitants affected by natural and human-made disasters and conflicts. This should include the integration of the "build back better" principles into the post-disaster recovery process to integrate resilience-building, environmental and spatial measures, and lessons from past disasters, as well as awareness of new risks, into future planning.		Declare State of Emergency on Water, Sanitation and Hygiene. *The launching of the 2020 Lagos Resilience Strategy.
11.6 By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management.	Proportion of urban solid waste regularly collected and with adequate final discharge out of the total urban solid waste generated by the city Annual mean levels of fine particulate matter (i.e. PM2.5 and PM10) in cities (population weighted)	74	We commit ourselves to promoting environmentally sound waste management and to substantially reducing waste generation by reducing, reusing, and recycling waste, minimizing landfills, and converting waste to energy when waste cannot be recycled or when this choice delivers the best environmental outcome. We further commit ourselves to reducing marine pollution through improved waste and wastewater management in coastal areas.	To reduce industrial, vehicular and commercial emissions to comply with WHO air quality control guidelines by 2025. To ensure that 50% of industries in the State install functional and efficient effluent treatment plants. Improve on efficiency of waste collection by 80% in the state. Upgrading of dumpsites to landfill sites by 2013.	Operation DEEPCLEAN Lagos-, flood control programme, desilting and evacuation of debris in all drainage channels. Empower LAWMA to effectively drive the elimination of waste accumulation in Lagos. Adopt recycling state-wide. Expand the drainage system to effectively capture new areas and other formal developments. Provide more sewage treatment plants in partnership with the private sector.
		122	We will support decentralized decision-making on waste disposal to promote universal access to sustainable waste management systems. We will support the promotion of extended producer responsibility schemes that include waste generators and producers in the financing of urban waste management systems reduce the hazards and socioeconomic impacts of waste streams and increase recycling rates through better product design.		

				Improve refuse collection within the State's shoreline by 2013. Improve on solid waste sorting by 50% by 2013. To put in place effective institutional framework for sustainable sewage infrastructure by 2013.	Decentralisation of LAWMA into three zonal structures. Rehabilitate four Waste Water Treatment Plant and retrofit primary sewage. Revive treatment plants.
11.7 By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities.	Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities. Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	37	We commit ourselves to promoting safe, inclusive, accessible, green and quality public spaces, including streets, sidewalks and cycling lanes, squares, waterfront areas, gardens and parks, that are multifunctional areas for social interaction and inclusion, human health and well-being, economic exchange and cultural expression and dialogue among a wide diversity of people and cultures, and that are designed and managed to ensure human development and build peaceful, inclusive and participatory societies, as well as to promote living together, connectivity and social inclusion.	To establish recreational parks in 25% of the 57 LG/LDCs in the State by 2015 and thereafter complete all additional parks by 2025. To ensure proper maintenance of the six existing recreational parks state-wide and thereafter of all newly completed parks.	Launch Green Lagos Initiative. Rehabilitate and regenerate all open spaces across the state.
		53	We commit ourselves to promoting safe, inclusive, accessible, green and quality public spaces as drivers of social and economic development, in order to sustainably leverage their potential to generate increased social and economic value, including property value, and to facilitate business and public and private investments and livelihood opportunities for all.		

		67	We commit ourselves to promoting the creation and maintenance of well-connected and well distributed networks of open, multipurpose, safe, inclusive, accessible, green, and quality public spaces.	Access to basic infrastructure, utilities, and services to be 15 minutes walking distance.	
		100	We will support the provision of well-designed networks of safe, accessible, green and quality streets and other public spaces that are accessible to all and free from crime and violence, including sexual harassment and gender-based violence, considering the human scale, and measures that allow for the best possible commercial use of street-level floors, fostering both formal and informal local markets and commerce, as well as not-for-profit community initiatives, bringing people into public spaces and promoting walkability and cycling with the goal of improving health and wellbeing.		
11 a Support positive economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri- urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning.	Proportion of population living in cities that implement urban and regional development plans integrating population projections and resource needs, by size of city	72	We commit ourselves to long-term urban and territorial planning processes and spatial development practices that incorporate integrated water resources planning and management, considering the urban-rural continuum on the local and territorial scales and including the participation of relevant stakeholders and communities.	To commission and complete a new Regional Master Plan for Lagos State by 2015. To have District Master Plans in place by 2015. To have a complete coverage of Neighbourhood Plans in place by 2020. Promote 15 new Growth Poles/corridors to	Regeneration of the Central Business District (Marina/Broad Street) and holistic regeneration of Lagos Island & Apapa. Review City wide action Plans to accommodate digital requirements and specialized hubs. Create an inventory of slums and propose actions including curtailment plans.
		58	We will promote participatory age- and gender-responsive approaches at all stages of the urban and territorial policy and planning processes, from conceptualization to design, budgeting, implementation, evaluation, and review, rooted in new forms of direct partnership between Governments at all levels and civil society, including through broad-based and well-resourced permanent mechanisms and platforms for cooperation and consultation open to all, using information and communications technologies and accessible data solutions.		
		96	We will encourage the implementation of sustainable urban and territorial planning, including city-region and metropolitan plans, to		

			encourage synergies and interactions among urban areas of all sizes and their peri-urban and rural surroundings, including those that are cross-border, and we will support the development of sustainable regional infrastructure projects that stimulate sustainable economic productivity, promoting equitable growth of regions across the urban-rural continuum. In this regard, we will promote urban-rural partnerships and inter-municipal cooperation mechanisms based on functional territories and urban areas as effective instruments for performing municipal and metropolitan administrative tasks, delivering public services, and promoting both local and regional development.	accommodate the future expansion of the city.	Create a new Urban Renewal Policy and wholistic work steps to urban regeneration. Create sustainable Urban settlements Plans with sanitation, digital infrastructures, and social conveniences.
11 b By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change,	Proportion of countries and local governments that adopt and implement national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030	65	We commit ourselves to facilitating the sustainable management of natural resources in cities and human settlements in a manner that protects and improves the urban ecosystem and environmental services, reduces greenhouse gas emissions and air pollution and promotes disaster risk reduction and management, by supporting the development of disaster risk reduction strategies and periodical assessments of disaster risk caused by natural and human-made hazards, including standards for risk levels, while fostering sustainable economic development and protecting the well-being and quality of life of all persons through environmentally sound urban and territorial planning, infrastructure and basic services	To produce a State Policy Framework on Climate Change. To continue to organise State summits on climate Change. To conduct a study on the vulnerability level of Lagos State to Sea level rise and develop appropriate mitigation measures and	Develop robust community resilience for environment and disaster risk reduction and management. *The launching of the 2020 Lagos Resilience Strategy
		77	We commit ourselves to strengthening the resilience of cities and human settlements, including through the development of quality infrastructure and spatial planning, by adopting and implementing integrated, age- and gender-responsive policies and plans and ecosystem-based approaches in line with the Sendai Framework for		

resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels			Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 and by mainstreaming holistic and data-informed disaster risk reduction and management at all levels to reduce vulnerabilities and risk, especially in risk-prone areas of formal and informal settlements, including slums, and to enable households, communities, institutions and services to prepare for, respond to, adapt to and rapidly recover from the effects of hazards, including shocks or latent stresses. We will promote the development of infrastructure that is resilient and resource efficient and will reduce the risks and impact of disasters, including the rehabilitation and upgrading of slums and informal settlements. We will also promote measures for strengthening and retrofitting all risky housing stock, including in slums and informal settlements, to make it resilient to disasters, in coordination with local authorities and stakeholders.	emergency procedures for dealing with inundations. 95% compliance with environmental sector laws and regulations.	
11 c Support least developed countries, including through financial and technical assistance, in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilizing local materials	Proportion of financial support to the least developed countries that is allocated to the construction and retrofitting of sustainable, resilient, and resource-efficient buildings utilizing local materials	109	We will consider increased allocations of financial and human resources, as appropriate, for the upgrading and, to the extent possible, prevention of slums and informal settlements, with strategies that go beyond physical and environmental improvements to ensure that slums and informal settlements are integrated into the social, economic, cultural, and political dimensions of cities. These strategies should include, as applicable, access to sustainable, adequate, safe, and affordable housing, basic and social services, and safe, inclusive, accessible, green, and quality public spaces, and they should promote security of tenure and its regularization, as well as measures for conflict prevention and mediation.	Reduction of building costs through championing the use of alternative materials and technology. Enhance capacity to attract investment and create jobs, improve, and replace all substandard housing.	Develop 'Team Lagos' Brand (Public Reorientation and Professional Volunteerism) Improve Resource Mobilization and Effective Utilization.
		151	We will promote capacity-development programmes to help subnational and local governments in financial planning and management, anchored in institutional coordination at all levels, including environmental sensitivity and anti-corruption measures,	Provision of Technical Assistance in the form of	

		embracing transparent and independent oversight, accounting, procurement, reporting, auditing and monitoring processes, among others, and to review subnational and national performance and compliance, with particular attention to age- and gender-responsive budgeting and the improvement and digitalization of accounting processes and records, in order to promote results-based approaches and build medium- to long-term administrative and technical capacity.	advisors and/or facilitators.	

Source: MEPB LASG (2013); UN-Habitat (2015, 2016); Lawanson (2018); LASGTC (2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d, 2019e, 2019f); LASRO LASG (2020); Lawanson *et al.*, (2021).