

## Putting children first: Identifying solutions and taking action to tackle poverty and inequality in Africa

International conference hosted by the Ethiopian Centre for Child Research, Ethiopian Development Research Institute (EDRI), the Comparative Research Programme on Poverty (CROP), the ESRC DFID Impact Initiative for International Development Research and the Global Coalition to End Child Poverty, including African Child Policy Forum (ACPF), Partnership for Economic Policy (PEP), Save the Children, UNICEF and Young Lives

**Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 23-25 October 2017**

### CALL FOR PROPOSALS

This three-day international conference aims to engage policy makers, practitioners and researchers in identifying solutions for fighting child poverty and inequality in Africa, and inspiring action towards change. The conference offers a platform for bridging divides across sectors, disciplines and policy, practice and research.

The conference aims:

- to identify, debate and advocate proven solutions to end child poverty in Africa;
- to share and discuss new research on who and where poor children are, why they are poor and what tailored approaches to address their situation may look like;
- to discuss particular policy and programming challenges and how they can be addressed;
- to build links and networks between researchers, policy makers and practitioners;
- to stimulate learning on particular skills that may help to move research to action.

We would like to invite proposals on the following themes:

- 1) **“Setting the scene: Who and where are the poor children?”** This theme aims to provide insight into the plight of overlooked children, to strengthen data collection and measurement efforts to ensure that no child is overlooked in the future.
- 2) **“Child-sensitive social protection: Making social protection work for children”.** This theme aims to promote a better understanding of how social protection can be improved to help children, including links to services and the adoption of more child-oriented approaches.
- 3) **“Ensuring access to basic services for all: Reaching the poorest and most marginalised children”.** This theme aims to gain insight into how access to services can be secured for the most excluded and marginalised, including views on how to remove specific barriers and involve a social workforce and community-based mechanisms.
- 4) **“Supporting secure transitions to adulthood”.** This theme aims to explore how the ‘youth bulge’ can be considered a ‘demographic dividend’ and how young people can be supported in the transition to adulthood with regard to education, work, family and aspirations.

Proposals can consist of traditional paper presentations, but we also encourage innovative and interactive modes of engagement with research and policy in the respective themes. The conference will be conducted in English and participants will engage actively in all sessions. After the conference, participants should be willing to work on their contribution with a view to publication and further dissemination.

Participants are responsible for their own travel expenses and insurance. A limited number of travel grants are available.

### DEADLINE FOR SUBMISSION OF ABSTRACTS: 30 April 2017

The abstract must not exceed 500 words (one page) and must include: the title of the proposed submission, a presentation of the subject and mode of engagement, the central argument, and key references. A CV no longer than one page must also be submitted, including a list of recent publications. The abstract and CV must be submitted electronically at the University of Bergen, follow this link to do it: <http://bit.ly/2m2xjTW>

Submissions exceeding the set limits will not be considered. The Academic Selection Committee will notify accepted participants of their selection by end of May 2017 with guidelines for the format of the final submission (research paper or other format depending on proposed engagement) to be submitted by **25 September 2017**.

## **Children and adolescents in urban settings: Poverty and inequality in Nigerian Cities**

Draft do not quote

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### **Introduction**

The unequal development that characterizes the fast urbanization in Africa, and very specially Nigeria, is having serious impact in their inhabitants. This is particularly relevant to children. Millions of them see compromised their possibilities of survival and development as full member of the society. However, there is practically no reliable information to quantify the situation of urban children, the extent of their deprivations, and to assess the impact of urban inequality in their lives. The objective of this paper is to analyse, from a variety of perspectives, the impact of urban deprivation and inequalities on children and adolescents in the two largest cities of Nigeria: Kano and Lagos (located in the homonymous states).

The purpose is to unpack the living conditions of children growing up in these cities and to analyse the difference between those who live in worse and better off conditions. The underlying objective is to present evidence and setup standards that help to advocate for urban planning and policies that work on reducing inequities.

Thus, concretely, in this paper we attempt to answer the following questions:

How many children live in unacceptable housing conditions, and how many in inadequate and in acceptable conditions?

What is the situation of children in the different conditions?

What are the gaps or disparities between children in unacceptable and in acceptable housing conditions regarding selected life cycle variables?

The paper is organized in the following way:

After a brief background section that focuses on why analysing urban areas is quite relevant and urgent as well as some of the characteristics of cities in Nigeria, the first part of the paper presents the methodology used to assess the living conditions of children in Metropolitan Kano and Lagos. In this first part, following and relying on the latest literature and quantitative analyses (UNICEF, 2016, UN Habitat 2016), three groups of children are identified based on housing materials, overcrowding, and access to basic amenities. This approach allows us to understand where the poorest of the poor children live. These are the first-ever, city-specific disaggregated measurements of children living conditions following internationally accepted measurement tools and criteria in Africa. All of these analyses are based on the micro-data of the most recent Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (NBS, 2016).

In the second section, results showing the impact of urban inequalities on children are presented. Understanding this impact is important to develop policies and programmes to ensure equitable and universal access to basic social services, which would effectively reach the poorest and most marginalised

children. In this section, indicators reflecting access to basic social services (e.g. birth registration or primary schools) and well-being outcomes (e.g. nutrition or violence) are analyzed. Moreover, the outcomes cover the life cycle of the child and adolescent (e.g. primary and secondary school attendance). Thus, they provide evidence about some of the different challenges (and opportunities) faced by the poorest adolescents, those in acceptable circumstances, and those from the richest households. This evidence illustrates the inequitable pathways determining transitions into adulthood for adolescents.

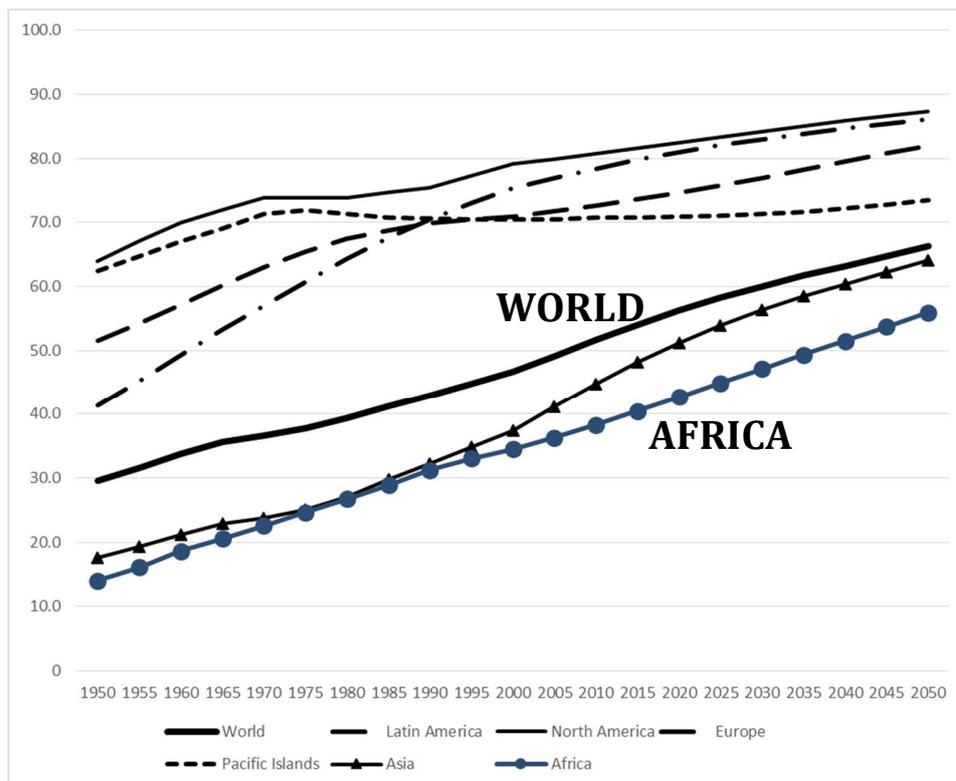
A brief concluding section closes the paper. Challenges and limitations of the analysis are presented along with suggestions for further analysis.

## Background on urban disparities

### *Global Trends*

An identifying marker of the new century is the accelerated process of urbanization especially in the developing world. The UN estimates that by 2050, 66 per cent of the world’s population would be urban. The world already passed the threshold of the 50% of urban population that was the standard used to consider an urbanized world. It is important to stress that the fastest process of urbanization is happening in Africa and Asia (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Past and projected urbanization trends



Urbanization provides opportunities for many and can even improve the possibility of achieving inclusion and better social and economic opportunities for all. Yet city dwellers can also face negative outcomes

such as overcrowded living, housing issues, unemployment, loss of social and community networks, and other social problems such as crime and violence. If this demographic movement is not properly managed and planned, these same trends “can put a severe strain on urban systems: unleashing long-term stresses on their basic components and exposing their weaknesses to the disruptive impacts of multiple shocks”.

Living conditions of the urban population are far from equitable. For instance, some recent studies show that Gini Coefficient are usually higher in urban areas than the countries as a whole (Wagstaff 2002, CEPAL 2010, UN Habitat, 2012). The available evidence seems to indicate that material deprivations, as well as income poverty, disproportionately affects children and adolescents in urban areas. Although it is accurate to state that children living in urban areas are, on average, better off than their rural peers, it is also true that millions of children in urban areas struggle with poverty and have no access to the “urban advantage” (Barlett, 2008, Montgomery, 2009, Satterthwaite and Bartlett 2002). In fact, urban averages mask and make invisible the daily struggles to survive of millions of families in urban settings. This situation has clear negative implications for the effective realization of child rights and the possibilities children enjoy to develop their potential and contribute to society as full citizens.

Over the last few years, the number of studies focusing on urban inequities has significantly increased. These studies often include issues related to children and comparisons between countries and among regions (SITEAL, 2009 and 2010, UNDP, 2010, UN Habitat 2011, UNICEF 2016).

International studies on urban issues generally emphasize how the living conditions in slums- especially related to infrastructure and access to services- must be prioritized, as they constitute a determining factor in urban poverty, and has a direct impact on the well-being of individuals (UN Habitat 2003 and 2011, Cohen 2011, Cohen and Debowicz 2001). Another topic frequently analyzed is related to urban segregation (Veiga and Rivoir 2001, Veiga 2007, Villaça 2011) aiming to understand the links between society and urban space, or more precisely, determining the different ways in which people live depending on socio-economic status (De Pablos and Susino 2010).

These approaches have highlighted the fact that differences in living conditions among children and adolescents are a result of several factors, among them, economic inequality, lack of public policies, indifference, discrimination, and lack of long and medium term strategic urban planning. There are also several studies about children in urban settings, limited in scope, focusing on dimensions such as child labor (Mendonça and Rodrigues 2010) or crime and violence (Alvarez de la Torre et al, 2005; Waiselfisz 2008; Rizzini 2009). Some of these mostly qualitative studies provide a general overview of the situation under discussion but do not evaluate the factors behind intra-urban inequity.

In spite of the growing concerns related to child poverty and of the analyses on quality of life and well-being of children in developing countries, quantitative information is scarce. Although new studies present information on the differences between urban and rural populations (Gordon et al, 2003; ECLAC and UNICEF, 2010; SITEAL, 2010, UNICEF LACRO 2016), there is still much to learn about intra-urban inequalities.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) goals recognize the critical importance of promoting equity. This is mentioned in an explicit way with the adoption of a SDG 10 on inequality and the fact that the 17 goals and 169 associated targets that the world’s governments have committed to achieving are universal, linked by a pledge “that no one will be left behind ... and we will endeavor to reach the furthest behind first” represent a significant step forward. Moreover, achieving most of the goals by 2030 depends heavily on what will happen in urban areas (McKinsey Global Institute, 2011). The New Urban Agenda, adopted in 2016, also stresses the need to include equality in the center of the discussion.

Children and adolescents are not only one of most affected by urban inequities but also, crucially, they are the most important asset that societies have as agents of social change and peace. This is why, following the recommendations provided in Equity for Children report “Addressing Urban Inequities and Childhood”, it is essential to incorporate the improvement of children’s quality of life in the urban agenda. This process implies the need to recognize the particularities of growing up in that specific context, not as an isolated aspect, but as a crucial component for urban planning. Children’s knowledge and experience as urban citizens need to be incorporated in the discussion, consequently it implies to include them as key stakeholders.

### *Children in Urban Areas in Nigeria*

An estimated 85 million Nigerians now live in urban settlements—about half the total population and about double the 42.8 million estimated to live in urban areas in 2000 (World Bank, 2014). Nigeria’s urban population is still growing rapidly, at an average of 4.8 percent a year from 2000 to 2013. The urbanization level rose from 35 percent to 47 percent during this period, higher than the average urban population share of 37percent in Sub-Saharan Africa. Cities with a population of more than 300,000 doubled, from 21 to 42 (World Bank, 2016). By 2020 urban population is expected to rise to 55 percent of the total and by 2020 to 71 percent (278 million) (World Bank, 2016).

It is estimated that 66 percent of the urban population live in slums (UN-Habitat, 2014). In Lagos, up to 50 percent of the population lives in informal settlements (Ademiyuli and Solanke 2008, in Agunwamba, 2009) in some 200 different locations across the city (Gandy, 2006 in Amao, 2012).

However, the analysis of the situation of children in urban areas in Nigeria is hindered by the lack of data and evidence on the extent of urban poverty, intra-urban inequities and urban-specific vulnerabilities (UNICEF, 2016). While urbanization has reduced high levels of monetary poverty in cities and towns, the reduction has been limited. Urbanization in Nigeria is not planned or managed. It is not surprising, then, that it is inequitable, exclusionary and fragmented. Thus, as it is described below, many children are deprived of access to the most basic services, which puts their future development and safety at stake.

The urban advantage is lost to many city dwellers, as urban areas in Nigeria tend to have low access to piped water, sewerage, fixed line telephones and electricity and cities typically lack drainage, flood protection, or proper vehicle access and roads, especially in slums and informal settlements (UN-Habitat, 2014). All this combined with lack of barriers to access to health services affect heavily children's wellbeing. Admittedly, their situation is often better than in rural areas. Nevertheless, as it is seen in Table 1, there are still substantial constraints, in particular in terms of malnutrition and secondary schooling.

**Table 1: Basic Child Indicators in Nigeria (2016)**

	Nigeria	Urban	Rural	Girls	Boys
Birth registration	46.9	69.5	37.0	46.5	47.3
Stunting	22.8	10.3	23.2	18.9	20.6
Pre-Primary School Attendance	35.6	56.3	26.4	35.4	35.7
ITN	49.1	42.9	51.8	49.9	48.3
NAR Primary	60.9	80.0	52.5	59.2	62.6

NAR Secondary	46.9	66.4	37.7	46.2	47.4
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Source: MICS, 2016 ITN insecticide treated mosquito nets

## Methodology

The living conditions are a crucial aspect that set the framework, limitations, and opportunities for children's survival, development and social and economic realization. The living space and environment, the public services available and the social and community relations are central aspect of everyday life of any member of the family and particularly relevant for children.

Based on the indicators included in Nigeria MICS 2016 we defined three dimensions to classify households: 1) Overcrowding; 2) Quality of housing construction; and 3) Characteristics of the household related to available amenities, services, and environmental conditions. For each of these dimensions, a few indicators are used. For each of these indicators, a threshold of no deprivation was defined. Combining the presence of deprivation in each indicator, moderate and severe deprivation in each dimension is estimated. Combining the three dimensions households can be classified according to their overall housing conditions.

The indicators used in this research are similar to those used by many of the studies on multidimensional poverty, in particular child poverty (OPHI, 2015; CEPAL, 2014; CEPAL-UNICEF, 2010; Gordon et al 2003). They are also aligned with the definitions used in the UN-Habitat research on slums (UN-HABITAT (2002, 2008)).

The data used for this study is from the 2016 of Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey Data for Nigeria (NBS, 2016). As the scope and the interest of this study is to explore the intra-urban disparity of children living in different housing conditions in Nigeria in the two largest urban cities in the country (Kano and Lagos), the data for all individuals of ages younger than 18 years were extracted from the House List (HL) dataset, Children dataset, Women dataset and Household dataset in MICS 2016. As Kano and Lagos are populous and important states, they have been oversampled in the survey, which allows for further disaggregation than in the other states. This has allowed us to pick up just the Metropolitan Area of the cities of Kano and Lagos. We consider the housing conditions for all those household with at least one child 0 to 17 years old.

### *Overcrowding*

Persons per room was used as the indicator of overcrowding. Households with less than 3 persons per room were considered as not overcrowded, while households with 3 or 4 persons per room were considered as moderately deprived or moderately overcrowded. Households with 5 or more persons per room were classified as severely deprived or severely overcrowded (Table 2). In Kano, 22.8 percent of the child population lives in overcrowded households while 36.5 percent of the children live in overcrowded conditions in Lagos.

**Table 2: Percentage of children in overcrowded households**

	<b>Kano</b>	<b>Lagos</b>
Not Overcrowded	40.4	26.2
Moderate Overcrowded	36.8	37.3

Severely Overcrowded	22.8	36.5
Total	100.00	100.0

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

### *Housing Construction Quality*

Housing quality was measured based on 3 indicators namely: main material for floor, roof and wall. The elements to determine deprivation are listed, for each indicator, in the following tables.

**Table 3: Elements to determine deprivation of floor material**

Households were considered not deprived if the floor was primarily made of one of the following materials:	The following floor materials were used to classify a household as deprived:
Vinyl carpet	Earth / Sand
Ceramic tiles	Dung
Cement	Wood planks
Rug (wall to wall)	Palm / Bamboo
Vinyl tiles	
Parquet or polished wood	

**Table 4: Elements to determine deprivation of roof material**

Households were considered as not deprived if the roof was made of:	The following roof materials were used to classify a household as deprived:
Metal	Thatch/Palm leaf/Sod
Tin	Rustic mat
Zinc	Palm / Bamboo
Iron sheets	Wood planks
Wood	Cardboard / Plastic sheeting
Calamine	No Roof at all
Cement fiber	
Ceramic tiles	
Cement and Roofing shingles	

**Table 5: Elements to determine deprivation of wall material**

Households were considered as not deprived if the walls were made of:	The following wall materials were used to classify a household as deprived:
Cement	Cane / Palm / Trunks / Thatch
Stone with lime or cement	Dirt / Earth
Bricks, Cement blocks	Bamboo with mud

Covered adobe	Stone with mud
Wood planks and shingles	Uncovered adobe/Mud brick
	Plywood
	No walls

Households deprived in at least two of the three elements comprising housing quality (floor, roof and wall material) were considered Severely Deprived. Households suffering ‘only’ one of the deprivations were classified as Moderately Deprived. Households with no deprivation in any of the three elements were classified as Not Deprived. Three out four children in Kano and almost all of the ones in Lagos live in non-deprived households in terms of the quality of constructions materials.

**Table 6: Percentage of children in households deprived in terms of housing construction quality**

	Kano	Lagos
<b>Basic Indicators</b>		
Deprivation in terms of Roof	7.0	1.3
Floor	14.3	0.8
Wall	3.3	0.4
<b>Aggregate Summary of Housing Construction Quality</b>		
Not Deprived	78.4	97.9
Moderate	18.8	1.7
Severe	2.8	0.4

Source: Authors’ calculations based on MICS 2016

### *Housing Characteristics*

Four indicators were used to classify households according to their amenities and environmental conditions: Water (Main source of drinking water), time of roundtrip to fetch water (in minutes), Sanitation (Toilet facilities), and type of fuel used for cooking. Tables 7, 8, and 9, illustrate the elements used to consider households as deprived (or not) in each of these indicators.

**Table 7: Elements to determine deprivation of safe drinking water**

Households were classified as not deprived if water supply comes from:	The following sources of drinking water were used to classify a household as deprived:
Piped into dwelling	Unprotected well
Piped into compound, yard or plot	Protected spring
Piped to neighbor	Unprotected spring

Public tap / standpipe	Rainwater collection
Tube well	Tanker-truck
Borehole and Protected well	Cart with small tank / drum
	Stream, dam, lake, pond, canal, irrigation channel
	Bottled water
	Sachet (pure) water

In addition, if it takes more than 30 minutes (roundtrip), the household is regarded as deprived

**Table 8: Elements to determine deprivation of sanitation**

Households were classified as not deprived if sanitation consist of:	The following sources of sanitation were used to classify a household as deprived:
Flush to piped sewer system	Flush to somewhere else
Flush to septic tank	Flush to unknown place / Not sure / DK where
Flush to pit (latrine)	Pit latrine without slab / Open pit
Ventilated Improved Pit latrine (VIP)	Composting toilet
Pit latrine with slab	Bucket
	Hanging toilet
	Hanging latrine
	No facility, Bush, Field

**Table 9: Elements to determine deprivation of wall material**

Households were classified as not deprived if the main fuel for cooking is:	The following sources of cooking fuel were used to classify a household as deprived:
Electricity	Coal / Lignite
Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG)/ cylinder	Wood
Biogas	Straw / Shrubs / Grass
Kerosene	Animal dung
	Agricultural crop residue

Households deprived in 2 or 3 of these four elements were considered severely deprived (e.g. close to half the households in Kano), while households with 'only' 1 deprivation were considered moderately deprived (e.g. about two-thirds of the households in Lagos). Households with no deprivations in any indicator were classified as not deprived. About a fifth and a third of the children in Kano and Lagos respectively were estimated to live in households not deprived in terms of housing characteristics.

**Table 10: Percentage of children in households deprived in terms housing characteristics**

	<b>Kano</b>	<b>Lagos</b>
<b>Basic Indicators</b>		
Water Source	43.5	66.1
Water Time	15.7	6.2
Sanitation	38.9	6.8
Cooking Energy	40.1	1.1
<b>Aggregate Summary of Housing Characteristics</b>		
Not Deprived	22.0	29.7
Moderate	37.5	64.2
Severe	40.5	6.1

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

#### *Measurement of Overall Housing Condition*

Once moderate and severe deprivation is determined in each of the three dimensions, households can be classified in three groups. These groups consist of those households in acceptable living conditions, living in inadequate housing conditions, or suffering from unacceptable housing conditions.

Households without any deprivation in the three dimensions were classified as “Acceptable”. Households with any one deprivation (i.e. in any one, but only one, of the three dimensions) were classified as “Inadequate” while those suffering from two or more deprivations were considered as living in “Unacceptable” conditions. Very few children live in acceptable housing conditions, less than one in five in both Kano and Lagos<sup>1</sup>. While the majority of households can be considered to provide unacceptable housing conditions in Kano (55.2 of children live there), the situation in Lagos is marginally better with the majority of households suffering ‘only’ moderate deprivations and, thus, providing inadequate housing conditions to their children (55.3 of the children live there).

**Table 11: Percentage of children living an acceptable, inadequate, and unacceptable housing conditions**

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<sup>1</sup> This is not surprising. As it was mentioned above it is estimated that two-thirds of the Lagos population live in slums

Overall Housing Condition	Kano	Lagos
Acceptable	18.2	17.2
Inadequate	26.6	55.3
Unacceptable	55.2	27.5
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

## Results

In this section, results showing the impact of urban inequalities on children are presented. Indicators related to the life cycle of the child (from birth registration or secondary schools attendance) are presented. These indicators cover a range of basic social services and well-being outcomes. In all cases, disparities across households in acceptable, inadequate, and unacceptable conditions are highlighted.

In terms of the percentage of children (aged 5 years old or younger) whose birth has been registered, it can be observed that the situation in urban Kano and Lagos is better than the national average. Moreover, in Kano children living in acceptable housing conditions are registered at birth at a rate 50 percent higher than children living in unacceptable conditions.

**Table 12: Percentage of children whose birth was registered in metropolitan Kano and Lagos according to housing conditions**

	Nation-Wide	State – Wide	Urban Areas (State)	Metropolitan Areas (State)	Acceptable	Inadequate	Unacceptable
Kano	46.9	35.3	66.3	69.0	85.6	79.3	58.6
Lagos	46.9	82.3	83.0	84.5	100.0	89.7	83.3

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

A different situation attains in terms of the percentage of children (under five years of age) whose height is below the international norm (stunting<sup>2</sup>). Urban areas in Kano are just around the national average. Children in households with unacceptable living conditions suffer higher levels of stunting than the rest of the children in Kano metropolitan area. However, state-wide, in Lagos the percentage is about a tenth of the national average. Given the low rates (i.e. small number of cases), it is possible that the observed differences in children living in acceptable, inadequate, or unacceptable living conditions in Metropolitan Lagos may not be statistically significant<sup>3</sup>.

**Table 13: Percentage of children suffering from stunting in metropolitan Kano and Lagos according to housing conditions**

	Nation-	State -	Urban	Metropolitan	Acceptable	Inadequate	Unacceptable
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<sup>2</sup> I.e. their height is two standard deviations below the international norm for their age.

<sup>3</sup> Also, we cannot exclude the possibility that the actual value for children in acceptable and inadequate housing (reported as 0) may actually be higher than 0.025.

	Wide	Wide	Areas (State)	Areas (State)			
Kano	22.8	22.6	22.0	18.9	16.5	16.3	20.9
Lagos	22.8	2.7	2.1	2.2	0.0	0.0	2.5

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

Although sleeping under mosquito nets is not widely popular in Nigeria (just about 50% nation-wide for children under 5), in Kano the rate of utilization is relatively high (over 80%). The rate of utilization is even higher among children in urban areas and specifically among children living in acceptable housing conditions in Metropolitan Kano. The gradient in Metropolitan Lagos seems counterintuitive. One possibility is that given the better off households may not “feel” the need for nets as they take comfort in their relatively well conditioned house which may often include mosquito mesh in windows.

**Table 14: Percentage of children using insecticide treated mosquito nets (ITN) in metropolitan Kano and Lagos according to housing conditions**

	Nation- Wide	State – Wide	Urban Areas (State)	Metropolitan Areas (State)	Acceptable	Inadequate	Unacceptable
Kano	49.1	82.7	84.5	87.2	96.00	84.42	86.9
Lagos	49.1	39.1	38.2	71.8	64.0	68.8	89.4

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

In Kano Metropolitan area, the percentage of children under 5 years of age who are attending pre-primary school/Early Child Development centers is about the same as the national average. However, there are stark differences among children from households where living conditions are acceptable or unacceptable – the former more than doubling the latter. In Lagos Metropolitan area, the difference is not as high, given the high average attendance rate.

**Table 15: Percentage of children attending Pre-Primary School Education/ECD in metropolitan Kano and Lagos according to housing conditions**

	Nation- Wide	State – Wide	Urban Areas (State)	Metropolitan Areas (State)	Acceptable	Inadequate	Unacceptable
Kano	35.6	18.1	29.9	32.5	47.4	46.4	18.2
Lagos	35.6	86.5	86.5	85.6	100.0	94.1	86.3

Source: Authors' calculations based on MICS 2016

Children in both Metropolitan Kano and Metropolitan Lagos enjoy high level of both primary and secondary schooling. In particular children of primary school age in households providing acceptable living conditions, have almost 100 percent attendance rates. While in Kano (State-wide) the average net

attendance rate is below the national average, urban areas are higher than the national average and in Metropolitan Kano, the rate is almost 100 percent, with an intuitive gradient.

**Table 16: Percentage of children of primary school age attending Primary School (Net Attendance Rate) in metropolitan Kano and Lagos according to housing conditions**

State	Nation-Wide	State – Wide	Urban Areas (State)	Metropolitan Areas (State)	Acceptable	Inadequate	Unacceptable
Kano	60.9	54.8	72.9	96.2	99.0	93.7	96.2
Lagos	60.9	95.7	95.9	99.4	100.0	98.7	99.4

Source: Authors’ calculations based on MICS 2016

In terms of secondary schooling the gradient in Kano seems less intuitive. However, the differences are small and within the margin of error. This mean no major differences in net secondary school attendance for children in different households is observed. In Metropolitan Lagos, the better off children of secondary school age do seem to have an advantage over the other children. However, those living in inadequate or unacceptable housing conditions, seem to attend secondary schooling at the same rate.

**Table 17: Percentage of children of secondary school age attending Secondary School (Net Attendance Rate) in metropolitan Kano and Lagos according to housing conditions**

	Nation-Wide	State – Wide	Urban Areas (State)	Metropolitan Areas (State)	Acceptable	Inadequate	Unacceptable
Kano	46.9	42.3	67.0	88.7	88.8	87.1	89.5
Lagos	46.9	81.6	85.3	85.2	100.0	80.0	85.5

Source: Authors’ calculations based on MICS 2016

In Table 18 the results are summarized by simultaneously contrasting the relative and absolute gaps for each of the indicators analyzed along the life cycle of children and adolescents. Relative gaps are calculated as the ratio between the indicator for children in households with acceptable housing conditions and those in unacceptable housing conditions. Thus, a relative gap larger than one indicates the advantage of children in households with acceptable housing conditions compared to children in the other group. It is expressed as “how many more times” the outcome is likely among the better off children. A relative gap of 1 shows parity between the two groups. The absolute gap is the difference between the same groups and is expressed in percentage points. Equity is indicated by values close to 0.

It can be observed that although the differences (both in terms of absolute and relative gaps) in primary and secondary education in both Metropolitan Areas are relative small. This indicates that universal

education is close to a reality in those areas – as opposed to all urban areas or State-wide (which indicates the lagging situation in rural areas).

However, in “newer” services such as birth registration and Early Child Development/Pre-Primary Schooling, the gaps are wider. This is the case in both Metropolitan Areas.

As stunting is a bad outcome, the negative values in the absolute gap and the value lower than 1 in the relative gap indicate the advantage of children in households enjoying acceptable housing conditions. The counter-intuitive results for the percentage of children sleeping under insecticide treated mosquito nets in Lagos has been addressed in the previous section.

**Table 18: Summary of absolute and relative rural-urban and intra-urban gaps**

	Kano		Lagos	
	Absolute Gap	Relative Gap	Absolute Gap	Relative Gap
Birth Registration	27.0	1.5	16.7	1.2
Stunting	-4.4	0.8	-2.5	0
Insecticide Treated Nets	9.1	1.1	-1.4	0.8
ECD/Pre-primary school NAR	29.2	2.6	13.7	1.2
NAR Primary	2.8	1.0	0.6	1.0
NAR Secondary	-	1.0	14.5	1.2

Source: Authors’ calculations based on MICS 2016

## Conclusions

Three conclusions can be offered, based on these preliminary results. First, there are clear and often very large differences in favor of children from households with acceptable housing conditions. This is not a surprising result as it conforms to evidence from other similar studies in other regions. However, it is quantified for the first time for specific African cities.

Secondly, for several indicators (in particular traditional schooling) the gaps are not as large as they could have been expected to be. This may be the result of the relative widespread access to schooling in the metropolitan areas or the need to further disaggregation.

Thirdly, there seems to be a large difference between the metropolitan areas and other urban areas in the state. This is particularly striking in Kano.

Three further steps in the analysis are envisioned. One is to add more indicators. In particular, emphasis should be on indicators more specifically relevant for adolescents and not associated with the provision of services. These could include violence and HIV/AIDS knowledge. The second expansion of the analysis involves refining the classification and disaggregation of households. It is possible that three groups is not

sufficient and further disaggregation is needed (as long as the sample size allows it). This would lead to sensitivity analysis, which is the third step suggestion for future work.

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