

**AGENDA-SETTING IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS: A CASE
STUDY OF COMPACT CITIES**

By

KIM, Sojeong

THESIS

Submitted to

KDI School of Public Policy and Management

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

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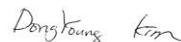
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ABSTRACT

AGENDA-SETTING IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF COMPACT CITIES

By

So-Jeong Kim

International organizations have played a large role in global society including its most critical role, agenda-setting. The agenda set by international organizations is highly influential to member countries. It is known that international organizations make decisions in very reasonable ways. This study examined the process of decision-making and agenda-setting in international organizations, particularly the UN and the OECD, through a case study of compact city policies. The concept of the compact city is a controversial issue, both in academic and practical fields, regarding urban planning policies. The OECD and the UN, however, have provided the form of the compact city as a recommendation for members. Based on content analysis of literature, including empirical studies, this study concludes that compact city policies are a typical example of the failure of agenda management in international organizations, and provides the implication that international organizations should set their agendas more carefully.

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INTRODUCTION

Global society has been complicated and has dealt with many controversial issues and topics. Under these globalized chaotic circumstances, most states regard international organization as significant groups which perform influential roles. One role is to arbitrate in disputes between countries, which may arise because of the connections between the policy of one state and the policies of other states. An example of an international organization that arbitrates such disputes is the World Trade Organization (WTO).

There are cases where international organizations make explicit recommendations to specific states, or where organizations have guided the direction of member states by setting an agenda or by prioritizing particular projects. The agenda that is determined assumes, in explicit and implicit ways, that member states will comply.

Topics concerning environments, such as sustainable development, have become the most important subject for the whole nations since the years. Under highlighted significance of preserving environments, international organizations have set agendas for coping with environmental problems. In academia, also, considerable researches have been conducted in each field, of which International Organization, such as the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the United Nations (UN), set the 'Compact Cities' one of the agenda and recommendable project. Each of research fields dispute over the efficacy and whether the concept of compact city, which is a form promoting urban compactness, is helpful for sustainable development with being beneficial to environments. In this study, the

importance and drawbacks of agenda-setting within international organizations are explored through a case study of ‘Compact Cities’

This study investigates the following questions:

- What is the process of agenda-setting in the International Organization and is it a reasonable process?
- Who has the biggest role and the most influential position for decision-making in the International Organization?
- Why does a member country follow the agenda of an international organization unequivocally without considering the effects on individual one country?
- Is the Compact city program proposed by OECD a worthwhile agenda to implement for all the member countries?
- Why did OECD and UNEP promote “compact city” as a proper policy for sustainable development despite serious controversies about its efficacy in academic discourse?

In chapter 2, an overview of international organizations and their roles in global society, particularly the United Nations and the OECD, are addressed. A literature review of agenda-setting and decision-making process regarding the compact city is examined in Chapter 3. Methodology in Chapter 4, a case study regarding the compact city policy as the agenda of international organizations and its result is described in Chapter 5. The conclusion of this study is in chapter 6.

II. International Organizations

2.1. Overview of International Organizations

International organizations are the official and sustainable structures that have been created by a voluntary agreement between the interests of two or more sovereign states and non-governmental actors for the purpose of pursuing the common interest of member countries (Archer 2001)

Most global governance including international organizations can be considered in respective characteristics (APCEIU 2013). The institutional design of governance, related to concentration and representativeness, is a vital subject of consideration. The Concentration is the issue of how many of the lower units in international organizations have a bureaucratic competition within discussing the specific concerns, and representativeness is the issue that member states allow a permanent member of corresponding organizations to represent some of the political authority. In this respect, the current international organizations have a feeble level of centralization and limited authority in regards to how representation has been delegated. The internal problems of international organizations, due to features such as the lower efficiency of operations and the weakening accountability of the results, ultimately demonstrate a vulnerable aspect regarding managing supranational issues.

International organizations, however, have discrimination towards the other governance systems on a level of institutionalization and comprehensiveness. Especially as they have better structures in terms of issues such as efficiency, accountability, and predictability. International organizations are used together with the terms, international regime or international institution with more comprehensive meaning. In a strict way, international organizations have a formal organization, a Secretariat with responsibility for administrative duties, and procedures and

qualifications for acceptance to be member states. The obligations and rights of members have also been stipulated, and the decision-making process for agenda-setting between members has been documented.

International organizations have been constituted by sovereign states, which means that they are highly institutionalized intergovernmental organizations operated by delegacy from each state (Karns and Mingst 2004). Intergovernmental organizations become operative in several states after being formed in a way that at least three states sign the official inter-state agreement. These criteria have its origin in the resolution of the United Nations Economic and Social Council 288(X) 1950, according to the resolution; international organizations without inter-governmental treaty are regarded as non-governmental organizations (UN 1950). Intergovernmental organizations are divided into global intergovernmental organizations and regional intergovernmental organizations, or bilateral intergovernmental organizations by the scope of activities and objectives. Most intergovernmental organizations have formed so as to pursue national interests of members, not idealistic objectives. A typical global intergovernmental organization is the United Nations. The European Union (EU) and Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) are the regional intergovernmental organizations and these member states also take diplomatic activities for their national interests within the framework of the international organizations (APCEIU 2013).

International organizations, however, has no longer been defined as exclusive organization for sovereign states due to the recent rapid increase of non-governmental organizations. Non-governmental organizations are private and voluntarily organizations so as to pursue the common objectives with members as individuals or organizations (Karns and Mingst 2004). Non-governmental organizations are much

more specialized in each functional field and pursue a variety of purposes. Non-governmental organizations inquire into a difficult, very special side values or universal values thoroughly, which these values are hardly returned to interests of sovereign states. Also, non-governmental organizations, for this purpose, endeavor to add to the pressure or to persuade individuals, government, intergovernmental organizations, or enterprises.

In recent years, businesses managed by governments or intergovernmental organizations have been delegated or subcontracted to non-governmental organizations (Kaldor 2003). For instance, non-governmental organizations stand in the field of development cooperation programs for developing countries. Providing disaster relief for regions that are considered to be under humanitarian crises, they also provide relief for environmentally polluted areas. In short, non-governmental organizations are operated by individuals or non-states communities; nevertheless these organizations exist in the public area of the international society regarding performing public act. They also link diverse levels of global governance and expand the linkages.

2.2. International Organization and Norms

International norms have a role providing the scope of rights and obligations for sovereign states and relevant actors in a reality of international legal order is hardly discipline the international society (APCEIU 2013). The discussion of the emergence of international norms is considered to be two different ideas. The first idea is that international norms have been diffused by ruling ideology of sovereign states in authoritative hierarchical environment. Another case is that the international norms are considered to be the results of agreements that are generated in a horizontal world

system (Shelton 2000).

International norms provide a foundation that humanitarian agencies can be respected in the international society. International norms and international rules also provide legitimacy when international organizations negotiate for the humanitarian act or agreement. Among the significant international organizations providing the international norms, the United Nations accords the possibility of respecting the agency for humanitarian activity based on international norms. The international organizations, thus, have become even more important actors for establishing the order with legitimacy in the international society by diffusing international norms.

The norms with strong binding force among international norms can be found in international law. In general, international law has regulated the relations between states as the legal norms with at least a series of binding force. The binding force of international law explains why the sovereign states which are critical actors share the specific rights, obligations or prerogatives with other states in the international society. The recent international law is not only about the regulations for the act between sovereign states, which gradually expanded its area, but influences to international organizations.

The non-binding norms or soft law are frequently shown in cases; situations that multilateral agreements between states having binding forces are difficult to make or a tough situation where hardly exerting the binding force due to conflicts between interests of each state. The non-binding norms, thus, are referred as declaration, principles, guidelines, codes of conducts, or frameworks and exert influence to government and private areas, notwithstanding there is no legally binding. In a part of international environment protection, the non-binding norms are the critical part of the effort to arrive at an agreement within the conflicts of interests between sovereign

states.

International environmental problems, after the end of the cold war, have developed a subject of multilateral diplomacy through a full-fledged organization, such as the United Nations, and become an international issue discussing various aspects from simple environment protection to sustainable development. The conflicts of interests between developing countries pursuing the development and developed countries emphasizing environmental protection become aggravated within environmental issues. These conflicts between developing and developed countries confirm that cooperation and coordination through international organizations are more important than ever before.

The importance of environmental problems is growing more as international issues with various changes in international society. Discussion on environmental problems, such as destruction of the ozone layer, global warming, sea level rise, and biodiversity issues are expanded to global coexistence issues, not merely for environmental protection. Such environmental issues become urgent international problems needed cooperation of the international community. Thus the roles of the international organization dealing with environmental problems become more important.

Environment issues, unlike the issues of human rights, conflict between developed and developing countries persistently due to also related to development issues. Environmental protection has a difficulty in acquiring a legal binding as the international norms for this reason. In this respect, the agenda or guideline set by international organizations are dominant and influential to member states.

2.3. Roles of the United Nations.

International organizations in charge of environmental issues have been explosively established in the late 20th century when concerns that environmental pollution affecting to the ecosystem are internationally proliferated after scientist observe signs of climate change and global warming. The United Nations established the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) which is responsible for environmental problems in the 1970s within supranational aspects and made an important contribution to resolving problems.

Swedish government which showed the most active interest in environmental issues raised a need for the discussion of the environment within the United Nations (Johnson 2012). On the proposal of the Swedish Government, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) adopted a resolution on problems of the human environment in 1968 as the agenda of the General Assembly.

Following the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972, the 27th United Nations General Assembly resolution 2997(XXVII), adopted the declaration on human environment that the conflict over environmental issues reached at a level that can intimidate the existence of the humanity, established UNEP as the United Nations agency in charge of environmental issues. Thus, environment issues involved the various international organization in the United Nations can be systematically discussed through UNEP.

Since its establishment, UNEP has performed important roles as a catalyst, authoritative advocates, and educators to promote the sustainable development for the global environment through the declaration with various international conferences.

Work of UNEP can be mainly divided into three parts. The first is to assess the environment status and trends at global, national and regional dimensions. The second

is to develop the necessary international or national means to solve the environment problems. The last one is to strengthen the system for sagacious management of the environment. For these works, UNEP prescribes the obligations: early warning and assessment, policy development and legislation, implementation of the environment policy, development of the technology, industry studies, regional cooperation, disclosure of the information, and an assistance of the Global Environment Fund (GEF).

UNEP sets and promotes six main subjects; the first is Climate Change with the enhancement of capability that can integrate countermeasures for climate change in the development process of the states, particularly developing countries. The second is Disasters and Conflicts. To minimize the threat to humanity resulting from existing, potential, natural, and fictitious environmental causes is the issue. The third is Ecosystem Management. To ensure the utilization of ecological approach to overall management of land, water, and critical resources to promote the sustainable usage and preservation is the subject. The fourth is Environmental Governance. It is indispensable for solving environment problems that interaction between environment governance in regional, national, and global dimensions. The fifth is Chemicals and Wastes. To minimize the impact of toxic substances and wastes on the environment and human is the point. The last is Resource Efficiency. To strengthen the global endeavor for natural resources to be produced, processed, and consumed in a more sustainable manner is the subject.

In addition to the main issues, UNEP implements several projects; UNEP supports investment and expenditure for policy are adjusted to the fields of clean technology, renewable energy, water resource services, waste management, green transportation, green building and urban planning, sustainable agriculture, and forestry.

The United Nations founded United Nation Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) in 1978. As mandated by the UN General Assembly to manage the urban growth, UN-Habitat props up urban development and management cooperating with central governments, city governments, and non-governmental organizations. UN-Habitat focused on environment management on settlements counteracting rapid urban growth from 1978 to 1997. After adopted Habitat agenda by 171 countries in the UN General Assembly in 1996, UN-Habitat has recognized human settlements environment as a major subject of development and approached to more comprehensive urban development management. In 2002 January, the UN Center for Human Settlement (UNCHS) reorganized to UN-Habitat, which strategically supports UN-Habitat Agenda and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

After the past decade and a half, adopted in September 2015, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) starts in January 2016, replacing the MDGs. According to SDGs, especially the urban SDG, by the United Nations, UN-Habitat set New Urban Agenda described as six areas including twenty-two issue papers and ten policy units. In the New Urban Agenda, controlling the urban structure in the period of rapid urbanization is addressed as one of the most significant subjects for generations. Among the urban forms, UN-Habitat promotes the Compact City for a reason that compactness is an important feature of sustainable cities.

2.4. Roles of the OECD

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is officially inaugurated on September 30 1961, and inherited from the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC), which is made in 1948 as an adjustment mechanism for implementing the Marshall Plan. OEEC headquartered in Paris, France

and sixteen Western European countries participated as a founding member; afterwards Germany and Spain have been added. In 1960 December, a total of twenty countries, eighteen OEEC member states, the United States, and Canada signed the agreement establishing OECD as founding members.

Typical works of OECD is to form an agreement on what is the most efficient method to achieve specific public policy objectives with recognizing the experiences of other states, i.e. typical cases, to improve the economic situations of members (Simmons et al. 2006). These processes correspond to the policy diffusion through the learning the experiences of other states.

The first role of the OECD as a diffusion policy mechanism is a place of the policy dialogue. The OECD exchanges the experience and opinions of member states following the stepwise process; grasping the common interests, deriving the exemplary practices and measures, and implementing policies. The second is that the OECD as a device of the policy collaboration coordinates the international policies promoting the mutual improvement based on standards derived from policy dialogue of member states. Thirdly, the OECD induces improvement or adjustment of policy through peer pressure; the OECD forms the policy recommendations and international treaties and examines the institutions and policies of each member states. Fourth, policy transfer work for non-member is the significant role. In response to changes in the international political and economic structures, the OECD initiates developing countries and emerging economies into experiences, values, and standards of policies what the OECD pursues. Fifth, the OECD functions as a device of policy diffusion to civil society. The OECD collects various opinions from policy discussion with international non-government organizations representing company and labor unions of members and disseminates the OECD standards and policies through the OECD

reports.

The diffusion policy function of the OECD is supported as three roles, idea producer, policy evaluator, a data provider (Marcussen 2004). First, the OECD generates new ideas through discourses, singles out important issues and sets agenda by official reports, academic papers, and internal policy proposals. Experts with specialized knowledge work in the many of the committee under the OECD and present the rationale and direction of policy dialogue through empirical and professional analysis (Stone 1989). In short, the OECD determines a route for member states and stakeholder groups as defining causation of social facts within framework process and subject selection. Also, it can highly influence on the national and international discussion on the policy issues (Beyeler 2004). In the national level, new ideas created by the OECD seem to be more appropriate alternative theory and induce policy changes. Social actors change their recognition when after believing the previous model or point of view produced insufficient policy achievement. Thus, the ideas of the OECD have a decisive effect on what policies are taken into account and how to handle significant international issues.

Secondly, the OECD evaluates the policies of member states through the peer review process. The peer review system is a mechanism; developing and disseminating the knowledge between members regarding success or failure of the policy of a particular country. The OECD extensively utilizes the peer review system as a part of the multilateral monitoring system to induce cooperation when there is no strict discipline and sanctions. Furthermore, the peer review has been applied in most of the OECD business areas since the high level of trust between the members is formed. In this regard, the OECD not clarifies relevant policy issues, but recommends measures that members take (Pagani 2002).

In this case, roles of the Secretariat are important, since the OECD Secretariat practically manage the whole process of peer review (Schuller 2005). The Secretariat suggest particular countries to examine the policy recommendation, elects the review committee, conducts a personal visit during the review period and prepares publications (Martens 2007). Such policy recommendations affect national policies of member states since the OECD peer review selects the exemplary experiences and policies of the members through the process comparing different policies and estimating relative legitimacy (Schafer 2006).

Third, the OECD generates and analyzes large-scale data and indicators as general data producer except materials of particular countries made in the peer review process. The indicators evaluate and rank countries in aspects of policy results as a comparative study (Martens 2007). It is a useful means to connect the input and output indicators for determining whether a decision of national policy successes or not. In most cases, the OECD has collected data from member states and other international organizations, sometimes creating new data by its calculation method (Martens and Jakobi 2010). This data set of the OECD draws a lot of attention every time and pressures countries to change the policy when the data shows unfavorable results.

Within the OECD, “the Environment Directorate helps member countries to design and implement efficient, effective policies to address environmental problems and to manage natural resources in a sustainable way” (OECD 2008). The OECD has proposed the compact city policy as one of the solutions for building sustainable urban form based on previous policies of member countries.

III. Literature Review

3.1. Agenda-Setting

Agenda setting is a process that problems and alternative methods are examined by officials attaining public and elite concern (Birkland 2007). After recognizing diverse problems and issues, the second step is to consider whether the perceived problem would be the agenda for public actions (Werner and Wegrich 2006). Problem recognition and agenda setting are political processes where the attention of political groups is attached to relevant problems (Werner and Wegrich 2006). However, since society or political institutions have limited capacity to deal with problems, group strife for setting the agenda is intense (Hilgartner and Bosk 1988). Groups should ensure their issues and problems to be at the forefront of limited space of the agenda (Cobb and Ross 1997).

The agenda is defined as “a list of subjects or problems to which government officials and people outside of government closely associated with those officials, are paying some serious attention to at any given time” (Kingdon, 1995) At all level of administrative works, the agenda exist. Thus, every part of government has assortments of issues which having possibilities of discussion and consideration for selection. All ideas and issues are classified in accordance with the difference in the extent of concern and decision to implement or reject.

The largest agenda scope is agenda universe, in which all ideas are contained that can be raised and discussed in every society and political system. Inside of the agenda universe, the systemic agenda consists of all issues that political members perceive as deserving public attention and implying matters “within the legitimate jurisdiction of existing governmental authority” (Cobb and Elder 1983). A subset of the systemic agenda is the institutional agenda, which is “that list of items explicitly

up for the active and serious consideration of authoritative decision makers”. The limited capacity of time and resources within any institutions makes only limited issues reach the institutional agenda from the systemic agenda.

Furthermore, it is hard for some agendas to achieve institutional status or a more forward status; there are two reasons (Gupta 2001). First, the level of conflict is a matter. Some issues have high potential of conflict in society; particularly there are particular winners and losers within issues. Managing conflicts in society is a fundamental objective of politics. There is, for instance, the problem of gun control. There is a group that believes that banning guns can reduce violence; however, others assert that owning guns is their right. These two viewpoints may provoke huge conflicts, so, both political parties refuse to set the agenda forward. Second, the saliency; to catch attention is an important factor determining an agenda’s status. The issue having a high level of saliency and low level of conflict has the best chance of being decided on. The issues having low level of saliency, however, and high level of conflict has the worst chance of getting on the decision agenda (Kraft and Furlong 2010).

Among the institutional agenda, the agenda containing practical items that government acts upon is the decision agenda. As reaching from agenda universe to decision agenda, conflicts continue and even intensify, since conflicts expand when a decision reaches to a particular higher administrative level. The reason why conflicts continue during all agenda levels is because there are actors and stakeholders.

In every process of agenda-setting, also, there are stakeholders. Freeman defines a stakeholder as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives” (Freeman 1984:46). Within interest disputes, interactions between stakeholders show conflict, compromise, delay, and

abandonment of decisions. The conflicts are provoked when respective stakeholders attempt to achieve only their interests. In the circumstance of conflict, the level of importance in decision-making, power between stakeholders, and position in the organizations are critical factors (Ruble and Thomas 1976). The capability for stakeholders to influence agenda setting and policy is not merely a function of what group argues most persuasively, but possesses more power to influence on policy debates. It is significant to consider the power in agenda setting, since it can support explanations of how groups compete to access the agenda for their interests (Birkland 2007).

In the process of co-ordination and compromise, respective stakeholders make the agreement together through official or unofficial discussions based on their policy alternatives. The process is made directly by individuals or the government agency, stakeholders or civil society, either individually or collectively exhibiting leadership, combining various opinions and inducing the solutions (Bartunek 1988). Related to non-selection, corresponding non-selection means that a decision-maker does not declare intention in a given time. In its category, delay and abandonment of decision-making, non-consistency of policies exist. The delay in decision-making is a strategic delay; while extending the maximum delay, it is to hold the decision. For instance, states aim to delay to seek ways to adapt a particular program that is in need to the states. The abandonment of the decision is that policy makers give up their privileges and turn over privileges to higher or lower institutions. The non-consistency of policy indicates that decision-makers implement the opposite policy and abandon existing policy in the middle of implementation since the existing policy encounters opposition. The policy balance is to go back and forth without stability.

Table1. Summary of Additional Literature regarding Agenda and International Organizations

Year	Author	Title	Issues of Studies
1976	Cobb, Ross, and Ross.	“Agenda Building as a Comparative Political Process”	This paper explained two types of agendas: the public agenda and the formal agenda and models describing agenda-building. Also, the study described examples of agenda models within comparative politics.
1986	Kratochwil and Ruggie	“International Organization: A State of the Art on an Art of the State”	This paper explored the evolution of international organization and critiqued the prevalent practice in international organization regimes.
1987	Haggard and Simmons	“Theories of International Regimes”	This paper emphasized the international regimes influence each country’s policy process and political decisions and importance of international cooperation and interdependence between international or foreign policy and domestic politics.
1993	Finnemore	“International organizations as teachers of norms: the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization and science policy”	This paper argued that external forces or new norms as reflections of the international organizations make specific states their structures within examples of UNESCO.
1996	Tsebelis and Garrett	“Agenda Setting Power, Power Indices, and Decision Making in the European Union”	This paper explored two methods of policy-making frameworks: power index analyses and institutional analyses in comparative ways. The authors argued that institutional method works better than power index method.
1997	Legro	“Which Norms Matter? Revisiting the “Failure” of Internationalism”	This paper argued “Norms matter” and criticized the former literature about not well-structured norms. Also, this paper showed the shortcomings of following the international norms unconditionally through

			examples of World War II.
	Meyer, Boli, Thomas, and Ramirez	“World Society and the Nation-State”	This paper analyzed “nation-state” as the international organizations with four topics.
1999	Barnett and Finnemore	“The Politics, Power, and Pathologies of International Organizations”	Do international organizations act or create the effect what they are intended before creation? This paper argued that the purpose and way of the international organizations should be reconsidered in empirical manner.
2003	Pollack	“Delegation, Agency, and Agenda Setting in the European Community”	This paper explained agenda setting of supranational organization and agency with distinguishment between setting of formal agenda and informal agenda in European Community.
2004	Wanta, Golan, and Lee.	“Agenda Setting and International News: Media Influence on Public Perceptions of Foreign Nations”	This paper explained the more media coverage of specific one country, the public of the nations perceived the foreign country is essential. The negative coverage effects one country’s perception negatively. The positive coverage was ineffective.
2007	Betsill and Corell	“NGO Diplomacy, Chapter 1: Introduction to NGO Diplomacy”	The NGOs (Nongovernmental Organizations) have influential position for decision-making in international process, especially sustainable development related to environment issues. The editor explained the importance of NGO role and systematic analyses.
2012	Martin and Simmons	“International Organizations and Institutions”	This paper described international organizations and institutions terms through past literature.

3.2. Agenda-Setting in International Organizations.

International organizations depend on conventional voting procedures in organizations where to make decisions. Proposals for agenda or projects as draft resolution are put to the decision members of the organization, such as the General Assembly or the Security Council, which can be adopted and rejected (Baehr and Gordenker 2005). Some qualified majority may be required in this voting system.

In this manner, as most public groups in democratic states make decisions, it seems reasonable that international organizations follow the same majority voting procedure. Nevertheless, international organizations relatively recently practice democratic voting system and doubts about its utility have not disappeared. This majority vote applies legally binding and non-binding resolutions. When organizations handle issues which contain interests of states, voting disposition becomes much more critical to those states.

Voting problems in international organizations not surprisingly have engaged the public attention and censure. The United Nations applies the principle of equality between members. Relative power functions to condition international relations and international organizations.

3.2.1. UNEP

The highest decision-making body in UNEP is UNEP Governing Council and Global Ministerial Environment Forum. The UNEP Governing Council is composed of fifty-eight directors of the four-year term, every two years held in Nairobi, Kenya in which the Secretariat is located, and results of decision making are reported to the General Assembly through the United Nations Economic and Social Council. The biennial special session is convened between the regular sessions since 2000, in fact,

the Council is held every year

The governance of UNEP has been fundamentally changed after the creation of the United Nations Environment Assembly (UNEA) in 2014. The UNEA was established in accordance with requirements of global leaders attending the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, Rio +20, in Brazil in 2012. The members of the Council of the United Nations recommended that the board of directors would be displaced by UNEA with a qualification of universal member states as a follow-up measure in the United Nations General Assembly in 2013. The United Nations General Assembly adopted the resolution (A / RES / 67/251) which reflected the recommendations, and consequently 193 member states, observers, and other stakeholders take part in the discussion and decision-making of issues that affect the environment and sustainability.

The purpose of UNEA is to strengthen the UNEP as a leadership authority setting environment agenda by granting universal membership authority to the board of directors. The authority to UNEA involves strategic decision making, political instruction, and encouragement of science policy interface. UNEA is held in Nairobi, Kenya where UNEP headquarters is every two years.

3.2.2. OECD

The OECD makes decisions through the consensus of 34 member states in principle. The highest decision-making body is the Council, which determines by suggestions raised by the committee of the umbrella of the Council and its results. The OECD applies different decision-making method by classifying the issues which are the subject of decision-making into four categories since governance structure reform of June 2006.

The method of decision-making is classified into the agreement which is consensus process, qualified majority voting (QMV) introduced in 2004, and a point. First of all, the agreement means the consensus including the level of there is no situation that any of the member states explicitly oppose a bill, which means all member states concur with the bill. Silence is regarded as consent in this case. Secondly, the conditional majority vote is the case that member states which are responsible for 60 percent of Part 1 budget consent a bill, but at least there is no opposition of more than three members representing 25 percent of Part 1 budget. Third, a point is the method that projects directly brought in by the suggestion of offices of the Council can be adopted by the Council without discussion. On the other hand, b point is a method that requires the discussion procedure of the Council.

Issues are applied differently in each decision-making process. The first one is the fundamental issue, which is a matter to be determined consensus in the Council, such as the matter tinged with political nature or imposed an obligation on members, generally brought in based on b point system that requires the discussion of the Council. Second, the delegated and the agreement issues are cases which are final decision that the permanent council decides through consensus after mandated from the Council. Third, the particular case contains matters that can be determined through the conditional majority vote in the Council and relevant permanent committee and cases that the permanent committee is entrusted and makes the final decision in the majority vote. Fourth, the usual case that all matters which are not included in the three categories described above, which is tabled to the Council by a point system after securing considerable support in the permanent council. However, devices for protecting the interest of members are a mechanism that the Council discusses again only when there is a request of more than 15 percent of all member states and another

safety device mechanism discussed on the Special Council when vital interests of members are violated.

3.3 Agenda-Setting of Compact City

As the environment problems have risen in prominence, a term “sustainable development” has emerged in society and becomes widely used. The term ‘sustainable development’ entered into policy fields after the report of the Brundtland Commission about the global environment and development in 1987 (WCED 1987). The WCED was a body mandated by the United Nations General Assembly as concerns about deteriorating human and natural environments ascended. It considered the development in the environmental aspects respectively from economic, political and social perspectives. Following the issues surrounding the environment problems and sustainable development, the international organizations present the agenda regarding sustainability. The agenda for urban form has become increasingly prominent as political agendas since the relationship between urban form and sustainability has been strongly linked (Dempsey et al. 2009). Furthermore, a United Nations task team reported to the secretary-general that “70 percent of the world’s population will be living in cities” in 2012 (UN 2012). The OECD also reports that “More than half of the world’s population now lives in cities” (OECD 2014). As a result, urban development policies are issues in the international organizations.

In the process of setting the agenda for urban development, the OECD and UN agencies selects and bolsters the urban form, ‘Compact City’. The United Nations set the agenda of the compact city in the New Urban Agenda, but before understanding the new urban agenda, the earlier version, the old urban agenda, should be explored. The current thought of the United Nations on global urbanization is summarized in

the Istanbul Declaration on Human Settlements, which is Habitat Agenda that documented based upon the agreement in 1996 at the Habitat II Conference. The Declaration highlights adequate shelter for all people and sustainable settlements for human living in the urbanizing world. Since the Istanbul declaration, over 100 states have adopted relevant policies to adequate housing and sustainable settlements. However, international aid organizations and development agencies have constantly reduced their investments in cities and cut their urban programmes.

The Habitat Agenda has broadly influenced within the United Nations, also worked for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to achieve the critical target “cities without slums”. The Habitat Agenda and MDGs focused on eradicating poverty and adequate shelter for the slum dwellers, less in urban issues since much people lived in the rural area as well as the urban area. The follow-up agenda to the MDGs, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the Post-2015 Development Agenda more focused on urban development. It is also considered as the broader version of the agenda set by the UN-Habitat.

The relationship between urbanization and development is underlined in the New Urban Agenda, which also has the target of sustainable development. The term “development enablers” and “operational enablers” are particularly highlighted in the New Urban Agenda. These two factors are regarded as reinforcement of urbanization and sustainable development.

The development enablers can be considered as a framework to guide development policy; as examples of development enablers, it includes national urban policy, laws, governmental institutions, and the urban economy in the New Urban Agenda. The operational enablers, on the other hand, target to shore up the sustainable development, concerning resource management and outcomes land use patterns. The

three explicitly principles for planning sustainable cities as operational enablers, the “three-legged approach,” are referred to by the UN-Habitat: “Rules and Regulations” containing regulations on public space, “Urban Design” which is urban planning, and “Financial Plan” construed as local fiscal systems.

As promoting all member states to plan sustainable cities, the Executive Director of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) at the level of Undersecretary-General by the United Nations General Assembly, Joan Clos emphasized the compactness and the compact city. The United Nations has highlighted the compact city in the official reports. “*United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat)*” suggest compact cities as more sustainable spatial forms in the UN-Habitat report, “*Planning Sustainable Cities: Global Report on Human Settlements 2009.*”

Highlighting the importance of transport planning, in the report; “*People and Mobility: Promoting non-motorised transport options and compact cities as complements to public transport 2011,*” illustrates non-motorised transport and compact cities are vital components for planning sustainable transport systems. The concept of the compact city is more intensively promoted in the report, “*Urban Patterns for a Green Economy: Leveraging Density 2012*”. This guide explains what the compact city is in detail and how it works as a sustainable urban form promoting a green economy in both the developed and developing cities. In the report, “*Planning and Design for Sustainable Urban Mobility: Global Report on Human Settlements 2013,*” emphasizes the urban transport planning with focusing on accessibility and mixed land-use within the compact city.

The sustainable urbanization, urban forms, and housing agenda are bolstered by the United Nations agencies. The United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP),

since UN-Habitat was established at the behest of UNEP, is one. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is another, since housing and urbanization denote the development for developing countries. As the recent problems of refugees affecting Europe shown in international society, to create and renew the places in cities are focused and led by with International Organization of Migration (IOM).

The OECD has much more attention to the compact city compared to the other international organizations including the United Nations. *“OECD Regional Development Working Papers: Competitive Cities and Climate Change 2009”* promotes to reinforcing urban policies such as compact city and compact growth and emphasized well-designed urban services are a crucial part to effective compact cities policies. *The paper, “Regional Development at the Core of Green Growth: Main Issues for Discussion 2010”*, illustrates how the concept of the compact city can contribute to green growth. In the OECD Workshop paper, *“Green Cities: New Approaches to Confronting Climate Change 2009”*, Toyama City is introduced as a case of promoting Compact city formation in Japan and São Paulo, Brazil and Mexico also plan compact cities to combat climate change in developing countries.

The OECD had implemented the three-year project applying the policies of the compact city to member countries, following the Declaration on Green Growth in 2009. The project was conducted in collaboration with the Green Cities Programme of the Public Governance and Territorial Development Directorate (OECD 2012). After the final report of the OECD project on the compact city, the OECD presents some reports about the compact city, but the tone of the report has changed by degrees.

“Environment Working Paper No.56—Mobilising private investment in sustainable transport: the case of land-based passage transport infrastructure 2013” proposes compact cities as an example of urban planning for sustainable development

and describes the characteristics of compact cities. The paper, “*The People’s Republic of China—Avoiding the Middle-Income Trap: Policies for Sustained and Inclusive Growth 2013*” promotes policies over each sector. In the part of urbanization and sustainable development, compact city is described as the urban form embodying environmental economic and social benefits, same as in “*the OECD Economic Department Working Papers No. 1145—Deconstructing Canada’s Housing Markets: Finance, Affordability and Urban Sprawl 2014*”. However, in the paper, “*Working Party on Integrating Environmental and Economic Policies: Exploring the Effect of Urban Structure on Individual Well-Being 2015*”, the OECD project on Environmental Policy and Individual Change (EPIC) conducted household surveys and founded that “city-level compactness has a negative association with life satisfaction.”

IV. Methodology

In this study, qualitative research method is conducted to figure out whether international organizations set agendas as best decisions within reasonable ways by case study of “compact city”. The case study is conducted by content analysis of literature related to compact city, since the international organization make decisions in company with academic studies. Based on highly cited 25 previous researches, this paper classifies the literature in accordance with their tones regarding environmental and social aspects, respectively, examines trends of literature tones, comparing the decision-making within international organizations.

V. Case Study—Compact City

5.1 Compact City

The urban form, Compact City, is opposite form of urban sprawl (Neuman 2005). The urban sprawl is defined as characteristics of low density, unlimited extension, and leapfrog development. The compact city comes out as a countermeasure to uncontrolled outward urban extension and protecting the environment concurrently with pursuing sustainable development. The compact city is defined as the urban form with high density development in the proximity, connected spaces through the public transit, and intensified proximity to public service and occupation (Gagné et al. 2012). Proponents claim that the compact city is energy efficient and good for the environment by less polluting, since compact city dweller has high proximity to work and shops by walking or taking transit. According to Borrego, more compact cities have better air quality in the urban area with mixed land use compared to dispersed cities. The study, however, is simulation works with creating three imaginary cities: The Disperse City, the Corridor City, and the Compact City.

Burton assumes that the compact city is classified into “high-density city”, “mixed-used city”, and “intensified city” (Burton 2000). The former two categories are relevant to form, but the last one focuses on a process of making cities more compact. All three categories are relevant factors to develop the compact city, but in some cases, each factor is disassociated from what the compactness of city pursues. The discussion of the compact city is continued pros and cons in the academia, policy making process, planning and other similar venues (Gordon and Richardson 1997).

Williams, Burton, and Jenks (2000) found that there are no conclusive evidence that high densities are related to the reduced personal automobile trip which used a

reason why supports the concept of compact city. The short trips within limited boundary might decrease, on the other hand, distance for traveling to specialized employment, leisure activity, or distinct shopping are independent to urban density which can be construed as the compact city. The city design only cannot reduce demands of energy-rich transit with growth in personal automobile, airplane travel (Neuman 2005).

Breheny also found that weak relationship between urban densities and transportation use (Breheny 1995). Travel is internationally more influenced by fuel prices and personal income, not density rates (Hall 2001). Newman and Kenworthy also found that American and Australian cities consumed more gasoline compared to European cities, yet gasoline price in the United States is significantly cheaper.

Gordon argued that there is no specific adequate evidence of compact development is efficient and sustainable for the environment (Gordon 1997). The Real Estate Research Corporation (RERC) issued a paper, "The Cost of Urban Sprawl" in 1974 and the issue continues to be approved and quoted in many fields, particularly nonacademic area. The data from Nationwide Personal Transportation Study (NPTS) revealed the error of the paper of RERC. RERC presumed that living patterns with low density sprawl generated to travel more than 60 percent than high density living patterns (Gordon 1997).

Total energy use decreases as the density is higher until "a certain point", on the other hand, the total energy use increases again at much higher density levels (Holden and Norland 2005). Empirical studies found same patterns between energy consumption and city size in Norway, England, and Sweden. According to Holden (2005), extreme compact city form is unrealistic, moreover undesirable. By offering different form of compact cities, the concept of decentralized concentration can avoid

extreme densities shown in monolithic compact city, maximizing advantages and minimizing disadvantages. Another point in the environmental aspects is that the urban compactness does not influence on environmental attributes significantly, but trivial (Chen 2008). All complicated variables of climatic, social, economic, institutional factors are functioned in environmental quality or urban area. The influence of density aspects in urban compactness is overstated.

A few literature cover the economic effect of compact city policies, which may be interpret that there is no particular accorded method and hard to be measured in economical way. The argument that the compact city is good for economic growth has flawed because not considering the economic loss from social equity problems.

Sustainable development in urban forms which the compact city pursues should cover not environmental fields, but also social sustainability, well-being and livability. High density area has trade-off between congestion problems and anticipated agglomeration benefits. According to Dempsey (2012), survey respondents reported that residents in high density area are more likely to use social sustainability factors than dwellers in lower density. Burton (2000) analyzed urban compactness in aspect of social equity and found four negative aspects and three benefits.

Another problematic facet on compact cities analyses is that they have focused much on a single measure, which is population density (Neuman 2005). Average density does not explain density variation in a whole areas, but also land use patterns, urban design, social features, and ecological states. Concerning the ecological conditions, Jim argued that green-space preservation is one of the most requisite parts when developing compact cities. Furthermore, he suggests the term “Greening cities” as a upgrading compact urban form and greenery is a key feature of sustainable city. Yet, Jim added greening is only one necessary part, not sufficient toward urban

sustainability. (Jim 2004) Regarding more greenery places in urban area, major impediments lie in political, administrative and policy ambits (Jim 2012).

Each different literature described above is categorized by their respective tones as shown in Table 2. The statement that there is no positive effect on the environment is assumed as the literature has a negative tone in this study. P stands for Positive Tone, and N stands for Negative Tone.

Table 2. Classification of Compact City Literature by Each Tone

Title	Author	Year	Environmental	Economic	Social
“Compact city: A Plan for a Livable Urban Environment”	Dantzig et al.	1975	P		
“Cities and Automobile Dependency”	Newman and Kenworthy	1989	P		
“Cities are Good for Us”	Harley Sherlock	1991	P		
“Reviving the City: Towards Sustainable Urban Development”	Elkin et al.	1991	P		
“Sustainable Development and Urban Form”	Michael Breheny	1992	N		
“Compact or Dispersed? Dilution is no Solution”	Duncan McLaren	1992	P		
“The Compact City and Transport Energy Consumption”	Michael Breheny	1995	N		
“Urban Compaction: Feasible and Acceptable?”	Michael Breheny	1997	N	P	N
“Are Compact Cities a desirable planning Goal?”	Gordon and Richardson	1997	N		N
“The Compact City: Just or Just Compact? A Preliminary Analysis”	Elizabeth Burton	2000	N		N
“Environmental Conflicts in Compact Cities: Complexity, Decisionmaking, and Policy Approaches”	Gert de Roo	2000	N		N

“Compact Cities and Sustainable Urban Development”	Gert de Roo and Donald Miller	2000	N		
“Green-Space Preservation and Allocation for Sustainable Greening of Compact Cities”	C.Y. Jim	2004	N		N
“Three Challenges for the Compact City as a Sustainable Urban Form”	Holden and Norland	2005	P		
“The Compact City Fallacy”	Michael Neuman	2005	N		N
“How Urban Structure Can Affect City Sustainability from an Air Quality Perspective”	C. Borrego et al.	2005	P		
“Preference for Nature in Urbanized Societies”	Agnes et al.	2007	N		N
“Sustainable urban form for Chinese compact cities: Challenges of a rapid urbanized economy”	Haiyan Chen, Beisi Jia, S.S.Y. Lau	2008	N		N
“Attitudes Towards Compact City Living: Towards a Greater Understanding of Residential Behaviour”	Peter Howley	2009	P		N
“Urban Form and Extreme Heat Events: Are Sprawling Cities More Vulnerable to Climate Change Than Compact Cities?”	Brian Stone et al.	2010	P		P
“Housing, the Compact City and Sustainable Development”	Patrick Rerat	2012	P		N
“Are Compact Cities Environmentally Friendly?”	Carl Gagné et al.	2012	N	N	N
“The Key to Sustainable Urban Development in UK Cities? The Influence of Density on Social Sustainability”	N. Dempsey et al.	2012			P
“Sustainable Urban Greening Strategies for Compact Cities in	C. Y. Jim	2012	N	P	N

Developing and Developed Economies”					
“What happened from 2001 to 2011 in Melbourne? Compactness versus sprawl”	Mohammad Rahim Rahnam et al.	2015	N		

Note 1: “P” denotes a positive tone. “N” denotes a negative tone.

5.2. Analysis of Studies regarding the Compact City Policy.

Based on the previous researches, this study summarized contents of compact city as their tones. For more definite analysis, equivocal expressions or results within scopes of research; environmental and social, are excluded from the analysis. The literature studied are various in their scopes of studies; most literature were researched on environmental effects of the compact city, only few studies concentrated on economic effects, and social influence with environment effects have been researched after the end of 1990s. As summarized in Table 3, the contents of the previous researches are segmented into three types of tones based on their arguments and norms. Among 25 research studies conducted in the environmental aspect, 10 studies had a positive tone and 15 studies were shown a negative tone. There are three research papers particularly showing economic effects of the compact city; two showing positive tone and one negative tone. Among 14 research studies conducted in the social arena, 2 studies were shown to have a positive tone and 11 studies had a negative tone, a study with both positive and negative tones is shown.

Table 3. Summarized Classification of Table 2

Type of Tones	Environmental	Economic	Social	Total
One-sided (Positive tone)	10	2	2	14
One-sided (Negative tone)	15	1	11	27
Two-sided (Positive +Negative tones)	-		1	1
Total	25	3	14	42

Figure 1. Literature Trends showing Positive or Negative Environmental Effects

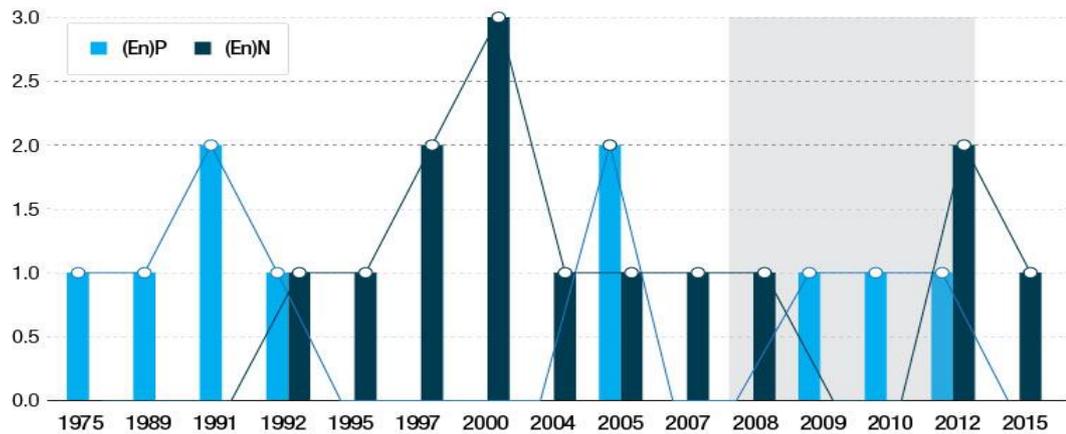


Figure 2. Literature Trends showing Positive or Negative Economic Effects

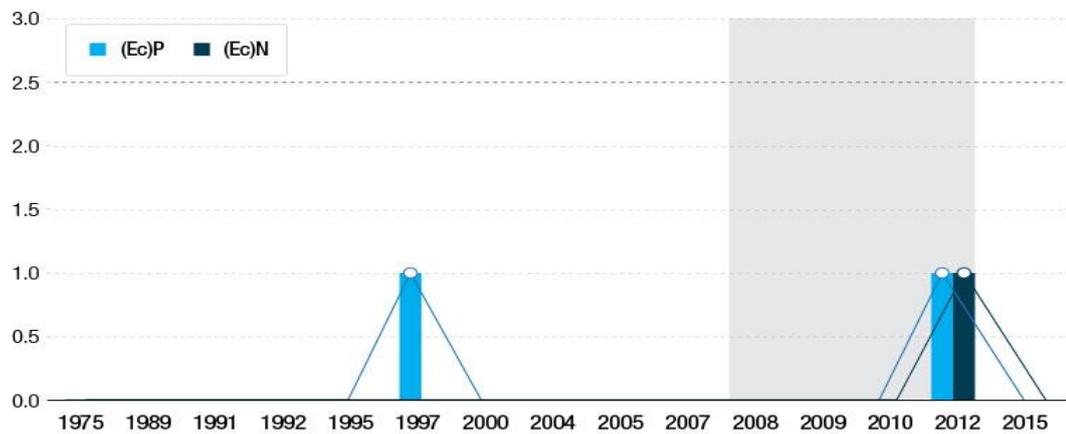
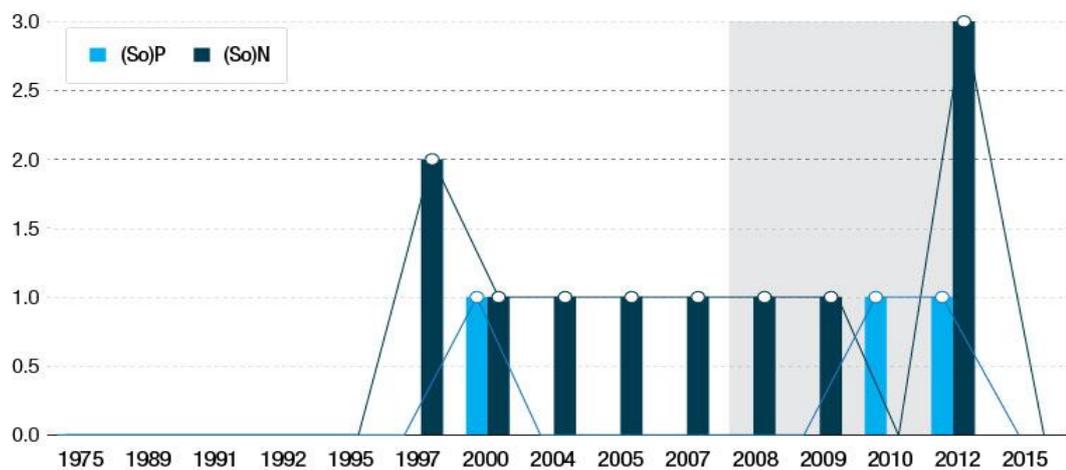


Figure 3. Literature Trends showing Positive or Negative Social Effects



Note 1: (En)P denotes positive environmental effect(tone), (En)N: negative environmental, (Ec)P: positive economic, (Ec)N: negative economic, (So)P: positive social, (So)N: negative social effect.

5.2.1 Comparison between positive and negative tones in each Figure.

Based on Table 3, Figure 1 can be drawn from studies showing the environmental tones. Much of the studies had a positive tone are presented until the early 90s, also in the year 2005, and from 2009 to 2012. As shown in whole trends of positive and negative tones, studies showing positive tone, first existed, then after 1992, studies showing negative tones have dominated until 2004, and during that time, there were no highly authorized studies arguing positive environmental effect. Only in the year 2005, positive studies reported, but the negative studies are published consistently from 2004 to 2008.

On the other hand, between 2009 and 2011, only positive studies are shown. In the year 2012, negatives studies more than positive ones are shown and after then, only studies of negative environmental effect is shown. There are two positive peak points, 1991 and 2005, and negative peak point is the year 2000 and 2012. In the Figure 1, overall trends are shown in order as positive trend for the first 17 years, negative trends for 13 years, positive peak in a year, negative trend for 3 years, positive trend for 3 years, and negative trend for 3 years. Each positive and negative study is shown in the other way; furthermore, the terms get shorter.

Figure 2 shows studies regarding economic tones in respective year. There are few studies arguing economic effects intensively; a study showing positive economic tone in the year 1997, and in the year 2012, both positive and negative studies are shown. Before 2012, there were no particular studies addressing negative economic effects. There is a likelihood of that the concept of the compact city boomed as the urban form for sustainable development, but has fallen since a lack of studies showing economic effects. In the analysis of trends in Figure 2, positive peak points show in the year 1997 and 2012 and negative peak point in the year 2012.

Figure 3 can be drawn from studies showing the social tones likewise. From the end of 90s, studies conducted in social arena have shown, especially in a negative tone. In the year 1997 and 2012, relatively many studies arguing negative social effects of compact cities are shown in the academia. In the year 2000, 2010, and 2012, on the other hand, studies addressing positive social effects are shown. In Figure 3, studies addressing the negative social effects have consistently shown from 1997 to 2012, except the year 2010. In the year 2010, there was only positive study.

5.2.2. Comparison between trends of three pillars.

In a broad way, positive trend is shown first in the graph then followed by the negative trend in the analysis of environmental and economic effects. In the analysis of social effect, however, the negative trend is shown first, then followed by few positive peak points. The negative studies are dominant in the overall period.

An intriguing point is a period between 2008 and 2012. The OECD implements the compact city policy project as OECD Green Growth Studies between 2009 and 2011 and published the final report in 2012. The trend in 2008 showing negative studies has changed to show positive studies between the periods in the environmental and social studies, except economic. In 2012, after the end of OECD compact city project, all three trends of environmental, economic, and social studies shows both positive and negative effects. There are more studies that argue that the negative effects outweigh the positive effects, except in the area of economic studies. The literature addressing negative economic effects is first shown in 2012.

5.3. Implications

In the details of the analysis, this study examines relationships between the patterns of research publication and agenda-setting or decision-making in international organizations. First of all, most studies conducted before the mid 90s argued that the concept of the compact city has the beneficial influence on the environment. Dantzig and Satty criticized urbanized growth and drawn the visionary city, the compact city, which they considered as utopian and modern solution (Dantzig and Saaty 1973). Compactness can make a city better in the environment, economic, social aspects through traffic reduction, since traffic problem is one of the serious environmental agenda ((Newman and Kenworthy 1989 and MacLaren 1992).

All the studies, however, are based on the ideal concept of the compact city form, not on an empirical analysis. From the mid 90s, studies questioning a desirability of the compact city are shown and address whether the compact city can have a favorable effect on the environment, but the level is trivial (Breheny 1995, 1997). Gordon comprehensively criticize the form of compact city and the studies had a negative tone toward the compact city are constantly shown from the end of 90s. Furthermore, a significant point is that those studies were analyzed based on specific data.

Most cited paper concerning the compact city had a positive view on the compact urban form with proximity promoting walking or using public transportations. The demand of automobile among the inhabitants of compact urban form, however, has not decreased and the question of long-distance work traveling is raised point (Rerat 2012). Howley and Dempsey researched residential behavior and attitudes to each factors of the compact city presuming that the compact city is recommendable as sustainable urban form (Howley 2009, Dempsey et al. 2012)

Regarding the tones toward social effect of compact cities, even studies showing environmental advantages of compact cities address the negative influence on social areas within the compact city.

Regarding agenda management in the international organization, there are the limited numbers of literature that address the sustainable agenda management. Furthermore, as the example of the compact city, the inputs showing the negative result of the concept of the compact city have resulted in the output that international organizations present the compact city policies to member countries as an agenda or recommended policies. There is the inner working of the system between the input and output; it is so-called 'black box' coined by David Easton (Easton 1965). Easton regards the process of political decision-making as the interacted system and mechanism with the conversion that "political inputs (demand and support) are transformed into outputs (policy)" (Veen 2011). The inner process of this mechanism is invisible. Thus, one who is not in the inner circle does not know exactly how precisely and systematically it operates within the rules.

The agenda, compact city policy, decided by international organizations mirrors an Eastonian black box. Based on previous studies, the decision of setting the compact city as the urban form agenda should be questioned. The rhetoric of the compact city form is different to the compact city in reality (Chhetri et al. 2013). The compact city proponents, however, sustain their beliefs, since they unduly focus on urban sprawl, and the compact city is opposite of the sprawl. As the statement of Wiersinga (1997), "compact city paradox", the concept of the compact city generated unresolved social problems, even not much reducing the environmental problems which the objective of compactness targets. Based on the findings of this study as described above, some implications are given.

5.3.1. Hasty Decision Making in International Organizations.

The international organizations show hasty decision-making in their agenda setting process, without sufficient corroboration. The OECD preceded the compact city projects expeditiously. The OECD had implemented the project of compact city policies by particularly promoting the case of Toyama, Japan. According to reports of Toyama, Toyama having the lowest population density has implemented compact city policy to attract dispersed local population and revitalize the center part of Toyama, furthermore, Toyama supports the compact city policy to reduce CO₂ emission volumes, since per capita emissions in 2003 is 2.6 compared to nationwide rate of 2.0 and 23 district of Tokyo rate of 0.9 (Toyama 2008). Most emission volumes in Toyama, however, were from industry, not business or household consumers compared to nationwide volumes.

Regarding Melbourne, where the OECD recognized implementing advanced compact city policies, Rahnam analyzed the data of Melbourne from 2001 to 2011 when the urban compactness was highly carried out (Rahnam et al. 2015). The results of the study show that objectives that Melbourne pursued by the compactness have not been achieved despite a strategic plan for 10 years.

After the end of the 3-year compact city policy project, the OECD published the disadvantages of the compact city, especially in social parts, through the official reports (OECD 2015). It seems too fashionable to spend only 3-year to implement policies that establish the urban forms within member countries. National Politicians and urban development may accept the agenda or advices of the OECD in the situation that OECD requires the respective country reports within the projects. In the paper of the OECD compact city policy project includes compact city policies within almost of member countries. For an instance, South Korea actively accepted the plans

of building compact cities in comprehensive national territorial plans. In the report of plans, it is stated that the OECD compact city strategy report presents implications for Korean government

5.3.2. Failure of Governance in International Organizations.

The OECD compact city policy project was led and coordinated by senior policy analyst, Tadashi Matsumoto, under the supervision of Yasushi Yoshida, Head of the Regional Policies for Sustainable Development Division (OECD 2012). The OECD compact city projects are only based on the beginning of policies within particular member countries, including Japan, and not on the previous results of policies or sufficient evidence.

The OECD, since the initial establishment, has emphasized coordination of members' policies, thereby providing the best practices (Wolfe 2008). Armingeon and Beyeler examined, however, the impacts of OECD reports on social policies to Western European members and concluded that "the OECD's advice enjoyed 'low efficacy'" (Armingeon and Beyerler 2004). In the process of setting agendas and providing advices to member countries, the OECD should take deliberate process of agenda-setting.

Reports from the United Nations have supported the concept of the compact city, yet did not implement it as an agenda until 2010. Dr. Joan Clos, Executive Director of UN-Habitat under the Secretary General by the United Nations General Assembly, has held UN-Habitat office since October 2012. After assuming office, the concept of compact city has been promoted under Dr. Joan Clos and set the agenda as a solution for urbanization problems (UN-Habitat 2015).

VI. Conclusion

Sustainable development, a word with paradoxical combination of two disparate words, has been highlighted all over the global society. The presence of sustainable development reflects underlying the thought that protecting the environment is a significant issue. In parallel with gravity of issues within the sustainable development, the international organizations have presented their opinions or made decisions. Each directorate in charge of the environment deputy has held conferences, had a discussion, furthermore each directorate set the agenda and give recommendations for member states. The agendas and recommendations can be profitable for member states or non-members, but sometimes the international organizations make their decisions in impetuous way.

Compact city is the urban form that promotes urban compactness as a countermeasure of urban sprawl. The idea that urban sprawl generates automobile dependency and congestion with unlimited sprawl phenomenon made the compact city more sustainable urban form within conditions of well-planned public transportation system, mixed-land use, places of employment, and leisure places. According to literature studying the compact city, the compact city may reduce automobile use to nearby workplace. Problems of compact cities, however, have been detected more through many empirical studies; gentrification, less affordable living spaces, increased driving length of automobile to particular leisure and shopping places.

This study examines the agenda-setting international organizations within the case of compact city policies and concludes that the compact city policies by the international organizations are an archetypal example of failure regarding agenda management. The international organizations, especially the OECD and the United

Nations, set the agenda of promoting compact city as solution for urban problems. The OECD set compact city as the agenda mainly based on compact city policies by a few member states. The policies, however, was just in beginning or mid part, not showing the result of successful or effective compact city examples. The empirical studies with specific data of countries, where the OECD selected as countries implementing the advanced compact city policies, recently have shown the result that compact city is not successful compared to expected objectives and outcome after over 15 years from the initiation of compact city projects. These results have the implications that the OECD proceeded compact city project with visionary formulation without specific practical evidence. It is worthy of attention, however, during the OECD compact city policy projects from 2009 to 2011, academic studies showing the results in parallel with the proponents of the compact city are highly cited.

Works of decision-making in agenda setting process by the international organizations have been critical in accordance with globalization and increased cooperation with member states. The agenda set by the international organization is influential on related policies of member countries. It can create beneficial outcomes or erroneous results, which is unexpected. In recognizing this leverage, the international organizations should provide recommendations in a more careful way, also during the process of agenda-setting.

VII. Limitations

Overall, the international organizations have recommended the compact city as the sustainable agenda despite the negative prospected results of the compact city that are shown in the trends of previous literature. Many negative arguments against the

compact city have transformed the implementation of the compact city policies. This paradoxical result of the process implies that the 'black box' is the critical part of the decision-making process, and interactions between stakeholders in detail, but this problem is beyond the scope of this study. For future research, the problem derived from the black box can be studied closely.

International organizations should consider and emphasize the importance of developing the agenda management. Like this study, there is a case that shows that the scientific analysis evidence is sturdy enough; on the other hand, the axis of decision-making has the problems. Thus, future research on how to manage this weak axis is needed. Furthermore, successful and failed cases of diverse international organizations can also be studied in multilateral future research.

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