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Foreign Policy and Poverty Reduction: A Comparative Study of Ghana and Nigeria

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[0153] Abstract
The intricacy of development in a globalised context requires the use of foreign policy instruments to tackle domestic issues, such as poverty alleviation. Poverty is a substantial obstacle for emerging nations such as Nigeria and Ghana. Recent poverty reduction efforts signify a substantial shift in the foreign policy towards socio-economic development plans and objectives. This is a significant cause of worry and thus requires additional examination. The research conducts a preliminary analysis of the foreign policy goals of both nations and their impact on poverty reduction, aiming to evaluate the degree to which economic development foreign policy has aided in mitigating poverty challenges in both countries. The study used a mixed-methods approach, integrating qualitative and quantitative techniques to validate results, using neoliberal theory as its analytical framework. The used metrics were Gross Domestic Product, Poverty Reduction Ratio, Human Development Index, and Multidimensional Index. The study's data were sourced from declassified papers of both nations, the World Bank, the United Nations, the African Development Bank, and the National Statistical Office. Content and discourse analysis methodologies were used to scrutinise the data collected for the study. The study's findings indicate that both nations saw variations in GDP. Nigeria: $362.81; Ghana: $76.37; poverty The headcount ratio indicates that Nigeria has 82.9 million people, whilst Ghana has 31.3%. The multidimensional index reveals that, among the 1.1 billion inhabitants globally, Nigeria has a substantial population living in poverty, whilst Ghana has a comparatively smaller proportion in similar circumstances. The study's findings reveal that Ghana employed a broader array of foreign policy instruments, including the attraction of foreign investments, promotion of international cooperation, and establishment of partnerships, to address poverty issues in contrast to Nigeria. The research recommends that Nigeria and other African countries synchronise their foreign policy priorities with national development objectives and cultivate international partnerships for poverty alleviation.
Keywords: Foreign Policy, Ghana, Nigeria, Poverty Reduction.

Introduction
A fundamental economic debate surrounding emerging nations pertains to poverty and their persistent struggle to escape recurring economic crises for decades. The increased incidence of poverty poses a significant challenge to emerging economies overall. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) document aimed to eradicate poverty and

hunger in these economies by 2015. Following the evaluation of the Millennium Development objectives (MDGs) in 2015, it was shown that although these objectives were met globally, several nations continued to experience significant poverty, prompting the establishment of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The World Bank's characterisation of Nigeria as a paradox in 1996 has been consistently validated by subsequent events and official data inside the nation. The paradox lies in the fact that Nigeria's poverty level contradicts the nation's substantial riches. The nation has substantial human, agricultural, petroleum, gas, and extensive undeveloped solid material resources.

Nigeria dropped from being one of the world's top 50 richest countries in the 1970s to the bottom 10% by the new century. In 1980, official statistics showed that the national poverty rate was at 28.1%. Out of all the states in the federation, Plateau (including Nassarawa, which was once a part of Plateau) has the highest incidence rate at 49.5%. This meant that in every state, the poverty rate was under 50%. By 1985, the national poverty rate had risen to 46.3%, with a high of 68.9% in Bauchi (and Gombe, a state that was formed out of Bauchi). The states of Sokoto, Kebbi, and Zamfara accounted for 65.6% of the total in 1996.

It is often believed that Nigeria is among the most economically disadvantaged African countries of the contemporary period. The 2018 World Poverty Clock research estimates that 86.9 million people in Nigeria are severely poor. This is the highest number in the world. Several have argued that the government needs a thorough plan to reduce poverty in light of the above. One approach that might help reduce poverty is the employment of foreign policy.

But the economy of Ghana has grown substantially across these three periods. The GDP per capita has been increasing, and growth has sped up and steadied off since the mid-1980s. The poverty rate in Ghana fell from 52.6% to 21.4% between 1991 and 2012, mostly as a result of the country's strong economic growth in the preceding 20 years, according to a report released in Washington, DC on October 15, 2015. Here, we take the Ghanaian poverty level as our starting point. According to Pierella Paci, Ghana entered a new development phase in 2011 when it was classed as a middle-income nation. Social and demographic changes brought about by structural reform, an increase in the supply of skilled labour, and more mobility throughout the nation led to a decline in poverty in Ghana. Gross domestic product (GDP) growth in Ghana was steady between the 1990s and 2006, remaining at an average of 4.5%. The poverty rate in Ghana dropped from 52.6% in 1991 to 21.4% in 2012, thanks to the country's rapid economic progress. In 2012, Ghana's poverty rate was 33%, which was much higher than the rest of Africa. The proportion of persons living in severe poverty decreased even more from 1991 to 2013, going from 37.6% to 9.6%. Also showing improvement were poverty indicators that do not contain monetary values. The newborn mortality rate decreased from 57 to 41 per 1,000 live births between 1998 and 2014, while the under-5 death rate decreased by almost 50% over the same time period. While farmers still make up the bulk of the workforce, expanding the sector's horizons to include other industries will only aid economic growth. In 2012, the service sector's increase caused agriculture's contribution of GDP to fall to 23% from 23.9 percent. The proportion of employees without a high school graduation fell from 41% in 1991 to 21% in 2012, indicating an increase in job opportunities brought about by a more educated and mobile population. The fast population expansion in Accra and Ashanti has resulted in almost 2.4 million individuals calling these places home. Apewe (2023) is cited as the source. Economic diversification, loosening institutional constraints, and strengthened trade policies have all contributed to Ghana's and Nigeria's respective successes in fighting poverty. The preceding, however, provides more than enough proof of Ghana's triumph and Nigeria's glaring defeat. This is concerning since the two countries are collaborating internationally to resolve domestic difficulties.

Throughout these three phases, Ghana's economy has expanded significantly. The rise in GDP per capita began in the mid-1980s, and subsequent acceleration and levelling down of growth are seen in Figures 1 and 2. "Ghana continues to be politically stable, with a competitive multi-party political system," reads an OECD evaluation from 2011, proof that democratization's second phase proved fruitful. Plus, the anti-poverty programs implemented in the third phase greatly cut poverty rates, allowing Ghana to reach the Millennium Development Goal of halving poverty by 2015. But others are concerned that, like Ghana, Nigeria's statistics mean the poor don't get any help from her foreign policy. Since most changes in poverty statistics are caused by household engagement in international business and migration, this makes sense. The impact of globalisation on the lives of the poor is an issue that has attracted the attention of scholars and politicians. While there is a wealth of literature on the impacts of foreign aid on development and the relationships between openness, growth, inequality, and poverty, there is a paucity of comparative empirical data, particularly between the two countries being studied.

Method of Study

Conceptual and normative evaluations of data formed the basis of the study's qualitative research technique. Primary and secondary sources were used to get the data. Secondary data came from data publications of the Central Bank of Nigeria and a variety of textual and scholarly literature pertinent to the topic, while primary data came from the National Bureau of Statistics office in Nigeria and the Statistics service website of Ghana, as well as online platforms of the World Bank and the United Nations Development Programme. Value judgement and conviction in what is good or wrong (a non-cognitivist approach to data analysis) form the basis of the normative or evaluative argument. This investigation was both inductive and prescriptive.

The two-gap model put out by Chenery and Strout in 1966 and the great push hypothesis created by Rosenstein-Rodan in 1943 were both used in this research (Chenery and Strout, 1966; Rosenstein-Rodan, 1943). According to the big push hypothesis, a country can't go on the road to progress if its investments are made "bit by bit" or piecemeal. For an economy to be able to go on a development and growth route, it is preferable to have a minimum quantity of investment. So, any plan for economic growth that is primarily based on the economic "gradualism" ideology would always fail. A "big push" is required to break the first economic stagnation. Only then will the economy be able to sail smoothly towards more revenue and productivity. Achieving self-generating and cumulative growth is impossible for the economy unless it receives a large initial boost.

Conceptual Clarifications

***Foreign Policy*:** An easy way to put it is that foreign policy is "a country's response to the world outside or beyond its own frontier or boundaries," according to Northedge (1968:18) and Chibundu (2003;1). We would like to emphasise that it is the way a nation typically reacts to things happening outside its borders. A "product of environmental factors" account for this reaction. Diplomacy, the military, commerce and other economic matters, sociocultural ties, education, and sports are just a few of the many components that make up these aspects. All of a state's responses to other states may be characterised by its foreign policy, which can be straightforward or intricate, friendly or belligerent, casual or fierce (Piate, 2025; Piate, Sunday and Kia, 2024; Piate and Eminue, 2022; Piate, 2017; Piate, 2013). Certain pragmatic factors in foreign policy have led to the common categorisation of developing governments' foreign policy strands towards industrialised ones as low-key.

Nevertheless, in today's interconnected globe, economic matters greatly impact state foreign policy and international relations. The importance of economic diplomacy as a tool for governments' foreign policy must be immediately acknowledged under these circumstances. A nation's foreign policy reputation and economic standing are influenced by a wide range of issues, including investments, capital flows, financial assistance, technical exchange, bilateral and multilateral economic discussions, and state's brand management. According to Golovataya (2019) foreign policy is established. It is "concerned with economic policy issues" and the use of specific foreign policy tools to help domestic financial and business sectors achieve economic success and national development goals, such as increasing trade and investment (also called commercial diplomacy) (Piate, 2017).

Today, foreign policy has the potential to be a powerful tool in the fight against poverty and for economic growth (Kia, 2024). No matter how you slice it or how you define it, the underlying denominator is that the country's foreign policy is centred on bolstering its economic interests. Consequently, the country's long- and short-term development plans must make use of foreign policy competitive advantages, specialisation, and collaboration. In order to entice FDI, loans, international collaboration, and partnerships, foreign policy tools are used. Moran (2006) states that... When added together, they boost state economies, which in turn reduces poverty.

Poverty Originally from the French word "poverte," the English word "poor" comes from the same root. Oyeranti and Olayiwola (2005) state that when people and families are severely lacking in access to some basic essentials, it is referred to as poverty. If we restate the definition, we find that poverty is the absence of monetary resources. In the event of a financial shortage, for example, meeting fundamental human requirements becomes very challenging, if not impossible. This condition might lead to a low quality of life. We will focus on two major categories – absolute poverty and relative poor – in this research, however there are several ways to categorise poverty based on social, economic, and political aspects.

Absolute poverty To be in absolute poverty is to live below the absolute minimum, but to be relative poor is to lag behind the majority of one's community (Lauer, 1998). Absolute poverty is defined as earnings so low that basic living conditions cannot be maintained, according to De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) and the World Bank (2001). According to De Beer and Swanepoel (2000), this indicates that a person's next meal might be a matter of life and death due to their extreme poverty. "Absolute poverty" is described as having an income that is "insufficient to procure a basket of minimum food, which provides 2,124 kilocalories per person per day" un the Millennium Development Goals report of Nepal (UNDP, 2003). The scenario is defined as when a person's or a group's net income is less than the poverty line, which is now $1.25 USD per day. It happens when individuals can't get enough food or calories to maintain even a bare minimum of physical health, and it's the same as being poor. As several nations have shown, it is possible to end absolute poverty, and the definition is relatively consistent throughout the world.

Extreme poverty, often called abject poverty, is characterised by a lack of resources including food, water, healthcare, housing, education, and information. Child mortality rates from avoidable causes, such as malaria, cholera, and water-related illnesses, are high among those living in extreme poverty. Most industrialised nations do not have widespread cases of absolute poverty. The "dollar a day" poverty level, which was first proposed in 1990, quantified absolute poverty according to the criteria of the world's poorest nations. It was reset to $1.90 per day in October 2015 by the World Bank. Since this is a contentious figure, the absolute poverty level varies from country to country.

Relative poverty The distributional aspect of poverty is captured by relative poverty, which defines the minimal criteria in terms of society's average living standards. Its primary emphasis is on the plight of the lowest-income bracket and their relative performance relative to a benchmark group farther up the economic spectrum (Serageldin, 1989). Living standards relative to the economic standards of the surrounding population is how it is described from a sociological standpoint. Therefore, it is a way to quantify the disparity in income. If a family can't afford to take a trip, purchase Christmas gifts for their children, or send their young people to college, then we may say that they are poor. The proportion of the population whose income is below a certain set percentage of the median income is often used as a measure of relative poverty. It is a common tool for calculating poverty rates in industrialised countries. When one's economic situation is measured in relation to that of other individuals, we say that they are living in relative poverty. A person may not be poor in the absolute sense—that is, able to fulfil her fundamental needs—but she may be impoverished compared to others. Looking at comparable positions within a culture or on a global scale might reveal relative poverty. Some argue that relative poverty is less of a moral issue as it is more prevalent in communities where extreme poverty is not a major concern. According to Eskelinen (2011), whereas absolute poverty is seen as a violation of human rights or a failure to satisfy the fundamental needs of human dignity, relative poverty is often perceived as an issue of distributive justice. Among the social inclusion indicators used by the European Union, the "relative poverty measure is the most prominent and most-quoted of the EU." This is the case when individuals are unable to meet the government-mandated minimum standards of living, which can differ from one nation to another and even within the same nation. Like other challenges plaguing the country's government, poverty is deeply embedded in Nigerian society. Extreme and pervasive poverty has been characterised (CBN/World Bank, 1996).

Overview of Nigeria's Poverty Reduction Strategies

The original, which debuted in the '60s, was called the Farm Settlement Option. It was the government's aim in Nigeria to cultivate crops for export in order to generate cash. The program known as the National Accelerated Food Production was established after the 1972 plan failed to materialise. The objective was to provide a platform that farmers could use to evaluate and refine agricultural research findings. Established in 1973 to provide financing for the establishment of agricultural firms, the Agriculture Construction Project (ADP) aimed to promote integrated rural growth. Although the World Bank was instrumental in its funding and implementation, its success was short-lived. The objective of Operation Feed the Nation, which began in 1976, was to promote economic and food self-sufficiency among the people of Nigeria. Its only effect was to bring more attention to the need to increase food production; it failed to significantly boost agricultural output.

In 1987, the government established the Better Life Programme (BLP) to aid rural women; the program's primary objectives were health care, skill development, self-help, and rural development. The second effort was the National Policy on Science and Technology, which aimed to promote the development of domestic technical capacities. In 1989, the federal government launched the Science and Technology Fund (STF) and the National Economic Recovery Fund (NERFUND) to provide support during the country's fast commercialisation. In the same year, the People's Bank of Nigeria was established with the goal of facilitating access to savings and lending programs for small business owners and other economically disadvantaged individuals in Nigeria.

Reducing poverty has been the responsibility of the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) since its inception in 1999. Efforts to alleviate Nigeria's severe poverty are the main focus. Along with NAPEP, the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) organises anti-poverty initiatives in all relevant federal departments, parastatals, and agencies. Institutions that are part of NAPEP's efforts to alleviate poverty fall into one of four broad categories: Natural Resources Development and Conservative Scheme (NRDCS), Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), Social Welfare Service Scheme (SOWESS), etc. Since taking office in 1999, the civilian administration has implemented many programs to alleviate poverty. **(a)** Trade and payment liberalization. (b) Tariff reform and rationalization for the promotion of industrial diversification. (c) Deregulation and greater reliance on market forces particularly in the downstream activities of the crude oil industry. (d) Adoption of appropriate pricing policies of all commodities and (e) Adoption of measures to stimulate production and broaden the supply base of the economy.

Overview of Ghana poverty Reduction Strategies.

An improved economy that helps reduce poverty is characterised by increases in employment. When the economy improves and more employment become available, everyone's earnings will go up. This is particularly true for families in the middle and lower income categories. The benefits of economic growth may be shared more fairly among the people when more employment are created.

Numerous studies from different parts of the world have shown that economic development programs that prioritise job creation are more effective in reducing poverty (Khan 2001, Islam 2004). To alleviate poverty, every country has its own special way of doing things. However, developing countries that have effectively reduced their poverty rates have found that boosting employment opportunities is the key. For example, low-income households have been able to benefit from the growth in both the quality and quantity of paid work that has resulted from greater agricultural production or employment in labour-intensive sectors. Osmani (2004) and Khan (2001) cite several examples, including; Indonesia, Vietnam, Bangladesh, South Korea, Chile, and Bangladesh.

Economic progress does not provide improved employment and reduced poverty rates, according to Osmani (2004) and 2003. A number of nations have had periods of "jobless growth"—that is, rising output with stable or declining employment rates. The same holds true during periods of relatively quick economic expansion: in many countries, informal employment has grown at a much higher rate than official employment. Because of this "informalisation" tendency, wage labour is becoming worse. To combat poverty, emerging nations like Ghana need both quantitative and qualitative development; the former is especially critical in the construction of new jobs.

One way to alleviate poverty caused by economic growth is not just to provide more employment. With the additional funds generated by expansion, basic services like education and healthcare may be extended to those in need. A comprehensive strategy to alleviate poverty must include social provisioning, which guarantees the distribution of public goods and services vital to human development. But in order to construct a strategy to alleviate poverty, social provisioning and employment are not incompatible. Programs that aim to increase employment may complement these efforts by making more material resources accessible to low-income families, allowing them to better meet their basic needs. Achieving the common objective of human growth becomes far more feasible when people are able to earn a livable income.

An economic development plan that prioritises employment creation might make it easier to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in this area. Working helps achieve many human development objectives at once, including reducing poverty. One strategy to assist reach gender parity is to increase the number of paid job opportunities for women. When women are able to support themselves financially, not only do their families benefit from more equitable resource distribution, but children's health and development also tend to improve significantly. Equality between the sexes in the workplace and efforts to eradicate the "male breadwinner bias" (Elson and Cagatay, 2000) have the potential to significantly advance humanity and ensure the MDGs are met.

You could already be in Ghana with the materials for development that creates jobs and fights poverty. The government of Ghana has launched a number of programs to generate employment opportunities inside the GPRS, as mentioned before. Several examples may be provided: The purpose of the Presidential Special Initiatives (PSIs) in the sectors of textiles, palm oil, salt, and cassava is to diversify and expand export markets associated with labour-intensive supply chain processes.

Rural Enterprise Development Programme (REDP) is a decentralised strategy that aims to create new employment at the district level and is run by the Ministry of Trade and Industry. Participants will use their own strengths and resources to launch three flagship firms throughout all 110 districts in Ghana. The National Board of Small-Scale Enterprises (NBSSI) has provided and will continue to provide support for the development and enhancement of informal businesses. In an effort to boost agricultural employment returns, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture is promoting cashews and other high-value crops and working to enhance the country's livestock production.

Getting rid of the things that are holding back development that is job-intensive will need coordination with policies that aren't within the scope of any one sectoral program. Projects that aim to increase employment are doomed in a negative economic environment. So, increasing employment opportunities should be the focal point of poverty reduction efforts. To help make these policy areas more employment-focused, this section examines four areas: the macroeconomic environment and price stability, the banking sector, fiscal policy and public investment, and trade policy. Each of these areas affects job creation. Of the five principles upheld by the GPRS, "macroeconomic stability" is one. Everyone, from companies to sole proprietors to the homeless, will be able to make sound financial decisions when the economy is healthy overall. Climate change slows economic growth and makes it harder to generate new employment because of the uncertainty and risk it causes. The effects of economic uncertainty are often felt most severely by those with lower earnings. In order to alleviate poverty, growth initiatives should emphasise employment, which in turn necessitates macroeconomic stability.

The GPRS's principal goal in achieving macroeconomic stability is price stability, while issues related to fiscal management will be addressed separately. The target date for bringing inflation down to a single digit is 2004. If we look at trends from the past, we can see why inflation is such a big problem in Ghana. During the economic crises of the 1970s, Ghana had very high inflation rates. One of the main reasons for the high inflation rate was the Bank of Ghana's direct funding of the state debt, which led to an excessive expansion of the money supply (Aryeetey and Harrigan 2000). Unprecedentedly high inflation of 27.2% occurred over the 20 years between 1984 and 2003, coinciding with the onset of economic transformation. With a steady decline over the last several years, inflation is presently hovering in the single digits.

This book gives a brief summary of four different ways the financial sector may be reformed to make room for more employment opportunities for all kinds of people: the first is to mandate asset-based reserves for employment-focused projects; the second is to have the government pay for strategic projects; the third is to improve collaboration between the government, banks, and businesses in order to reach employment targets; and the fourth is to integrate non-traditional sources of credit into the established payment and banking system. Published by Alayande, Soyibo, and Olayiwola in 2001.

Trade policy in Ghana affects employment in a variety of ways, including opportunities presented by export-oriented businesses and the effects of increased imports on both official and informal street sellers and local manufacturers. Developing a sound trade strategy is essential for breaking into both domestic and foreign markets. Trade is also an important component of the balance of payments. A deteriorating trade balance has the potential to destabilise global macroeconomic stability, which in turn might heighten external indebtedness and undermine human development goals.

Trade volume, defined as total imports and exports as a percentage of GDP, has been increasing for Ghana since the economic reforms of the early 1980s. Growing overall trade volume was followed by a worsening trade deficit with other nations. In the 10 years from 1982 and 1991, the trade deficit averaged 5.4% of GDP; however, from 1992 to 2001, it jumped to 14.5%. Even though the cedi really lost a lot of value in the early 1980s, the trade deficit widened still. An expansion of the deficit occurred throughout the reform period because trade liberalisation increased imports into Ghana (Areeytey and Harrigan 2000). Trade was growing faster than the whole Ghanaian economy, and imports were surpassing exports. The employment market is being affected since the increase of import penetration is outpacing that of export growth.

Table 1: BREAKDOWN OF THE FDI INFLOWS IN GHANA AND NIGERIA

S/N	YEAR	FDI GHANA	FDI NIGERIA
1	1999	- - - - -	$1.00B (1.70% of GDP)
2	2000	- - - - -	$1.14B (1.65% of GDP)
3	2001	- - - -	$1.19B (1.62% of GDP)
4	2002	- - --	$1.87B (1.97% of GDP)
5	2003	$0.14 billion (1.79% of GDP)	$2.01B (1.91% of GDP)
6	2004	$0.14 billion (1.57% of GDP)	$1.87B (1.38% of GDP)
7	2005	$0.14 billion (1.35% of GDP)	$4.98B (2.84% of GDP
8	2006	$0.64 billion (3.05% of GDP)	$4.85B (2.04% of GDP)
9	2007	$1.38 billion (5.57% of GDP)	$6.04B (2.17% of GDP)
10	2008	$2.71 billion (9.47% of GDP)	$8.19B (2.41% of GDP)
11	2009	$2.37 billion (9.11% of GDP)	$8.56B (2.90% of GDP)

12	2010	$2.53 billion (7.85% of GDP)	$6.03B (1.64% of GDP)
13	2011	$3.25 billion (8.26% of GDP)	$8.84B (2.13% of GDP)
14	2012	$3.29 billion (7.98% of GDP)	$7.07B (1.52% of GDP)
15	2013	$3.23 billion (5.14% of GDP)	$5.56B (1.07% of GDP)
16	2014	: $3.36 billion (6.14% of GDP)	$4.69B (0.82% of GDP)
17	2015	$3.19 billion (6.46% of GDP)	$3.06B (0.62% of GDP)
18	2016	$3.49 billion (6.21% of GDP)	$3.45B (0.85% of GDP)
19	2017	: $3.25 billion (5.39% of GDP)	$2.41B (0.64% of GDP)
20	2018	$2.99 billion (4.44% of GDP)	$0.78B (0.18% of GDP)
21	2019	$3.88 billion (5.68% of GDP)	$2.31B (0.49% of GDP)
22	2020	$1.88 billion (2.68% of GDP)	$2.39B (0.55% of GDP)
23	2021	$2.53 billion (3.19% of GDP)	$3.31B (0.75% of GDP)
24	2022	$1.43 billion (1.92% of GDP)	-$0.19B (-0.04% of GDP)
25	2023	$1.32 billion (1.73% of GDP)	$1.87B (0.52% of GDP)
26	2024	$380.3 million (UNDP, 2024).	$1.90B (0.68% of GDP).

World Bank, 2024

NB: From the table, Nigeria foreign Direct Investments were higher when compared with Ghana. From 1999 to 2024, Nigeria's foreign direct investments though fluctuated, were more or higher in percentage However, the results not reflecting on human development index as indicated below

Poverty Rate
Ghana: 23.4% of the population lives below the poverty line (2020 est.)
Nigeria: 40.1% of the population lives below the poverty line (2020 est.)

Inflation Rate
Ghana: 42.5% (2022 est.)
Nigeria: 21.3% (2022 est.)

Unemployment Rate
Ghana: 4.2% (2022 est.)
Nigeria: 33% (2022 est.)

Ghana's International Engagement for Poverty Reduction

With the help of other countries, Ghana has been able to reduce poverty significantly. A few instances are as follows: Launched by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the good Work Pilot Programme (DWPP) seeks to alleviate poverty in Ghana by increasing access to good employment opportunities, especially in the country's informal sector.

Global Financial Institution The World Bank has helped fund a youth employment initiative in Ghana worth $100 million as part of the country's attempts to reduce poverty. A poverty reduction strategy document outlining Ghana's goals to reduce poverty and promote economic development was developed in collaboration with the International Monetary Fund (IMF). In an effort to alleviate poverty, World Vision Ghana has launched a number of programs and projects in the areas of health, education, and economic development. In order to help alleviate poverty, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has funded programs in Ghana that aim to provide access to sustainable livelihoods and decrease inequality. Ghana has made strides in decreasing poverty thanks to these foreign relationships, yet the country still faces persistent poverty.

In its fight against poverty, Ghana has signed a number of international collaboration agreements. For example, the United Kingdom and Ghana have formed a development partnership to aid in economic, human, governance, and security-related development in Ghana, as well as to reduce poverty. In an effort to promote trade and investment—which have the potential to alleviate poverty—the United States and Ghana have signed a Memorandum of Understanding.

Collaboration with the World Bank: Ghana has received substantial money from the World Bank to bolster anti-poverty efforts, such as health, education, and infrastructure development projects. Partnership with the International Monetary Fund (IMF): Ghana has received financial aid from the IMF to assist with economic issues and poverty reduction efforts.

The European Union (EU) has partnered with Ghana to help alleviate poverty via a variety of projects in the agricultural, educational, and healthcare sectors. Partnership with Canada: Education, health, and women's empowerment projects are among the poverty reduction efforts that have received money from Canada. Partnership with Australia: Education, health, and economic development projects in Ghana have all received money from Australia to help alleviate poverty. The fight against poverty and for sustainable development in Ghana are both bolstered by these collaborations.

Nigeria's International Engagement for Poverty Reduction

As part of their cooperation, the World Bank has given financial support and technical assistance to Nigerian programs aimed at reducing poverty. As a result of Nigeria and the IMF's joint efforts to stabilise the economy and execute economic reforms, poverty levels have dropped. The European Union (EU) and Nigeria have formed a cooperation that has helped alleviate poverty in the country via a variety of means, including financial support and technical aid for agricultural and educational programs. Together with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Nigeria has launched programs to improve people's access to healthcare, education, and economic opportunities, all with the goal of reducing poverty.

Discussion of Findings

According to the results of the research, Ghana has been more successful than Nigeria in eliminating poverty via international cooperation. While both countries have made international efforts to reduce poverty, Ghana has done a more comprehensive job, focusing more on achieving the SDGs and collaborating with other organisations than Nigeria. Investors and partners from all over the globe have once again been drawn to Ghana due to its stable reputation for governance and institutions. Two of Ghana's national development plans, the Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies (CPESDP) and the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA), provide a clearer strategy for reducing poverty in the country.

Improved collaboration between Ghana and international institutions like the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the European Union (EU), the World Bank (WB), and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has also helped to reduce poverty in the country. The increased transparency and accountability in Ghana has inspired more trust in the country's efforts to alleviate poverty among international partners and investors. Increased access to cash and specialist expertise has resulted from the joint efforts of Ghana's business sector and civic society to reduce poverty. Aim No. 1 of the SDGs, "Poverty," has guided the country's efforts to decrease poverty and attract foreign aid, in contrast to Nigeria. Ghana has been more effective in reducing poverty with aid and development assistance, especially from international partners.

The improved economic management of Ghana, particularly the administration of fiscal and monetary policy, has also contributed to a more stable and advantageous environment for reducing poverty. Residents' capacity and resilience have been strengthened, making them better prepared to battle poverty, thanks to the country's increasing investment on healthcare, education, and social safety nets. Additionally, it enhanced the use of digital technologies, such as mobile money, e-health, and e-education, to support initiatives that sought to alleviate poverty.

In addition to what was already noted, aid increased in the 2000s due to Ghana's participation in the HIPC initiative, which resulted in more debt forgiveness. During this period, the United States and the United Kingdom were already major providers, but other countries like Denmark and the Netherlands also joined the fray (World Bank data). An example of a global effort to make aid more successful in the 2000s is the 2005 Paris Declaration. Economic development strategies in Ghana take into account the aims of the Paris Agreement. Furthermore, Ghana has established strategic partnerships with other entities to maximise the impact of its assistance. The Annual Review of the Multi-Donor Budget Support (MDBS) is in this category. The MDBS is comprised of Ghana and eleven development partners, the governments of which provide financial assistance. The government and partners of Ghana use the annual review to monitor the progress of the country's development and anti-poverty initiatives.

Both the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006–2009) and the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003–2005) continued the previous decade's focus on lowering poverty rates in Ghana. Trade liberalisation, private sector-led development, and macroeconomic stability were prominent reform agenda items during this period. But HRD and gender equality were getting more and more attention. During this period, the percentage of produced goods exported increased, thanks to the prior efforts to diversify trade that persisted. Concerns about the cedi's overvaluation persisted even after the switch to a floating system was supposed to fix the currency's misalignment. However, this did not prevent the trade and current account deficits from reaching "unsustainable" levels. Current account deficits in Ghana are not particularly sustainable, according to research by Sissoko and Sohrabji (2012). Additionally useful is the fact that, according to World Bank figures, export growth averaged 17% throughout this period, while import growth was 15%.

Government spending remained high, but that's understandable given the improvements that happened during that period, such initiatives to fight poverty and invest in people. One Millennium Development Goal (MDG) that was due by 2015 was to halve the world's poverty rate, which Ghana accomplished in the 2000s. Efforts to enhance human resource development have led to longer life expectancy, lower infant mortality rates, and higher school enrolment (UNDP, 2012).

Conclusion

Nigeria and Ghana have both worked to alleviate poverty, but Ghana has fared better in forming international alliances to do so. Increased accountability and transparency, stronger institutions, a more defined plan to reduce poverty, and improved cooperation with foreign partners have all played a role in Ghana's achievement. Ghana's story can teach other nations a thing or two about fighting poverty. Other countries should learn to establish solid governance and institutions, create an all-encompassing plan to reduce poverty, work together with international partners, encourage openness and responsibility, and use technology to their advantage. Other nations may enhance their own initiatives to alleviate poverty and improve the lives of their inhabitants by studying Ghana's success story.

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