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# Mainstreaming Global Goals: the Impact of SGD One on Poverty Reduction in Oyo and Osun States, Nigeria

Abdulrauf AMBALI\* Ibrahim O. SALAWU\*\* Habee A. SHEU\*\*\*

\*Professor, Department of Politics and Governance, Kwara State University, Malete https://orcid.org/0009-0000-0723-3593

\*\*Associate Professor, Department of Politics and Governance, Kwara State University, Malete https://orcid.org/0009-0001-5393-294X

\*\*\*Lecturer II, Emmanuel Alayande University of Education, Oyo

e-mail: ry1207@gmail.com https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8825-7294

#### **Abstract**

This study evaluates the impact of Sustainable Development Goal One (SDG 1) on poverty reduction in Nigeria, with a specific focus on Oyo and Osun States. Despite numerous national poverty alleviation policies, including SDG-aligned initiatives such as the Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT), Government Enterprise and Empowerment Programme (GEEP), and Youth Employment and Social Support Operation (YESSO), poverty remains pervasive in both states. Using a descriptive household survey method with 397 household respondents, the study finds a statistically significant disconnect between the planning and implementation of SDG 1 programmes, particularly in employment generation and policy execution. Although awareness and participation levels are relatively even across programme types, effectiveness remains limited. Probit regression analysis reveals that among four intervention areas, Income Support, Service Access, Health Support, and Employment, only Service Access significantly affects poverty outcomes, and this effect is negative due to inadequate delivery mechanisms. The study concludes that structural and institutional challenges, weak coordination, poor data management, and limited monitoring capacity impede the transformative potential of SDG 1 in the two states. It recommends a shift from short-term palliative interventions to sustainable, data-driven, and community-inclusive strategies that prioritize service delivery, employment, and governance reform.

#### **Keywords:**

Poverty; Sustainable Development Goals (SDG); Poverty Reduction; Programme Service Access and Development Policy.

#### Article info

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Citation: Ambali, A., I.O. Salawu, and H.A. Sheu. 2025. "Mainstreaming Global Goals: the Impact of SGD One on Poverty Reduction in Oyo and Osun States, Nigeria." Bulletin of "Carol I" National Defence University, 14(3): 79-100. https://doi.org/10.53477/2284-9378-25-37 Poverty remains one of the most persistent challenges to human development globally, and Nigeria is no exception. A majority of the world's population lives below the poverty line set by the World Bank. It signifies that a significant portion of the world population lives on an income of less than two United States dollars per day (Kharas and Dooley 2022). In many countries of the world, including the prosperous ones, there are significant signs of poverty with a vast percentage of people patchily clothed, underfed, badly housed, and lacking access to basic amenities of life.

At its core, poverty encompasses multifaceted dimensions, extending beyond mere financial constraints to encompass inadequate access to education, healthcare, and opportunities. The expression of poverty means the absence of income and productive resources, impoverished livelihoods, hunger, malnutrition, compromised health, restricted or no access to education and essential services, rising mortality from illnesses, homelessness, insufficient housing, unsafe living conditions, and social discrimination, including exclusion. The problem of poverty is, however, prominent in developing countries. A vast majority of the people in Africa and Asia are deemed impoverished and wretched. The bulk of the nations in these continents are Agrarian, with the majority of their people relying on agriculture, export of primary products, and related activities for a living. For the majority living in these continents, poverty is an endemic and devastating reality.

The number of people living in extreme poverty in Nigeria has increased from time immemorial. The 2022 Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) Survey by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) revealed that 63% of the Nigerian population, approximately 133 million people, is multidimensionally poor. With a national MPI value of 0.257, the data indicate that the average poor person experiences over one-quarter of the total possible deprivations (NBS 2022). The degree of progress made in reducing poverty remains the yardstick for evaluating the effectiveness of development interventions.

Nigeria has put in place development plans, policies, and programmes to fight poverty in Nigeria. Since independence, different policies have been utilized to tackle poverty in Nigeria. These encompassed the First to the Fifth National Development Plans, cost-of-living allowance, panels for wage review, Adebo and Udoji panels, and the 1981 National Minimum Wage Act. Other initiatives included Operation Feed the Nation, River Basin Development Authorities, Agricultural Development Programme, Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme, Rural Electrification Scheme, and Green Revolution (Olayide 1976; Ayida 1987; Ayo 1988; Anyanwu, et al. 1997; Ijaiya and Nuhu 2021). Various poverty alleviation programmes were introduced in the democratic period in Nigeria. These are the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), which later changed to the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP). Also, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), Seven-Point Agenda, and Transformation Agenda. The following programmes have been implemented by Nigeria's Federal Government; the



Community Service, the Women and Youth Employment Scheme, the SURE-P, Economic Recovery and Growth Plan, and several social investment programmes including conditional cash transfers, NHGSFP, GEEP (trader money and market money) N-Power, infrastructure investment, business environment improvement, and digital growth promotion (Ogwumike 2001; Ibeanu 2004; Igbuzo 2004; NPC 2004; Ole 2009; Dodo 2010; FGN 2012, 2014; NSIO 2016; NASSCO 2020; Ijaiya and Nuhu 2011).

While some modest economic growth has been achieved, poverty has not been significantly reduced. The economic growth shows a considerable growth measured by real per capita GDP or national income, price stability, and reduced unemployment through the coordination of monetary and fiscal policies. However, access to fundamental necessities like food, healthcare, education, housing, clothing, transport, water, and sanitation to enhance the living standards of impoverished populations remains stagnant (Ogwumike 2001; Ijaiya and Nuhu 2011). The trickledown effect of these programmes, policies, and strategies has not materialized, and the poor are not better off than they were previously.

In response to the approval of the 2030 Agenda, Nigeria immediately commenced the National Implementation of the SDGs at the National and Sub-national Levels. To promote the suitable implementation of the goal by establishing institutional mechanisms at the national and subnational levels. The initiation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015 was a defining moment in world efforts to deal with pressing social, economic, and environmental issues. Nigeria is committed to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Through the Osun and Oyo governments, it has made regional commitments to implement SDG-related initiatives and programmes aimed at eradicating poverty and enhancing the wellbeing of the people. Poor people are in significant numbers in both States, and there are a lot of socio-economic problems. SDG programme and policies are essential for help. Under the SDGs, the states mainstreamed and developed a number of poverty reduction schemes and initiatives. These include the establishment of the Oyo State Youth Entrepreneurship in Agriculture Programme, OYYEAP, which trains and provides assistance to youths in agriculture and entrepreneurship and revenue generation. The state governments established skill acquisition initiatives, vocational training centres, and empowerment projects to provide citizens with the necessary skills for employment and self-sufficiency. National initiatives such as the Conditional Cash Transfer Programme (CCT) and the Food Support Programme are being implemented to give cash support and food security to needy communities. The planning and implementation of these programmes have hence become a topical issue in academic literature with little or no empirical engagement.

This study examines the impact of SDG One intervention policies and programmes on poverty reduction in Nigeria, with a focus on Osun and Oyo states. It examines the efficiency of poverty reduction initiatives undertaken under SDG One in the states, and the progress made so far in reducing poverty levels in these states is put under fact check. The potency of SDG One in alleviating extreme poverty in the states by 2030 is thus the thrust of the study.

#### Objectives of the Study

- i. To investigate if there is a disconnect between the planning and implementation of poverty reduction programmes in Osun and Oyo states.
- ii. To assess the level of effectiveness of poverty reduction programmes implemented under SDG One in Osun and Oyo states.

#### **Research Hypotheses**

- i. Ho1: There is no disconnect between planning and the implementation of SDGs poverty reduction programmes in Osun and Oyo states.
- ii. Ho2: The poverty reduction programmes under SDG One have no significant impact on poverty reduction in Osun and Oyo states.

#### Literature Review

#### **Poverty and Poverty Dimensions**

The core focus of development cooperation initiatives has perennially centered around the alleviation of poverty. Traditionally, poverty has been perceived solely through a monetary lens, defining an individual as poor if their income fails to meet the minimum threshold required to fulfill basic necessities. This perspective was evident in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), particularly in Goal One, Target 1, which aimed to reduce by half the proportion of individuals with a daily income below the USD 1.25 international poverty line established by the World Bank at that time. In recent times, this monetary-centric conceptualization of poverty has encountered robust challenges within the scientific community and from global entities such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (Burchi, De Muro, and Kollar 2014).

The collaborative study led by Bray R., De Laat M., Godinot X., Ugarte A., and Walker R. (2019) took up a participatory approach involving poor people, practitioners, and academics. Through this inclusive approach, nine common dimensions of poverty were identified. Researchers argue that poverty consists of three dimensions: suffering, disempowerment, and struggle/resistance. Furthermore, three more relationship dimensions further characterize the relationship between people in poverty and people not in poverty: institutional maltreatment, social maltreatment, and unnoticed contributions. Some well-known aspects of deprivation are lack of decent work, insecure income, and material deprivation. Poverty is further complicated by five modifying factors, which include identity, timing/duration, location, environment/policy, and cultural beliefs.



#### TABLE NO. 1

#### **Poverty Dimensions**

LIST OF POVERTY DIMENSIONS DETERMINED BY THE CONSTITUTIONAL APPROACH AND OTHER APPROACHES					
	Most Important Dimensions	Second-Most Important Dimensions			
Constitutional Approach	Decent work, education, and health	Housing, social security, access to water and food, political participation, access to sanitation, and the environment			
Participatory Approach	Decent work, health, and access to food	Access to water, housing, social relations, education, and safety			
Survey-Based Approach	Education, health, decent work	Housing, access to water, sanitation, social security, and social relations			

Source: (Burchi, De Muro, and Kollar 2018)

#### Sustainable Development and Sustainability

A crucial prerequisite for achieving sustainable development in any nation lies in maintaining the stability of its natural capital stock. This entails ensuring that present decisions do not compromise the ability to sustain or enhance this capital for future generations. Intergenerational equity emerges as a central concern in the discourse of sustainable development, emphasizing the shared ownership of a nation's resource base across successive generations (Olaniyan, Olatubi, and Ogunbado 2013).

The UN-led sustainable development discourse has evolved over four decades through global summits and comprehensive concept development (Lock and Seele 2017). The 1972 Stockholm United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (UNCHE) was pivotal, establishing sustainable development as balancing human progress with planetary environmental limits (Kates 2015; UNCHE 1972). This conference produced 26 principles on Earth's capacity and socio-economic development, along with an action plan containing 69 recommendations (UNCHE 1972).

Over the two decades spanning from the Stockholm Conference on the Environment to the Rio Conference in 1992, mounting apprehensions have arisen over human activities increasingly imperiling the health of Earth's natural systems, rendering them unsustainable due to irreversible environmental alterations. Presently, a scientific consensus underscores the impermissibility of persisting in these environmentally detrimental activities, recognizing their adverse impacts on ecological conditions necessary for sustained existence (Karpagam 2014).

The term "sustainable development" gained prominence following its introduction by the World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987, marking a pivotal moment in global environmental discourse. Since then, sustainability has emerged as a primary yardstick against which economic development policies are evaluated by governments, development agencies, and NGOs. Despite the challenges posed by ambiguities in its definition and interpretation, there exists a consensus that sustainable development necessitates proactive government intervention in the efficient and equitable management of natural and environmental resources (Pearson 2013).

#### Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were created in 2000. They aimed at addressing various issues in developing countries. The MDGs encompassed eight goals that focused on poverty, education, gender, health, environment, and many other things (UN 2020). This is useful for a weaker essay. This is what inspired the Rio+20 Conference on Sustainable Development in 2012. Member States agreed that new development goals are needed to build on the MDGs and expand upon them while correcting their shortcomings. This was the goal for the creation of the SDGs. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was adopted in 2015 by all 193 members of the UN. This gave birth to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UNDP 2015). The SDGs are universal, transformative, and inclusive, and address poverty, inequality, climate change, biodiversity loss, and wider issues. Unlike the MDGs, which largely applied to the developing world, the SDGs apply to all countries and recognize that we are all responsible for our planet's well-being. There are 17 SGDs and 169 targets. These include the eradication of poverty, health, education, gender, clean energy, sustainable cities, and responsible consumption and production. The goals are interconnected and mutually reinforcing, emphasizing the need for integrated approaches to development that address the root causes of poverty and inequality while promoting environmental sustainability. And since their adoption, the SDGs have gained widespread recognition and support from governments, civil society, businesses, and international organizations. They provide a common framework for action and cooperation, guiding policy-making, resource allocation, and development efforts at the national, regional, and global levels (UNDP 2015).

#### Overview of Poverty in Nigeria

Poverty in Nigeria has deep historical roots, beginning with the colonial era when British policies prioritized resource extraction over local development, stifling indigenous industries and laying the groundwork for long-term economic underdevelopment (Falola 2008). After independence in 1960, rapid urbanization and industrialization offered some economic opportunities but also created slum settlements, strained infrastructure, and widened socio-economic disparities (Adepoju 2015). The discovery of oil brought temporary prosperity but entrenched Nigeria's dependence on oil revenues, making the economy vulnerable to global price shocks and discouraging diversification (Omeje 2010). Compounding these challenges, corruption has flourished due to weak governance and institutional inefficiencies, undermining development and diverting public funds from essential services like health, education, and infrastructure (Ojo 2017).



Today, poverty remains widespread in Nigeria, with over 82 million people living below the poverty line (World Bank 2021; NBS 2020). The high rates of unemployment, income inequality, corruption, and poor access to infrastructure account for the causes of the crisis (Aigbokhan 2000; Onakoya 2019; Agbiboa 2013; Bakare 2016; Adeolu 2018; Oluwatobi 2016). The health, education, and food security of people are affected by poverty. Also, various vulnerable groups like women, children, and persons with disabilities also suffer (Ogunlesi 2018; Odhiambo 2017; Ojelabi 2019; Adelekan 2016; Osaghae 2014). Indigenous people in Nigeria generally have lower socio-economic status compared to national averages (Okodua 2015; Amoo 2017; Oyewole 2018). Multidimensional poverty remains a prominent menace as a million Nigerians lack access to clean water, education, health facilities, and food (World Bank 2021; FAO 2021).

#### Policies, Strategies, and Initiatives by the Nigerian Government to Address Poverty

The Federal Government of Nigeria has employed various policies, strategies, and initiatives to alleviate poverty and promote sustainable development. Some of such are: the National Development Plans, Vision 20:2020, the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), the National Social Investment Programme (NSIP), the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) and the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) The First National Development Plan (1962-1968) which aimed to rely more on manufacturing houses to produce essential goods. It envisaged the provision of basic social and economic infrastructures to boost capacity utilization and national productivity (Ovinlola 2016; Ojo 2017). The Second National Development Plan, which was between 1970 and 1974, sought to address the post-civil war reconstruction. Furthermore, it emphasizes rebuilding infrastructure and human capital development. Despite this, there is political instability, which, as a result, did not allow the plan to be successful. Inadequate funding hampered the Second National Development Plan (Falola 2008). The Third National Development Plan, between 1975 and 1980, emphasized the continued growth of industries and infrastructural development. There was a keen focus on improving the standard of living of the people. As part of it, economic diversification and human capital investment were stressed. But policy inconsistencies and external economic shocks reduced its effectiveness (Ajakaiye and Radwan 2010; Aigbokhan 2015; World Bank 2013; Nnadi and Akunyili 2014). The admonition of self-reliance, agricultural development, and rural transformation were the main objectives of the national development plan four (1981-1985). However, governance was weak and funding was low, as well as bureaucratic impediments (Bashir 2015; Adubi 2013; Olayiwola and Adebusuyi 2012; Oyelaran-Oyeyinka and Oyeyinka 2011; Ayinde and Ojo 2017).

The Vision 20:2020 was initiated by the government in 2009 to make Nigeria one of the top 20 global economies by the year 2020. Under this, it was expected to bring about inclusive growth and development. Furthermore, it included various sectors like infrastructure, human capital, and poverty reduction, among

others. Nonetheless, the realization of its aims was hindered by implementation challenges such as a lack of funding, misalignment of polices with economic realities, and external shocks (NPC 2004; Ogwumike and Dada 2013; Osinubi and Amaghionyeodiwe 2014; Ugbaja and Nwezeaku 2019; Salawu and Adeyemi 2015; Olayiwola and Okonkwo 2017; Omodero and Oluwatayo 2018; Ogunsola and Salau 2020; Oluwadare and Olanrewaju 2021; Okorie 2016). The ERGP was designed to create an economy where human and other resources could be used to eradicate poverty and achieve a better life. The focus has been to diversify the economy away from dependence on oil, strengthening the non-oil sectors, besides improvement in infrastructure and social investments. The ERGP was designed with (SDG1) Eradication of Poverty; (SDG5) Gender Equality; (SDG9) Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure (FGN 2017; Yusuf and Lawal 2019; Adewumi and Adewumi 2018; Oyinlola, Ogundipe, and Adejobi 2020; UNDP 2015; World Bank 2018). The NSIP is the Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT), the National Home-Grown School Feeding Programme (NHGSFP), the Government Enterprise and Empowerment Programme (GEEP), and N-Power, a programme which started in 2016. These programmes that supported the poor and other vulnerable groups, education and health service improvement, and reduction of youth unemployment (Oyinlola, Ogundipe, and Adejobi 2020; Abubakar and Bassey 2019). The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) was established in 2001 with the aim of eradicating poverty through training, microcredit, and access to services. Although the programme was much better than before, it faced serious implementation challenges like low funding levels, poor coordination, and corruption (Anyanwu 2013; Ajakaiye, et al. 2015). The National Health Insurance Scheme, NHIS, was established to enhance the accessibility of affordable healthcare and decrease the out-of-pocket health expenditure. A diverse range of studies have suggested that the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) has increased healthcare utilization. Despite this, low enrollment is causing inequitable distribution of services and poor public awareness (Aregbeshola and Khan 2017; Onwujekwe, et al 2017).

Oyo State has implemented different programmes following SDG 1 to reduce poverty in the State. According to Adegbola et al (2018), the Oyo State Poverty Alleviation Programme (OYPAP) provides poor groups with money and skill acquisition programmes. Besides, Odeyemi & Adeniran (2019) state that the Oyo State Youth Empowerment Scheme (OYYES) helps youth with entrepreneurship and employment. The Oyo State Microfinance Development Agency (OYSMIDA) gives out microfinance loans and business support. Besides, OYSADEP gives out agricultural support (Akindele, et al. 2017; Olawale and Oyekanmi 2020). Other programmes include OYSHIS for health care (Adeyemi, et al. 2019), OYSWP for social welfare (Adeolu and Oladeji 2018), OYESP for education (Oladele and Akanbi 2020) and OYSWEP for women's empowerment (Adeleke and Olawale 2018). Efforts in this regard will help reduce poverty and promote sustainable development in the state. In a similar vein, Osun State has initiated many poverty alleviation programs to achieve the SDGs. This is the Osun State Social Investment Programme (OSSIP), which denotes the Youth Empowerment



Scheme (OYES), and the Elementary School Feeding and Health Programme, O-MEALS, which enhances youth employment and child nutrition (Ajibola and Afolabi 2020; Oyewumi 2018). The Osun State Microcredit Agency (OMA) provides financial assistance to minor entrepreneurs (Ademola and Ayeni 2019) while the Rural Access and Mobility Project (RAMP) enhances rural infrastructure (Oyedokun 2017). The Osun Health Insurance Scheme (OHIS) is to improve access to healthcare and promote the third SDG (Bello, et al. 2020). All these performers will help to achieve the goals of ending poverty (SDG 1), zero hunger (SDG 2), good health and well-being (SDG 3), and decent work and economic growth (SDG 8).

## **Theoretical Perspective**

The study's theoretical framework draws from structural-functionalism and institutional theory to seek answers to questions on the effectiveness of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 1, poverty eradication in Osun and Oyo States, Nigeria. Structural-functionalism helps us understand how government agencies, NGOs, community organizations and other social institutions work together to provide services and implement poverty alleviation programmes. As put by Parsons (1951) and Merton (1949), social systems are made up of parts which must work together in units in order to have social stability. It also helps identify structural hurdles be it in terms of bureaucratic inefficiencies (state-specific) or governance challenges that hamper poverty interventions in both states. Despite its merits, structural-functionalism has weaknesses that include overlooking of social conflict, power imbalances, and human agency (Coser 1956; Easton 1957).

Institutional theory complements this analysis by focusing on how both formal structures (laws, agencies) and informal norms shape political behavior, policy implementation, and socio-economic outcomes (March and Olsen 1984; North 1990). The theory aids in understanding how institutional arrangements in Osun and Oyo affect the coordination, resource allocation and monitoring of SDG 1 interventions. While it underscores the importance of administrative capacity and good governance, institutional theory is sometimes critiqued for its deterministic tendencies and limited focus on informal dynamics and sudden political changes (Skocpol 1985; Thelen 1999). In application, the theory provides valuable insights into how institutional strengths and weaknesses, as well as social norms, influence the outcomes of poverty reduction efforts in these states. Together, both theories offer a multidimensional perspective that captures the complexity of achieving poverty eradication through SDG 1 in Nigeria.

# Methodology

#### Research Design

The study adopts a descriptive household survey. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used. Quantitative data were collected through a household survey questionnaire.

### Population of the Study

The population for this study comprised the households in selected local government areas of Osun and Oyo states, Nigeria.

TABLE NO. 2

Twelve Selected Local Government Areas of Osun and Oyo states, their Population and the Number of Households (NBS 5.06 average household size (2019))

S/N	Senatorial Districts	L.G. A	Population	No. of Households
1	Oyo State North	SAKI WEST	390,500	77,174
		OLORUNSOGO	116,200	22,964
2	Oyo State Central	EGBEDA	405,400	80,119
		OGO-OLUWA	93,200	18,419
3	Oyo State South	IBADAN NORTH-EAST	473,700	93,617
		IBARAPA NORTH	143,300	28,320
4	Osun State West	IWO	248,400	49,091
		EGBEDORE	96,000	18,972
5	Osun State East	IFE-EAST	244,900	48,399
		ATAKUMOSA WEST	88,700	17,530
6 Osun State Central		OSOGBO	201,900	39,901
		IFEDAYO	48,700	9,625
	TOTAL		2,550,900	504,131

Source: Researcher's Field Study (2024)

From the above Table 3.3, the population for the study is **504,131** households scattered across the twelve selected local government areas with **2,550,900** people.

#### Sample Selection

To arrive at our sample size, the study adopted the Yamane formula. Although there are different types of formulae for determining sample size, the choice of the Yamane formula by this study is to determine the sample size for a finite population.

The formula is as follows:

$$n = N / (1 + N(e^2))$$

Where:

n = Sample size

N = Total population size

e = Desired level of precision or acceptable sampling error (expressed as a proportion, usually in decimal form)

Sample size calculation for the household population of 504,131

504,131 (1+504,131)(0.05)(0.05) 504,131 (1+504,131)(0.05)(0.0025) 504,131 (504,132)(0.0025) 504,131 1260.33



Using Yamane's formula for a finite population, the sample size of 400 was derived from a household population of 504,131 with a sampling error of 5%. This calculation assumes a 95% confidence level, which is standard for social science research where prior variability is unknown.

Therefore, 400 copies of the household survey questionnaire were administered across the twelve selected local government areas. Copies of the questionnaire allotted to each local government area were calculated using the **Probability Proportionate to Household (PPH) formula**, since the study has adopted the descriptive household survey design.

The PPH formula is as follows:

$$PPH = \underline{Hp} \times 400$$

$$THn$$

Where **Hp** is the individual cluster household number, and **THn** is the total household number for all twelve clusters. Using this formula, the number of copies of the questionnaire for each cluster is generated and presented in Table 3 below:

TABLE NO. 3 Table Showing the Sample Distribution in Selected L.G.As

S/N	L.G. A	No. of Households	No. of Allotted	
			Questionnaire to L.G.A	
1	SAKI WEST	77,174	61	
2	OLORUNSOGO	22,964	18	
3	EGBEDA	80,119	64	
4	OGO-OLUWA	18,419	15	
5	IBADAN NORTH-EAST	93,617	74	
6	IBARAPA NORTH	28,320	22	
7	IWO	49,091	39	
8	EGBEDORE	18,972	15	
9	IFE-EAST	48,399	38	
10	ATAKUMOSA WEST	17,530	14	
11	OSOGBO	39,901	32	
12	IFEDAYO	9,625	8	
	TOTAL	504,131	400	

Source: Researcher's Field Study (2025)

#### Data Presentation and Analysis

TABLE NO. 4

Poverty Reduction Policies and Programmes Implemented Under SDG One in Oyo State and Osun State

	Youth Employment and Social Support Operation (YESSO)	Social Safety Fund	Conditional Cash Transfer	School Feeding Programmes	Government Enterprise and Empowerment Programmes (GEEP) (Trader Money, Market Mon)	State Health Insurance Scheme	Total
Osun State	25 (17.48)	22 (15.38)	25 (17.48)	24 (16.78)	23 (16.08)	24 (16.78)	143 (100)
Oyo State	44 (17.32)	42 (16.54)	42 (16.54)	42 (16.54)	42 (16.54)	42 (16.54)	254 (100)
Total	69 (17.38)	64 (16.12)	67 (16.88)	66 (16.62)	65 (16.37)	66 (16.62)	397 (100)

Source: Field Survey (2025)

Table 4 shows the awareness and participation of households in Osun and Oyo States in six poverty reduction programmes under SDG Goal One, based on a sample of 397 households. The programmes, YESSO, Social Safety Fund, Conditional Cash Transfer, School Feeding Programme, GEEP, and the State Health Insurance Scheme show relatively balanced enrolment rates across the sample, ranging narrowly from 16.12% to 17.38%, indicating no single programme dominates intervention efforts. In Osun State, YESSO and Conditional Cash Transfer recorded the highest participation (17.48%), while the Social Safety Fund was lowest at 15.38%. Oyo State exhibited an even more uniform distribution, with five of six programmes each at 16.54%, and YESSO slightly higher at 17.32%. Comparative analysis reveals only minor differences between the states, suggesting that both implement these programmes in broadly similar ways. Osun shows a slight emphasis on youth employment and cash transfers, while Oyo appears to maintain equitable allocation across all programmes. These small variations reflect localized priorities rather than significant policy differences in SDG 1 implementation.

Hypothesis Ho1: There is no disconnect between planning and the implementation of SDGs poverty reduction programmes in Osun and Oyo states

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.
Planning-Implementation	397	1.707809	0.031105	0.6197625
policy disparity scheme disparity employment disparity awareness disparity				

t = 22.76 p-value (two-tailed) = 0.000 Null Hypothesis (Ho): Mean = 1 (Strongly Agree there is no disconnect) Alternative Hypothesis (Ha): Mean  $\neq 1$ 

The one-sample t-test compares the mean score of the variable *Pol\_Imp*, which captures perceptions of the alignment between planning and implementation of SDG Goal One, poverty reduction programmes in Osun and Oyo states, against a reference value of 1. On a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Agree to 5 = Strongly Disagree), a mean of 1 would indicate strong agreement that there is no disconnect, i.e., perfect alignment between planning and implementation. The test result shows that the mean score is 1.71, significantly higher than the benchmark value of 1 with a p-value < 0.001. This leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis, implying that planning and implementation are not well-aligned.

This analysis, Table 4, investigates the disconnect between planning and implementation of poverty reduction programme in Osun and Oyo states by comparing the mean values of four key indicators: policy disparity (respondents' average rating on policy



TABLE NO. 5
Disconnect between planning and implementation of poverty reduction programme in Osun and Oyo states (Comparative Analysis)

State	Ho = mean (Osun State) – mean (Oyo State)				
State	Policy (mean)	Awareness (mean)	Scheme (mean)	employment (mean)	
Osun State	2.561772	3.825175	3.018648	3.286713	
Oyo State	2.423885	3.799213	3.082677	3.830709	
Combined	2.473552	3.808564	3.059614	3.634761	
Diff	0.1378871	0.0259622	-0.0640291	-0.5439954	
t-statistic	2.7443***	0.2719	-1.1429	-5.536***	

Source: Field Survey (2025) \*\*\* p<.01, \*\* p<.05, \* p<.1

related aspects of poverty programme), awareness disparity (Level of awareness about these programme), scheme disparity (perception or knowledge about specific schemes or initiatives), and employment disparity (views on how these programme impact employment or job opportunities). These indicators represent how far actual implementation deviates from planning intentions in different aspects of programme delivery in Osun and Oyo states. The findings show that there are variant disconnects between planning and implementation across the key indicators used. The statistically significant positive difference indicates that Osun State exhibits a higher policy level disconnect than Oyo State. This suggests that in Osun State, there is a notable gap between policy formulation and operational execution.

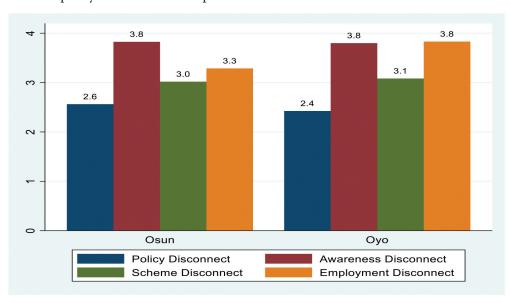


Figure 1 Disconnect between planning and implementation of poverty reduction programme in Osun and Oyo states

Source: Field survey (2024)

The bar chart, Figure 1, presents the mean levels of disconnect across four key components of the poverty reduction programme, Policy, Awareness, Scheme, and Employment in Osun and Oyo states. These disconnects represent the gaps between planning and implementation, providing insights into the effectiveness of poverty

alleviation efforts in both states. Although both states report relatively low levels of policy disconnect, Osun State's slightly higher value suggests a marginally greater gap between policy formulation and its practical application. This reflects ambitious planning documents that are not adequately backed by execution capacity. However, the difference is not substantial.

Hypothesis Ho2: The poverty reduction programmes under SDG One have no significant impact on poverty reduction in Osun and Oyo states

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.
Pov_Int	397	2.516	0.0181	0.3609

t-statistic = 83.70, p-value (two-tailed) = 0.000

The mean score of 2.52 on a scale where 1 = Strongly Agree and 5 = Strongly Disagree suggests that, on average, respondents tend to disagree with the statement that SDG One poverty reduction programmes have had no significant impact. In simpler terms, this implies that respondents perceive the interventions as having some meaningful effect on poverty reduction, though not strongly. The t-value of 83.70 and a p-value of 0.000 indicate that the result is statistically significant at the 1% level. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the poverty reduction programmes under SDG One have a significant impact on reducing poverty in Osun and Oyo states. The level of impact is low.

TABLE NO. 6
Level of Effectiveness of Poverty Reduction Programmes
Under SDG One in Osun and Oyo states

Poverty	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value
Income_Support	0.062	0.169	0.37	0.713
Service_Access	-0.273**	0.138	-1.98	0.048
Health_Support	0.179*	0.104	1.72	0.085
Employment	-0.039	0.068	-0.57	0.569
Constant	1.119**	0.973	1.15	0.025
Mean dependent var	0.637	SD dep var		0.481
Pseudo r-squared	0.013	Number of obs		397
Chi-square	6.952	Prob > chi2		0.138
Akaike crit. (AIC)	523.092	Bayesian crit. (BIC)		543.011
*** p<.01, ** p<.05, * p<.1			•	

Source: Field Survey (2025)

Probit regression analysis was used to assess the effectiveness of the poverty reduction programme under SDG One in Osun and Oyo states, using a sample of



397 households as depicted in Table 4.9. The model evaluated four dimensions of intervention: Income Support, Service Access, Health Support, and Employment Initiatives. Income Support exhibited a positive coefficient (0.062), but the relationship was statistically insignificant (p = 0.713). This indicates that direct financial assistance programmes have not had a meaningful impact on poverty reduction among the respondents.

Service Access emerged as the only significant predictor with a negative coefficient (-0.273), significant at the 5% level (p = 0.048). This suggests that inadequate access to essential services such as healthcare, education, and public utilities significantly reduces the likelihood of escaping poverty. Health Support showed a positive coefficient (0.179) and was marginally significant at the 10% level (p = 0.085). This result indicates that access to healthcare moderately improves the probability of poverty reduction, albeit with weaker statistical support. Employment Initiatives, however, had a negative but statistically insignificant effect (-0.039, p = 0.569), implying that employment-related interventions, as implemented, did not significantly influence poverty reduction. The overall model fit was good, with a Chi-square statistic of 69.52 (p = 0.018), indicating that the set of predictors does jointly explain poverty reduction outcomes at a conventional significant levels.

## **Summary of the Findings**

The study reveals a significant disconnect between planning and implementation in Nigeria's poverty alleviation efforts, revealing disparities across policy, schemes, employment, and public awareness. While policies are often well-designed, their execution is undermined by poor coordination, weak data systems, limited institutional capacity, and political interference. In Oyo State, employment initiatives, particularly youth empowerment programmes, have failed to yield tangible results due to exclusion of local actors and logistical inefficiencies. Although some interventions show modest positive effects, the overall impact remains limited. Of the four intervention areas; Income Support, Service Access, Health Support, and Employment, only Service Access showed a statistically significant impact, and it was negatively associated with poverty reduction, underscoring the role of inadequate infrastructure and service delivery. These findings reflect broader critiques of Nigeria's poverty reduction strategies, which are hindered by structural flaws such as fragmented implementation, policy inconsistency, and institutional weakness.

#### Conclusion

Drawing upon both quantitative and qualitative data, the study affirmed that the limitations confronting Nigeria's efforts in reducing poverty under SDG 1 are not rooted in policy absence but in weak governance structures, suboptimal implementation practices, and systemic gaps in stakeholder coordination and monitoring. Despite the widespread deployment of SDG-aligned poverty reduction

programmes such as Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT), Government Enterprise and Empowerment Programme (GEEP), Youth Employment and Social Support Operations (YESSO), and the School Feeding Scheme, their impacts have largely been palliative rather than transformative. These interventions offer short-term assistance but fall short in addressing the deep-rooted and multidimensional nature of poverty across urban and rural areas in both states. While the design of these programmes is well-intentioned, poor targeting and a lack of sustainability planning severely hinder their effectiveness.

#### Recommendations

To bridge the disconnect between planning and implementation of poverty reduction programmes in Osun and Oyo States, the study recommends the creation of robust coordination mechanisms, including multi-stakeholder task forces involving government, civil society, and community leaders to co-design practical, locally adaptable strategies. Emphasis should be placed on accurate, community-specific data from sources like State Operation Coordinating Units (SOCU) to reduce errors and delays in programme delivery. Employment initiatives should be reformed through demand-driven vocational training, post-training job placement, and partnerships with the private sector, while monitoring systems must be digitized for real-time feedback and accountability. Addressing awareness gaps is equally crucial, requiring structured communication strategies that engage grassroots actors in local languages, deploy mobile outreach units, and offer multilingual support services to foster inclusive participation. To improve the effectiveness of SDG One programmes, governments must shift focus from short-term interventions to sustainable service delivery by investing in infrastructure, improving inter-agency coordination, and ensuring services reach marginalized communities.

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