



Metrics of Education and Politics are Important Correlates of Gender Gap: Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa

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1. Introduction

The issue of gender inequality and the gender gap has been a longstanding concern globally. Numerous studies have examined various factors contributing to these disparities, including economic (UN, 2020), educational (UN, 2020; Dabla-Norris et al., 2015), health (Artiga et al., 2020), and political aspects (UN, 2020; Dabla-Norris et al., 2015). In the specific context of Sub-Saharan Africa, where gender inequality remains a significant challenge, understanding the correlates of the gender gap is crucial for developing effective policies and interventions.

Education is widely recognized as a fundamental right and a crucial determinant of individuals' well-being and socioeconomic development (Durand, 2015). Achieving gender parity in education has been a major goal for many countries, including those in Sub-Saharan Africa. Moreso, education is considered a pathway towards gender equality, and gender equality in education indirectly leads to peace through the promotion of development and good governance (Østby et al., 2019). The United Nations recognizes that gender equality is essential for ensuring that men and women can contribute fully to the betterment of societies and economies at large (OECD, 2018). This paper explores the extent to which gender gaps in educational attainment contribute to overall gender inequality in the region. It examines indicators such as school enrolment rates, literacy rates, and access to quality education, assessing their impact on the gender gap

In addition to education, political participation and empowerment play a vital role in addressing gender disparities. Women's representation in politics is not only a matter of equality but also an essential factor in shaping policies and decision-making processes that directly impact women's rights and opportunities. This study investigates the correlation between political empowerment indicators, such as women's representation in government and decision-making positions, and the gender gap. It aims to provide insights into the extent to which political factors contribute to gender inequality in Sub-Saharan Africa.

The Human Development Report produced by the UN includes a composite index that captures gender inequalities across several dimensions, including economic status and politics (Ospina&Roser, 2018).



The gender pay gap is a metric that tells us the difference in pay between women and men, and it is a measure of economic inequality by gender (Ospina&Roser, 2018). Other factors that may influence the gender gap include family structure, infant mortality, and polygyny prevalence (Smith-Greenaway &Trinitapoli, 2014). Income inequality is also a global issue that policymakers need to focus on, particularly on the poor and the middle class (Dabla-Norris et al., 2015).

Østby et al., (2019) examined the existing literature on the topic and provides a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between education and political violence. They argued that education can promote peace through the promotion of development and good governance. Moreso, they posited that The United Nations recognises that education is a pathway towards gender equality, and gender equality in education indirectly leads to peace through the promotion of development and good governance. They concluded that education can lead to pacification through the promotion of development and good governance. The other search results are not directly related to the article in question.

The OECD (2018) report highlights the importance of investments in broadband infrastructure, education and skills, and actions to tackle gender stereotypes and biases in the tech industry. Here are some key points from the search results. The report calls for investments in broadband infrastructure to ensure that women have equal access to digital technologies. Moreso, the report emphasizes the importance of education and skills in bridging the digital gender divide. Policy action is key to supporting economies in bridging digital gender divides by addressing teachers' biases and gender stereotypes in textbooks.

Overall, the key findings of the OECD report on bridging the digital gender divide include the importance of investments in broadband infrastructure, education and skills, and actions to tackle gender stereotypes and biases in the tech industry. The report emphasizes that gender equality is essential for ensuring that men and women can contribute fully to the betterment of societies and economies at large.

These studies suggest that education and politics are important correlates of the gender gap, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. Education is considered a pathway towards gender equality, and gender equality in education indirectly leads to peace through the promotion of development and good governance. The Human Development Report produced by the UN includes a composite index that captures gender inequalities across several dimensions, including economic status and politics. Other factors that may influence the gender gap include family structure, infant mortality, and polygyny prevalence.

This paper investigates the relationship between gender gaps and two key metrics: education and politics. It aims to provide evidence-based insights into the importance of these factors as correlates of gender inequality in Sub-Saharan Africa. By examining data from a range of countries in the region, the study sheds light on the patterns and associations between education, political empowerment, and gender disparities. In addition, by analysing data and employing statistical methods, this study seeks to uncover the relationship between education, politics, and the gender gap in Sub-Saharan Africa. The findings have implications for policymakers, organizations, and stakeholders working towards gender equality in the region. Understanding the importance of education and political empowerment as correlates of the gender gap can guide the formulation of targeted interventions and policies to promote gender equity and empower women in Sub-Saharan Africa.

2. Data and Method

2.1 Data

The Global Gender Gap Index data covers the years 2006 to 2018, as well as 2020 and 2021. However, there was no release of data specifically for the year 2019.

The Global Gender Gap Index is an annual report published by the World Economic Forum (WEF) that measures and tracks gender-based disparities across various countries and regions. It provides insights into gender gaps in four key areas: Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival, and Political Empowerment.

The available data for the years 2006 to 2018, as well as 2020 and 2021, includes comprehensive information on the gender gap scores and rankings for individual countries and regions. These scores are calculated based on a set of indicators and sub-indicators related to the four areas mentioned above.

It's important to note that the Global Gender Gap Index data provides valuable insights into the progress or regression of gender equality over time. Researchers, policymakers, and organizations utilize this data to identify areas where gender disparities persist and develop strategies to address them. However, the specific details of the data for each year, including country rankings and scores, would need to be obtained from the official reports published by the World Economic Forum.

2.2. Method

Data Collection:

The list of Sub-Saharan African countries was identified, including Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Republic of the Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ivory Coast, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mayotte, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Reunion, Rwanda, St. Helena, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and South Sudan.

Data for the Gender Gap Index and other metrics (Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, Political Score) were obtained for the identified Sub-Saharan African countries. The data was sourced from reputable sources such as international organizations, governmental reports, or research studies. The collected data was ensured to be representative, up-to-date, and reliable.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated for each metric (GG Index, Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, and Political Score) for the Sub-Saharan African countries. This involved calculating the mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum, and quartiles.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was performed to examine the relationships between the GG Index and other metrics. The correlation coefficients between each pair of variables (GG Index, Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, Political Score) were calculated to determine the strength and direction of their associations.

Statistical software, such as SPSS, R, and Excel, was used to conduct the descriptive statistics analysis and Pearson correlation analysis. The data was correctly inputted, and the software's guidelines were followed for performing the desired statistical calculations.

The results were presented in tables and figures. For descriptive statistics, a table similar to Table 1 was created, presenting the mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum, and quartiles for each metric. Additionally, appropriate visualizations, such as box plots or histograms, were used to depict the distribution of the Gender Gap Index and other metrics.

Results and Discussion

Distribution of Metrics and Gender Gap Index

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the GG Index and other metrics

Metrics	Score	EconomicScore	EducationScore	HealthScore	PoliticalScore
mean	0.67042	0.672429	0.863507	0.971607	0.174234
std	0.055628	0.094198	0.116563	0.007487	0.106957
min	0.525	0.365	0.468	0.946	0.032
25%	0.63325	0.608	0.80625	0.967	0.09325
50%	0.671	0.672	0.878	0.973	0.141
75%	0.71	0.733	0.96075	0.98	0.233
max	0.822	0.911	1	0.98	0.563

Score = GG Index Value. Source: Authors' Analysis

The results presented in Table 1 provide descriptive statistics for various metrics, including the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) and related scores such as Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, and Political Score. The GG Index, which measures the gender gap, has an average score of 0.67042 across all countries. The scores show some variability, as indicated by a standard deviation of 0.055628. The minimum and maximum GG Index scores are 0.525 and 0.822, respectively, representing the lowest and highest gender gap indexes observed among the countries studied. Quartiles provide additional insights into the distribution, with the first, second, and third quartiles being 0.63325, 0.671, and 0.71, respectively.

Examining the Economic Score, the mean is calculated to be 0.672429, with a standard deviation of 0.094198, signifying variations in the economic gender gap across countries. The range extends from a minimum Economic Score of 0.365 to a maximum of 0.911. Quartiles reveal that 25% of the countries have an Economic Score of 0.608 or lower, while 25% have a score of 0.733 or higher.

Regarding the Education Score, the average score is 0.863507, with a standard deviation of 0.116563. The Education Scores range from a minimum of 0.468 to a maximum of 1.0. The quartiles indicate that 25% of countries have an Education Score of 0.80625 or below, while 25% have a score of 0.96075 or higher.

In terms of the Health Score, the mean is 0.971607, and the standard deviation is 0.007487, suggesting a relatively low variability in the gender gap within health-related indicators. The minimum Health Score is 0.946, while the maximum is 0.98. The quartiles reveal that 25% of countries have a Health Score of 0.967 or below, with 25% scoring 0.98 or above.

Lastly, the Political Score has an average of 0.174234, with a standard deviation of 0.106957, indicating some variability in gender gaps within political representation. The range extends from a minimum Political Score of 0.032 to a maximum of 0.563. The quartiles show that 25% of countries have a Political Score of 0.09325 or lower, while 25% have a score of 0.233 or higher.

These results offer a comprehensive overview of the distribution and variation in the GG Index and related metrics across countries. The GG Index provides insight into the overall gender gap, while the other metrics focus on specific domains such as the economy, education, health, and politics. Analysing these statistics can facilitate further comparisons and investigations into gender equality and the factors contributing to the gender gap among nations.

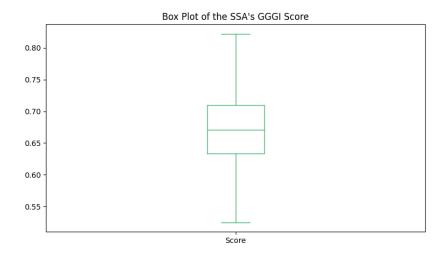


Figure 1: Box plot for the distribution of Gender Gap Index

Score = GG Index Value. Source: Authors' Analysis

Figure 1 displays the box plot specifically for the Gender Gap Index (GG Index). By examining the box plot for the GG Index, we can gain insights into the distribution of gender gaps across the countries included in the analysis. The length of the box provides information about the spread of the data ranging from 0.63 to 0.71, with a larger box indicating a wider range of gender gap values (0.53 to 0.87).

Additionally, the position of the median within the box indicates the central tendency of the GG Index scores (0.65). The median is in the middle between the lower boundary and the upper boundary. There were no outliers to the dataset.

Figure 1 serves as a visual tool to grasp the distribution and potential variations in the Gender Gap Index, enabling researchers and policymakers to assess the gender equality status and identify countries that deviate significantly from the average gender gap.

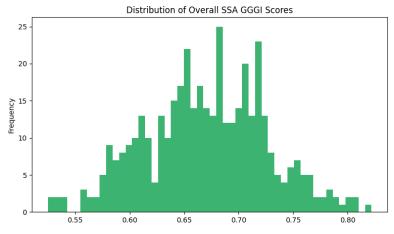


Figure 2: Histogram of the Gender Gap Index across SSA

Source: Authors' Analysis

The figure above shows a histogram specifically depicting the distribution of the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) across countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). By examining the histogram, we can gain insights into the distribution and concentration of gender gap scores within SSA. The x-axis represents the intervals or bins, while the y-axis represents the frequency or count of countries falling into each bin. Results reveal that 0.68 (GGI score) had the highest frequency for SSA followed by 0.73 and 0.65. The symmetric and bell-shaped histogram suggests a more balanced distribution of GGI scores which indicates a relatively equal number of countries with different GG Index scores.

The histogram allows us to understand the shape of the distribution, identify any patterns, and assess the concentration of countries within specific ranges of GG Index scores. Figure 2 specifically focuses on the GG Index scores within SSA, providing insights into the variation and concentration of gender gaps in this region. It enables policymakers, researchers, and stakeholders to understand the distribution of gender inequality levels across countries in SSA and identify areas where interventions and initiatives may be needed to address gender disparities.

Furthermore, analysing the histogram can help in identifying countries with particularly high or low GG Index scores and understanding the overall pattern of gender gaps in SSA. It serves as a useful visual tool to assess the extent of gender inequality and to target efforts towards achieving gender equality within the region.

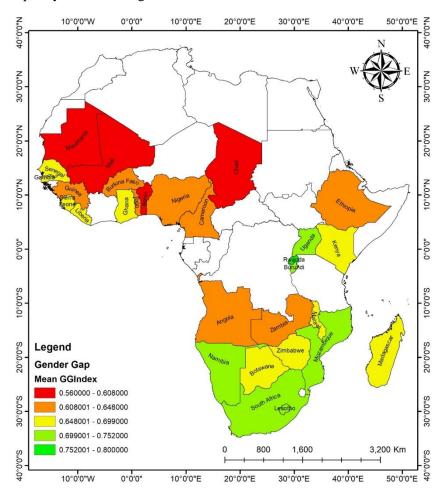


Figure 3: Spatial Distribution of Gender Gap Index

The figure above represents the spatial distribution of the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) across different geographical regions or countries. It provides a visual depiction of how gender gaps vary across the depicted area. The spatial distribution map typically uses colours or shading to represent different GG Index values. Each region or country is assigned a specific colour or shade based on its GG Index score, allowing viewers to quickly identify areas with higher or lower gender gaps.

Results show that most countries in West Africa have a relatively low mean GGI index ranging from 0.56-0.608 and 0.608-0.648. however, Ghana, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Gambia and Senegal all have a mean GGI between 0.648-0.699. In addition, a high mean GGI (0.699-0.752 was recorded in South Africa, Namibia, Mozambique, Uganda, Lesotho, and Burundi. While the highest mean GGI was recorded in Rwanda. Kenya, Madagascar, Botswana, and Zimbabwe also had a mean GGI between 0.648-0.699.

By examining Figure 3, one can gain insights into the regional or global patterns of gender inequality. It helps identify regions or countries that exhibit relatively higher or lower levels of gender disparity. The map can also highlight any spatial clustering of gender gap scores, indicating areas with similar gender equality levels.

This visualization allows policymakers, researchers, and stakeholders to understand the geographic distribution of gender gaps, identify areas that require attention or targeted interventions, and compare the performance of different regions or countries in terms of gender equality. This serves as a valuable tool for raising awareness about the global or regional distribution of gender inequality, facilitating discussions on gender-related issues, and informing policy decisions aimed at addressing gender gaps and promoting greater gender equality.

3.2. Association between Gender Gap Index and Other Metrics

Table 2: Summary of Association between the Gender gap index and other metrics

	Score	Economic Score	Education Score	Health Score	Political Score
Score	1	0.600748	0.73768	0.291418	0.727841
EconomicScore	0.600748	1	0.155693	-0.0014	0.198814
EducationScore	0.73768	0.155693	1	0.229241	0.293259
HealthScore	0.291418	-0.0014	0.229241	1	0.289116
PoliticalScore	0.727841	0.198814	0.293259	0.289116	1

Score = GG Index Value. Source: Authors' Analysis

Table 3 presents a summary of the associations between the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) and other metrics, namely Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, and Political Score. The values in the table represent correlation coefficients, which indicate the strength and direction of the relationships between these variables.

The correlation between the GG Index (Score) and Economic Score is 0.600748, indicating a moderate positive correlation. This suggests that countries with higher GG Index scores tend to have higher Economic Scores, indicating a smaller gender gap in economic opportunities and outcomes.

Furthermore, the correlation between the GG Index and Education Score is 0.73768, indicating a relatively strong positive correlation. This implies that countries with higher GG Index scores exhibit higher Education Scores, reflecting a smaller gender gap in educational access and achievements.

In terms of the relationship between the GG Index and Health Score, a weak positive correlation of 0.291418 is observed. This indicates a slight tendency for countries with higher GG Index scores to also have higher Health Scores, suggesting a smaller gender gap in health-related indicators.

Additionally, the correlation between the GG Index and Political Score is 0.727841, indicating a relatively strong positive correlation. This suggests that countries with higher GG Index scores tend to have higher Political Scores, implying a smaller gender gap in political representation and empowerment.

These results provide valuable insights into the relationships between gender equality, as measured by the GG Index, and various dimensions of socioeconomic and political development. The positive correlations observed suggest that countries with higher GG Index scores tend to perform better in terms of economic opportunities, education, health, and political representation, indicating a smaller gender gap in these areas.

However, it's important to note that correlation does not imply causation. While these results indicate associations between the variables, further analysis and investigation of underlying factors are necessary to establish causal relationships and gain a comprehensive understanding of the complex dynamics influencing gender gaps across different domains.

Visualisation of the correlation



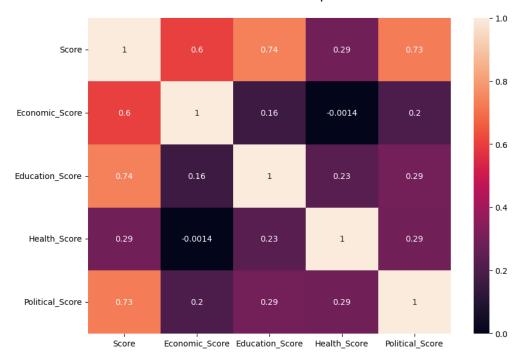


Figure 4: Correlation matrix visualisation

Score = GG Index Value. Source: Authors' Analysis

Figure 4 above represents a correlation matrix visualization, which displays the correlation coefficients between the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) and other metrics, including Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, and Political Score.

In the correlation matrix above, each variable is represented both in rows and columns. The intersection of a row and column represents the correlation coefficient between the two variables. The correlation coefficients can be indicated using colours, shading, or numerical values, providing a visual representation of the strength and direction of the correlations.

By examining Figure 4, one can gain insights into the relationships between the GG Index and the other metrics. Positive correlation coefficients, indicated by lighter colours or higher numerical values, suggest a direct relationship where higher values of one variable correspond to higher values of the other. Negative correlation coefficients, indicated by darker colours or lower numerical values, suggest an inverse relationship where higher values of one variable correspond to lower values of the other.

Results reveal that positive correlations were found between politics, education, and economics, with education recording the highest (0.74), followed by politics (0.73) while the least was in health (0.29). this suggests that education, politics and politics have a direct relationship to the overall Gender Gap in SSA. Moreso, there was a weak positive relationship between political scores and economics, education and health. Health scores had a weak relationship with education and politics and a negative insignificant relationship with economics. In addition, education has a weak positive relationship with health, economics, and politics. While economics also had a weak positive relationship with education and politics.

The correlation matrix visualization helps identify the strength and nature of the relationships between the GG Index and the other metrics. It allows researchers and stakeholders to identify which variables are strongly associated with the GG Index and which variables may have weaker or non-linear relationships.

This visualization facilitates a comprehensive understanding of the interplay between gender equality and different domains such as the economy, education, health, and politics. It provides a visual tool for researchers, policymakers, and other stakeholders to explore and interpret the complex relationships between gender gaps and various factors that contribute to gender inequality. This serves as a valuable resource for analysing the correlations and can guide further investigations into the drivers and consequences of gender gaps. It enhances the understanding of how different metrics are related to the GG Index and aids in formulating evidence-based strategies and policies to promote gender equality and address gender disparities.

3.3 Discussion

Descriptives

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics for the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) and other metrics, namely Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, and Political Score. The mean GG Index score of 0.67042 indicates a moderate level of the gender gap on average across the countries or regions analysed. The relatively low standard deviation values suggest that the GG Index scores have less variability around the mean, indicating a relatively consistent level of gender gaps across the dataset. The minimum and maximum values for the GG Index (ranging from 0.525 to 0.822) demonstrate the variation in gender gap values, with some countries or regions experiencing lower gender gaps and others facing higher levels of disparity.

Similarly, the mean values for the Economic Score, Education Score, Health Score, and Political Score provide an average measure of gender gaps in each respective area. The standard deviation values suggest varying degrees of variability in the scores, implying that gender gaps in these domains may differ significantly across countries or regions. The minimum and maximum values for each metric illustrate the range of gender gap scores observed, indicating the lowest and highest levels of disparity.

Moreso, the box plot in Figure 1 provides a visual representation of the distribution of gender gaps as measured by the Gender Gap Index (GG Index) across the countries included in the analysis. The length of the box, which extends from the 25th percentile (0.63) to the 75th percentile (0.71), represents the interquartile range (IQR) and indicates the spread of the data. A larger box suggests a wider range of gender gap values within the dataset.

In this case, the IQR of the GG Index ranges from 0.63 to 0.71, indicating that the majority of countries in the analysis have gender gap scores that fall within this range. This suggests a relatively consistent level of gender inequality across these countries, as indicated by the GG Index.

Furthermore, the whiskers of the box plot extend beyond the box, indicating the range of the data. In this instance, the whiskers span from 0.53 to 0.87, suggesting that there are some countries with relatively lower or higher gender gap values compared to the majority of countries within the interquartile range.

Overall, the box plot for the GG Index provides a visual summary of the distribution of gender gaps across the analyzed countries. It helps us understand the range and spread of gender inequality as measured by the GG Index, providing insights into the variation and disparities in gender gaps among the included countries.

Spatial distribution

The results indicate variations in the mean Gender Gap Index (GGI) across different countries in West Africa. The majority of countries in this region exhibit relatively low mean GGI values, ranging from 0.56 to 0.608 and 0.608 to 0.648. This suggests a higher level of gender inequality in these countries compared to others.

However, there are several exceptions within West Africa. Ghana, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Gambia, and Senegal stand out as countries with relatively higher mean GGI values, ranging from 0.648 to 0.699. This indicates a comparatively lower level of gender inequality in these countries within the West African context.

Furthermore, a group of countries including South Africa, Namibia, Mozambique, Uganda, Lesotho, and Burundi demonstrate higher mean GGI values ranging from 0.699 to 0.752. This suggests a relatively lower level of gender inequality in these countries compared to both the majority of West African countries and those with lower mean GGI values.

The highest mean GGI value was recorded in Rwanda, indicating a relatively lower level of gender inequality in the country compared to others. Additionally, Kenya, Madagascar, Botswana, and Zimbabwe also exhibit mean GGI values between 0.648 and 0.699, suggesting a relatively lower level of gender inequality in these countries within the West African context.

Overall, these results highlight the diversity in gender inequality levels across different countries in West Africa. While the majority of countries in the region face higher levels of gender inequality, there are notable exceptions with relatively lower mean GGI values. Understanding these variations can help identify specific countries where interventions and policies can be targeted to address gender disparities and promote gender equality.

Correlation

The results indicate several significant correlations between different metrics and the Gender Gap Index (GGI) in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Firstly, there are positive correlations between politics, education, and economics, with education showing the highest correlation coefficient of 0.74. This suggests that these three factors have a direct relationship with the overall gender gap in SSA. Higher levels of education, political empowerment, and economic participation are associated with lower gender gaps. This finding resonates with a study carried out by Østby et al., (2019) which surmised that education can lead to pacification through the promotion of development and good governance.

In terms of specific correlations, politics has a strong positive correlation of 0.73 with the GGI, indicating that countries with more gender-inclusive political systems tend to have lower gender gaps. Education also has a positive relationship with the GGI, albeit slightly weaker than politics, suggesting that investing in education can contribute to reducing gender disparities.

Health, on the other hand, shows a weaker positive correlation of 0.29 with the GGI, indicating that improvements in healthcare alone may not have as strong an impact on reducing the gender gap in comparison to education and politics. However, it is worth noting that even a relatively weak positive correlation suggests some association between health and gender equality.

When examining the relationships between the individual metrics themselves, some interesting patterns emerge. There is a weak positive relationship between political score and economic score, education score, and health score. This suggests that countries with higher political empowerment for women also tend to have better economic, educational, and health outcomes for women.

Health score exhibits a weak positive relationship with education score and politics score, indicating that improvements in health outcomes for women may be linked to advancements in education and political empowerment. However, the correlation between the health score and the economic score is weak and negative, albeit insignificant. This suggests that improvements in economic participation may not necessarily lead to better health outcomes for women in SSA.

Education score demonstrates a weak positive relationship with health score, economic score, and politics score, highlighting the interconnectedness of these factors. Similarly, the economics score shows a weak positive relationship with the education score and politics score, indicating that economic development and gender equality in education and politics can influence each other.

Overall, these results emphasize the importance of education, politics, and economics in addressing the gender gap in SSA. Improving educational opportunities, enhancing political empowerment, and promoting economic participation for women can contribute to narrowing the gender gap and fostering gender equality in the region. This finding is in tandem with the OECD (2018) report which emphasizes the importance of education and skills in bridging the gender gap, especially the digital gender divide.

4. Conclusions and Implications

4.1 Conclusion:

The findings from this study highlight the importance of metrics related to education and politics as significant correlates of the gender gap in Sub-Saharan Africa. The descriptive statistics reveal that the mean GG Index score for the region is relatively high, indicating a moderate level of gender equality. However, there are variations across the metrics, with the highest mean scores observed for

the Education and Health Scores. Additionally, the correlation analysis demonstrates positive associations between the GG Index and Economic Score, Education Score, and Political Score, suggesting that improvements in these areas can contribute to reducing gender disparities.

4.2 Implications:

The study underscores the significance of education in addressing gender inequality. Policymakers should prioritize efforts to ensure equal access to quality education for both genders. Initiatives such as promoting girls' enrolment and retention in schools, enhancing educational resources, and combating gender stereotypes in education can contribute to narrowing the gender gap. Moreso, the study highlights the positive correlation between the GG Index and Political Score, emphasizing the importance of women's representation in decision-making processes. Encouraging women's political participation, providing support for women to hold leadership positions, and implementing gendersensitive policies can lead to more inclusive and equitable governance.

While education and politics are important correlates of the gender gap, it is crucial to recognize the intersectionality of gender with other dimensions of identity, such as race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Future research and policy interventions should adopt an intersectional perspective to address the unique challenges faced by marginalized groups and ensure a comprehensive approach to gender equality.

The study underscores the need for ongoing monitoring of gender-related metrics and their correlations to assess progress and identify areas requiring further attention. Further research can delve deeper into specific contexts and countries within Sub-Saharan Africa, exploring the underlying factors influencing the observed correlations and examining the effectiveness of interventions aimed at reducing the gender gap.

In essence, this study provides valuable insights for policymakers, organizations, and stakeholders working towards gender equality in Sub-Saharan Africa. By focusing on education, politics, and their intersections, targeted interventions can be developed to advance gender equity, promote women's empowerment, and foster inclusive development in the region.

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