

African Research Review

International Multi-Disciplinary Journal

Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

AFRREV Vol. 13 (2), Serial No 54, April, 2019: 26-37

ISSN 1994-9057 (Print) ISSN 2070-0083 (Online)

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/afrrrev.v13i2.3>

Roles of Age and Gender in the Attainment of Sustainable Governance in Africa

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Abstract

The study set out to investigate how gender and age influence democratic governance in selected Sub-Saharan African countries. How well age and gender influence democratic governance in Africa has remained grossly understudied in extant literature of public sector and welfare economics. Based on panel data and illustrations from seven Sub-Sahara nations (Cameroun, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania), this paper discussed the need for full participation of women in democratic governance in Africa. The findings advocated that gender and age have significant effects on democratic governance in Africa. While there is the need for more qualitative research on gender and age indicators for good governance on more countries in Africa, this paper suggested that African governments must continuously introduce gender-friendly policies that will enhance women participation in economic activities for a more equitable and egalitarian society that has eluded us years gone.

Key Words: Democratic Governance, Age, Gender, Panel Estimation, Sub-Saharan Africa

Introduction

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) in the pre-1950s can best be remembered as a conquered territory of the West, notably Britain, France and Portugal. Albeit, the 1930s and 1940s witnessed rapid industrialization of the South African economy as it supplied the mining industry and the government invested in major projects to protect employment. South Africa not only had gold and diamonds but vast quantities of iron, coal and many other minerals. In 1956, Shell Darcy discovered oil in commercial quantity in Oloibiri, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. Ghana, Cameroun, Tanzania, Ivory Coast among other African nations, discovered one natural resource or the other that led to hope for a better future in Africa (Adesida, 2001).

The 1950s and 1960s witnessed freedom, as most countries in the SSA gained independence from colonial hegemony. It was the beginning of nation-building, and most Africa nations witnessed modest economic growth at the time. New roads were built, leading sectors were reformed, unemployment was reduced to the barest minimum, and potentials for growth were so strong at the time. The masses came to the consensus that the age of an egalitarian society is not far ahead.

Not so long, the ecstasy begins to fade arising from diverse shortcomings of the African governments of the wrong policy mix, appalling consumption pattern, greediness and unswerving corrupt practices among others. Multi-party states quickly became one-party states. Within a short period, several nation-states began to fall successively as leaders became despots and military coups ushered in dictators (Al-Khaldi (2014). By the 1980s, some African countries had waged or were waging civil wars and civil strife was rampant. With the political and economic crises, the future of Africa was spoken of only in pessimistic terms. For many, Africa's political and economic failings were proof that Africans were incapable of governing themselves. Several experts foresaw a future of multiple crises and a few openly called for re-colonization of some African nations by the West and trusteeship by multinational companies or the United Nations (Adesida, 2001). Towards the end of the 1980s, Africans were ready for a change, as economic reforms regarding structural adjustments primarily introduced by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), euphemistically called the Bretton Woods institutions, had not led to significant improvements in the quality of life of the citizenry. The states, in short, had failed many Africans and their well-wishers. Insurgency, corruption, weak institutions, oppression, money laundering have become the characteristics of African States today.

International organizations, policymakers, government and the society at large are concerned about what the future holds amidst various challenges that have rocked the sustainability of democratic governance in Africa. In an attempt to redress the growing menace, attention has been shifted to the role that gender and age play in achieving democratic governance in Africa. The United Nations (UN) organized national and international conferences, workshops and seminars. Over the years the UN has organized five world conferences to monitor the status of women for democratic governance, suggest initiatives against a host of intransigent problems, and encourage the implementation of platforms agreed upon by participating nations. It is against this background that this paper seeks empirical investigation of the impact of gender and age, for sustainable democratic governance in Africa.

This present study seeks to contribute to research output on gender issues through the provision of answers to three major questions;

- What is the role of gender and age in achieving sustainable democratic governance in Africa?
- Does the effect witnessed in the economies depend on the quality of institutions?
- What impacts does gender and age have on the institutions-growth link in selected Sub-Saharan African countries?

To answer these questions, the study focused on estimating the effect of age and gender on indicators of democratic governance in Sub-Saharan Africa countries. The study further analyzed whether age and gender can reverse any possible bad governance in these countries and turn it into a blessing by interacting several measures of institutional variables with indices of good governances. This is to ascertain the role of institutional quality on democratic

governance in Sub-Saharan Africa. Seven Sub-Saharan African countries were selected based on data availability for the study.

Having introduced the study, the subsequent is section two which contains the literature review, in section three is the methodology; section four presents the analysis of results and lastly, summary and conclusion round off the study.

Literature Review

The influence of age and gender in achieving democratic governance has always been a very serious debate among relevant stakeholders across the globe. Various theories have been improved to explain this phenomenon.

Ester Boserup was the first to introduce the role of women in the development process (Palaz, 2005). The classical and neo-classical economists are quite sceptical about the relative importance of women in contributing to development. They regarded women as an instrument for procreation or playing a supportive role for the efforts of men. For instance, Adam Smith, in the *Wealth of Nations* (1776) posited that “women are relatively invisible in the *Wealth of Nations*, aside from their obvious role in contributing to population growth”. Say (1955) opined that women are irrational consumers, are extravagant towards expensive jewellery (Bodkin, 1999) and women’s natural wage is necessarily lower than that of men because men support the family while women support themselves (Forget, 1997). Pujol (1995) contended that both the classical, as exemplified in the works of Adam Smith and J.B. Say, and the neo-classical schools comprising of Marshall, Pigou and Jevon regard women as a surrogate in the production of economic goods, “irrational’ and “unfit as economic agents”.

However, these opinions have since changed through women empowerment, democratic envelopment, advocacy and modernization. Focusing on economic development, the classical modernization perspective considers increases in democracy and human choice as a direct outcome of economic development (Lipset 1959; Rostow 1960; Deutsch 1964; Bell 1999; Inkeles & Smith 1974). In relation to gender equality, this approach holds that economic development is central to increasing the pool of women eligible for positions of social power. These scholars establish that increased economic development associates with a more broad-based distribution of educational and occupational resources. Greater access to educational and occupational resources increases women’s chances of professional development, creating a larger pool of women eligible for power positions such as a political office.

The feminist economists argued that the issue of subordination appellate on women by earlier economists was based on “patriarchal man” system. They, therefore, advocated that all institutional barriers against women needed to be dismantled such that they can be empowered to actively participate in development plans and projects. They agreed that economic developments have positive and significant effects on women, even though the effects may be very complex and may not always improve the case of women (Forsythe et al. 2000). Some other writings note that higher levels of economic development bring more social services to societies that involve women. Through their alleviation of the costs in labour and time of everyday responsibilities associated with caregiving (e.g., child-rearing, domestic work), increases in these services free up time for social pursuits in women’s lives. Several studies confirm these hypotheses, demonstrating that developmental measures such as countries’ levels of non-agricultural development, per capita gross domestic product, women in the workforce and women college graduates positively influence the percentage of women in their parliaments (Kenworthy & Malami 1999; Reynolds 1999; Rule 1981, 1987; Siaroff 2000; Welch & Studlar 1996).

Regarding advocacy, some conferences and workshops have been mounted, particularly with the support of the United Nations, to bring into perspective, the growing and complementary roles of women in political and economic development. The 1979 United Nations convention for the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women secured a pledge from states to develop policies, the legal framework and other measures to abolish all forms of discrimination against women in every aspect of their lives. It goes beyond the usual practice of using men as the norm, to emphasising "that the distinctive characteristics of women and their vulnerabilities to discrimination merit a specific legal response" (UNDP Fast Facts, 2011).

The year 1975 to 1985 was declared, "United Nations Decade for Women" by the General Assembly of the United Nations, as the outcome of the first World Conference on women held in Mexico City in 1975. It was a worthwhile effort that resulted in the setting up of offices by many countries to deal with women problems. After that, many UN conferences on women had been held. These include Copenhagen (1980), Nairobi (1985), Beijing (1995) and New York (2000), all to improve women's status and find solutions to the problems of inequality and social injustice to which women are subjected. It is increasingly clear that gender gaps in all sectors of society would not close until women participated in crucial decision making and power.

The literature on age and gender influence on democratic governance has also grown over time. Pearce (2000) examines gender and governance in Africa in an attempt to provide a conceptual framework for research and policy analysis and monitoring. By all indications, the world has not moved very far since the conference on the platform for action: women in power and decision making held in Beijing and Africa exhibits the same problem. He argued that there is a need to review the present situation and assess whether or not governments, organisations and programmes have gone beyond the level of rhetoric. In addition, ongoing obstacles and the measures required to overcome them must be suggested. Through a comparative analysis, nations and institutions can learn from each other. Africa must begin to work as a regional block as it moves forward.

Bussmann (2007) examined gender equality, good governance, and peace in Italy. He opined that pacifism of women is, as a result, either of nature or socialization. Accordingly, women are less aggressive for biological reasons or because of the way they are raised and educated in society. The study suggested an indirect link between the two concepts: Gender equality leads to peace through the promotion of development and good governance. The pacifying effect of gender equality is not the result of higher moral standards of women but is rather due to structural explanations. Higher participation of women in the formal labour market and more educational equality increases competition. Thus, competitive environment devoid of corruption and rent seeking improves the quality of governance in any nation. Moreover, according to several studies, good governance is an essential component of the creation of a peaceful environment. Findings support the notion that improving the situation for women about more political representation, economic participation, better access to health and education improves state capacity and good governance. Through this channel, gender equality has an indirect effect on peace. Some aspects of gender equality, in particular, equality in education and health, are not just important factors for good governance but have a direct positive effect on peace.

Jamali, Safieddine and Daouk (2007) looked at how recent corporate scandals have translated into a heightened interest in understanding various facets of corporate governance, notably the

effectiveness of boards of directors and the composition of boards with particular attention to the gender dimension. They gauge the perceptions of Lebanese women managers regarding corporate governance issues about board effectiveness, roles and responsibilities and the benefits of female representation on boards. They used a questionnaire to sought responses from 61 top and middle-level women managers, drawn from the context of 12 different banks in the Lebanese context. Findings suggest that Lebanese women managers consider current board performance as not being satisfactory, that women are important board member candidates and that the low representation of women on boards in Lebanon is related to glass ceiling type impediments. They also believed that women board representation can reflect positively on the status of women at work and that government intervention is needed to level the playing field for women in management and at the boardroom level.

UNDP Fast Fact (2012) report that only 19 per cent of national parliamentarians in 2011 are women, an increase only from 11.3 per cent from 1995 to 2012. Only 25 parliaments currently meet the target of 30 per cent women members. Fewer than 3 per cent of signatories to peace agreements are women. About 24 per cent of the people interviewed, heard, seen or read about in mainstream media are female, only 16 per cent of stories focus on women. Countries that were parties to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) were 186. Among women aged 15 to 44 years, violence causes more deaths and disability than cancer, malaria, traffic accidents and war combined (UNDP, 2012).

Al-Khaldi (2014) shed light on the general connection between good governance and gender equality in Saudi Arabia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Findings revealed that generally Saudi Arabian poor governance was associated with having gender inequalities in the country while Sub-Saharan African region shows that there was a positive, albeit weak, correlation between good governance and gender equality. Mathiopoulos (2016) analysed gender diversity as a means of global convergence towards embedded gender quota legislation. He concluded by arguing that gender diversity at board and senior management level be dominated by a lack of female representation. Women are increasingly represented in the workforce, and graduates from universities are predominantly women. However, women still remain proportionately under-represented in the higher tiers of senior management globally. Based on the foregoing theoretical and empirical literature review, we now proceed to provide evidence on the current situation of gender and age in economic development.

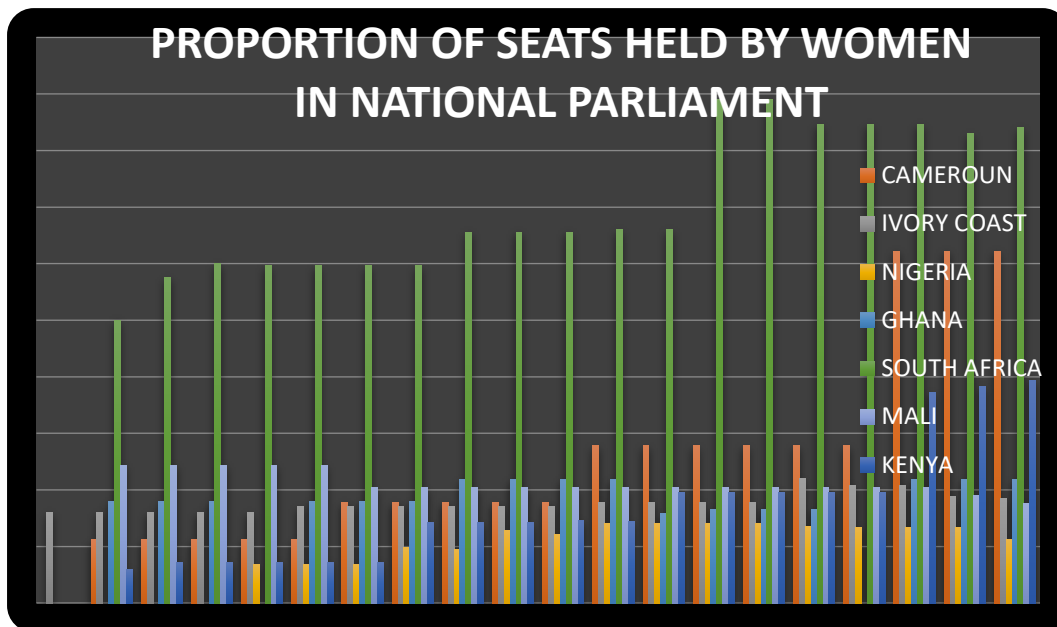


Fig 1: Proportion of Seats held by Women in National Parliament 1996-2015

Source: World Governance Indicators (WGI) and World Development Indicators (WDI), 2015

Figure 1 shows the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments of the sample countries. It is clear that for most of the countries, except South Africa and possibly Cameroun, the growth of women in countries' decision making have not grown significantly over the 20-year period. Albeit, since the turn of this century, the relative growth has been encouraging and could serve as a pointer to the effects of advocacy worldwide.

Methodology

Data Type and Sources

This paper adopted annual secondary data on indicators of democratic governance (rule of law, Control of corruption, political instability, government effectiveness and voice and accountability) and age and gender indicators (proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments, ratio of female to male in labour participation, numbers of women in ministerial positions, population aged 15-65). This data was sourced from World Governance Indicators (WGI) and World Development Indicators (WDI) for various issues up to 2017.

This analysis is carried out within a panel data estimation framework. This estimation method usually makes provision for a broader set of data points, but also because of its ability to control for heterogeneity and endogeneity among panel groups. Panel data estimation allows for the control of individual-specific effects usually unobservable which may be correlated with other explanatory variables included in the specification of the relationship between dependent and explanatory variables (Hausman & Taylor, 1981). Pooling data across different countries allows for increasing the degrees of freedom on one hand and offers a better way of comparing the results than running separate regressions.

Model Specification

Following the theoretical model of Demetriades (2009) that says democratic governance index depends on gender and age, we specify the model in a functional form to capture this relationship. This is shown below:

$$DGI_{it} = f(GV_{it}, AGE_{it}) \quad \text{-----} \quad (1)$$

Where DGI stands for Democratic governance indicators

G_V stands for Gender Indicators

AGE stands for Age

The above equation shows the functional relationship between the dependent variables; Democratic governance indicators captured by control of corruption, government effectiveness, rule of law, political instability, and voice and accountability as well as the independent variables of gender (percentage of female employment to population and ratio of male to female in the labour force) and age measured by the population aged between 15 and 65 years. The subscript i represents the number of countries, while subscript t represents the year, $t = 1996, \dots, 2015$.

Results and Interpretations

1. Descriptive and Summary Statistics

This section presents the descriptive statistics of each of the variables employed in this research. It shows the number of observations, minimum, maximum, average and the standard deviations of the variables used. The result presented the overall summary statistics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of all Sampled Indicators

<i>VARIABLES</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
<i>Control of corruption</i>	119	31.60	20.74	1.46	78.54
<i>Government Effectiveness</i>	119	36.02	18.79	9.27	79.02
<i>Political Instability</i>	119	29.19	16.57	2.90	62.80
<i>Rule of law</i>	119	33.61	17.94	4.31	63.94
<i>Voice & Accountability</i>	119	41.91	17.40	4.81	73.56
<i>Female employment to Population</i>	119	58.84	15.54	32.03	85.55
<i>Ratio of male to female in labor force</i>	119	81.08	12.81	53.38	98.41
<i>Population aged (15-65)</i>	119	54.56	4.11	49.78	65.73

Source: Authors' Computation 2018

Table 1 depicts the summary of the descriptive statistics of both the dependent and the independent variables among seven (7) Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) countries used in this study. Specifically, control of corruption ranges from 1.46 per cent to 78.54 per cent with a mean of 31.60 per cent and the standard deviation of 20.74 per cent. Subsequently, government effectiveness ranged from 9.27 to 79.02, with average and standard deviation which stood at 36.02 and 18.79 respectively. In addition to this, political instability ranges between 2.90 and 62.80 while the average per cent of political instability stood at 29.19 and its standard deviation stood at 16.57 per cent. Also, the rule of law has a minimum value of 4.31 and the maximum value of 63.94 per cent with a mean value of 33.61 per cent and a standard deviation of 17.94 per cent. Furthermore, voice and accountability range from 4.81 per cent to 73.56 per cent with an average and standard deviation of 41.91 per cent and 17.40 per cent.

The gender indicators are represented by female employment to population and ratio of male to female in labour. The summary statistics show that female employment to population ranges from 32.03 per cent to 85.55% while the ratio of male to female in labour ranges from 53.38 per cent to 98.41 per cent. This implies that not less than 32% of the total female population resident in the sampled SSA countries is actively employed in the respective labour force of their country. Also, the result shows that over 53% of the male are actively employed in labour force compared to their female counterpart. These disparities account for the shortage of women in a key leadership position, thus, impede female qualities that could enhance sustainable governance in Africa. Also, the age of individual participation in voting ranges from 49.78% and 65.73% with a mean value and standard deviation of 54.56 years and 4.11 respectively. The implication of this is that not more than 66% of the eligible age group comes out to cast their vote. Since democratic leaders are elected to office on the percentage of votes, they were able to gather in an election process, it becomes imperative for all eligible age group to collectively decide who run governance at a particular period in time.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics by Country Observed

COUNTRY	VARIABLE	OBS	MEAN	STD. DEV.	MIN	MAX
NIGERIA	Control of corruption	17	10.41	4.89	1.46	21.36
	Government Effectiveness	17	14.52	2.85	9.57	19.51
	Political Instability	17	6.59	5.32	2.90	24.64
	Rule of law	17	10.82	3.09	4.31	14.83
	Voice & Accountability	17	25.41	6.80	4.81	33.00
	Female employment	17	43.35	1.69	38.93	46.01
	Ratio of male to female	17	73.44	5.16	59.82	76.82
	Age	17	53.41	0.21	53.07	53.70
CAMEROUN	Control of corruption	17	12.42	3.88	5.69	18.66
	Government Effectiveness	17	21.41	3.11	14.63	27.80
	Political Instability	17	26.70	7.35	12.86	40.58
	Rule of law	17	13.23	2.76	7.66	18.75
	Voice & Accountability	17	17.89	2.05	13.94	21.67
	Female employment	17	63.87	4.08	55.22	67.46
	Ratio of male to female	17	84.84	2.47	79.56	87.51
	Age	17	52.61	1.12	50.44	54.27
KENYA	Control of corruption	17	15.89	3.31	11.85	22.44
	Government Effectiveness	17	35.67	4.55	28.29	43.75
	Political Instability	17	13.27	3.35	9.05	21.74
	Rule of law	17	21.58	6.91	13.88	38.46
	Voice & Accountability	17	36.73	7.60	20.67	43.75
	Female employment	17	53.55	1.85	51.98	58.23
	Ratio of male to female	17	85.86	0.25	85.53	86.45
	Age	17	54.12	1.11	51.28	55.29
TANZANIA	Control of corruption	17	28.78	10.78	14.15	50.73
	Government Effectiveness	17	35.60	6.46	24.39	42.93
	Political Instability	17	33.59	9.16	21.26	47.87
	Rule of law	17	41.04	2.95	35.68	45.45
	Voice & Accountability	17	39.31	5.48	25.48	44.71
	Female employment	17	80.89	5.16	71.14	85.55
	Ratio of male to female	17	95.40	3.35	88.79	98.41
	Age	17	51.85	0.19	51.57	52.20
GHANA	Control of corruption	17	54.43	4.83	45.85	60.48
	Government Effectiveness	17	52.52	3.99	43.75	59.02
	Political Instability	17	43.74	6.29	31.40	52.66
	Rule of law	17	52.21	6.05	35.89	60.58
	Voice & Accountability	17	56.21	8.29	37.50	65.52
	Female employment	17	66.47	3.23	60.93	71.25
	Ratio of male to female	17	95.13	0.72	94.17	96.26

SOUTH AFRICA	Age	17	56.61	0.98	54.48	57.79
	Control of corruption	17	65.01	7.48	54.33	78.54
	Government Effectiveness	17	70.12	4.48	63.98	79.02
	Political Instability	17	40.67	6.32	27.05	50.72
	Rule of law	17	56.61	3.01	50.24	63.94
	Voice & Accountability	17	68.13	3.07	63.94	73.56
	Female employment	17	33.93	1.16	32.03	35.89
MALI	Ratio of male to female	17	75.32	1.89	69.94	77.47
	Age	17	63.23	1.55	60.80	65.73
	Control of corruption	17	34.25	6.49	24.17	46.60
	Government Effectiveness	17	22.33	6.73	9.27	32.68
	Political Instability	17	39.77	21.09	3.79	62.80
	Rule of law	17	39.75	8.84	25.00	52.15
	Voice & Accountability	17	49.71	8.14	30.99	58.65
MALI	Female employment	17	69.82	6.44	62.07	77.55
	Ratio of male to female	17	57.57	3.26	53.38	61.80
	Age	17	50.13	0.21	49.78	50.48

Source: Authors' Computation 2018

2. Regression Analysis

In order to determine the relationship presented in model 1, we estimated the pooled regression assuming that the intercept is equal across nations and years. We also assume different constant for each country and perform both fixed and random effect regressions. Here, a decision between pooled (simple OLS regression) and random effects was done by examining the LM Statistics test. The null hypothesis in this test is that variances across entities are zero. That is, no significant differences across units or no panel effect.

On the other hand, to decide between fixed or random effects we consider the Hausman test statistic value where the null hypothesis is that the preferred model is random effects and the alternative hypothesis of rejecting the random effects and accept fixed effects. It basically tests whether the unique errors (u_i) are correlated with the regressors, the null hypothesis is they are not.

Effect of Gender and Age on Democratic Governance Indicators

Table 3 comprises the estimates computed for effects of age and gender in the model. Examining the effect of gender and age on democratic governance indicators indicate that the Hausman test value of -27.38, -19.65, -408.39 and 11.51 ($p < 0.05$) depicts that we reject the null hypothesis as a result of the ineffectiveness of the random effect and embracing the fixed effect model. From the result, the F-Statistics test value for each of the dependent variables shows that there is joint significance among the variables used in the model. Also, the R-squared value represents a good fit of the model implies that all the explanatory variables can explain for about 76.6%, 84.8%, 54.3%, 77.9% and 66.1% variation in control of corruption, government effectiveness, political instability, rule of law as well as voice and accountability respectively.

Table 3: Result of the Impact of Gender and Age on Democratic Governance

<i>Independent Variables</i>	<i>Dependent Variables</i>				
	Control of corruption	Government effectiveness	Political Instability	Rule of law	Voice & accountability
<i>Female Employment in Population</i>	1.2102*** (0.1081)	0.6724*** (0.0795)	1.2019*** (0.1193)	1.3562*** (0.0916)	0.8858*** (0.1007)
<i>Ratio of Male to Female in Labour</i>	-0.7202*** (0.0964)	-0.0748 (0.0709)	-0.6899*** (0.1064)	-0.6861*** (0.0817)	-0.7157*** (0.0921)
<i>Age</i>	6.8641*** (0.3906)	5.6417*** (0.2871)	4.4488*** (0.4309)	6.1504*** (0.3309)	5.1630*** (0.3607)
<i>_CONS</i>	-355.75*** (23.2314)	-305.313*** (17.0729)	-228.34*** (25.6294)	-326.16*** (19.6810)	-233.89*** (21.3447)
<i>N</i>	119	119	119	119	119
<i>R – squared</i>	0.7659	0.8483	0.5426	0.7786	0.6612
<i>F- Statistics</i>	107.96***	184.49***	39.14***	116.08***	218.60***
<i>Hausman</i>	-27.38*** (0.0000)	-19.65*** (0.0000)	-408.39*** (0.0000)	11.51*** (0.0093)	0.29 (0.9620)

Note: Standard Error in parenthesis ***, ** and * implies the significance level at 1%, 5% and 10% respectively

Source: Authors' Computation 2018

The regression coefficient shows that an increase in female employment to population is directly related to the control of corruption, government effectiveness, political instability, the rule of law and voice and accountability. This implies that a 1 % increase in female employment would lead to about 1.2%, 0.67%, 1.2%, 1.4% and 0.88% increase in the control of corruption, government effectiveness, political instability, the rule of law, voice and accountability respectively. In the same vein, the ratio of male to female in labour was found to yield a negative association. Also, it can be observed that the age of the voters has a positive and significant impact on democratic governance in selected Sub-Saharan Africa.

A general discussion of the empirical results indicates that the Hausman test value of -27.38, -19.65, -408.39 and 11.51 ($p < 0.05$) depicts that we reject the null hypothesis as a result of the ineffectiveness of the random effect and embracing the fixed effect model. From the result, the F-Statistics test value for each of the dependent variables shows that there is joint significance among the variables used in the model. Also, the R-squared value represents a good fit of the model implies that all the explanatory variables can explain for about 76.6%, 84.8%, 54.3%, 77.9% and 66.1% variation in control of corruption, government effectiveness, political instability, the rule of law as well as voice and accountability respectively. The regression coefficient shows that an increase in female employment to population is directly related to the control of corruption, government effectiveness, political instability, the rule of law and voice and accountability. This implies that a 1 % increase in female employment would lead to about 1.2%, 0.67%, 1.2%, 1.4% and 0.88% increase in the control of corruption, government effectiveness, political instability, the rule of law and voice and accountability respectively. In the same vein, the ratio of male to female in labour was found to yield a negative association. Also, it can be observed that the age of the voters has a positive and significant impact on democratic governance in selected Sub-Saharan Africa. The percentage of women in leadership positions is relatively low compared to women in the observed countries and other African nation as well. The result of the study informs the need to do more on gender disparity. All forms of discrimination against women should be abolished. The leadership quota system should be agreed upon in order to have more women participating in governance. We, therefore,

conclude that gender and age have a significant impact on the democratic governance indicators in Sub Saharan Africa.

Summary and Conclusion

The study investigated how gender and age influence democratic governance in some selected Sub-Saharan African countries. It was noted that both the classical and neo-classical economists were of the opinion that women could only play limited roles in the production of goods and services while they could be more active in consumption. Recent studies and advocacy have since changed such opinion and the resultant effect is their active participation in democratic governance. Albeit, such an active role is still limited in Africa parliaments despite United Nations advocacy activities.

The investigation in this was carried out using secondary data and quantitative analysis based on the fixed and random effect panel data estimation. From the results presented in Section 4, we can conclude that gender and age have a significant impact on the democratic governance indicators in Sub Saharan Africa. The finding of this study is in consonance with the findings of (Al-Khalidi 2014; Alence, 2004; Pearce, 2000) who also found positive relationship between gender indicators and democratic governance in Africa. Thus, as democracy grows over time in many African countries, the participation of women in democratic governance can be expected to grow. Such growth should be encouraged by all government through gender supporting policies so that their contributions will not only relate to decision making at the political level but more importantly, their efforts production of goods and services will become increasingly significant.

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