



## Gender Gaps and Economic Development: The Impact of Inequality in Nigeria

ADETEJI O. OKUTIMIREN, CHIDI U. UBANI,  
OLALEKAN F. OGUNJOBI, OLAWUNMI OMITOGUN  
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria

**Abstract.** Economic development relies heavily on human capital, yet persistent gender inequalities, where women are significantly underrepresented in education and various sectors, present a major barrier to progress, limiting both women's potential and overall economic productivity despite global efforts to address these disparities. Therefore, this study aims to assess the gender inequalities influences economic development. The study utilizes time-series data for Nigeria spanning from 1986 to 2022, employing the autoregressive distributed lag-error correction model (ARDL-ECM) methodology developed by Pesaran et al. (2001) for the analysis. The results suggest that while there is some progress in female education, existing policies aimed at improving gender parity may not be effectively translating into economic development. The study recommends prioritizing policies that ensure equal opportunities and working conditions, and eliminating gender discrimination to increase women's contributions to economic development.

**Keywords:** ARDL, Gender Inequality, Economic Development, Human Capital, Nigeria

### 1. Introduction

Economic development is a primary objective for any economy, and economic theories widely acknowledge that human capital development is crucial for achieving this goal. The swift increase in the global population, which stood at 7.6 billion in 2017 and is expected to rise to 9.8 billion by 2050, presents significant challenges for development. Among these challenges, persistent gender inequalities pose a critical barrier to global progress. Gender inequality has become deeply entrenched, limiting women's ability to exercise their democratic rights and participate in decision-making across various sectors.

Women are significantly underrepresented in activist groups, professional careers, and government roles (Fatile et al., 2012; Fodeba, 2010). In Nigeria, gender disparities are particularly pronounced. Women make up 49% of the population, yet 38% of them lack formal education, compared to 25% of men. Additionally, only 4% of women have attained higher education, compared to 7% of men. Nigeria ranks 118<sup>th</sup> out of 134 countries on the Gender Equality Index (Randriamaro, 2012).

Addressing these disparities is essential for meaningful development at local, national, and international levels. Empowering and investing in women is crucial for fostering economic progress. While some argue that Nigeria's high population growth rate is a primary obstacle to development, this perspective overlooks more significant issues such as gender inequality. Despite improvements in female labor force participation, substantial gender differences persist across economic sectors. For example, in 2017, 63.56% of employed individuals were men, while women held only 36.44% of positions. Furthermore, between 2010 and 2015, 72.3% of top civil service positions were held by men (NBS, 2018). Gender equality, particularly through empowering women, is vital for promoting economic growth. When women are not fully participating in the labour force, only half of the capable population is utilized, leading to underutilization of economic resources and a decline in productivity (Ewubare & Ogbuagu, 2017). Reducing gender inequality by increasing access to education is a key driver of women's empowerment, which in turn expands the labour force and boosts economic productivity (Anochie et al., 2015). In 2016, the literacy rate in Nigeria was 69.2% for men, compared to 49.7% for women, underscoring the urgent need for educational reforms to address gender disparities (NBS, 2018).

Despite global efforts, women are still often viewed as homemakers rather than equal partners in economic development. Development agencies have long overlooked this issue. Analyzing the 1995 Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) from the UNDP, Baruah (2009) noted that the Human Development Report highlighted the worsening female disadvantage in developing regions, particularly South Asia, North Africa, and Sub-Saharan Africa. Despite these findings, gender inequality remains largely unaddressed by many international experts. We are driven by several concerns, including the low government investment in female human capital development and limited access to employment for women, which have hindered their contribution to growth process. Key questions include identifying the factors perpetuating gender inequality and assessing how female human capital development through education has influenced economic growth in Nigeria.

Empirical studies on the impact of gender inequality on economic development yield mixed findings. Some studies (Egbulonu & Eleonu, 2018; Laura et al., 2018) indicates that gender inequality hinders economic development, while other studies (Bandiera & Natraj, 2013) suggest it may have a positive effect. This emerging line of inquiry, however, appears to be insufficiently explored in existing empirical surveys. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section II reviews the literature, Section III outlines the empirical models and data, Section IV discusses the results, and Section V concludes with policy recommendations.

## 2. Literature Review

Gender refers to social, cultural, and economic characteristics associated with being male or female (UN-Habitat, 2003). It encompasses the relationships between men and women, which are constantly evolving in response to changing social, economic, political, and cultural contexts (Soetan, 2003). Gender is a social institution, cultural construct, and power dynamic that shapes individuals' activities, access to resources, and decision-making opportunities (Ikechukwu, 2013). Economic development involves transforming social systems and institutions to improve people's lives (Akanle & Adebayo, 2014). It is not solely measured by GDP growth but also encompasses social and cultural transformation (Imhonopi et al., 2013). True development requires a shift that enhances people's standard of living, self-esteem, and access to essential needs (Akanle & Adebayo, 2014). This study defines development as a positive transformation that improves women's well-

being and living standards through the collective efforts of societal actors (Imhonopi et al., 2013).

Gender disparities in socio-economic factors such as wages, income, skills, health, wealth and poverty have expanded in developing countries, largely due to women's limited access to resources, economic opportunities, and political power. In Nigeria, agriculture, dominated by men, has resulted in unequal male access to resources and information, leading to less efficient crop production compared to women (Otitoju & Arene, 2010). Both macro and micro-level studies demonstrate the effects of gender disparities on economic development, particularly through education and employment. Research indicates that gender gaps in education and employment negatively affect economic growth, while inequalities in access to managerial roles and employment opportunities further constrain economic output (Besley et al., 2004; Duflo, 2006).

Aniruddha et al. (2014) examined the influence of gender equality on economic growth using exploratory factor analysis on five indicators of gender equality. The analysis identified two main dimensions: equality in economic opportunities and equality in economic and political outcomes. Through regression analysis on an unbalanced panel of 101 countries over non-overlapping five-year periods from 1990 to 2000, they found that a one standard deviation increase in economic opportunity equality raises growth by 1.3 percentage points, while a similar improvement in participatory equality boosts growth by approximately 1.2 percentage points. However, the effect varies depending on a country's development stage: developing economies benefit more from enhanced opportunity equality, whereas developed countries see greater growth from improved equality in outcomes.

Gaywan and Adebayo (2015) explored the determinants and geographical variations of women's employment using a logistic model with geo-additive predictors. In their study, diffuse priors were employed to model fixed effects, Bayesian p-splines were used for nonlinear smooth functions, and an intrinsic conditional autoregressive prior was applied for spatial effects. The findings showed a distinct north-south divide in the likelihood of women engaging in year-round employment versus not working, while an east-west divide was evident in the prevalence of seasonal or occasional jobs. In analyzing the impact of gender inequality on economic development, Khayria and Feki (2015) examined gender inequality and economic growth across a panel of five Great Maghreb countries from 1985 to 2011, using a dynamic Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) model. Their results indicated that population growth positively influenced economic growth,

whereas gender inequality had a significant negative impact.

Olanrewaju and Okoko (2015) focused on gender inequality in agriculture, finding that high levels of gender inequality in this sector hinder economic growth in Nigeria. They recommended empowering women with necessary resources to enhance economic performance. Similarly, Adeoti and Awoyemi (2006) investigated the impact of gender inequality in employment on the productive efficiency of rural cassava farms in southwest Nigeria, concluding that increased gender inequality reduces productive efficiency. Khera (2016) used a dynamic stochastic general equilibrium model to assess the impact of gender-targeted policies on female labour force participation, formal employment, the gender wage gap, and overall economic outcomes in India. He discovered that while policies increasing female labour participation could boost output, the lack of sufficient formal job creation due to labour market rigidities leads to higher unemployment and informality, exacerbating disparities in formal employment and wages.

Ewubare and Ogbuagu (2017) analyzed the role of gender inequality in the relationship between unemployment and economic growth in Nigeria, using the Engel Granger Error Correction Model and Dynamic Stochastic Variance Decomposition Model. Their findings revealed that gender inequality is positively relationship with unemployment, while economic growth reduces unemployment. Population growth was also shown to significantly influence unemployment, underscoring gender inequality as a key factor in Nigeria's unemployment issues. Similarly, Osuizigbo (2017) explored the impact of gender inequality on economic growth in Nigeria, concluding that it negatively affects economic growth and intensifies poverty, particularly for women, due to their limited access to education and economic opportunities.

Kleven and Landais (2017) conducted a panel study across 53 countries from 1967 to 2014, examining the impact of gender inequality on economic development through factors such as fertility, education, and societal norms. Their findings highlighted that greater female labour force participation played a crucial role in reducing the gender earnings gap, emphasizing the need for changes in societal norms concerning women and children to promote gender convergence. Egbulonu and Eleonu (2018) analyzed the effects of gender inequality on economic growth in Nigeria from 1990 to 2016, aiming to develop policies that encourage women's contributions to economic growth. Their results indicated that gender inequality could

significantly impede economic performance, suggesting that closing the gender gap is vital for boosting economic growth.

To further investigate the effects of gender inequality on economic growth, Bertay et al. (2018) conducted a macro-level analysis using industry-level data and the World Bank's composite Gender Inequality Index (GII). Their study identified a negative relationship between gender gaps in education and employment and economic growth, demonstrating that gender inequality restricts the contributions of vulnerable populations to economic development. This gap could lead to a reduction in potential output, productivity, and declines in per capita income and consumption, which negatively affect savings, investment, and capital formation. Similarly, Laura et al. (2018) conducted a macro-level study across 127 low- and high-income countries to explore the impact of gender factors on economic growth. Their findings underscored the importance of achieving gender equality, suggesting that it promotes economic growth by improving access to education, finance, and economic opportunities. The study also emphasized that increased female participation in politics fosters economic growth and advances development.

Adekunle et al. (2020) unraveled the underlying structural relationship between macroeconomic policies and gender equality in SSA from 1993 through 2017 using panel data on the indices of macroeconomic policies and gender inequality in all 48 SSA countries. The study employed the dynamic panel system generalised method of moments estimation procedure (dynamic system GMM) to establish a baseline level relationship between the variables of interest and adjusted for heterogeneity assumptions inherent in ordinary panel estimation and found a basis for the strict orthogonal relationship among the variables. The results suggest that previously attained level of gender equality influences prevailing gender equality. Also, exchange rate and inflation exhibit an inverse relationship with the attainment of gender equality and government expenditure is positively and linearly related to the attainment of gender equality in Sub-Sahara Africa.

Meanwhile Olubiyi et al. (2022) explored the extent to which Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5, which promotes gender equality, is influencing small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Kenya and Nigeria. The research focused on female entrepreneurs, with a sample of 110 randomly selected businesses from Embakasi East constituency in Nairobi County, Kenya, and Ikeja Local Government in Lagos Mainland, Nigeria. Using a qualitative

research approach, the study conducted open-ended interviews. Descriptive statistical analysis revealed that many women working in SMEs in both countries were unaware of the SDGs, despite efforts by the United Nations to promote gender equality. The study concludes that there remains a significant gender gap in SMEs across Africa, and awareness of SDG goals among women in these enterprises is still low.

Ngulube et al. (2024) evaluated the effectiveness of gender equality policies implemented in Zambia over the past decade and their impact on the country's economic growth. The total target population was 1200. The sample size involved a total of 120 respondents; both men and women, which was 10% of the target population. A mixed method approach was used in this study in combination with the descriptive survey design. Interviews and surveys were used to collect data. Graphs and pie-charts were used to analyze the quantitative and qualitative data obtained. The study findings indicated that while Zambia has made strides in improving gender equality, significant disparities remain, particularly in areas such as education, employment, and political participation. Women in Zambia continue to face barriers to accessing quality education and formal employment, which in turn hampers their economic empowerment and contribution to economic growth. Additionally, cultural norms and legal constraints often limit women's opportunities and reinforce gender inequities.

### 3. Research Methodology

The model utilizes the econometric approach from Risikat (2012), which extends the Solow growth model by incorporating real GDP as a function of the investment-to-GDP ratio, human capital accumulation (disaggregated by gender), labour force, trade openness, and government spending on community services. This study introduces a novel aspect by adapting the model to use GDP per capita as the dependent variable. The generalised autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL)  $((p, q, [\dots], q))$  the equation model is stated as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{In}gdppc_t = \varphi_o + \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_i \text{In}gdppc_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i Z_{t-i} \\
 + v_t
 \end{aligned}$$

(1)

Here, *In*gdppc represents the natural logarithm of gross domestic product per capita. The terms  $\varphi$  is the constant, while  $\rho$  is the parameter.  $\theta$  represents vector of observed time-variant control variables and their

associated regression coefficients. The dependent and explanatory variables may be purely  $I(0)$  or  $I(1)$ , or cointegrated. The terms  $p$  and  $q$  denote the optimal lag orders, while  $v_t$  is the error term, which are unobservable zero-mean white noise processes, assumed to be serially uncorrelated or independent.

Before applying the error correction mechanism, it is essential to first establish the presence of cointegrating relationships among the variables. This is accomplished using the ARDL bounds test approach, as outlined by Pesaran et al. (2001). The test primarily utilizes the joint F-statistic, which has a non-standard asymptotic distribution under the null hypothesis of no cointegration compared to the alternative hypothesis of a cointegrating relationship. The bounds test accommodates the inclusion of both  $I(0)$  and  $I(1)$  variables in the model, resulting in two critical value levels. The decision criteria are based on three possible outcomes.

The decision criteria for the ARDL bounds test are as follows:

If the calculated F-statistic exceeds the upper bound critical value for  $I(1)$ , it indicates the presence of cointegration, suggesting a long-run relationship among the variables.

If the F-statistic falls below the lower bound critical value for  $I(0)$ , it suggests that there is no cointegration, meaning no long-run relationship exists among the variables.

If the F-statistic falls between the lower bound for  $I(0)$  and the upper bound for  $I(1)$ , the results are inconclusive.

Once cointegrating relationships are identified, the long- and short-run dynamics are analyzed using log-log error correction representations, specified as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta \ln gdppc_t = & \alpha_o + \gamma(\beta_1 gdppc_{t-i} - \beta_2 pop_{t-i} \\
 & - \beta_3 sef_{t-i} - \beta_4 sem_{t-i} \\
 & - \beta_5 lfpf_{t-i} - \beta_6 lfpm_{t-i} \\
 & - \beta_7 gpi_{t-i}) \\
 & + \alpha_{1i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta gdppc_{t-i} \\
 & + \alpha_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta \log pop_{t-i} \\
 & + \alpha_{3i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta sef_{t-i} \\
 & + \alpha_{4i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta sem_{t-i} \\
 & + \alpha_{5i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta lfpf_{t-i} \\
 & + \alpha_{6i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta lfpm_{t-i} \\
 & + \alpha_{7i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta gpi_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

In this context,  $\Delta$  denotes the difference operator, and  $\gamma$  represents the speed of adjustment coefficient and expected to be negative. The expression within parentheses ( ) denotes the error correction term, ECT, which is the residual from the long-run equation. The coefficients  $\beta_i$  are the long-run coefficients, while  $\alpha_i$  are the short-run dynamic coefficients that describe the model's adjustment towards long-run equilibrium. Due to the non-stationarity characteristics of most time series variables, examining their properties is crucial

to avoid spurious empirical results. Therefore, this study commenced its econometric analysis by conducting stationarity tests using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test to examine the time series properties of the variables. The ADF unit root test was employed to determine the long-run convergence of each series to its true mean. The ARDL approach, advanced by Pesaran et al. (2001), was adopted for estimating the long-run relationship, which involves two steps: examining the existence of a long-run relationship and estimating long-run and short-run coefficients. This approach allows for a mixture of stationary and non-stationary variables and does not require the same order of integration for variables under consideration, making it a suitable technique for this study.

### 3.1 Data Sources

This section describes the variables, their measurements, and the data sources used in the study. The variables cover the period from 1986 to 2022 and are sourced from the World Development Indicators (2022) by the World Bank. The empirical model incorporates a total of seven variables. The variables include *gdppc* is gross domestic product per capita, *pop* is population, *sef* is school enrolment secondary female (% gross), *sem* is school enrolment secondary male (% gross), *lfpf* represents labour force participation rate, female (% ages 15 and older), *lfpm* denotes labour force participation rate, male (% ages 15 and older) and *gpi* is gender parity index. Table 1 provides a detailed overview of these variables, including their apriori expectations, measurements, data sources.

**Table 1:** Variables' measurements, a priori expectations and sources

S/N	Variables and Measurements	Economic development ( <i>gdppc</i> )	Sources
1.	Population ( <i>pop</i> )	positive	WDI, 2022
2.	School enrolment secondary, female (% of gross) ( <i>sef</i> )	positive	WDI, 2022
3.	School enrolment secondary, male (% of gross) ( <i>sem</i> )	positive	WDI, 2022
4.	Labour force participation rate, female (% ages 15 and older) ( <i>lfpf</i> )	positive	WDI, 2022
5.	labour force participation rate, male (% ages 15 and older) ( <i>lfpm</i> )	positive	WDI, 2022
6.	Gender parity index ( <i>gpi</i> )	Positive/ negative	WDI, 2022

Note: WDI - World Development Indicators

Source: Authors' compilations, 2024

## 4. Discussion

**Table 2:** Summary Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Variables	Mean	SD	<i>lgdppc</i>	<i>gpi</i>	<i>lfpf</i>	<i>lfpm</i>	<i>lpop</i>	<i>sef</i>	<i>sem</i>
<i>lgdppc</i>	5.966	1.150	1.000	0.688	0.763	-0.575	0.726	0.738	0.699
<i>gpi</i>	0.764	0.130		1.000	0.564	-0.530	0.568	0.552	0.561
<i>lfpf</i>	45.518	3.156			1.000	-0.680	0.677	0.517	0.693
<i>lfpm</i>	66.659	4.722				1.000	-0.728	-0.730	-0.723
<i>lpop</i>	18.685	0.234					1.000	0.703	0.664

<i>sef</i>	25.516	7.394	1.000	0.695
<i>sem</i>	34.068	5.915		1.000

Notes: SD: standard deviation; *gdppc*: gross domestic product per capita; *pop*: population; *sef*: school enrolment secondary female; *sem*: school enrolment secondary male; *lfpf*: labour force participation rate (female); *lfpm*: labour force participation rate (male); *gpi*: gender parity index

Source: Authors' compilations, 2024

The results of the summary statistics and correlation analysis are presented in Table 2. The findings indicate that the *sef* and *sem* highlight disparities in access to education, which could have long-term impacts on economic development and gender equality. The correlation matrix shows no evidence of multicollinearity among the variables.

*Stationarity test*

Prior to estimating the model, stationarity test is conducted using the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) method to ensure that none of the variables are integrated of order two, *i*(2) series. The results presented in

Table 3 indicate that the variables in this study are a mix of *i*(0) and *i*(1) series, making the bounds test the suitable cointegration method to apply.

**Table 3:** Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) Test

Variables	ADF Statistic at Level	Critical Value 5%	ADF Statistic Difference	1 <sup>st</sup> Critical Value (5%)	Order of Integration
<i>lrgdppc</i>	-2.264	-3.568	-4.391	-3.572	<i>i</i> (1)
<i>gpi</i>	-5.052	-3.568		-3.572	<i>i</i> (0)
<i>lfpf</i>	-0.670	-3.568	-3.986	-3.572	<i>i</i> (1)
<i>lfpm</i>	-1.397	-3.568	-3.978	-3.572	<i>i</i> (1)
<i>lpop</i>	1.168	-3.568	-3.875	-3.572	<i>i</i> (1)
<i>sef</i>	-3.152	-3.568	-6.184	-3.572	<i>i</i> (1)
<i>sem</i>	-3.756	-3.568		-3.572	<i>i</i> (0)

Source: Authors' compilations, 2024

*Cointegration tests results*

**Table 4:** Result of the Bounds Test

Test Statistic	Value	K
F-statistic	4.49	6
Critical Value Bounds		
Significance	<i>i</i> (0) Bound	<i>i</i> (1) Bound
10%	2.12	3.23
5%	2.45	3.61
2.5%	2.75	3.99
1%	3.15	4.43

Source: Authors' compilations, 2024

The results of the bounds cointegration test, presented in Table 4, show F-statistics of 4.49, which provide strong evidence against the null hypothesis of no cointegration. This rejection at the 1% significance level indicates the presence of cointegrating relationship among the variables in the model. These findings suggest that the regressors act as the forcing variables, leading the response when a common stochastic shock occurs in the system. The implication is that b gross domestic product per capita adjusts in response to changes in these indicators.

**Table 5:** Long run and short run estimates

Variable	Coefficient
<i>Long-run estimates</i>	
gender parity	-30.8785 <sup>b</sup> (-2.47)
labour force participation rate, female	0.8975 <sup>a</sup> (4.16)
labour force participation rate, male	0.3604 <sup>a</sup> (3.92)

population	-2.6915 (-1.03)
school enrolment secondary, female	1.0428 <sup>b</sup> (2.74)
school enrolment secondary, male	-0.8563 <sup>b</sup> (-2.51)
Constant	17.0931 (0.39)
<i>Short-run estimates</i>	
$\Delta$ gross domestic product per capita_1	0.5109 <sup>b</sup> (2.79)
$\Delta$ gross domestic product per capita	2.0264 (1.31)
$\Delta$ gender parity_1	57.0793 <sup>a</sup> (4.35)
$\Delta$ labour force participation rate (female)	0.2765 (0.50)
$\Delta$ labour force participation rate (female)_1	-0.4545(-0.98)
$\Delta$ labour force participation rate (male)	0.5307 <sup>b</sup> (3.31)
$\Delta$ population	11.1855 (1.95)
$\Delta$ school enrolment secondary female	-0.3719 (-0.79)
$\Delta$ school enrolment secondary female_1	0.0279 (1.90)
$\Delta$ school enrolment secondary male	0.0823 <sup>a</sup> (3.58)
$\Delta$ school enrolment secondary male_1	1.6015 <sup>a</sup> (4.43)
ECT_1	-0.4723 <sup>b</sup> (-6.87)
<i>Diagnostic</i>	
Jarque-Bera (normality)	0.5139
Breusch-Godfrey (serial correlation)	2.753
ARCH LM (cond. heteroscedasticity)	1.377
CUSUMSQ (stability)	Stable
Notes: <sup>a</sup> , <sup>b</sup> , <sup>c</sup> indicates 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively; numbers in parentheses are t-statistics based on white heteroscedasticity-consistent standard errors; $\Delta$ is the difference operator; ARCH-LM: autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticitylagrange multiplier; CUSUMSQ: cumulative sum of squared residual	

**Source:** Authors' compilations, 2024

Table 5 presents the results for the model where convergence to long-run equilibrium is at a speed of 47% with the adjustment term negative and statistically significant at the 1% level. In the long-run, a percentage point increase in the gender parity index is associated with a reduction in the volume of bank credit by -30.879. This suggests that increase in gender parity index by 1% point contributes about 30.879% decrease in gross domestic product per capita, on average, *ceteris paribus*. This relationship is statistically significant at the 5% level and inconsistent with *apriori* expectations. Also, both labour force participation rate (female) and labour force participation rate (male) are positive predictors of gross domestic product per capita at the 1% significance level respectively which are in line with *apriori* expectations while school enrolment secondary, male negatively impacts gross domestic product per capita at the 5% significance level which contradicts the *apriori* expectations. The impact of school enrolment secondary, female on gross domestic product per capita is statistically significant at 5% level. The diagnostic results provide evidence that the models are stable with normally distributed residuals, and the model specifications do not suffer from autocorrelation, autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity. Hence, the findings from this study can be used for inferences.

## 5. Conclusion

Gender gaps, encompassing disparities in rights, opportunities, working conditions, and discrimination against women, continues to pose significant barriers to the contributions of women to economic development in Nigeria. Despite the increasing number of educated women, persistent gender gaps remain substantial obstacles to progress. These gaps undermine women's productivity in an economy striving to enhance its overall economic performance. However, the results reveal that that existing policies aimed at improving gender parity may not be translating effectively into economic development which has a negative relationship. Although, the positive impact of female secondary school enrollment on economic development, contrasted with the negative impact of male enrolment, indicates a need to align education with labour market demands. This study recommends that policies should be prioritize on ensuring that there are equal opportunities, equal working conditions and the stoppage of all forms of gender discrimination and bias in order to increase women's capacity and efforts towards economic development which might involve addressing structural barriers that limit the economic contributions of women despite progress in gender parity.

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