

# Compounded Marginalization: Race, Gender, and Political Knowledge\*

Jasmine English<sup>†</sup>

March 5, 2026

## **Abstract**

The gender gap in political knowledge is among the most robust findings in political science. Yet research rarely considers how the gendered distribution of political knowledge may vary by race and ethnicity. Using original survey data from the United Kingdom, this study examines political knowledge across both gender and race. Confirming established results, political knowledge is strongly associated with multiple forms of political engagement, and women score consistently lower than men. However, political knowledge is not evenly distributed among women: the gap between white and ethnic minority women in fact exceeds the overall gender gap. These results reveal a compounded disadvantage for ethnic minority women and highlight the need for civic education initiatives that address multiple sources of marginalization.

---

\*Competing interests: the author(s) declare none.

<sup>†</sup>Assistant Professor of Political Science, Reed College (jasenglish@reed.edu)

# 1 Introduction

The gender gap in political knowledge is a canonical finding in political science, with women consistently scoring lower than men on factual knowledge batteries (Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Lizotte and Sidman, 2009; Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Burns et al., 2001; Verba et al., 1997; Stolle and Gidengil, 2010; Fraile, 2014; Dassonneville and McAllister, 2018). This unequal distribution of knowledge raises fundamental questions about democratic equality: citizens who possess greater political knowledge are better equipped to hold elected officials accountable, align their policy preferences with their votes, and participate meaningfully in democratic life (Delli Carpini and Keeter, 1996; Galston, 2001; Verba et al., 1995; Nie et al., 1996; Zaller, 1992; Meirick and Wackman, 2004; Gilens, 2001; Siegel-Stechler, 2019).

Despite extensive attention to the gender gap, research has largely overlooked the potential for racial variation by gender. This omission is consequential: a long line of research indicates that there are racial disparities in political knowledge (Verba et al., 1993; Prior and Lupia, 2008a; Mondak, 1999; Abrajano, 2010; Abrajano and Alvarez, 2010), which suggests that ethnic minority women may face compounded disadvantages due to their gender and ethnic minority identity. Analyses that treat gender as a uniform category therefore risk obscuring important and multiple disadvantages in access to political knowledge.<sup>1</sup>

This paper addresses this gap by examining political knowledge across both gender and race. Drawing on original and nationally diverse survey data from the United Kingdom, I first validate the canonical findings that political knowledge correlates with political engagement and that women report less political knowledge than men. Then, I show that political knowledge is not evenly distributed among women and that the racial knowledge gap among women in fact exceeds the canonical gender knowledge gap. Although these patterns appear largely additive rather than multiplicative, their cumulative impact is significant and place ethnic minority women at a substantial disadvantage in democratic life.

This paper makes three contributions to the study of political knowledge and democratic

---

<sup>1</sup> Recent work does demonstrate gendered variation within ethnic groups in other political behaviors; for instance, (Martin and Shorrocks, 2025) find gender gaps in vote choice among some but not all ethnic minority groups in Britain.

inequality. First, it brings an intersectional perspective to the study of political knowledge by examining how race and gender jointly structure access to political information. While previous research has documented gender gaps and racial gaps separately (Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Burns et al., 2001; Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Fraile, 2014; Dassonneville and McAllister, 2018; Verba et al., 1993; Mondak, 1999; Abrajano, 2010), relatively little work has examined how these dimensions interact to shape the distribution of political knowledge. By analyzing political knowledge across both race and gender, this study demonstrates that the canonical gender gap masks important within-gender inequalities. In doing so, the paper contributes to a growing body of work emphasizing the importance of intersectional analysis in political behavior research (Smooth, 2006; Brown, 2014; McCall, 2005; Hancock, 2007).<sup>2</sup>

Second, the paper introduces a new empirical benchmark for assessing intersectional inequality in political knowledge. Rather than simply documenting the existence of racial variation among women, the analysis compares the magnitude of this within-gender racial gap to the canonical gender gap that dominates the literature. The results show that the knowledge gap between white women and ethnic minority women exceeds the overall gender gap between men and women. This comparison provides a useful benchmark for evaluating the substantive importance of intersectional inequality in political knowledge. In other words, disparities among women are not merely present but are larger than the inequality that has traditionally defined the field’s understanding of the political knowledge gap. These findings highlight how single-axis analyses can obscure the magnitude of informational disadvantages experienced by specific groups and underscore the importance of examining heterogeneity within categories such as “women” (Smooth, 2006; Brown, 2014).

Third, the paper extends research on political knowledge beyond the United States by examining these dynamics in the United Kingdom. Although Britain’s racial and political context differs from that of the United States, similar patterns of marginalization shape access to political information (Modood et al., 1997; Sobolewska and Ford, 2020). Britain is

---

<sup>2</sup> Scholars differ on whether intersectionality requires super-additive patterns or whether additive patterns still reflect distinct social positioning when identities are analyzed jointly (Hancock, 2007; McCall, 2005). This paper takes the position that additive patterns demonstrate cumulative disadvantages masked by single-identity analyses and that this evidence is important regardless of the specific theoretical label applied.

also a useful case for expanding our understanding of political knowledge because ethnic minority participation in elections is relatively high and electorally consequential (Heath et al., 2013). Demonstrating the existence of race–gender disparities in political knowledge in this context therefore speaks to inequalities in a politically engaged segment of the electorate. More broadly, the analysis contributes to a growing body of research examining intersectional political patterns in Britain (Krook and Nugent, 2016; Ward, 2017; Begum and Sobolewska, 2024), including recent work documenting gender differences in vote choice among ethnic minority voters (Martin and Shorrocks, 2025).

## **2 Race, Gender, and Political Knowledge**

### **2.1 Political Knowledge Gaps: Gender and Race**

Political knowledge—defined as factual information about politics, political institutions, and current affairs—has long been understood as a cornerstone of democratic citizenship (Delli Carpini and Keeter, 1996). Citizens who possess greater political knowledge are better equipped to connect their preferences to votes, evaluate government performance, and participate effectively in democratic processes (Galston, 2001; Gilens, 2001; Verba et al., 1995).

That women possess less political knowledge than men is among the most robust findings in political science (Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Burns et al., 2001; Lizotte and Sidman, 2009; Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Fraile, 2014; Dassonneville and McAllister, 2018). Across contexts and time periods, women correctly answer fewer factual political questions even controlling for education, political interest, and media consumption (Verba et al., 1997; Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Lizotte and Sidman, 2009; Fraile, 2014; Dassonneville and McAllister, 2018). Explanations for this gap range from gendered socialization and role expectations to motivational and epistemic norms that penalize women’s displays of confidence and risk-taking (Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Ferrín et al., 2019; Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Ferrín et al., 2018). However, much of this research treats “women” as an undifferentiated category. This approach obscures potentially meaningful variation in political knowledge among women and risks conflating the experiences of differently situated groups.

A parallel body of work documents persistent racial and ethnic differences in political knowledge (Verba et al., 1993; Prior and Lupia, 2008a; Mondak, 1999; Abrajano, 2010; Abrajano and Alvarez, 2010). Racial and ethnic minorities often score lower on standard political knowledge batteries, which reflects broader structural inequalities: ethnic minorities face systematic barriers to political information due to educational segregation, economic marginalization, and historical exclusion from political institutions (Verba et al., 1993). Moreover, ethnic minorities tend to demonstrate *greater* knowledge of domains salient to marginalized communities. For instance, studies that incorporate minority politicians and knowledge of policing and incarceration into political knowledge measures find that racial and ethnic minorities demonstrate greater knowledge than their white counterparts (Hutchings, 2001; Iyengar, 1990; Pérez, 2015; Abrajano, 2015; Cohen and Luttig, 2020). Perhaps most relevant to this study, recent work in the U.S. demonstrates that Black women-specific knowledge measures reverse gender gaps in political knowledge among African Americans (Jackson, 2025).

Together, these findings suggest that political knowledge reflects the social and political contexts in which it is acquired. Despite these parallel literatures, however, few studies examine how race and gender jointly shape political knowledge. This gap is a significant omission: if gender and race independently correlate with lower levels of political knowledge, then ethnic minority women may face compounded disadvantages that place them at a substantial disadvantage in democratic life. Understanding the cumulative effects of multiple sources of marginalization is therefore critical for identifying who is most excluded from political knowledge and designing effective interventions.

Research on gender and race in political behavior increasingly recognizes that analyzing these dimensions in isolation risks obscuring important patterns (Smooth, 2006; Brown, 2014; Cohen, 1999; McCall, 2005). Within political science, studies examining both dimensions show how ethnic minority women face distinctive barriers to political participation (Smooth, 2006; Brown, 2014), experience different patterns of policy responsiveness (Hancock, 2007; Jordan-Zachery, 2007), and are underrepresented in ways that differ from white women and ethnic minority men (Brown, 2014). Applied to political knowledge, examining both gender and race

generates two main expectations. First, ethnic minority women may exhibit lower political knowledge than white women due to the additive effects of both racialized and gendered barriers to political information. Second, this within-gender gap may equal or exceed the overall gender gap, revealing compounded disadvantages that single-axis analyses obscure.<sup>3</sup>

While much research on political knowledge focuses on the United States, the United Kingdom offers a theoretically valuable context for examining this question. Britain’s distinct colonial history and postwar immigration patterns produced a racialized social structure that differs from the American context, yet generates similar dynamics of marginalization (Modood et al., 1997; Sobolewska and Ford, 2020). Postwar migration from former colonies in South Asia, the Caribbean, and Africa produced a diverse set of ethnic minority communities that now constitute a growing share of the British electorate. The largest groups include South Asian (particularly Indian, Pakistani, and Bangladeshi), Black Caribbean and African, and mixed-heritage populations, whose settlement patterns reflect the legacies of migration policy, labor markets, and urban development (Modood et al., 1997; Sobolewska and Ford, 2020). These demographic dynamics have shaped patterns of political incorporation and representation that differ from the American case in terms of historical origins but nonetheless produce important forms of racialized political inequality.

Ethnic minority women in Britain—particularly Black British, South Asian, and Mixed-heritage women—face documented barriers in education, employment, and political representation that are deeply intertwined with both race and gender (Mirza, 1997; Brah, 1996). These structural inequalities suggest that access to political knowledge may also be structured by gender and race. If political information circulates through social networks, civic institutions, and media environments that shaped by racial and socioeconomic inequalities, then ethnic minority communities may encounter different informational environments than white Britons. Indeed, recent research on vote choice demonstrates the value of this kind of analysis in the British context, finding significant gender gaps in Labour support among Pakistani

---

<sup>3</sup> These expectations are consistent with either additive or super-additive/multiplicative patterns. The former would occur if gender and race disadvantages simply sum; the latter would occur if their combination produces unique disadvantages beyond the sum of each dimension.

and Bangladeshi voters but not other ethnic minority groups (Martin and Shorrocks, 2025). This variation across ethnic groups suggests that political patterns—including in political knowledge—cannot be assumed to be uniform by gender and require empirical investigation.

Taken together, existing research demonstrates that both gender and race are associated with inequalities in political knowledge. However, most studies examine these dimensions separately, leaving unclear how they jointly shape access to political information. This gap is particularly important in contexts such as Britain, where racial diversity has expanded rapidly in recent decades but where the intersection of race and gender has received relatively little attention in the study of political knowledge. The following section outlines several mechanisms through which race and gender may combine to structure political knowledge and generate compounded disadvantages for ethnic minority women.

A note on terminology: scholarship on intersectionality debates whether the framework requires evidence of super-additive (multiplicative) effects or whether it encompasses additive patterns that reveal qualitatively distinct positions when dimensions are examined simultaneously (Hancock, 2007; McCall, 2005). Rather than adjudicating this conceptual debate, this paper takes the position that even if gender and race operate additively, their cumulative impact places ethnic minority women in a distinctly disadvantaged position that single-axis analyses obscure. Regardless of the theoretical label, analyzing gender without race masks substantial heterogeneity among women and has important implications for understanding democratic inequality and designing effective interventions.

## **2.2 Mechanisms Linking Race, Gender, and Political Knowledge**

Although the present study does not directly test mechanisms, existing research suggests several pathways through which race and gender may jointly shape political knowledge.

First, access to political information is shaped by structural inequalities that disproportionately affect racial and ethnic minorities. A long line of research shows that political information acquisition is structured by resources and institutional environments, including differences in education, media exposure, and civic organizations (Verba et al., 1995; Delli Carpini

and Keeter, 1996; Luskin, 1990; Prior and Lupia, 2008b; Jerit et al., 2006). Because these informational resources are unevenly distributed across racial and socioeconomic groups, political information flows unevenly across communities (Hutchings, 2001; Verba et al., 1993; Griffin and Flavin, 2007; Cohen and Luttig, 2020). Historically marginalized communities often encounter fewer institutional channels through which political information is transmitted, and when political information does circulate, it may be oriented toward issues that differ from those captured by conventional measures. As a result, racial and ethnic minorities may face greater barriers to acquiring the forms of political knowledge typically measured in surveys.

Second, gendered socialization and informational norms shape how individuals engage with political information. A large literature finds that women report lower levels of factual political knowledge than men, even after accounting for education, political interest, and media exposure. Some scholars attribute this gap to gendered patterns of socialization and adult roles that provide men with greater exposure to political discussion and information (Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Ferrín et al., 2019). Others emphasize motivational dynamics, arguing that political expertise is socially coded as masculine and associated with traits such as assertiveness and competitiveness (Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Dolan, 2014; Schneider and Bos, 2014). These norms can discourage women from expressing certainty in political domains and reduce both engagement with political information and confidence in reporting political knowledge (Ferrín et al., 2018; Wolak, 2020). Indeed, scholars have largely interpreted particularly women’s greater propensity to select “I don’t know” than guessing when answering political knowledge questions as evidence of gendered knowledge norms: women may be more reluctant than men to guess in the face of uncertainty (Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Mondak and Canache, 2004; Lizotte and Sidman, 2009; Ferrín et al., 2018).

Finally, these dynamics may combine to produce compounded informational disadvantages for ethnic minority women. If access to political information is structured by racialized inequalities in informational resources and gendered norms shape how individuals engage with political expertise, then individuals positioned at the intersection of these inequalities may face distinct barriers to acquiring political knowledge. Moreover, political institutions,

media coverage, and public discourse have historically centered white male political actors, while ethnic minority women remain substantially underrepresented in elected office (Krook and Nugent, 2016; Hughes, 2011). When individuals assess their competence, they often evaluate themselves relative to others in the domain (Dunning et al., 2004). If ethnic minority women are underrepresented in political spaces, this descriptive imbalance can signal who belongs in politics and whose knowledge is valued (Wolbrecht and Campbell, 2007). These signals may discourage engagement with political information and reduced confidence around politics, contributing to lower levels of political knowledge among ethnic minority women.

Together, these mechanisms suggest that race and gender may jointly structure access to political information in ways that place ethnic minority women at a distinct disadvantage. Even if the effects of race and gender operate additively rather than multiplicatively, their combined influence may produce substantial disparities in political knowledge that are obscured when gender and race are examined in isolation. The analyses that follow examine whether such inequalities exist in the distribution of political knowledge in Britain.

### **3 Data and Measurement**

To examine political knowledge across gender and race, I fielded an original survey to a nationally diverse sample of 1,613 British adults via Prolific in Fall 2025. The survey includes a purposive oversample of ethnic minority respondents (44% vs.  $\tilde{15}$ % in the general population). Oversampling is necessary for intersectional analysis because population-representative samples often contain too few ethnic minority women. This limits statistical power to estimate within-gender racial disparities, the central comparison in this study. By increasing the number of ethnic minority respondents, the design ensures sufficient observations to estimate differences in political knowledge across gender–race groups with greater precision. This sample excludes 43 respondents who failed an attention check. The survey measures political knowledge, political engagement, and demographic background. Appendix S1 presents descriptive statistics for the sample and Appendix S2 presents the survey questionnaire. Appendix S5 describes how the study adheres to APSA’s Principles and Guidance for Human

Subjects Research.

Participants were recruited through Prolific, an online participant recruitment platform widely used in social science research, and were directed to a survey administered in Qualtrics. Evidence suggests that Prolific samples produce relatively high-quality data and lower rates of inattentive responding than many other online panels, including MTurk (Peer et al., 2021; Albert and Smilek, 2023). However, as with most non-probability online samples, Prolific respondents tend to be somewhat younger and more highly educated than the general population. To improve correspondence with the British population on key demographic characteristics, descriptive analyses apply post-stratification weights constructed using 2024 benchmarks from the U.K. Office for National Statistics. I constructed these weights using gender, age, ethnicity, and education. Because some respondents have missing values on weighting variables, the final weighted sample size is 1,595.<sup>4</sup>

To measure political knowledge, I use a five-item scale with multiple-choice questions designed to capture knowledge of core political institutions and actors in the United Kingdom. The items are modeled on canonical political knowledge batteries developed by Delli Carpini and Keeter (1993) and widely used in existing literature (Meirick and Wackman, 2004; Weitz-Shapiro and Winters, 2023; Fraile, 2008; Kraft and Dolan, 2023; Pérez, 2015; Jansa et al., 2024). Following this tradition, the questions focus on factual knowledge about how the political system operates rather than issue opinions or ideological preferences. The items capture multiple dimensions of institutional political knowledge, including party control of parliament, ideological positioning of major parties, the legislative process, and recognition of key political officeholders. Together, these questions reflect the types of institutional knowledge commonly used in comparative studies of political knowledge and civic competence. Each respondent is scored as correct (1) or incorrect (0) and their score is summed and scaled from 0 to 1. Respondents received the political knowledge questions in random order. Table 1 presents the question wordings and correct answers.

---

<sup>4</sup> The demographic breakdown of the unweighted and weighted samples are reported in Appendix S1. Weighting reduces known Prolific skews and brings the sample into much closer alignment with ACS and ONS population benchmarks.

Table 1: Political Knowledge Items (United Kingdom)

---

**United Kingdom**

---

Which party currently has a majority of seats in the House of Commons? *Labour Party*

What is the maximum length of time Parliament can last before a general election must be held? *Five years*

Which party is generally considered more to the right at the national level? *Conservative Party*

Who is responsible for making the final decision on whether a law passes in the U.K.? *House of Commons*

What office is currently held by Rachel Reeves? *Chancellor of the Exchequer*

---

*Note:* Correct answers indicated in italics.

After the political knowledge questions, respondents answer questions about political engagement: voting in the most recent election (0 or 1), participating in a protest or demonstration in the past 12 months (0 or 1), contacting a government official in the past 12 months (0 or 1), and talking about politics with family, friends, or coworkers (“Never” to “Daily” on a five-item scale, rescaled 0-1). The survey ends with a set of demographic questions.

## 4 Validating Canonical Findings

Before turning to the main analysis, this section examines the canonical findings that political knowledge correlates with political engagement (Galston, 2001; Verba et al., 1995; Delli Carpini and Keeter, 1996) and that there is a significant gender gap in political knowledge (Burns et al., 2001; Mondak and Anderson, 2004; Wolak and McDevitt, 2011; Fraile, 2014; Dassonneville and McAllister, 2018; Verba et al., 1997; Stolle and Gidengil, 2010).

First, Table 2 demonstrates that political knowledge is strongly and positively associated with multiple forms of participation. Respondents with more factual political knowledge are significantly more likely to report voting, protesting, contacting officials, and discussing politics. The relationship is particularly strong for voting and political discussion, underscoring the role of political knowledge in facilitating both formal and informal engagement.<sup>5</sup>

---

<sup>5</sup> All models in Table 2 include controls for party affiliation, gender, race/ethnicity, age, income, education, and region. Appendix S3 presents the the full regression results with estimates for all covariates.

Table 2: Political Knowledge and Participation

	Vote	Protest	Contact	Discussion
Knowledge	0.259*** (0.050)	0.064* (0.030)	0.099* (0.040)	0.186*** (0.023)
N	1,593	1,593	1,593	1,593
R <sup>2</sup>	0.148	0.026	0.035	0.124
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.139	0.016	0.026	0.115

*Note:* Estimates for party ID, gender, race/ethnicity, age, income, education, and region are included in all models but suppressed for brevity. Robust standard errors (HC1) in parentheses. \* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001.

I next examine the gender gap in political knowledge. Table 3 presents weighted political knowledge means and shows that women score 0.71 versus 0.78 for men, a difference of seven points (p<0.001). Together, these results confirm that the U.K. sample reproduces two empirical regularities in the literature: first, political knowledge is a strong predictor of participation, and second, there exists a significant gender gap in political knowledge. However, these aggregate patterns may mask important heterogeneity. The following section explores this possibility by examining variation in political knowledge among women by ethnic group.

Table 3: Gender Gap in Political Knowledge

Men	Women	Difference	P-value
0.78	0.71	0.07	< 0.001

*Note:* Weighted means. Difference is men minus women. P-value from weighted two-sample t-tests. Political knowledge scaled 0–1. N=818 women, N=777 men.

I next examine whether the survey reproduces the racial gap in political knowledge documented in prior research (Verba et al., 1993; Abrajano, 2010; Abrajano and Alvarez, 2010). Table 4 presents weighted political knowledge means by ethnic group. Consistent with existing scholarship, ethnic minority respondents score lower on conventional political knowledge questions than white respondents. This pattern reflects broader structural inequalities in access to political information and engagement with formal political institutions. As with the gender

gap, however, these aggregate differences may obscure important within-group variation. The following section therefore examines political knowledge among women by ethnic group.

Table 4: Ethnic Gap in Political Knowledge

White	Ethnic Minority	Difference	P-value
0.76	0.68	0.08	< 0.001

*Note:* Weighted means. Difference is white minus ethnic minority. P-value from weighted two-sample t-tests. Political knowledge scaled 0–1. N=893 white respondents, N=702 ethnic minority respondents.

## 5 Racial and Gendered Inequalities in Political Knowledge

The gender gap documented above treats women as a uniform category. But do all women have similar access to political knowledge? If race and gender shape access to political information, we should observe meaningful variation in political knowledge between white women and ethnic minority women, a category that includes women who self-identified as Black, Asian, Mixed, and/or Other on the survey.

Table 5 reveals a clear and substantively meaningful pattern: the gap between white and ethnic minority women (ten points) exceeds the overall gap between men and women (seven points) and is highly statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). In other words, the racial knowledge gap among women is larger than the overall gender knowledge gap. Appendix S4 disaggregates ethnic minority women by ethnic group (Black, Asian, Mixed) and shows that each group scores significantly lower on average than white women.

Table 5: Political Knowledge by Race and Gender

White Women	Ethnic Minority Women	Difference	P-value
0.67	0.57	0.10	< 0.001

*Note:* Weighted means. Difference is white women minus ethnic minority women. All p-values from weighted two-sample t-tests. Political knowledge scaled 0–1. N=467 white women, N=351 ethnic minority women.

This disparity is substantively important because political knowledge functions as a key political resource in democratic politics. Citizens with greater factual political knowledge are more likely to vote, participate in political discussion, and engage in other forms of political participation (Delli Carpini and Keeter, 1996; Galston, 2001; Verba et al., 1995). Knowledge also shapes who is perceived as politically competent and whose views carry weight in political conversations and deliberative settings. A ten-point knowledge gap therefore represents more than a descriptive difference in information; it suggests meaningful inequalities in the political resources that facilitate participation and influence.

To put this finding in perspective, the ten-point gap between white women and ethnic minority women is significantly larger than the knowledge gap between the highest and lowest income quartiles (2 points). This finding is noteworthy given that income is a fundamental determinant of political knowledge (Delli Carpini and Keeter, 1996; Verba et al., 1995). That race-gender disparities exceed socioeconomic disparities underscores the centrality of race and gender in structuring access to political information.

This section thus shows that ethnic minority women possess less political knowledge than white women or ethnic minority men. To further assess how the gender knowledge gap varies across racial groups, Table 6 presents estimates of the gender gap by race. Men score eight points higher than women overall (0.78 vs. 0.71,  $p < 0.001$ ), and this gender gap is nearly identical among white respondents (0.80 vs. 0.72,  $p < 0.001$ ). Notably, however, the gender gap is substantially larger among ethnic minority respondents: minority men score 0.73 compared to 0.62 for ethnic minority women, an eleven-point difference ( $p < 0.001$ ). Figure 1 visualizes these differences across the four race-gender groups. The figure illustrates that ethnic minority women occupy the lowest position in the distribution, while white men occupy the highest, with the remaining groups falling in between.

These results demonstrate that the gender gap in political knowledge is not uniform across racial groups. Among white respondents, the gender gap closely mirrors the overall pattern observed in the sample. Among ethnic minority respondents, however, the gap widens considerably. In other words, gender inequalities in political knowledge are magnified within

Table 6: Gender Gap in Political Knowledge by Race

Group	Men	Women	Difference	P-value
All Respondents	0.78	0.71	0.07	< 0.001
White	0.80	0.72	0.08	< 0.001
Ethnic Minority	0.73	0.62	0.11	< 0.001

*Note:* Weighted means. Political knowledge scaled 0–1. Difference is men minus women. P-value from weighted two-sample t-tests. N=467 white women, N=351 ethnic minority women, N=426 white men, N=351 ethnic minority men.

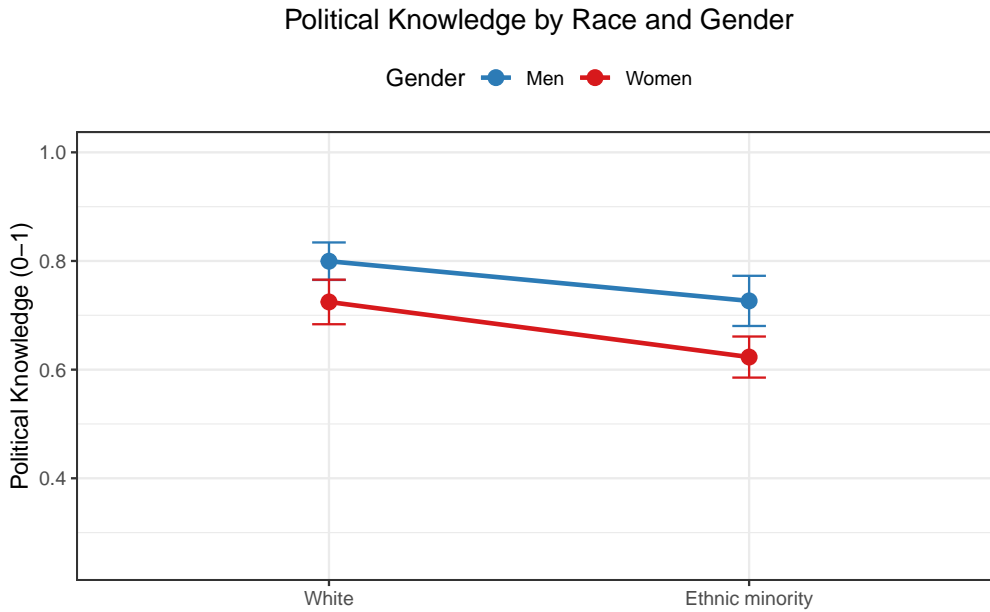


Figure 1: Political Knowledge by Race and Gender

*Note:* Points show weighted mean political knowledge scores by race and gender, with 95% confidence intervals. Political knowledge is scaled from 0 to 1. The figure illustrates both the gender gap in political knowledge and the larger racial gap among women.

ethnic minority communities, producing a particularly large informational disadvantage for ethnic minority women. This pattern reinforces the importance of examining gender and race jointly rather than treating them as independent sources of inequality. More broadly, it suggests that conventional estimates of the gender gap may obscure important variation within the category of women. What appears as a single gender gap in aggregate statistics may in fact reflect substantially larger inequalities affecting specific groups of women.<sup>6</sup>

In sum, the results in this section demonstrate that the canonical gender gap in political knowledge masks important racial inequalities. Ethnic minority women possess significantly less political knowledge than white women, and this within-gender gap exceeds the overall difference between women and men. At the same time, the gender gap itself varies across racial groups, widening substantially among ethnic minority respondents. Taken together, these findings show that political knowledge is structured jointly by race and gender. Conventional approaches that analyze gender and race as separate sources of inequality risk obscuring the compounded informational disadvantages faced by ethnic minority women.

## 6 Discussion and Conclusion

This study demonstrates that the canonical gender gap in political knowledge masks important racial inequalities. Using original survey data from the United Kingdom, I show that ethnic minority women possess significantly less political knowledge than white women and that this within-gender gap (10 points) exceeds the overall gender gap (7 points). The magnitude of this disparity is substantial: the knowledge gap between white and ethnic minority women is larger than the gap associated with moving from the lowest to the highest income quartile. While these patterns appear largely additive rather than super-additive, their impact is substantial and reveals the cumulative knowledge disadvantage faced by ethnic minority women.

---

<sup>6</sup> As an additional check, Appendix S5 presents a weighted regression model that includes a race  $\times$  gender interaction term and controls. The interaction term between gender and ethnic minority status is negative but statistically insignificant, indicating that the disadvantages associated with race and gender operate largely in an additive rather than multiplicative manner. This is consistent with the descriptive findings in the main texts and suggests that ethnic minority women exhibit the lowest predicted levels of political knowledge because they experience the combined effects of both gender and racial disparities rather than because the gender gap itself differs significantly across racial groups.

These results have three main implications. First, they underscore the need to reconsider not only the content of political knowledge measures (Hutchings, 2001; Dolan, 2011; Stolle and Gidengil, 2010; Pérez, 2015; Abrajano, 2015; Cohen and Luttig, 2020), but the distribution of political knowledge across social identities. Much of the literature examines gender and race separately, estimating a gender gap or a racial gap in isolation. While this approach has generated important insights, it can obscure meaningful heterogeneity within groups. As this study shows, analyzing gender without race risks masking the distinct informational environments and experiences of ethnic minority women.

Second, these disparities matter for democratic equality. Because political knowledge shapes who is perceived as competent and whose voices carry weight in democratic politics (Delli Carpini and Keeter, 1996; Galston, 2001), racialized and gendered knowledge inequalities may reinforce existing hierarchies of participation and representation (Verba et al., 1995; Gilens, 2001). If institutional political knowledge functions as a signal of civic competence in political discussions, participatory forums, or pathways into political leadership, then ethnic minority women may face systematic disadvantages in arenas where such knowledge is implicitly treated as a prerequisite for political influence. Knowledge inequalities may therefore shape whose preferences are articulated in democratic debate and who feels confident participating in political discussion. Over time, such informational disparities may also influence the pipeline into political leadership: individuals who perceive themselves as less informed may be less likely to develop political ambition, seek office, or be recruited into elite political roles.

Third, the findings suggest that “one-size-fits-all” civic education initiatives may prove insufficient for addressing the distinctive disadvantages of ethnic minority women. Research shows that civic education can increase both objective political knowledge and citizens’ confidence in their political knowledge, helping individuals calibrate their understanding of politics over time (Jansa et al., 2024). The present findings suggest that more promising interventions may include civic education programs that connect political knowledge to the lived experiences of marginalized communities and make institutional knowledge more relevant and accessible, as well as mentorship and leadership initiatives specifically designed for ethnic mi-

nority women. Research suggests that such programs can increase both political efficacy and political knowledge (Brown, 2014). Such approaches may help reduce informational inequalities while also broadening the range of citizens who view themselves as legitimate participants in democratic life. Addressing informational inequalities, in other words, may require not only expanding access to political information but also ensuring that political learning opportunities reflect the experiences and political concerns of different communities.

These findings also point to several directions for future research. First, the measures employed in this paper are conventional and focus on institutional structures, party positions, and elite officeholders. This choice establishes a conservative baseline for understanding inequalities. Recent scholarship shows that women and racial minorities often demonstrate greater knowledge than their white counterparts when measures incorporate domains such as policing, welfare, incarceration, or minority political leadership (Cohen and Lutttig, 2020; Stolle and Gidengil, 2010; English, 2026; Pérez, 2015; Abrajano, 2015). Future research should therefore examine whether the patterns identified in this paper persist—or potentially intensify—when measures of political knowledge recognize multiple forms of expertise.

More broadly, scholars should investigate the mechanisms that generate knowledge inequalities among ethnic minority women. The present study documents disparities in political knowledge but does not directly examine the mechanisms that generate them. Future work should investigate the processes through which race and gender jointly shape access to political information. For example, researchers could examine how differences in information environments, media exposure, civic organizations, and social networks shape access to political information across groups. Longitudinal studies could also assess how political knowledge develops over time and whether informational gaps widen or narrow as individuals encounter political institutions and civic learning opportunities. In addition, experimental research on civic education or informational interventions could test whether targeted efforts reduce knowledge disparities among marginalized groups. Finally, comparative research could assess whether similar race–gender disparities in political knowledge emerge in other democratic contexts with different histories of immigration, racial stratification, and political incorporation.

Overall, this paper demonstrates that political knowledge in Britain is structured by race and gender and reveals a significant disadvantage for ethnic minority women. Moving beyond single-axis analyses thus sharpens our understanding of who is viewed as informed, who participates, and whose voices are heard in democratic life—core questions for theories of democratic equality and representation. Only by examining both race and gender simultaneously can we develop theories—and interventions—that more completely reflect the lived realities of different groups of citizens.

## References

- Abrajano, M. (2015). Reexamining the "racial gap" in political knowledge. *The Journal of Politics*, 77(1):44–54.
- Abrajano, M. A. (2010). *Campaigning to the new American electorate: Advertising to Latino voters*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, CA.
- Abrajano, M. A. and Alvarez, R. M. (2010). *New Faces, New Voices: The Hispanic Electorate in America*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ.
- Albert, D. A. and Smilek, D. (2023). Comparing attentional disengagement between Prolific and Mturk samples. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1):20574.
- Begum, N. and Sobolewska, M. (2024). Ticking two boxes, fighting two battles: Intersectional experiences of ethnic minority women councillors in uk local government. *Politics 38; Gender*, 20(3):553–578.
- Brah, A. (1996). *Cartographies of Diaspora: Contesting Identities*. Routledge, London.
- Brown, N. E. (2014). Political participation of women of color: An intersectional analysis. *Journal of Women, Politics & Policy*, 35(4):315–348.
- Burns, N., Schlozman, K. L., and Verba, S. (2001). *The Private Roots of Public Action: Gender, Equality, and Political Participation*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Cohen, C. and Luttig, M. (2020). Reconceptualizing political knowledge: Race, ethnicity, and carceral violence. *Perspectives on Politics*, 18(3):805–818.
- Cohen, C. J. (1999). *The Boundaries of Blackness: AIDS and the Breakdown of Black Politics*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.
- Dassonneville, R. and McAllister, I. (2018). Gendered biases in political knowledge tests? *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 82(3):552–575.

- Delli Carpini, M. X. and Keeter, S. (1993). Measuring political knowledge: Putting first things first. *American Journal of Political Science*, 37(4):1179–1206.
- Delli Carpini, M. X. and Keeter, S. (1996). *What Americans Know About Politics and Why It Matters*. Yale University Press.
- Dolan, K. (2011). Do women and men know different things? measuring gender differences in political knowledge. *Journal of Politics*, 73(1):97–107.
- Dolan, K. (2014). *When Does Gender Matter? Women Candidates and Gender Stereotypes in American Elections*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Dunning, D., Heath, C., and Suls, J. M. (2004). Flawed self-assessment: Implications for health, education, and the workplace. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 5(3):69–106.
- English, J. (2026). Closing the gap: Gender, race, and welfare state knowledge. Working paper.
- Ferrín, M., Fraile, M., and García-Albacete, G. (2019). Adult roles and the gender gap in political knowledge: A comparative study. *West European Politics*, 42(7):1368–1389.
- Ferrín, M., Fraile, M., García-Albacete, G. M., and Gomez, R. (2018). The gender gap in political knowledge: Is it all about guessing? An experimental approach. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 30(1):111–132.
- Fraile, M. (2008). Political knowledge and the logic of voting: A comparative study. In Maravall, J. M. and Sánchez-Cuenca, I., editors, *Controlling Governments: Voters, Institutions, and Accountability*, pages 131–156. Cambridge University Press, New York.
- Fraile, M. (2014). Do women know less about politics than men? the gender gap in political knowledge: A cross-national analysis. *Political Research Quarterly*, 67(2):355–367.
- Galston, W. A. (2001). Political knowledge, political engagement, and civic education. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 4:217–234.

- Gilens, M. (2001). Political ignorance and collective policy preferences. *American Political Science Review*, 95(2):379–396.
- Griffin, J. D. and Flavin, P. (2007). Racial differences in information, expectations, and accountability. *The Journal of Politics*, 69(1):220–236.
- Hancock, A.-M. (2007). When multiplication doesn't equal quick addition: Examining intersectionality as a research paradigm. *Perspectives on Politics*, 5(1):63–79.
- Heath, A., Fisher, S., Rosenblatt, G., Sanders, D., and Sobolewska, M. (2013). *The Political Integration of Ethnic Minorities in Britain*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Hughes, M. M. (2011). Intersectionality, quotas, and minority women's political representation worldwide. *American Political Science Review*, 105(3):604–620.
- Hutchings, V. L. (2001). Political context, issue salience, and selective attentiveness: Constituent knowledge of the clarence thomas confirmation vote. *The Journal of Politics*, 63(3):846–868.
- Iyengar, S. (1990). *Shortcuts to Political Knowledge: The Role of Selective Attention and Accessibility*, pages 160–185. *Information and Democratic Processes*. Eds. John A. Ferejohn and James H. Kuklinski. University of Illinois Press.
- Jackson, J. C. (2025). Dismantling the master's house: An assessment of the gender gap in the political knowledge of african americans. *Social Science Quarterly*, 106:e70015.
- Jansa, J. M., Ringsmuth, E. M., and Smith, A. P. (2024). Calibrating confidence: Civic education and the relationship between objective political knowledge and political knowledge confidence. *Perspectives on Politics*, 23(3):997–1012.
- Jerit, J., Barabas, J., and Bolsen, T. (2006). Citizens, knowledge, and the information environment. *American Journal of Political Science*, 50(2):266–282.
- Jordan-Zachery, J. S. (2007). Am i a black woman or a woman who is black? a few thoughts on the meaning of intersectionality. *Politics & Gender*, 3(2):254–263.

- Kraft, P. W. and Dolan, K. (2023). Glass half full or half empty: Does optimism about women's representation in elected office matter? *Journal of Women, Politics & Policy*, 44(2):139–151.
- Krook, M. L. and Nugent, M. K. (2016). Intersectional institutions: Representing women and ethnic minorities in the british labour party. *Party Politics*, 22(5):620–630.
- Lizotte, M.-K. and Sidman, A. (2009). Explaining the gender gap in political knowledge: A theory of guessing. *Journal of Politics*, 71(4):1218–1231.
- Luskin, R. C. (1990). Explaining political sophistication. *Political Behavior*, 12(4):331–361.
- Martin, N. S. and Shorrocks, R. (2025). Gender vote gaps among ethnic minority voters in britain. *British Journal of Political Science*, 55:e73, 1–9.
- McCall, L. (2005). The complexity of intersectionality. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 30(3):1771–1800.
- Meirick, P. C. and Wackman, D. B. (2004). Kids voting and political knowledge: Narrowing gaps, informing votes. *Social Science Quarterly*, 85(5):1161–1177.
- Mirza, H. S., editor (1997). *Black British Feminism: A Reader*. Routledge, London.
- Modood, T., Berthoud, R., Lakey, J., Nazroo, J., Smith, P., Virdee, S., and Beishon, S. (1997). *Ethnic Minorities in Britain: Diversity and Disadvantage*. Policy Studies Institute, London.
- Mondak, J. J. (1999). Reconsidering the measurement of political knowledge. *Political Analysis*, 8(1):57–82.
- Mondak, J. J. and Anderson, M. R. (2004). The knowledge gap: A reexamination of gender-based differences in political knowledge. *Journal of Politics*, 66(2):492–512.
- Mondak, J. J. and Canache, D. (2004). Knowledge variables in cross-national social inquiry. *Social Science Quarterly*, 85(3):539–558.

- Nie, N. H., Junn, J., and Stehlik-Barry, K. (1996). *Education and Democratic Citizenship in America*. University of Chicago Press.
- Peer, E., Rothschild, D., Evernden, Z., Gordon, A., and Damer, E. (2021). Mturk, prolific or panels? choosing the right audience for online research. *SSRN Electronic Journal*.
- Prior, M. and Lupia, A. (2008a). Money, time, and political knowledge: Distinguishing quick recall and political learning skills. *American Journal of Political Science*, 52(1):169–183.
- Prior, M. and Lupia, A. (2008b). Money, time, and political knowledge: Distinguishing quick recall and political learning skills. *American Journal of Political Science*, 52(1):169–183.
- Pérez, E. (2015). Mind the gap: Why large group deficits in political knowledge emerge—And what to do about them. *Political Behavior*, 37(4):933–954.
- Schneider, M. C. and Bos, A. L. (2014). Measuring stereotypes of female politicians. *Political Psychology*, 35(2):245–266.
- Siegel-Stechler, K. (2019). Is civics enough? high school civics education and young adult voter turnout. *Journal of Social Studies Research*, 43(3):241–253.
- Smooth, W. (2006). Intersectionality in electoral politics: A mess worth making. *Politics & Gender*, 2(3):400–414.
- Sobolewska, M. and Ford, R. (2020). *Brexitland: Identity, Diversity and the Reshaping of British Politics*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Stolle, D. and Gidengil, E. (2010). What do women really know? a gendered analysis of varieties of political knowledge. *Perspectives on Politics*, 8(1):70–86.
- Verba, S., Brady, H., and Schlozman, K. L. (1995). *Voice and Equality: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics*. Harvard University Press.
- Verba, S., Burns, N., and Schlozman, K. L. (1997). Knowing and caring about politics: Gender and political engagement. *Journal of Politics*, 59(4):1051–1072.

- Verba, S., Nie, N. H., and Kim, J.-o. (1993). Race, ethnicity and political resources: Participation in the united states. *British Journal of Political Science*, 23(4):453–497.
- Ward, O. (2017). Intersectionality and press coverage of political campaigns: Representations of black, asian, and minority ethnic female candidates at the u.k. 2010 general election. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 22(1):43–66.
- Weitz-Shapiro, R. and Winters, M. S. (2023). Knowledge of social rights as political knowledge. *Political Behavior*, 45(4):1911–1931.
- Wolak, J. (2020). Self-confidence and gender gaps in political interest, attention, and efficacy. *Political Behavior*, 42(4):1145–1172.
- Wolak, J. and McDevitt, M. (2011). The roots of the gender gap in political knowledge in adolescence. *Political Behavior*, 33(3):505–533.
- Wolbrecht, C. and Campbell, D. E. (2007). Leading by example: Female members of parliament as political role models. *American Journal of Political Science*, 51(4):921–939.
- Zaller, J. (1992). *The Nature and Origins of Mass Opinion*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

# Supplementary Material for “Compounded Marginalization: Race, Gender, and Political Knowledge”

## Contents

1. Descriptive Statistics: Prolific Sample
2. Survey Questionnaire
3. Participation Regressions with Covariates
4. Within-Gender Gap by Racial/Ethnic Group
5. Gender Gap by Race/Ethnicity
6. Ethical Considerations

## S1 Descriptive Statistics: Prolific Sample

Table 1: Demographic breakdown, Prolific sample (Unweighted).  
Means for continuous variables; percentages for binary indicators.

Variable	All	Women	Men
N	1595.0	818.0	777.0
Age (mean)	43.3	43.7	43.0
Education (mean, 1-4 scale)	2.8	2.8	2.8
Income (mean, 1-9 scale)	4.8	4.7	4.8
Labour (percent)	43.8	44.9	42.7
Conservative (percent)	20.9	19.2	22.7
Independent/Other (percent)	35.3	35.9	34.6
White (percent)	56.0	57.1	54.8
Black (percent)	16.6	16.0	17.2
Asian (percent)	19.7	19.1	20.5
Mixed (percent)	6.0	6.2	5.8

Table 2: Demographic breakdown, Prolific sample (Weighted).  
Means for continuous variables; percentages for binary indicators.

Variable	All	Women	Men
Weighted N	1595.0	813.5	781.5
Age (mean)	48.0	50.0	46.0
Education (mean, 1-4 scale)	2.0	2.0	2.1
Income (mean, 1-9 scale)	4.3	4.2	4.4
Labour (percent)	38.7	38.5	38.9
Conservative (percent)	26.2	23.8	28.8
Independent/Other (percent)	35.1	37.7	32.3
White (percent)	81.0	83.3	78.6
Black (percent)	4.2	3.7	4.7
Asian (percent)	9.6	8.4	10.8
Mixed (percent)	3.9	3.7	4.2

## S2 Survey Questionnaire

### Political Knowledge (Correct answer in italics)

1. Which party currently has a majority of seats in the House of Commons?  
Conservative Party; *Labour Party*; Liberal Democrats; I don't know
2. What is the maximum length of time Parliament can last before a general election must be held?  
3 years; 4 years; *5 years*; 7 years
3. Which party is generally considered more to the right at the national level?  
Labour Party; *Conservative Party*; They are considered equally right-wing; I don't know
4. Who is responsible for making the final decision on whether a law passes in the U.K.?  
Monarch; Prime Minister; *House of Commons*; I don't know
5. What office is currently held by Rachel Reeves?  
*Chancellor of the Exchequer*; Home Secretary; Speaker of the House of Commons; I don't know

### Political Engagement

1. Vote: In talking to people about elections, we often find that some were not able to vote because they weren't registered, they were sick, or they just didn't have time. How about you—did you vote in the last general election?  
Yes; No
2. Protest: Please indicate whether you have taken part in a protest, demonstration or march in the past 12 months.  
Yes; No
3. Contact: During the past 12 months, have you contacted your local councillor, MP, or a government office/agency about an issue that mattered to you?  
Yes; No
4. Discussion: How often do you talk about politics with family, friends, or coworkers?  
Daily; A few times a week; A few times a month; Less than once a month; Never

### Covariates

1. What is your gender?  
Male; Female; Some other gender; Prefer not to say
2. What is your age?  
Open-ended
3. What is your race/ethnicity? Please select all that apply.  
White; Black; Asian; Mixed; Other

4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?  
Postgraduate degree (e.g., Master's, PhD, professional qualification); Undergraduate degree (e.g., Bachelor's); Higher National Diploma (HND), Higher National Certificate (HNC), or Foundation degree; A-levels, Scottish Highers, or equivalent (completed school-leaving qualification); GCSEs or equivalent (completed secondary school qualifications); Less than GCSEs; left school before taking exams
5. What is your total annual household income before taxes?  
Less than £10,000; £10,000–£19,999; £20,000–£29,999; £30,000–£39,999; £40,000–£49,999; £50,000–£74,999; £75,000–£99,999; £100,000–£149,999; More than £150,000
6. In which region of the United Kingdom do you currently live?  
England – North; England – Midlands; England – South; Scotland; Wales; Northern Ireland
7. Generally speaking, do you usually think of yourself as...  
Labour; Conservative; Independent/Other

### S3 Participation Regressions with Covariates

Table 3: Political Knowledge and Participation

	Vote	Protest	Contact	Discussion
Knowledge	0.259*** (0.050)	0.064* (0.030)	0.099* (0.040)	0.186*** (0.023)
Independent/Other	-0.042 (0.027)	0.032* (0.016)	0.050 (0.027)	0.015 (0.014)
Labour	0.066** (0.024)	0.028 (0.016)	0.010 (0.025)	0.010 (0.013)
Female	-0.014 (0.019)	-0.012 (0.014)	0.038 (0.020)	-0.033*** (0.010)
Black	-0.035 (0.038)	-0.002 (0.025)	-0.064* (0.028)	0.039* (0.016)
Mixed	-0.004 (0.052)	-0.017 (0.033)	0.052 (0.048)	0.036 (0.024)
Other	-0.247* (0.097)	-0.023 (0.056)	-0.002 (0.076)	0.090 (0.048)
White	0.121*** (0.029)	-0.025 (0.020)	-0.008 (0.026)	0.070*** (0.014)
Age	0.004*** (0.001)	-0.001* (0.001)	0.003*** (0.001)	0.001*** (0.0004)
Income	0.014** (0.005)	-0.004 (0.003)	-0.007 (0.005)	0.0003 (0.003)
Education	0.004 (0.010)	0.015* (0.007)	0.022* (0.011)	0.019*** (0.006)
England-North	0.002 (0.028)	-0.003 (0.017)	0.027 (0.026)	0.038** (0.014)
England-South	-0.003 (0.026)	0.032 (0.017)	0.058* (0.025)	0.024 (0.013)
Northern Ireland	-0.064 (0.094)	0.086 (0.073)	-0.016 (0.078)	-0.002 (0.033)
Scotland	-0.043 (0.045)	0.014 (0.028)	0.008 (0.042)	0.012 (0.022)
Wales	0.049 (0.053)	0.046 (0.045)	0.045 (0.067)	0.061* (0.029)
Constant	0.288*** (0.068)	0.044 (0.041)	-0.108 (0.059)	0.317*** (0.031)
N	1,593	1,593	1,593	1,593
R <sup>2</sup>	0.148	0.026	0.035	0.124
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.139	0.016	0.026	0.115

*Note:* Robust standard errors (HC1) in parentheses. \* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001.

## S4 Within-Gender Gap by Racial/Ethnic Group

Table 4: Political Knowledge By Racial/Ethnic Group

White Women	Black Women	Asian Women	Mixed Women
0.72	0.64 <sup>a</sup>	0.61 <sup>a</sup>	0.65 <sup>a</sup>
$N = 467$	$N = 131$	$N = 156$	$N = 51$

*Note:* Weighted means. Political knowledge scaled 0–1. Significant differences between white and other racial/ethnic identity groups were determined through a two-tailed t-test and are indicated with an *a*.

## S5 Race-Gender Interaction Models

Appendix Table 5 presents a weighted regression model including a race  $\times$  gender interaction. Consistent with the main findings, the interaction between gender and ethnic minority status suggests that the disadvantages associated with race and gender operate largely in an additive rather than multiplicative manner. In other words, ethnic minority women exhibit the lowest predicted levels of political knowledge because they experience the combined effects of both gender and racial disparities, rather than because the gender gap itself is significantly larger among minority respondents.

Table 5: Race  $\times$  Gender Interaction Model of Political Knowledge

	<i>Dependent variable:</i> Political knowledge (0–1)
Female	–0.092*** (0.024)
Ethnic Minority	–0.024 (0.031)
Age	0.005*** (0.001)
Education	0.017* (0.009)
Income	0.010** (0.005)
Independent/Other	–0.030 (0.031)
Labour	–0.0003 (0.028)
England–North	–0.017 (0.028)
England–South	–0.021 (0.027)
Northern Ireland	–0.074 (0.056)
Scotland	–0.001 (0.036)
Wales	0.051 (0.051)
Female $\times$ Ethnic Minority	–0.013 (0.038)
Constant	0.510*** (0.063)
Observations	1,593

*Note:* Weighted linear regression estimated using `svyglm`. Outcome is political knowledge scaled 0–1. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

## S6 Ethical Considerations

This project received ethics review and was determined to be exempt from further oversight by the [REDACTED] Institutional Review Board under U.S. federal exemption criteria for minimal-risk survey research. All data were collected in Fall 2025 via Prolific, and respondents were compensated at Prolific's prevailing fair-wage rates. Respondents were adults drawn from a general population sampling frame, and no vulnerable populations were targeted or disproportionately represented. No deception was used, and all respondents provided informed consent prior to participation.