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Statistics on Women in National Governments Around the Globe

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Introduction

Women and girls make up half of the world's population; however, in most countries, women are underrepresented in the political process at the national level. Possible causes include discriminatory laws and practices, gender stereotypes, low levels of education, lack of access to health care, and the disproportionate effect of poverty on women. Many experts have found that women's political participation, including representation in elected governments, contributes to the overall well-being of women and their communities.¹

As this report shows, in 2023, women hold 26.7% of legislative seats around the world, an increase from 15.3% of such seats in 2003 (see **Figure 1**). As of August 1, 2023, women held 50% or more of the legislative seats in seven countries: Cuba, Rwanda, Nicaragua, Mexico, Andorra, New Zealand, and the United Arab Emirates (see **Table 3**).

A 2022 report found that, “for the first time, not a single functioning parliament in the world has zero women members.”² At 2022's rate of growth in women's representation in parliaments, however, “parity will not be achieved for nearly 60 years.”³

At the national executive level, 32 countries currently have a female chief of state or head of government who won an election or was selected by elected bodies (see **Table 6**).

This report provides a snapshot of women's political participation in national governments worldwide by compiling statistics and other information from a variety of sources, including the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, the CIA *World Factbook*, news reports, and other sources.⁴

Selected Congressional Action

Legislation has been enacted that, either directly or indirectly, addresses women's political participation around the world. For example, from FY2014 through FY2023, a provision in Department of State, Foreign Operations, and Related Programs (SFOPS) Appropriations Acts appropriated funds for women's leadership. Most recently, the FY2023 SFOPS Appropriations Act states:

Of the funds appropriated under title III of this Act, not less than \$50,000,000 shall be made available for programs specifically designed to increase leadership opportunities for women in countries where women and girls suffer discrimination due to law, policy, or practice, by strengthening protections for women's political status, expanding women's participation in political parties and elections, and increasing women's opportunities for

¹ For example, see U.N. document, A/RES/66/130, *Women and Political Participation*, adopted December 19, 2011; UN Women, “In Brief: Women's Leadership and Political Participation,” at <https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/leadership-and-political-participation>; U.S. Department of State, Office of Global Women's Issues, “Cross-Cutting Issues, Women's Leadership,” at <https://www.state.gov/cross-cutting-issues/#wl>; Aaron Reeves, Chris Brown, and Johanna Hanefeld, “Female Political Representation and the Gender Health Gap: A Cross-National Analysis of 49 European Countries,” *European Journal of Public Health*, vol. 32, no. 5 (October 2022): pp. 684-689; and Niharika Rustagi and Sonia Akter, “The Impact of Women's Political Representation on Child Health Outcomes during 1990-2020: Evidence from a Global Dataset,” *Social Science & Medicine*, vol. 312 (November 2022).

² IPU, *Women in Parliament 2022*, March 2023, p. 2.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

⁴ For information on global women's issues more broadly, see CRS In Focus IF11804, *Global Women's Issues: Background and Selected U.S. Efforts*.

leadership positions in the public and private sectors at the local, provincial, and national levels.⁵

Members have also enacted laws that address aspects and issues related to women’s political participation. For example, the Women, Peace, and Security Act of 2017, among other things, aims to increase the participation of women in conflict prevention and conflict resolution processes as a means to build more inclusive societies and to help stabilize countries and regions. The act expresses the sense of Congress that “the political participation, and leadership of women in fragile environments, particularly during democratic transitions, is critical to sustaining lasting democratic institutions.”⁶

Statistics on Selected Issues

Voting Rights

The right to vote is a primary step toward involving a populace in the political decisions of a government. In many countries, voting rights were originally granted only to adult men who owned property, then were eventually expanded to include adult male citizens regardless of property ownership, then to women, and finally to other underrepresented groups. Definitions of what constituted a “citizen” may also have changed over time, as they did in the United States, and become more inclusive of minority groups and Indigenous peoples.

Table 1 and **Table 2**, respectively, list the first and latest countries to extend the right and duty of voting to women according to the IPU. Although subnational regions (e.g., states, provinces) may have granted the right to vote earlier, the years in the tables below indicate when sex as a barrier to suffrage was removed from national elections. This does not mean that all women could vote, but that sex as a barrier to voting was removed. In the United States, for example, many women of color could not vote until the Civil Rights Act of 1965, even though women were granted the right to vote in federal elections in 1920.⁷

⁵ See Section 7059 of Division K of the Consolidated Appropriations Act, 2023 (P.L. 117-328). The act states that such [women’s leadership] programs shall hereafter be collectively named the “Madeleine K. Albright Women’s Leadership Program.”

⁶ P.L. 115-68, Section 3, Sense of Congress. For more information, see CRS In Focus IF12346, *Women, Peace, and Security: Global Context and U.S. Policy*.

⁷ Katherine Schaeffer, “Key Facts about Women’s Suffrage around the World, a Century after U.S. Ratified 19th Amendment,” Pew Research Center, October 5, 2020.

Table 1. First Countries to Allow Women to Vote

Year	Country/Countries
1893	New Zealand
1902	Australia*
1906	Finland
1913	Norway
1915	Denmark, Iceland*
1917	Canada*
1918	Austria, Estonia, Georgia, Germany, Hungary, Ireland,* Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Russia, United Kingdom*
1919	Belarus, Belgium,* Luxembourg, Netherlands, Sweden,* Ukraine
1920	Albania, Czech Republic, Iceland,** Slovak Republic, United States
1921	Armenia, Azerbaijan, Sweden**

Source: Compiled by the Congressional Research Service (CRS) using information from IPU, “Women’s Suffrage,” accessed October 17, 2023.

Notes: Some countries granted suffrage in stages, at first denying the right to women of certain racial, ethnic, or economic groups. One asterisk (*) indicates the first year female citizens were allowed to vote in national elections with limitations; two asterisks (**) indicate when those limitations were removed. No asterisk indicates all female adult citizens were granted the right to vote without restrictions.

Table 2. Most Recent Countries to Allow Women to Vote

Year	Country/Countries
2015	Saudi Arabia
2008	Bhutan
2006	Montenegro, United Arab Emirates
2005	Kuwait
2003	Indonesia, Qatar, Oman
2002	Bahrain

Sources: Compiled by CRS using information from IPU, “Compare data on parliaments,” accessed October 2, 2023; Pamela Paxton, Melanie M. Hughes, and Tiffany D. Barnes, *Women, Politics, and Power: A Global Perspective*, 4th ed., Rowman & Littlefield, 2021, pp. 43-44; CIA *World Factbook*’s “Suffrage” website, accessed January 5, 2023.

Note: Newly independent countries (e.g., Kosovo, South Sudan) would be included only if women had not been granted suffrage under the preceding country. For example, because Sudan granted women the right to vote in 1964, South Sudan is not included in this list, even though it did not gain independence until 2011.

Legislative Representation

The following tables highlight women’s representation based in national legislatures, including data on quotas (described below). Several countries and political parties have instituted quotas to ensure that women are represented on the ballot or in the legislature, which may affect the statistics on women’s representation in national governments. Some governments also may use

quotas to ensure ethnic or religious diversity in their national legislatures (e.g., Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iraq⁸).

Gender Quotas

The *Atlas of Electoral Gender Quotas* explains that “[g]ender quotas are numerical targets that stipulate the number or percentage of women that must be included in a candidate list or the number of seats to be allocated to women in a legislature. They aim to reverse discrimination in law and practice and to level the playing field for women and men in politics.”⁹

Three main types of gender quotas are generally recognized, and they may be used at the national or subnational level, or both:

- **Legislated candidate quotas.** These quotas are mandated through national constitutions or legislation to regulate the gender composition of the ballot.
- **Legislated “reserved seats.”** These quotas reserve a specific number or percentage of seats in the legislature for women members. The quotas are mandated through national constitutions or legislation and are implemented through special electoral procedures.
- **Party quotas (also known as voluntary party quotas).** Individual political parties may adopt these quotas through the party’s statutes and rules. Such adoption is the prerogative of each party, and some parties in a country may adopt quotas while other parties choose not to do so.¹⁰

Table 3 lists the countries where women hold 40% or more of the total seats of the national legislative chamber body according to the IPU.

Table 3. National Legislatures with Women Holding 40% or More of Total Seats
As of August 1, 2023

IPU Global Rank by % of Total Seats Held by Women ^a	Country	Type of Legislative System	National Level Gender Quota Codes ^b	Total Legislative Seats	Total Seats Held by Women	% of Total Seats Held by Women
#1	Cuba	Unicameral	No Quota	470	262	55.7%
#2	Rwanda	Bicameral	RS	106	58	54.7%
#3	Nicaragua	Unicameral	CQ	91	47	51.6%
#4	Mexico	Bicameral	CQ	627	314	50.1%
#5	Andorra	Unicameral	PQ	28	14	50.0%
#6	New Zealand	Unicameral	PQ	120	60	50.0%
#7	United Arab Emirates	Unicameral	RS	40	20	50.0%
#8	Bolivia	Bicameral	CQ	166	80	48.2%

⁸ “Bosnia and Herzegovina,” CIA World Factbook, <https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/countries/bosnia-and-herzegovina/#government>, accessed on October 2, 2023 and “Iraq,” CIA World Factbook, <https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/countries/iraq/#government>, accessed on October 2, 2023.

⁹ Drude Dahlerup et al., *Atlas of Electoral Gender Quotas*, International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, June 2014, p. 16.

¹⁰ Ibid.

IPU Global Rank by % of Total Seats Held by Women ^a	Country	Type of Legislative System	National Level Gender Quota Codes ^b	Total Legislative Seats	Total Seats Held by Women	% of Total Seats Held by Women
#9	Iceland	Unicameral	PQ	63	30	47.6%
#10	Costa Rica	Unicameral	CQ, PQ	57	27	47.4%
#11	Sweden	Unicameral	PQ	349	162	46.4%
#12	Norway	Unicameral	PQ	169	78	46.2%
#13	Senegal	Unicameral	CQ	165	76	46.1%
#14	Finland	Unicameral	No Quota	200	92	46.0%
#15	Monaco	Unicameral	No Quota	24	11	45.8%
#16	South Africa	Bicameral	PQ	453	206	45.5%
#17	Australia	Bicameral	PQ	227	101	44.5%
#18	Argentina	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	329	146	44.4%
#19	Spain	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	609	266	43.7%
#20	Denmark	Unicameral	No Quota	179	78	43.6%
#21	Belgium	Bicameral	CQ	210	91	43.3%
#22	Mozambique	Unicameral	PQ	250	108	43.2%
#23	North Macedonia	Unicameral	CQ, PQ	120	51	42.5%
#24	Austria	Bicameral	PQ	243	102	42.0%
#25	Cabo Verde	Unicameral	CQ	72	30	41.7%
#26	Netherlands	Bicameral	PQ	255	91	40.4%

Sources: Compiled by CRS using data from the IPU’s Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments and the Gender Quotas Database, published by the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, accessed September 18, 2023.

Notes: The countries listed here include those identified by the IPU where women hold 40% or more of the total seats in the national legislative chamber(s).

- a. The rankings by percentage of total seats held by women are based on the 193 countries listed in the complete IPU list of Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments. Data was available for only 187 countries. Three countries (Eritrea, Haiti, and Venezuela) had no values recorded and three countries (Afghanistan, Myanmar, and Sudan) were recorded as having suspended legislatures.
- b. Four codes indicate the type of gender quota used in the country: CQ=legislated quotas for candidates on the ballot level; RS=legal quotas for reserved seats, whether legislated or mandated by the executive branch; PQ=voluntary party quotas; Sub only=quotas at the subnational level only, as identified by the Gender Quotas Database.

Table 4 shows the number of seats held by women in the national legislative chambers of the 19 members of the “Group of 20” (G-20), a forum for advancing international economic cooperation and coordination among certain countries.¹¹ According to the IPU, women hold 40% or more of the total seats in the national legislatures of three G-20 countries (Mexico, South Africa, and Argentina), and these countries appear in both **Table 3** and **Table 4**.

¹¹ The European Union, which is a member of the G-20, is excluded from the table as the IPU’s Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments does not include international parliaments such as the European Parliament. For more information on the G-20, see CRS Report R40977, *International Economic Policy Coordination at the G-7 and the G-20*.

Table 4. Women in National Legislatures of G-20 Countries

As of August 1, 2023

IPU Global Rank by % of Total Seats Held by Women ^a	Country	Type of Legislative System	National Level Gender Quota Codes ^b	Total Legislative Seats	Total Seats Held by Women	% of Total Seats Held by Women
#4	Mexico	Bicameral	CQ	627	314	50.1%
#16	South Africa	Bicameral	PQ	453	206	45.5%
#17	Australia	Bicameral	PQ	227	101	44.5%
#18	Argentina	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	329	146	44.4%
#36	France	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	925	340	36.8%
#41	Canada	Bicameral	PQ	427	152	35.6%
#42	Germany	Bicameral	PQ	805	286	35.5%
#51	Italy	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	605	203	33.6%
#59	United Kingdom	Bicameral	PQ	1,434	453	31.6%
#77	United States	Bicameral	No Quota	534	150	28.1%
#89	China	Unicameral	RS	2,977	790	26.5%
#112	Indonesia	Unicameral	CQ	575	124	21.6%
#124	Saudi Arabia	Unicameral	RS	151	30	19.9%
#125	Türkiye	Unicameral	PQ	600	119	19.8%
#128	South Korea	Unicameral	CQ, PQ	299	57	19.1%
#133	Russia	Bicameral	No Quota	619	110	17.8%
#135	Brazil	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	594	105	17.7%
#147	Japan	Bicameral	PQ	712	112	15.7%
#150	India	Bicameral	Sub only	776	115	14.8%
TOTAL 193 COUNTRIES						

Sources: Compiled by CRS using data from the IPU's Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments and the Gender Quotas Database, published by the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, accessed September 18, 2023.

Notes: This list includes the 19 member nations of the G-20 and excludes the European Union.

- a. The rankings by percentage of total seats held by women are based on the 193 countries listed in the complete IPU list of Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments. Data was available for only 187 countries. Three countries (Eritrea, Haiti, and Venezuela) had no values recorded and three countries (Afghanistan, Myanmar, and Sudan) were recorded as having suspended legislatures.
- b. Four codes indicate the type of gender quota used in the country: CQ=legislated quotas for candidates on the ballot level; RS=legal quotas for reserved seats, whether legislated or mandated by the executive branch; PQ=voluntary party quotas; sub only=quotas at the subnational level only, as identified by the Gender Quotas Database.

Table 5 lists countries where women hold 10% or less of the total legislative seats according to the IPU.

Table 5. Countries Where Women Hold 10% or Less of Total Legislative Seats

As of August 1, 2023

IPU Global Rank by % of Total Seats Held by Women ^a	Country	Type of Legislative System	National Level Gender Quota Codes ^b	Total Legislative Seats	Total Seats Held by Women	% of Total Seats Held by Women
#167	Oman	Bicameral	No Quota	171	17	9.9%
#168	Guinea-Bissau	Unicameral	CQ	102	10	9.8%
#169	Liberia	Bicameral	PQ	103	10	9.7%
#170	The Gambia	Unicameral	No Quota	58	5	8.6%
#171	Solomon Islands	Unicameral	CQ	50	4	8.0%
#172	Tonga	Unicameral	No Quota	28	2	7.1%
#173	Palau	Bicameral	No Quota	29	2	6.9%
#174	Algeria	Bicameral	CQ, PQ	577	39	6.8%
#175	Kiribati	Unicameral	No Quota	45	3	6.7%
#176	Tuvalu	Unicameral	No Quota	16	1	6.3%
#177	Lebanon	Unicameral	No Quota	128	8	6.3%
#178	Marshall Islands	Unicameral	No Quota	33	2	6.1%
#179	Iran	Unicameral	No Quota	286	16	5.6%
#180	Sri Lanka	Unicameral	Sub only	225	12	5.3%
#181	Maldives	Unicameral	Sub only	87	4	4.6%
#182	Qatar	Unicameral	No Quota	45	2	4.4%
#183	Nigeria	Bicameral	No Quota	467	17	3.6%
#184	Kuwait	Unicameral	No Quota	65	2	3.1%
#185	Vanuatu	Unicameral	Sub only	52	1	1.9%
#186	Papua New Guinea	Unicameral	No Quota	115	2	1.7%
#187	Yemen	Bicameral	No Quota	335	1	0.3%

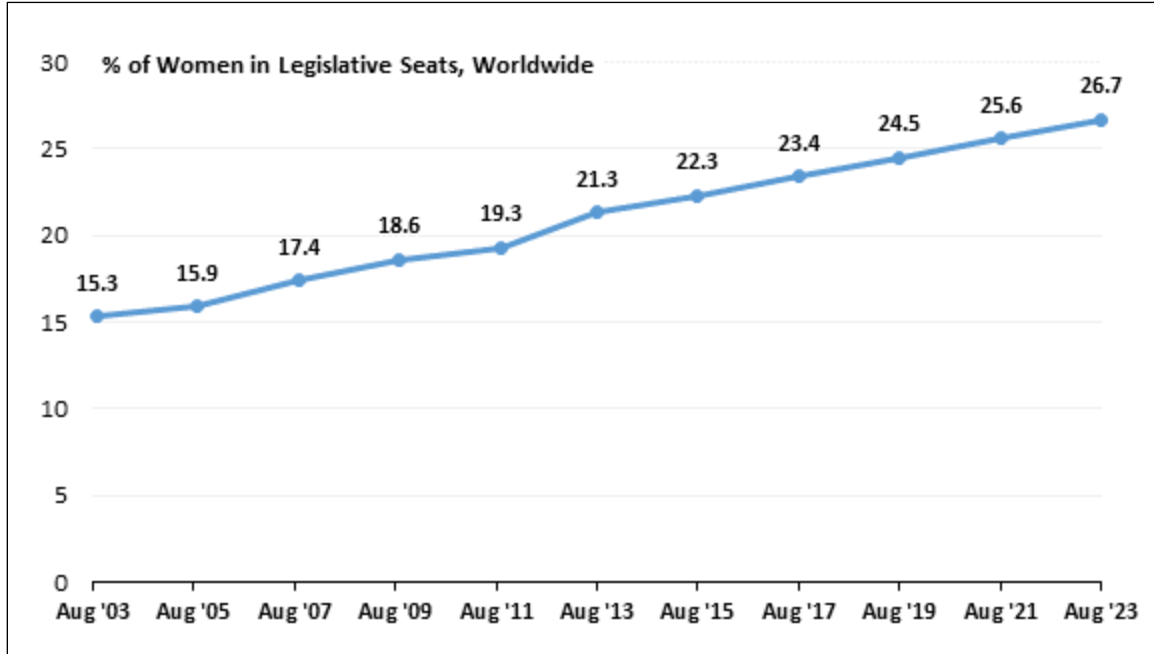
Sources: Compiled by CRS using data from the IPU's Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments and the Gender Quotas Database, published by the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, accessed September 18, 2023.

- a. The rankings by percentage of total seats held by women are based on the 193 countries listed in the complete IPU list of Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments. Data was available for only 187 countries. Three countries (Eritrea, Haiti, and Venezuela) had no values recorded and three countries (Afghanistan, Myanmar, and Sudan) were recorded as having suspended legislatures.
- b. Four codes indicate the type of gender quota used in the country: C=legislated quotas for candidates on the ballot level; RS=legislated quotas for reserved seats; P=voluntary party quotas; sub only=quotas at the subnational level only, as identified by the Gender Quotas Database.

According to the IPU, over a 20-year period, the percentage of seats held by women in national legislatures has risen worldwide from 15.3% in August 2003 to 26.7% in August 2023 (see **Figure 1**).

Figure 1. Worldwide Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Legislatures

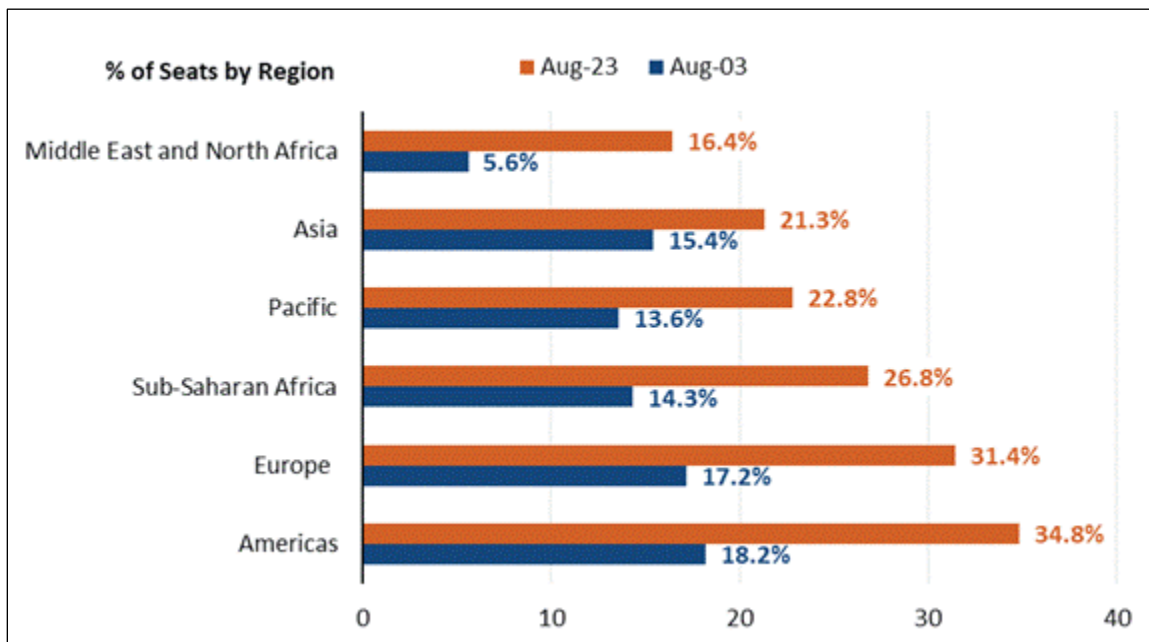
August 2003 – August 2023



Source: Created by CRS using data from the IPU.

According to the IPU, in August 2003, Europe and the Americas were the only regions where women held 16% or more of legislative seats at the national level as shown in **Figure 2**. In 2023, women legislators in five regions hold more than 20% of the legislative seats. The Middle East/Northern Africa is the only region with less than 20% of legislative seats held by women, although women have increased their representation since 2003 by 10.8%.

Figure 2. Regional Percentages of Seats Held by Women in National Legislatures
August 2003 - August 2023



Source: Created by CRS using data from the IPU.

Gender-Sensitive Parliaments

The IPU defines a gender-sensitive parliament as “one that responds to the needs and interests of both men and women in its structures, operations, methods, and work.”¹² IPU research focuses on ways that parliaments can “create mechanisms required to mainstream gender equality concerns throughout their legislative, oversight and administrative work.”¹³

In 2012 and then in 2017, the IPU published its *Plan of Action for Gender-Sensitive Parliaments*, which includes the following action areas:

- increasing the number of women in parliament and achieving equality in participation;
- strengthening gender equality legislation and policy;
- mainstreaming gender equality throughout all parliamentary work;
- insituting or improving gender-sensitive infrastructure and parliamentary culture;
- ensuring that responsibility for gender equality is shared by all parliamentarians – men and women;
- encouraging political parties to be champions of gender equality; and
- enhancing the gender sensitivity of, and gender equality among, parliamentary staff.¹⁴

¹² Sonia Palmieri, *Gender-Sensitive Parliaments: A Global Review of Good Practice*, IPU, 2011, p. v.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. v.

¹⁴ IPU, *Plan of Action for Gender-Sensitive Parliaments*, 2012, p. 4.

In 2018, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) found that “two-thirds of OECD countries have gender-equity parliamentary committees.... Most of them draft gender equality legislation and examine selected draft laws from a gender equality perspective.”¹⁵ The most common gender-sensitive mechanisms are as follows:

- hearings with women’s groups;
- document submissions by/for women’s groups, other stakeholders and experts; and
- requirements to use sex-disaggregated data in legislative work.¹⁶

Less commonly used mechanisms in OECD countries include

- gender advisors to provide technical support for legislative work, and
- requirements for gender impact assessments.¹⁷

In October 2022, at the end of the 145th IPU Assembly in Kigali, Rwanda, the Kigali Declaration, *Gender Equality and Gender-Sensitive Parliaments as Drivers of Change for a More Resilient and Peaceful World*, was adopted. It made the following recommendations:

- achieving parity in political decisionmaking, including by using electoral gender quotas and ensuring that other electoral quotas always have a gender parity provision;
- ensuring law-making, law-enforcement, and budgeting are gender-responsive across all policy fields;
- placing vulnerable populations at the centre of parliamentary functions of legislation, oversight, resource allocation, and representation;
- ending gender-based discrimination, violence, and other harmful practices, and ensuring access to sexual and reproductive health, rights, and justice for all women and girls; and
- advancing equality in caring responsibilities among men and women and setting an example by undertaking 50% of the daily care work for MP’s families, regardless of being male or female MPs.¹⁸

Hybrid work is being examined as a gender-sensitive mechanism. “During the pandemic, 84% of parliaments introduced new systems that were previously unplanned.”¹⁹ These changes are considered “gender-responsive,” and “parliaments are considering to what extent hybrid working makes parliaments more modern, gender-sensitive and family-friendly workplaces.”²⁰

¹⁵ “Gender-Sensitive Parliaments: Integrating a Gender Lens in Parliamentary Work,” OECD, <https://www.oecd.org/gender/data/gender-sensitive-parliaments-integrating-a-gender-lens-in-parliamentary-work.htm#:~:text=Two%2Dthirds%20of%20OECD%20countries,from%20a%20gender%20equality%20perspective.,> accessed October 6, 2023.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ IPU, *Gender Equality and Gender-Sensitive Parliaments as Drivers of Change for a More Resilient and Peaceful World*, October 2022, p. 2.

¹⁹ IPU, *World e-Parliament Report 2022*, 2022, p. 12.

²⁰ IPU, *Women in Parliament 2022*, March 2023, p. 20.

Various international organizations have published research and guidelines to assist parliaments in achieving gender-sensitivity.²¹

Executive Representation

Voters in at least 70 countries have chosen a woman as their executive since 1960, when Sri Lanka selected Sirima Bandaranaike as the world’s first female prime minister. Executives may be selected through various methods: directly elected from a ballot dedicated to the executive office; indirectly elected by the legislature; appointed, following legislative elections, as the leader of the majority political party or majority coalition; or through other means.

The term “executive” refers to persons identified as either the chief of state or head of government of a country. The CIA *World Factbook* defines the chief of state as “the titular leader of the country who represents the state at official and ceremonial functions but may not be involved with the day-to-day activities of the government.” The head of government is “the top executive designated to manage the executive branch of the government.” In some countries, a monarch is identified as the “chief of state,” whereas an elected official (such as the prime minister, premier, or administrator) is the “head of government.” Other countries, such as the United States, have one person, the President, filling both positions. Many countries have a “chief of state,” such as a president, and another person as “head of government,” such as a prime minister, who won their offices through different processes.²²

According to recent analysis from the Pew Research Center, 59 United Nations member states have had a woman head of government, fewer than one-third of the 193 member states.²³

Women Leaders in the 21st Century

Table 6 lists women who are currently the chief of state or head of government of their country, excluding monarchs, and are listed alphabetically by country.

Table 6. Current Women Executives

As of September 28, 2023

Country	Name	Title	Dates in Office
Aruba	Evelyn Wever-Croes ^a	Prime Minister	Nov. 17, 2017–present
Bangladesh	Sheikh Hasina Wazed	Prime Minister	1996-2001; Jan. 6, 2009–present
Barbados	Mia Mottley ^a	Prime Minister	May 25, 2018–present
Barbados	Sandra Mason ^a	President	Nov. 30, 2021–present

²¹ For examples not mentioned previously, see IPU, *Equality in Politics: A Survey of Women and Men in Parliaments*, 2008; IPU, *Evaluating the Gender Sensitivity of Parliaments: A Self-Assessment Toolkit*, 2016; Commonwealth Parliamentary Association (CPA), *Gender Sensitising Parliaments Guidelines: Standards and a Checklist for Parliamentary Change*, 2020; IPU, *Guidelines for the Elimination of Sexism, Harassment, and Violence against Women in Parliament*, 2019; CPA, *Gender Sensitising Parliaments: A Seven-Step Field Guide*, 2022; and “Chapter 4: Gender-Sensitive Practices in Parliaments” in OECD, *Toolkit for Mainstreaming and Implementing Gender Equality 2023*, 2023.

²² Drawn from CIA *World Factbook*, executive branch field listing, <https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/field/executive-branch/>, accessed on November 20, 2022.

²³ Laura Clancy and Sarah Austin, “Fewer than a Third of UN Member States Have Ever Had a Woman Leader,” Pew Research Center, March 28, 2023.

Country	Name	Title	Dates in Office
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Željka Cvijanović ^a	Member of the Presidency ^b	Nov. 16, 2022–present
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Borjana Krišto	Chair of the Council of Ministers ^c	January 25, 2023–present
Denmark	Mette Frederiksen	Prime Minister	June 27, 2019–present
Estonia	Kaja Kallas ^a	Prime Minister	Jan. 26, 2021–present
Equatorial Guinea	Manuela Roka Botey ^a	Prime Minister	Feb. 1, 2023–present
Ethiopia	Sahle-Work Zewde ^a	President	Oct. 25, 2018–present
France	Élisabeth Borne	Prime Minister	May 16, 2022–present
Georgia	Salome Zourabichvili ^a	President	Dec. 16, 2018–present
Greece	Katerina Sakellariopoulou ^a	President	Mar. 13, 2020–present
Honduras	Xiomara Castro de Zelaya ^a	President	Jan. 27, 2022–present
Hungary	Katalin Novak ^a	President	May 10, 2022–present
Iceland	Katrin Jakobsdóttir	Prime Minister	Nov. 30, 2017–present
India	Droupadi Murmu ^d	President	July 25, 2022–present
Italy	Giorgia Meloni ^a	Prime Minister	Oct. 22, 2022–present
Kosovo	Vjosa Osmani-Sadriu	President	Apr. 4, 2021–present
Latvia	Evika Siliņa	Prime Minister	September 15, 2023–present
Lithuania	Ingrida Simonyte	Prime Minister	Nov. 24, 2020–present
Moldova	Maia Sandu ^a	President	Dec. 24, 2020–present
Namibia	Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila ^a	Prime Minister	Mar. 21, 2015–present
Peru	Dina Boluarte ^a	President ^e	Dec. 7, 2022–present
Samoa	Fiamē Naomi Mata'afa ^a	Prime Minister	May 24, 2021–present
Serbia	Ana Brnabić ^a	Prime Minister	June 29, 2017–present
Sint Maarten	Silveria Jacobs	Prime Minister	Mar. 28, 2020–present
Slovakia	Zuzana Čaputová ^a	President	June 15, 2019–present
Slovenia	Nataša Pirc Musar ^a	President	December 23, 2022–present
Taiwan ^f	Tsai Ing-wen ^a	President	May 20, 2016–present
Tanzania	Samia Suluhu Hassan ^a	President	Mar. 19, 2021–present
Togo	Victoire Tomegah Dogbe ^a	Prime Minister	Sept. 28, 2020–present
Trinidad and Tobago	Christine Kangaloo	President	March 20, 2023–present
Uganda	Robinah Nabbanja ^a	Prime Minister	June 21, 2021–present

Sources: Compiled by CRS using information from the CIA *World Factbook*, the World Economic Forum's *Global Gender Gap 2023*, IPU's *Women in Parliament 2022*, and government websites.

Notes: Surnames appear in bold face.

- a. This person is the first female to hold this position in her country.
- b. Bosnia and Herzegovina has a rotating three-member presidency. Željka Cvijanović is the Serb member of the presidency.
- c. The Chairman of the Council of Ministers is the head of government in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- d. Droupadi Murmu is the second woman and first member belonging to a tribal community to be elected President in India.
- e. President Boluarte took office December 7, 2022 after the Peruvian Congress removed the former president Pedro Castillo from office. She had been serving as First Vice President.
- f. Taiwan officially calls itself the Republic of China (ROC), For information on the status of Taiwan, see CRS In Focus IF10275, *Taiwan: Political and Security Issues*, by Susan V. Lawrence and Caitlin Campbell.

Table 7 lists selected women who formerly served as the executive of their country since 2000 and are listed alphabetically by country.

Table 7. Selected Women Who Served as Chief of State or Head of Government (Executives) from 2000-Present

Country	Name	Title	Years in Office
Argentina	Cristina Fernandez De Kirchner	President	2007-2015
Austria	Brigitte Bierlein	Chancellor	2019-2020
Bangladesh	Khaleda Zia	Prime Minister	1991-1996 and 2001-2006
Brazil	Dilma Rousseff	President	2011-2016
Burma	Aung San Suu Kyi	State Counsellor	2016-2021
Chile	Michelle Bachelet	President	2006-2010 and 2014-2018
Croatia	Kolinda Grabar-Kitarovic ^a	President	2015-2020
Estonia	Kersti Kaljulaid	President	2016-2021
Finland	Sanna Mirella Marin	Prime Minister	Dec. 10, 2019–June 20, 2023
Gabon	Rose Christiane Ossouka Raponda ^b	Prime Minister	July 16, 2020–Jan. 9, 2023
Germany	Angela Merkel	Chancellor	2005–2021
India	Pratibha Patil	President	2007-2012
Indonesia	Megawati Sukarnoputri	President	2001-2004
Jamaica	Portia Simpson-Miller	Prime Minister	2006-2007 and 2012-2016
Liberia	Ellen Johnson Sirleaf	President	2006-2018
Lithuania	Dalia Grybauskaite	President	2009-2019
Malawi	Joyce Banda	President	2012-2014
Malta	Marie-Louise Coleiro Preca	President	2014-2019
Nepal	Bidhya Devi Bandhari	President	2015-2023
New Zealand	Helen Clark	Prime Minister	1999-2008
New Zealand	Jacinda Ardern	Prime Minister	2017-2023
Norway	Erna Solberg	Prime Minister	2013-2021

Country	Name	Title	Years in Office
Panama	Mireya Moscoso	President	1999-2004
Philippines	Gloria Macapagal Arroyo	President	2001-2010
Singapore	Halimah Yacob	President	Sept. 14, 2017–Sept. 14, 2023
South Korea	Park Geun-hye	President	2013-2017
Sweden	Magdalena Andersson ^c	Prime Minister	Nov. 30, 2021–Oct. 18, 2022
Thailand	Yingluck Shinawatra	Prime Minister	2011-2014
Trinidad and Tobago	Paula-Mae Weeks	President	2018-2023
Tunisia	Najla Bouden Romdhane	Prime Minister	2021-2023
Turks and Caicos Islands	Sharlene Cartwright-Robinson	Premier	2016-2021
United Kingdom	Theresa May	Prime Minister	2016-2019
United Kingdom	Mary Elizabeth “Liz” Truss	Prime Minister	September 6–October 25, 2022

Source: Compiled by CRS using media reports and *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

Notes: Surnames appear in bold face. Hong Kong, although not a country, had female Chief Executive named Carrie Lam from July 1, 2017 through June 30, 2022.

- a. Kolinda Grabar-Kitarovic is the first women to be elected President of Croatia since the first multiparty elections in 1990 and independence from Yugoslavia in 1991.
- b. Rose Christiane Ossouka Raponda was the first woman to hold this position in her country. From January 9, 2020, through August 30, 2023, she served as the first female Vice President of Gabon before being removed from power by a coup.
- c. Magdalena Andersson was the first female to hold this position in her country.

Women Leaders of the 20th Century

Table 8 identifies several female executives who held office in the 20th century with notes describing notable facts.

Table 8. Selected Notable Women Executives from 1960 to 2000

Executives are listed chronologically by their years in office.

Country	Name	Title	Years in Office
Sri Lanka	Sirimavo Bandaranaike	Prime Minister	1960-1965; 1970-1977; 1994-2000
Bandaranaike was the world’s first female Prime Minister.			
India	Indira Gandhi	Prime Minister	1966-1977 and 1980-1984
Gandhi was assassinated while in office; she was succeeded by her son, Rajiv.			
Israel	Golda Meir	Prime Minister	1969-1974
Meir and her husband immigrated to then Palestine in 1921. She was a founder of the State of Israel and the fourth prime minister.			
Argentina	Isabel Martinez de Perón	President	1974-1976

Country	Name	Title	Years in Office
Perón was the world's first female president when, as vice president, she succeeded her husband, President Juan Perón, upon his death.			
United Kingdom	Margaret Thatcher	Prime Minister	1979-1990
Thatcher became the first woman prime minister in Europe and was the only British prime minister in the 20 th century to be elected to three consecutive terms.			
Iceland	Vigdís Finnbogadóttir	President	1980-1996
Finnbogadóttir was the first woman in the world to be elected head of state in a national election.			
Philippines	Corazon Aquino	President	1986-1992
Aquino restored democratic rule after the dictatorship of Ferdinand Marcos.			
Pakistan	Benazir Bhutto	Prime Minister	1988-1990 and 1993-1996
Bhutto was first female prime minister of a majority-Muslim country.			

Source: Compiled by CRS using news and other sources, such as the *Encyclopedia Britannica* and *Gale Biography in Context*.

Note: Surnames appear in bold face.

Violence Against Women in Politics

Some experts and observers have found that, while any candidate or elected politician may experience violence, women politicians can be targeted because of their gender and subjected to sexist threats, sexual harassment, and violence.²⁴ Violence may occur during the registration and voting processes, while campaigning and running for office, and/or while serving in a government.²⁵ Perpetrators may include both state and non-state actors, such as members of political parties, other parliamentarians, members of the public, media representatives, and religious or community leaders.²⁶

Underreporting incidents of violence against women in politics makes addressing the issue particularly challenging. Information about the problem tends to be anecdotal rather than statistical, making it difficult to determine the extent and prevalence of the problem. In addition, many women may be reluctant to report violence out of the belief that doing so may limit a woman's political aspirations, and out of fear of reprisals, threats, and possible increased harassment.²⁷ According to a 2018 United Nations report, "women of color appear to be

²⁴ An article in the *Journal of Democracy* noted that actions to threaten, intimidate, or harass women who are participating in the political process are attempts to "deter women's electoral participation, and reinforce prevailing gender norms." Such activities "should thus be seen as a serious threat and affront to democracy." See Mona Lena Krook, "Violence Against Women in Politics," *Journal of Democracy*, January 2017, p. 74-75. The Kofi Annan Foundation cited research that determined "general political violence occurred against both men and women," but that women were "much more likely to experience sexualized forms of violence." See Carmen Alanis, *Violence Against Women in Politics*, Kofi Annan Foundation, November 2020, p. 31.

²⁵ United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women, *Violence against Women in Politics*, August 6, 2018, p. 9.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

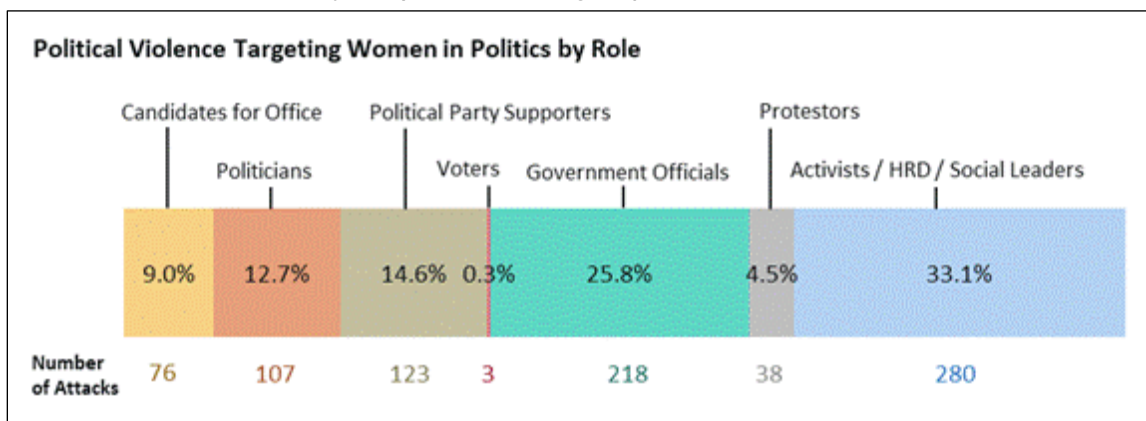
²⁷ UN Women, *Data and Violence against Women in Politics: Expert Group Meeting Report and Recommendations*, December 4-5, 2019, pp. 9-13.

disproportionately affected, and risks are likely higher for women of marginalized communities.”²⁸

Figure 3 indicates the prevalence of attacks of “political violence targeting women in politics” (PVTWIP). PVTWIP affects those who participate in various functions in the political process according to the Political Violence Targeting Women Research Hub from Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project (ACLED). Trends in **Figure 3** reflect data gathered periodically from women in 190 countries from January 2, 2021, through September 29, 2023. Globally, women *candidates for office*, whether for local, regional, or national government, experienced up to 76 PVTWIP attacks (9.0%), while female *politicians*, those women currently serving in an elected governmental position, experienced 107 PVTWIP attacks (12.7%). *Political party supporters*, such as women who campaign and actively support a political party or candidate, faced 123 PVTWIP attacks (14.6%), while women *voters* underwent 3 PVTWIP attacks (0.3%). *Government officials*, women who work in nonelected government positions, including public and civil servants, experienced up to 218 PVTWIP attacks (25.8%). *Protestors* experienced 38 PVTWIP attacks (4.5%). The largest group of women in public life, who experienced 280 PVTWIP attacks (33.1%), includes *activists, human rights defenders, and social leaders*.²⁹

Figure 3. Trends in Political Violence Targeting Women in Politics, by Role in Political Process

January 2, 2021, through September 29, 2023



Source: Created by CRS, based on aggregate data from “Political Violence Targeting Women,” Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project (ACLED), <https://acleddata.com/political-violence-targeting-women/>, accessed October 4, 2023.

Notes: Data on violence targeting women in politics are restricted to acts of physical violence that take place in a public setting on women who engage in the political process. This does not include acts of bullying or intimidation, cases of domestic violence, or virtual aggressive actions.

In October 2016, the IPU published the results of a survey of 55 women legislators from 39 countries on their experiences of harassment, intimidation, or violence based on their gender.³⁰ **Tables 9 to 12** illustrate the findings of this survey. Broadly, almost 82% of the women surveyed

²⁸ United Nations, *Violence against Women in Politics Expert Group Meeting Report and Recommendations*, New York, NY, March 8-9, 2018, p. 6.

²⁹ “Political Violence Targeting Women,” Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project, <https://acleddata.com/political-violence-targeting-women/>, accessed October 4, 2023.

³⁰ IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians*, October 2016. Survey participants included 18 from Africa, 15 from Europe, 10 from the Asia-Pacific region, 8 from the Americas, and 4 from Arab countries.

reported they had personally experienced psychological violence, almost 22% reported incidents of sexual violence, 25.5% reported experiencing physical violence, and almost 33% had been subjected to economic violence.

Table 9. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Women Legislators

2016 IPU survey of 55 women legislators from 39 countries

Type of Violence	% of Respondents Answering “Yes”	
	“Have you been subject to one or more acts of this kind of violence?”	“Have you witnessed acts of this violence committed against one or more of your female colleagues?”
Psychological violence (see Table 10 for details)	81.8%	78.1%
Sexual violence (e.g., sexual harassment; efforts to force sexual relations inappropriate and unwanted gestures or physical contact; requests for sexual relations in exchange for material or political advantages)	21.8%	32.7%
Physical violence (e.g., actions that inflict or attempt to inflict bodily injury to a legislator, or to friends or members of her family)	25.5%	20.0%
Economic violence (e.g., denied funds and other resources that legislators are entitled to such as salary, offices, computers, staff, security; damage to or destruction of personal property)	32.7%	30.9%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians*, October 2016.

Note: Definitions of the various kinds of violence are included in the report.

The 81.8% of respondents in **Table 9** who reported they had experienced psychological violence identified the manifestations of this violence in **Table 10**.

Table 10. Psychological Violence: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors

Behaviors described by the 81.8% of 2016 IPU survey respondents who reported they had experienced psychological violence

Actions of Psychological Violence	% of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions
Humiliating sexual or sexist remarks	65.5%
Images or disrespectful comments with sexual connotations about you in the traditional media	27.3%
Extremely humiliating or sexual images of you distributed through social media	41.8%
Threats of death, rape, beatings, or abduction	44.4%
Harassment (e.g. exposure to insistent and uninvited behavior, including unwanted attention, unwelcome verbal contact, or interaction that may have frightened you)	32.7%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians*, October 2016, p. 3.

Table 11 lists several factors identified in the IPU study that may make some women legislators a likely target for gender-based intolerance.

Table 11. Risk Factors for Women Legislators
2016 IPU survey of 55 women legislators from 39 countries

Reasons for Violence, as reported by women legislators subjected to gender-based violent acts and behavior	% of Survey Respondents
Intention to dissuade them and other women from participating in politics	61.5%
Political rivalry	41.7%
Positions of women legislators on specific issues	60.5%

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians*, October 2016, p. 6.

Additional risk factors that appear to lead to violence against women in legislatures include being a member of the political minority, being under the age of 40, and belonging to a minority ethnic, religious, or other marginalized social group.³¹ **Table 12** identifies how women legislators have reacted to the acts of violence they experienced.

Table 12. Effects of Violence Against Women in Politics
2016 IPU survey of 55 women legislators from 39 countries

Reactions of Women in Politics Subjected to Violent Acts	% of Survey Respondents
Distressed over the experience	66.7%
Concerned for the security of themselves, their friends, and family members	46.7%
Felt weakened in their ability to complete their mandates and to express their opinions	38.7%
Reported incidents to the legislative security services or the police	51.7%
Strengthened their determination as a legislator	80.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians*, October 2016, p. 7.

The IPU released regional updates on sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments for Europe (2018) and for Africa (2021).

IPU’s 2018 Europe regional update is based on the results of one-on-one conversations with 123 women from 45 European countries. Eighty-one participants were members of parliament (MPs) and 42 were members of the parliamentary staff.³² **Table 13** identifies the prevalence of various forms of violence against European women legislators.

Table 13. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against European Women Legislators
2018 IPU survey of 81 European women legislators

Type of Violence	% of Survey Respondents
Suffered psychological violence during their term of office	85.2%
Received death threats or threats of rape or beating	46.9%

³¹ IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians*, October 2016, p. 6.

³² IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Europe*, October 2018, p. 1.

Type of Violence	% of Survey Respondents
Been the target of online sexist attacks on social networks	58.2%
Been the target of comments relating to their physical appearance or based on gender stereotypes	67.9%
Experienced sexual violence ^a	24.7%
Experienced physical violence ^b	14.8%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Europe*, October 2018, p. 4.

- a. IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Europe*, October 2018, p. 4. This report identified two types of sexual violence: sexual harassment (“words or behavior of a degrading or humiliating sexual nature, sexual advances and/or demands for sexual favors”) and sexual assault (being forced “engage in sexual acts, have sexual intercourse or carry out something of a sexual nature”).
- b. *Ibid.*, p. 4. This report defines physical violence as being slapped, pushed, hit, having something thrown at you; being threatened with a firearm, knife, or another weapon; or being confined, beaten, or abducted.

More broadly, female MPs in Europe under 40 experienced higher rates of psychological and sexual harassment than male MPs. Female MPs who actively supported gender equality and condemned violence against women were often singled out for attack.³³

Table 14 identifies the prevalence of forms of violence against European female parliamentary staff.

Table 14. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against European Women Parliamentary Staff

2018 IPU survey of 42 European female parliamentary staff

Type of Violence	% of Survey Respondents
Suffered acts of sexual harassment in their work	40.5%
Received comments of a sexual nature	50.0%
Suffered psychological harassment/bullying in their work in parliament from MPs and colleagues in the parliamentary staff, mostly from men but also from women	19.5%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Europe*, October 2018, p. 2.

Of the 40.5% of European women parliamentary staff who suffered acts of sexual harassment, in 69.2% of such cases the perpetrators were male MPs.³⁴

Of the 50.0% of cases in which European women parliamentary staff received comments of a sexual nature, in 61.5% of those cases such comments were made by male MPs.³⁵

IPU’s 2021 Africa regional update is based on the results of confidential interviews conducted with 224 women from 50 countries. One-hundred and thirty-seven participants were women parliamentarians and 87 were members of the parliamentary staff.³⁶

Table 15 identifies the prevalence of forms of violence against African women parliamentarians.

³³ IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Europe*, October 2018, p. 1.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

³⁶ IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 2.

Table 15. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against African Women Legislators

2021 IPU survey of 137 African women legislators

Type of Violence	% of Survey Respondents
Experienced psychological violence.	80.0%
Experienced sexual violence	39.0%
Exposed to economic violence ^a	29.0%
Experienced physical violence at work	23.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 2.

- a. IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 27. In the report, economic violence is defined as using “economic barriers and deprivation as a means of control, most often by destroying a person’s property or putting in jeopardy their livelihood as a form of intimidation.”

The 80.0% of African women legislators in **Table 15** who reported they had experienced psychological violence identified manifestations of this violence in **Table 16**.

Table 16. Psychological Violence Against African Women Legislators: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors

Behaviors described by the 80.0% of 2021 IPU Africa update women legislator respondents who reported they had experienced psychological violence

Actions of Psychological Violence	% of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions
Experienced sexist behavior or remarks	67.0%
Target of sexist attacks online	46.0%
Have received death threats, rape threats, or threats of beating or abduction directed at them or their loved ones	42.0%
Have faced intimidation or psychological harassment	39.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 2.

The 39.0% of African women legislators in **Table 15** who reported they had experienced sexual violence identified manifestations of this violence in **Table 17**.

Table 17. Sexual Violence Against African Women Legislators: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors

Behaviors described by the 39.0% of 2021 IPU Africa update women legislator respondents who reported they had experienced sexual violence

Actions of Sexual Violence	% of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions
Sexually harassed	40.0%
Affected by sextortion (requests for sexual favors)	9.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 2.

Table 18 identifies the prevalence of forms of violence against African women parliamentariay staff.

Table 18. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against African Women Parliamentariay Staff

2021 IPU survey of 87 African women parlimentary staff

Type of Violence	% of Survey Respondents
Sexual harassment at work	45.0%
Received requests for sexual favours in exchange for a benefit a colleague or parliamentarian was empowered to withhold or confer	18.0%
Psychological violence	69.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 3.

The 45.0% of African women parliamentary staff in **Table 18** who reported they had experienced pyschological violence identified types of perpetrators of this violence in **Table 19**.

Table 19. Sexual Harassment Against African Women Parliamentariay Staff: Perpetrators

Perpetrators of behaviors described by the 45.0% of 2021 IPU Africa update women parliamentary staff respondents who reported they had experienced sexual harassment

Type of Perpetrators	% of Perpetrators
Male parliamentarians	53.0%
Male colleagues or parliamentary staff	48.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 3.

African women parliamentary staff reported that “18% have received requests for sexual favours from parliamentary colleagues (56% of cases) or from parliamentarians (44% of cases) in exchange for a benefit that this colleague or parliamentarian was empowered to withhold or confer.”³⁷

The 69.0% of African women parliamentary staff in **Table 18** who reported they had experienced pyschological violence identified manifestations of this violence in **Table 20**.

Table 20. Psychological Violence Against African Women Parliamentariay Staff: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors

Behaviors described by the 69.0% of 2021 IPU Africa update women parliamentariay staff respondents who reported they had experienced psychological violence

Actions of Psychological Violence	% of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions
Were the target of sexist remarks made by male collagues and / or parliamentarians	56.0%
Experienced psychological harrassment within the context of their work in parliament	38.0%
Were attacked online	22.0%
Were threatened online	7.0%

Source: IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 3.

³⁷ IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 3.

In the 56.0% of African women parliamentary staff who were the target of sexist remarks, 67% of these cases were by male colleagues working in parliament and 30% of these cases were by male parliamentarians.³⁸

In the 38.0% of African women parliamentary staff who experienced psychological harassment within the context of their work in parliament, in 72.0% of those cases the parliamentary colleagues were the perpetrators (mostly men but some women). In 22.0% of those cases, the perpetrators were male parliamentarians.³⁹

The 2021 Africa update also includes examples of economic violence reported includes

- 18% of female parliamentary staff have been threatened with losing their job or with having their career progression blocked, and
- 24% have been refused funds to which they were entitled, such as a salary or bonus.⁴⁰

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³⁸ IPU, *Sexism, Harassment and Violence against Women Parliamentarians in Africa*, November 2021, p. 3.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

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