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# Statistics on Women in National Governments Around the World

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## Statistics on Women in National Governments Around the World

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. As this report shows, on April 1, 2026, women held 27.4% of legislative seats around the world, an increase from 16.6% of legislative seats in April 31, 2006 (see **Figure 1**). As of April 1, 2026, women held 50% or more of the legislative seats in eight countries: Rwanda, Cuba, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Bolivia, Mexico, Andorra, and the United Arab Emirates (see **Table 3**). At the executive level, 37 women in 33 countries were elected or selected by elected bodies to serve as heads of state and/or heads of government as of May 1, 2026 (see **Table 6**).

This report provides an overview of women's roles in national governments and looks at suffrage, representation at the legislative and executive levels, gender quotas, and violence against women in elections.

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May 7, 2026

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## Contents

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Introduction .....                                  | 1  |
| Congressional Interest .....                        | 1  |
| Voting Rights.....                                  | 3  |
| Legislative Representation .....                    | 4  |
| Gender Quotas .....                                 | 5  |
| Gender-Sensitive Parliaments .....                  | 10 |
| Executive Representation.....                       | 12 |
| Women Leaders in the 21 <sup>st</sup> Century ..... | 12 |
| Women Leaders of the 20 <sup>th</sup> Century.....  | 14 |
| Violence Against Women in Politics .....            | 15 |
| Europe .....  | 17 |
| Africa .....  | 19 |
| Asia-Pacific.....                                   | 22 |

## Figures

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Figure 1. Average Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Legislatures<br>Worldwide .....                | 9  |
| Figure 2. Change in Comparative Regional Percentages of Seats Held by Women in<br>National Legislatures.....   | 10 |
| Figure 3. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Women Legislators, 2016 .....                        | 16 |
| Figure 4. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against European Women Legislators,<br>2018.....             | 18 |
| Figure 5. Prevalence of Violence Against European Women Parliamentary Staff, 2018 .....                        | 19 |
| Figure 6. Prevalence of Violence Against African Women Legislators, 2021 .....                                 | 20 |
| Figure 7. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against African Women<br>Parliamentary Staff, 2021 .....     | 21 |
| Figure 8. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women<br>Legislators, 2025 .....        | 23 |
| Figure 9. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women<br>Parliamentary Staff, 2025..... | 25 |

## Tables

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Table 1. Right to Vote Granted to Women by Year and Country .....                       | 4  |
| Table 2. Right to Vote Granted to Women Since 2000 .....                                | 4  |
| Table 3. National Legislatures with Women Holding 40% or More Seats .....               | 5  |
| Table 4. G-20 Countries with Women Holding 40% or More National Legislative Seats ..... | 7  |
| Table 5. Countries Where Women Hold 10% or Less of Legislative Seats.....               | 8  |
| Table 6. Countries with Women Executives.....   | 12 |
| Table 7. Selected Notable Women Executives, 1960-2000 .....                             | 14 |
| Table 8. Psychological Violence: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2016.....            | 16 |

Table 9. Risk Factors for Women Legislators, 2016..... 17

Table 10. Responses to Violence Against Women in Politics, 2016..... 17

Table 11. Psychological Violence Against African Women Legislators: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2021..... 20

Table 12. Sexual Violence Against African Women Legislators: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2021..... 21

Table 13. Sexual Harassment Against African Women Parliamentary Staff: Perpetrators, 2021..... 21

Table 14. Psychological Violence Against African Women Parliamentary Staff: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2021..... 22

Table 15. Psychological Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025..... 23

Table 16. Sexual Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025..... 24

Table 17. Economic Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025..... 24

Table 18. Physical Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025..... 24

Table 19. Online Aggression Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025..... 25

Table 20. Psychological Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025..... 25

Table 21. Sexual Harassment Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025..... 26

Table 22. Economic Harassment Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025..... 26

Table 23. Physical Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025..... 26

## Contacts

Author Information..... 27

Acknowledgments..... 27

## 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, 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.<sup>1</sup>

As this report shows, on April 1, 2026, women held an average of 27.4% of legislative seats around the world, an increase from 16.6% in April 31, 2006 (see **Figure 1**). The percentage of women holding seats in 181 national legislatures worldwide ranged from 59.4% (Rwanda) to 0.0% (Tuvalu). As of April 1, 2026, women held 50% or more of the legislative seats in eight countries: Rwanda, Cuba, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Bolivia, Mexico, Andorra, and the United Arab Emirates (see **Table 3**).

A United Nations 2025 report notes that by the end of 2024, parliamentary elections for 73 chambers were held in 59 countries, during which women held 27.2% of the seats—up from 26.9% at the beginning of the year, “the slowest rate of progress since 2017.”<sup>2</sup> UN Women calculates that at the current rate of progress, “gender parity in national legislative bodies will not be achieved before 2063.”<sup>3</sup> At the national executive level, 37 women in 33 countries were elected or selected by elected bodies to serve as heads of state and/or heads of government as of May 1, 2026 (see **Table 6**).<sup>4</sup>

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, news reports, and other sources.

## Congressional Interest

Congress has long been interested in legislation that either directly or indirectly addresses women’s political participation around the world. For example, from FY2014 through FY2024, a provision in the Department of State, Foreign Operations, and Related Programs appropriations acts appropriated funds for women’s leadership. Most recently, Section 7059(c) of the

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<sup>1</sup> For example, see United Nations, “Women and Political Participation,” adopted December 19, 2011, <https://docs.un.org/en/A/RES/66/130>; UN Women, “In Brief: Women’s Leadership and Political Participation,” <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2024-06/in-brief-key-messages-on-womens-rights-empowerment-and-equality-electoral-and-political-participation-en.pdf>; Aaron Reeves et al., “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, <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC9527963/>; 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 and Medicine*, vol. 312 (November 2022), <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/36201993/>.

<sup>2</sup> Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Women in Parliament: 1995-2025,” 2025, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21078/download>.

<sup>3</sup> UN Women, “Facts and Figures: Women’s Leadership and Political Participation,” March 11, 2026, [https://www.unwomen.org/en/articles/facts-and-figures/facts-and-figures-womens-leadership-and-political-participation#\\_edn11](https://www.unwomen.org/en/articles/facts-and-figures/facts-and-figures-womens-leadership-and-political-participation#_edn11).

<sup>4</sup> UN Women, in “Facts and Figures,” states that “as of 1 January 2026, there are 28 countries where 30 women serve as Heads of State and/or Government.” UN Women calculates these figures from “information provided by Permanent Missions to the United Nations.” See **Table 6** for sources used to calculate the measurements for this report.

Consolidated Appropriations Act, 2026 (Division F of P.L. 119-75), appropriated \$37.5 million for the Madeleine K. Albright Women’s Leadership Program.

Members have also enacted laws that address women’s political participation. For example, Section 7059(e) of the Consolidated Appropriations Act, 2026 (Division F of P.L. 119-75), stated:

Women, Peace, and Security [WPS]—Of the funds appropriated by this Act under the headings “National Security Investment Programs” and “International Narcotics Control and Law Enforcement”, \$112,500,000 should be made available to support a multi-year strategy to expand, and improve coordination of, United States Government efforts to empower women as equal partners in conflict prevention, peace building, transitional processes, and reconstruction efforts in countries affected by conflict or in political transition, and to ensure the equal provision of relief and recovery assistance to women and girls.<sup>5</sup>

Congressional hearings involving WPS have been held since the 111<sup>th</sup> Congress (2009-2010).<sup>6</sup>

P.L. 115-68, the Women, Peace, and Security Act of 2017, stressed the importance of “the participation of women in conflict prevention, management, and resolution and post-conflict relief and recovery efforts.” This legislation directed the U.S. Department of State, the U.S. Department of Defense (DOD),<sup>7</sup> and the U.S. Agency for International Development to promote WPS and urged the President to “promote women’s participation in conflict prevention.”

U.S. Secretary of Defense Pete Hegseth<sup>8</sup> announced the end of WPS within DOD on April 29, 2025.<sup>9</sup> Several bills have been introduced expressing support for WPS programs since that date.<sup>10</sup>

In 2016, the IPU published a report about discrimination, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians and women parliamentary staff. Since 2016, the IPU has published regional updates for Europe, Africa, and the Asia-Pacific.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>5</sup> For more information, see CRS In Focus IF12346, *Women, Peace, and Security: Global Context and U.S. Policy* by Luisa Blanchfield.

<sup>6</sup> Examples include U.S. Congress, House Committee on Foreign Affairs, Subcommittee on International Operations and Organizations, Human Rights, and Oversight, *Women as Agents of Change: Advancing the Role of Women in Politics and Civil Society*, 111<sup>th</sup> Cong., 2<sup>nd</sup> sess., June 9, 2010, <https://www.congress.gov/event/111th-congress/house-event/LC6989/text?hl=%22women%2C+peace%2C+and+security%22&s=5&r=2>; U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, *Women, Peace, and Security Act of 2017*, hearing on S. 1141, 115<sup>th</sup> Cong., 1<sup>st</sup> sess., June 8, 2017, <https://www.congress.gov/committee-report/115th-congress/senate-report/93/1?hl=%22women%2C+peace%2C+and+security%22&s=7&r=1>; and U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, *Women in Conflict: Advancing Women’s Role in Peace and Security*, 116<sup>th</sup> Cong., 1<sup>st</sup> Sess., June 13, 2019, <https://www.congress.gov/event/116th-congress/senate-event/LC65155/text?hl=%22women%2C+peace%2C+and+security%22&s=6&r=13>.

<sup>7</sup> DOD is using “U.S. Department of War” as a “secondary title” under Executive Order 14347, dated September 5, 2025.

<sup>8</sup> The U.S. Secretary of Defense is using “Secretary of War” as a “secondary title” under Executive Order 14347.

<sup>9</sup> Secretary of Defense Pete Hegseth (@PeteHegseth), “This morning, I proudly ENDED the ‘Women, Peace & Security’ (WPS) program inside the @DeptofDefense,” X, April 29, 2025, <https://x.com/PeteHegseth/status/1917203362396639518>.

<sup>10</sup> Examples include H.R. 1018, S.Res. 599, and S.Res. 640.

<sup>11</sup> See IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians,” October 2016, <https://www.ipu.org/file/2425/download>; IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” October 2018, <https://www.ipu.org/file/5472/download>; IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>; and IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

In the United States, the House Committee on Ethics released a press release stating that the committee

is dedicated to maintaining a congressional workplace free from sexual misconduct and ensuring that any individuals responsible for misconduct are held responsible for their behavior. There should be zero tolerance for sexual misconduct, harassment, or discrimination in the halls of Congress, or in any employment setting.... Regardless of whether a claim is brought through formal channels, individuals who have been the victim of or who are otherwise aware of any sexual misconduct, regardless of whether they are a House employee, can submit a complaint with the Committee at any time through the Committee’s website (here).<sup>12</sup>

The House Committee on Ethics also released a “Historical Chart of Sexual Misconduct Matters,” dealing with “publicly disclosed investigative matters involving alleged sexual misconduct by member[s.]”<sup>13</sup> It provides the subject, allegations, and the outcome of each investigation. These include sexual harassment of congressional staff and other forms of misconduct.

## 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 for citizens have been restricted by gender and “other demographic factors such as race, age, education level or marital status.”<sup>14</sup> Definitions of what constituted a “citizen” may also have changed over time, for example, by including minority groups and Indigenous peoples, as was done in the United States.

**Table 1** and **Table 2** list the first and latest countries, respectively, to extend voting rights to women at the national level, according to the IPU. Subnational regions (e.g., states, provinces) may have granted women the right to vote earlier than at the national level.<sup>15</sup> The right to vote does not remove social barriers that may limit women’s ability to vote, but it ensures that women are no longer legally barred from voting. In the United States, for example, many Black women could not vote until the Voting Rights Act of 1965, even though women were granted the right to vote in federal elections in 1920.<sup>16</sup>

Some countries granted women the right to vote in stages. For example, in Canada in 1917, “women who served in the military or who had a close male relative serving in the military (i.e., a father, husband or son) were granted the right to vote.” By 1918, the restrictions related to non-military service were removed, although Indigenous women still could not vote.<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>12</sup> U.S. House, Committee on Ethics, “Statement of the Committee on Ethics Regarding Sexual Misconduct and Workplace Rights,” press release, April 20, 2026, <https://ethics.house.gov/press-releases/statement-of-the-committee-on-ethics-regarding-sexual-misconduct-and-workplace-rights/>.

<sup>13</sup> U.S. House Committee on Ethics, “Historical Chart of Sexual Misconduct Matters,” April 20, 2026, <https://ethics.house.gov/wp-content/uploads/2026/04/Historical-Chart-of-Sexual-Misconduct-Matters.pdf>.

<sup>14</sup> Katherine Schaeffer, “Key Facts About Women’s Suffrage Around the World, a Century After U.S. Ratified 19<sup>th</sup> Amendment,” Pew Research Center, October 5, 2020, <https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/2020/10/05/key-facts-about-womens-suffrage-around-the-world-a-century-after-u-s-ratified-19th-amendment/>.

<sup>15</sup> The Wyoming Suffrage Act of 1869, for example, recognized the right of women to vote within the territory of Wyoming. National Park Service, “Wyoming and the 19<sup>th</sup> Amendment,” August 22, 2019, <https://www.nps.gov/articles/wyoming-women-s-history.htm>. For more examples, see CRS Legal Sidebar LSB10898, *The Nineteenth Amendment and Women’s Suffrage Part 3: The Reconstruction Era*, by Brandon J. Murrill.

<sup>16</sup> Schaeffer, “Key Facts About Women’s Suffrage Around the World.”

<sup>17</sup> IPU, Canada House of Commons, “Data on Women,” <https://data.ipu.org/parliament/CA/CA-LC01/data-on-women/>.

**Table 1. Right to Vote Granted to Women by Year and Country**

| Year | Country/Countries  |
|------|--|
| 1893 | New Zealand  |
| 1902 | Australia*   |
| 1906 | Finland  |
| 1913 | Norway   |
| 1915 | Denmark, Iceland*  |
| 1917 | Canada*  |
| 1918 | Austria, Canada,** 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 CRS using information from Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Women’s Suffrage,” <http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/suffrage.htm>.

**Notes:** Some countries granted women the right to vote in stages. For such countries, one asterisk (\*) indicates the first year female citizens were granted the right to vote in national elections, even though some limitations related to gender may have persisted. Two asterisks (\*\*) indicate when residual gender-related voting restrictions were removed. No asterisk indicates that the right to vote was granted to women without any restrictions. Additionally, despite residing in countries that have granted women the right to vote, some women may have faced barriers to voting due to their race, ethnicity, religion, class, or other characteristics.

**Table 2. Right to Vote Granted to Women Since 2000**

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

**Sources:** Compiled by CRS using information from Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Compare Data on Parliaments,” <https://data.ipu.org/compare>; Pamela Paxton et al., *Women, Politics, and Power: A Global Perspective*, 4<sup>th</sup> ed. (Rowman and Littlefield, 2021), pp. 43-44.

**Note:** Countries that gained their independence since 2000 (e.g., Kosovo, South Sudan) are included in Table 2 only if women had not been granted suffrage before the country gained independence. For example, because Sudan granted women the right to vote in 1964, South Sudan, which gained independence in 2011, is not included in this list.

## Legislative Representation

Tables 3-5 highlight women’s representation in national legislatures. Several countries and political parties have gender quotas that mandate women’s representation on a ballot or in the legislature. Some governments may also use quotas to ensure ethnic or religious diversity in their

national legislatures (e.g., Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iraq).<sup>18</sup> Although women may benefit from these quotas, only gender quotas are included in the tables.

## 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.”<sup>19</sup>

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

1. **Legislated candidate quotas.** These quotas are mandated through national constitutions or laws to regulate the gender composition of the ballot.
2. **Legislated “reserved seats.”** These quotas reserve specific numbers or percentages of seats in legislatures for women. The quotas are mandated through national constitutions or laws and are implemented through special electoral procedures.
3. **Party quotas (also known as voluntary party quotas).** Political parties may adopt these quotas through party statutes and rules. Such adoption is the prerogative of each party, and some parties in a country may adopt quotas while others may not.<sup>20</sup>

A 2026 report from the IPU notes that quotas were “a significant driver of women’s representation in parliament in 2025. In the 36 chambers that had some form of quotas, the average share of elected or appointed seats held by women reached 30.9%, versus an average of 23.3% in chambers with no quotas. The average share of women elected was the highest (37.3%) in chambers that had both legislated and voluntary quotas.”<sup>21</sup>

The percentage of women holding seats in 181 national legislatures worldwide ranged from 59.4% (Rwanda) to 0.0% (Tuvalu). **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 Seats**

As of April 1, 2026

| Rank by % of Seats Held by Women <sup>a</sup> | Country   | Type of Legislative System | Gender Quota Codes <sup>b</sup> | Held Legislative Seats (#) <sup>c</sup> | Seats Held by Women (#) | Seats Held by Women (%) |
|---|-----------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| #1  | Rwanda    | Bicameral                  | RS                              | 106                                     | 63                      | 59.4%                   |
| #2  | Cuba      | Unicameral                 | ND                              | 467                                     | 267                     | 57.2%                   |
| #3  | Nicaragua | Unicameral                 | CQ                              | 91                                      | 51                      | 56.0%                   |

<sup>18</sup> IPU, “Bosnia and Herzegovina—House of Peoples,” <https://data.ipu.org/parliament/BA/BA-UC01/>; and IPU, “Iraq—Council of Representatives of Iraq,” <https://data.ipu.org/parliament/IQ/IQ-LC01/>.

<sup>19</sup> Drude Dahlerup et al., *Atlas of Electoral Gender Quotas* (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, IPU, and Stockholm University, 2014), p. 16, <https://www.idea.int/publications/catalogue/atlas-electoral-gender-quotas>.

<sup>20</sup> Dahlerup et al., *Atlas of Electoral Gender Quotas*, p. 16.

<sup>21</sup> IPU, “Women in Parliament in 2025,” February 2026, p. 1, <https://www.ipu.org/file/23136/download>.

| Rank by % of Seats Held by Women <sup>a</sup> | Country              | Type of Legislative System | Gender Quota Codes <sup>b</sup> | Held Legislative Seats (#) <sup>c</sup> | Seats Held by Women (#) | Seats Held by Women (%) |
|---|----------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| #4  | Costa Rica           | Unicameral                 | CQ, PQ                          | 57                                      | 30                      | 52.6%                   |
| #5  | Bolivia              | Bicameral                  | CQ                              | 166                                     | 87                      | 52.4%                   |
| #6  | Mexico               | Bicameral                  | CQ                              | 628                                     | 317                     | 50.5%                   |
| #7  | Andorra              | Unicameral                 | CQ, PQ                          | 28                                      | 14                      | 50.0%                   |
| #8  | United Arab Emirates | Unicameral                 | RS                              | 40                                      | 20                      | 50.0%                   |
| #9  | Australia            | Bicameral                  | PQ                              | 226                                     | 112                     | 49.6%                   |
| #10   | Denmark              | Unicameral                 | ND                              | 179                                     | 86                      | 48.0%                   |
| #11   | New Zealand          | Unicameral                 | PQ                              | 123                                     | 57                      | 46.3%                   |
| #12   | Iceland              | Unicameral                 | PQ                              | 63                                      | 29                      | 46.0%                   |
| #13   | Cabo Verde           | Unicameral                 | CQ                              | 72                                      | 33                      | 45.8%                   |
| #14   | Monaco               | Unicameral                 | ND                              | 24                                      | 11                      | 45.8%                   |
| #15   | Finland              | Unicameral                 | ND                              | 200                                     | 91                      | 45.5%                   |
| #16   | Sweden               | Unicameral                 | PQ                              | 349                                     | 156                     | 44.7%                   |
| #17   | South Africa         | Bicameral                  | PQ                              | 452                                     | 201                     | 44.5%                   |
| #18   | Belgium              | Bicameral                  | CQ                              | 209                                     | 92                      | 44.0%                   |
| #19   | Spain                | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                          | 615                                     | 266                     | 43.3%                   |
| #20   | Netherlands          | Bicameral                  | PQ                              | 225                                     | 97                      | 43.1%                   |
| #21   | Ecuador              | Unicameral                 | CQ                              | 151                                     | 65                      | 43.0%                   |
| #22   | Norway               | Unicameral                 | PQ                              | 169                                     | 72                      | 42.6%                   |
| #23   | Argentina            | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                          | 329                                     | 138                     | 41.9%                   |
| #24   | Peru                 | Unicameral                 | CQ                              | 130                                     | 54                      | 41.5%                   |
| #25   | Angola               | Unicameral                 | PQ                              | 220                                     | 91                      | 41.4%                   |
| #26   | Senegal              | Unicameral                 | CQ                              | 165                                     | 68                      | 41.2%                   |
| #27   | Dominica             | Unicameral                 | ND                              | 32                                      | 13                      | 40.6%                   |
| #28   | Burundi              | Bicameral                  | CQ                              | 124                                     | 50                      | 40.3%                   |

**Sources:** Compiled by CRS using data from Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments,” <https://data.ipu.org/women-ranking/>; and International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, “Gender Quotas Database,” <https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/gender-quotas-database>.

**Notes:**

- a. CRS reviewed the IPU list of monthly ranking of women in national parliaments on April 1, 2026. Of the 193 countries listed, complete data was available for 181 countries. Eight countries (Colombia, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Eritrea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Nepal, Uganda, and Venezuela) had incomplete values or no value recorded, and four countries (Afghanistan, Kuwait, Myanmar, and Sudan) were recorded as having suspended legislatures.
- b. Four codes indicate the types of gender quotas used in each country based on findings by the Gender Quota Database: 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, as identified by the Gender Quotas Database. If no data was available in the Gender Quotas Database, ND is noted.
- c. The table above does not include vacancies since April 1, 2026. A given legislature could have a greater total number of seats than those shown if seats were vacant.

**Table 4** shows the number of seats held by women in the national legislative chambers of the 19 member countries of the “Group of 20” (G-20), a forum for advancing international economic cooperation and coordination among certain countries.<sup>22</sup> According to the IPU, women hold 40% or more of the total seats in the national legislatures of four G-20 countries (Mexico, Australia, South Africa, and Argentina). These countries appear in both **Table 3** and **Table 4**.

**Table 4. G-20 Countries with Women Holding 40% or More National Legislative Seats**

As of April 1, 2026

| Rank by % of Seats Held by Women <sup>a</sup> | Country        | Type of Legislative System | Quota Codes <sup>b</sup> | Held Legislative Seats (#) <sup>c</sup> | Seats Held by Women (#) | Seats Held by Women (%) |
|---|----------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| #6  | Mexico         | Bicameral                  | CQ                       | 628                                     | 317                     | 50.5%                   |
| #9  | Australia      | Bicameral                  | PQ                       | 226                                     | 112                     | 49.6%                   |
| #17   | South Africa   | Bicameral                  | PQ                       | 452                                     | 201                     | 44.5%                   |
| #23   | Argentina      | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                   | 329                                     | 138                     | 41.9%                   |
| #37   | France         | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                   | 923                                     | 342                     | 37.1%                   |
| #43   | Canada         | Bicameral                  | PQ                       | 438                                     | 156                     | 35.6%                   |
| #44   | United Kingdom | Bicameral                  | PQ                       | 1,472                                   | 524                     | 35.6%                   |
| #52   | Italy          | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                   | 605                                     | 206                     | 34.0%                   |
| #58   | Germany        | Bicameral                  | PQ                       | 699                                     | 229                     | 32.8%                   |
| #85   | United States  | Bicameral                  | No Quota                 | 532 <sup>d</sup>                        | 150                     | 28.2%                   |
| #91   | China          | Unicameral                 | RS                       | 2,977                                   | 790                     | 26.5%                   |
| #112  | Indonesia      | Unicameral                 | CQ                       | 580                                     | 129                     | 22.2%                   |
| #121  | South Korea    | Unicameral                 | CQ, PQ                   | 298                                     | 62                      | 20.8%                   |
| #127  | Türkiye        | Unicameral                 | PQ                       | 592                                     | 118                     | 19.9%                   |
| #128  | Japan          | Bicameral                  | PQ                       | 713                                     | 142                     | 19.9%                   |
| #129  | Saudi Arabia   | Unicameral                 | RS                       | 151                                     | 30                      | 19.9%                   |
| #133  | Russia         | Bicameral                  | ND                       | 599                                     | 110                     | 18.4%                   |
| #139  | Brazil         | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                   | 594                                     | 103                     | 17.3%                   |
| #163  | India          | Bicameral                  | RS                       | 787                                     | 75                      | 9.5%                    |

**Sources:** Compiled by CRS using data from Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), “Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments,” <https://data.ipu.org/women-ranking/>; and International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, “Gender Quotas Database,” <https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/gender-quotas-database>.

**Notes:**

- a. CRS reviewed the IPU list on April 1, 2026. Of the 193 countries listed, complete data was available for 181 countries. Eight countries (Colombia, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Eritrea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Nepal, Uganda, and Venezuela) had incomplete values or no value recorded, and four countries (Afghanistan, Kuwait, Myanmar, and Sudan) were recorded as having suspended legislatures.
- b. Four codes indicate the types of gender quotas used in each country based on findings by the Gender Quota Database: CQ = legislated quotas for candidates on the ballot level; RS = legal quotas for reserved

<sup>22</sup> The European Union and the African Union, which are members of the G-20, are 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 and the Pan-African Parliament.

- seats, whether legislated or mandated by the executive branch; PQ = voluntary party quotas, as identified by the Gender Quotas Database. If no data was available in the Gender Quotas Database, ND is noted.
- c. The table above does not include vacancies since April 1, 2026. A given legislature could have a greater total number of seats than those shown if seats were vacant.
  - d. The total number of seats in the U.S. Congress is 535. On April 1, 2026, IPU data recorded that three seats were vacant. See CRS Report R48535, *Membership of the 119th Congress: A Profile*, by Jennifer E. Manning.

**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 Legislative Seats**  
As of April 1, 2026

| Rank by % of Seats Held by Women <sup>a</sup> | Country          | Type of Legislative System | Quota Codes <sup>b</sup> | Held Legislative Seats (#) <sup>c</sup> | Seats Held by Women (#) | Seats Held by Women (%) |
|---|------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| #161  | Samoa            | Unicameral                 | RS                       | 51                                      | 5                       | 9.8%                    |
| #162  | Sri Lanka        | Unicameral                 | Sub only                 | 225                                     | 22                      | 9.8%                    |
| #163  | India            | Bicameral                  | RS                       | 787                                     | 75                      | 9.5%                    |
| #164  | Fiji             | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 55                                      | 5                       | 9.1%                    |
| #165  | Botswana         | Unicameral                 | PQ                       | 67                                      | 6                       | 9.0%                    |
| #166  | The Gambia       | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 58                                      | 5                       | 8.6%                    |
| #167  | Bhutan           | Bicameral                  | ND                       | 72                                      | 5                       | 6.9%                    |
| #168  | Algeria          | Bicameral                  | CQ, PQ                   | 571                                     | 36                      | 6.3%                    |
| #169  | Lebanon          | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 128                                     | 8                       | 6.3%                    |
| #170  | Qatar            | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 49                                      | 3                       | 6.1%                    |
| #171  | Solomon Islands  | Unicameral                 | CQ                       | 50                                      | 3                       | 6.0%                    |
| #172  | Syria            | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 122                                     | 6                       | 4.9%                    |
| #173  | Iran             | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 285                                     | 14                      | 4.9%                    |
| #174  | Nigeria          | Bicameral                  | ND                       | 463                                     | 19                      | 4.1%                    |
| #175  | Tonga            | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 27                                      | 1                       | 3.7%                    |
| #176  | Maldives         | Unicameral                 | Sub only                 | 93                                      | 3                       | 3.2%                    |
| #177  | Papua New Guinea | Unicameral                 | RS                       | 111                                     | 3                       | 2.7%                    |
| #178  | Bangladesh       | Unicameral                 | RS                       | 296                                     | 7                       | 2.4%                    |
| #179  | Vanuatu          | Unicameral                 | Sub only                 | 52                                      | 1                       | 1.9%                    |
| #180  | Yemen            | Bicameral                  | ND                       | 335                                     | 1                       | 0.3%                    |
| #181  | Tuvalu           | Unicameral                 | ND                       | 16                                      | 0                       | 0.0%                    |

**Sources:** Compiled by CRS using data from Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), “Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments,” <https://data.ipu.org/women-ranking/>; and International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, “Gender Quotas Database,” <https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/gender-quotas-database>.

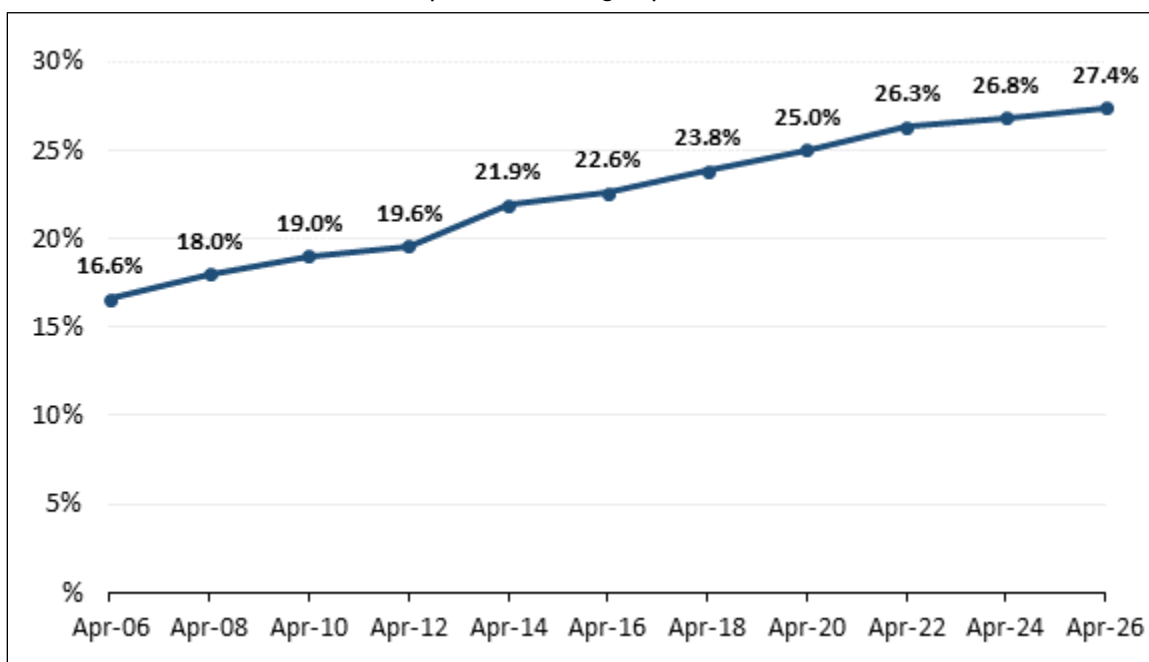
**Notes:**

- a. CRS reviewed the IPU list on April 1, 2026. Of the 193 countries listed, complete data was available for 181 countries. Eight countries (Colombia, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Eritrea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Nepal, Uganda, and Venezuela) had incomplete values or no value recorded, and four countries (Afghanistan, Kuwait, Myanmar, and Sudan) were recorded as having suspended legislatures.
- b. Four codes indicate the types of gender quotas used in each country based on findings by the Gender Quota Database: 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, as identified by the Gender Quotas Database. If no data was available in the Gender Quotas Database, ND is noted.
- c. The table above does not include vacancies since April 1, 2026. A given legislature could have a greater total number of seats than those shown if seats were vacant.

According to the IPU, over a 20-year period, the percentage of seats held by women in national legislatures has increased 10.8% worldwide from 16.6% in April 2006 to 27.4% in April 2026 (see **Figure 1**).

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

April 2006 Through April 2026

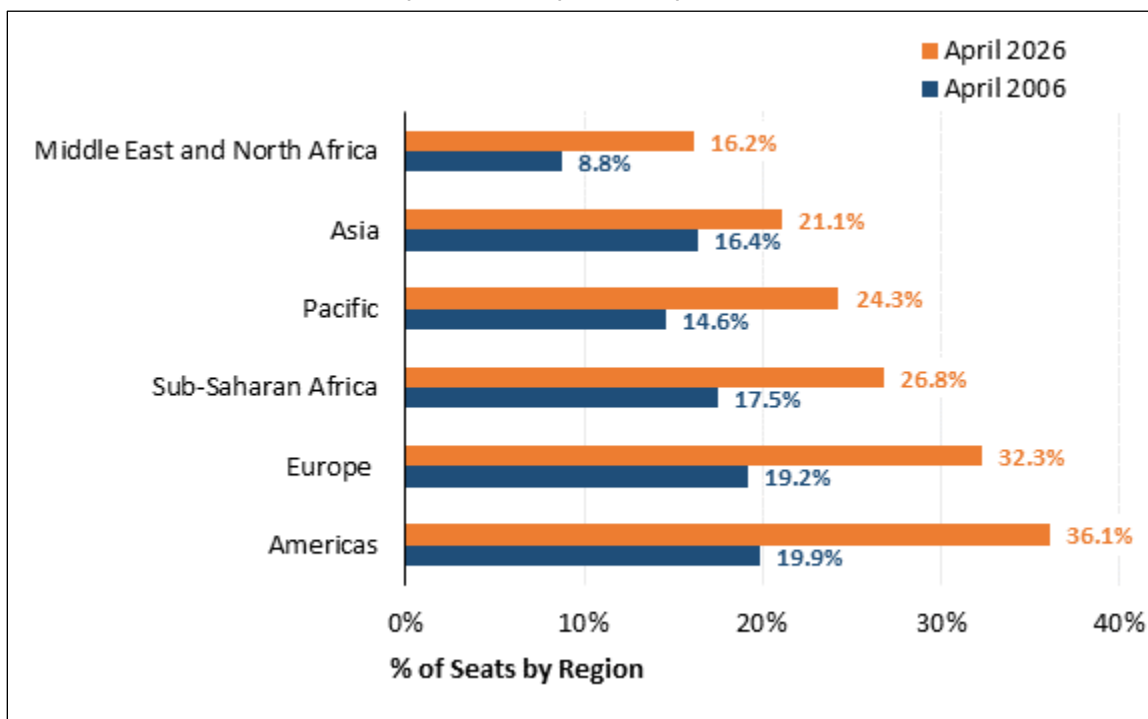


**Source:** Created by CRS using data from Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), “Archived Data: World and Region Averages,” <http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/world-arc.htm>; and IPU, “Global and Regional Averages of Women in National Parliaments,” <https://data.ipu.org/women-averages/>.

According to the IPU, in April 2006, Europe and the Americas were the only regions where the average percentage of women holding legislative seats at the national level exceeded 18%, as shown in **Figure 2**. By 2026, all regions except the Middle East and North Africa had an average of 18% or more women holding seats in national legislatures. On average, women holding legislative seats in the Middle East and North Africa increased from 8.8% in 2006 to 16.2% in 2026.

**Figure 2. Change in Comparative Regional Percentages of Seats Held by Women in National Legislatures**

April 2006 compared to April 2026



**Source:** Created by CRS using data from Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), “Archived Data: World and Region Averages,” <http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/world-arc.htm>; and IPU, “Global and Regional Averages of Women in National Parliaments,” <https://data.ipu.org/women-averages/>.

## Gender-Sensitive Parliaments

The IPU defines *gender-sensitive parliament* as “one that responds to the needs and interests of both men and women in its structures, operations, methods, and work.”<sup>23</sup> IPU research focuses on ways that parliaments can “create the mechanisms required to mainstream gender equality concerns throughout their legislative, oversight and administrative work.”<sup>24</sup>

In 2012 and again 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
- Instituting or improving gender-sensitive infrastructure and parliamentary culture
- Ensuring that responsibility for gender equality is shared by all parliamentarians—men and women

<sup>23</sup> Sonia Palmieri, “Gender-Sensitive Parliaments: A Global Review of Good Practice,” IPU, 2011, p. v, <https://www.ipu.org/file/2085/download>.

<sup>24</sup> Palmieri, “Gender-Sensitive Parliaments,” p. v.

- Encouraging political parties to be champions of gender equality
- Enhancing the gender sensitivity of, and gender equality among, parliamentary staff<sup>25</sup>

In October 2022, the 145<sup>th</sup> IPU Assembly in Kigali, Rwanda, adopted the Kigali Declaration, titled “Gender Equality and Gender-Sensitive Parliaments as Drivers of Change for a More Resilient and Peaceful World.” It made the following recommendations:

Achieve parity in political decision-making, including by using electoral gender quotas and ensuring that other electoral quotas always have a gender parity provision.

Ensure our law-making, law-enforcement, and budgeting are gender-responsive across all policy fields.

Put vulnerable populations at the centre of our parliamentary functions of legislation, oversight, resource allocation and representation.

End gender-based discrimination, violence and other harmful practices, and ensure access to sexual and reproductive health, rights and justice for all women and girls.

Advance equality in caring responsibilities among men and women and set an example in our societies by undertaking 50% of the daily care work for our families, regardless of whether we are male or female MPs.<sup>26</sup>

Hybrid work—that is, a combination of remote work and in-person work—is being examined as a gender-sensitive mechanism. According to a 2024 IPU report, “over two thirds of parliaments (68%) now have multi-year digital strategies and 73% have formal modernization programmes” to promote hybrid work.<sup>27</sup> A 2023 IPU report noted that these changes were considered “gender-responsive” and that parliaments were “considering to what extent hybrid working makes parliaments more modern, gender-sensitive and family-friendly workplaces.”<sup>28</sup> The 2024 IPU report stated that “as digital technology becomes increasingly strategic to parliaments, gender balance and gender-responsive digital initiatives are likely to become increasingly important aspects of inclusive governance.”<sup>29</sup>

Another 2024 IPU report discussed the “Women in Politics: To Stay or Not to Stay” session at the 147<sup>th</sup> IPU Assembly in October 2023. The panel discussion emphasized peer-to-peer support and building “more solidarity among women across party lines.”<sup>30</sup>

Various international organizations have published additional research and guidelines to assist parliaments in achieving gender sensitivity.<sup>31</sup>

<sup>25</sup> IPU, “Plan of Action for Gender-Sensitive Parliaments,” 2017, p. 1, <https://www.ipu.org/file/3215/download>.

<sup>26</sup> IPU, “Kigali Declaration: Gender Equality and Gender-Sensitive Parliaments as Drivers of Change for a More Resilient and Peaceful World,” October 2022, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/15355/download>.

<sup>27</sup> IPU, “World e-Parliament Report 2024,” 2024, p. 5, <https://www.ipu.org/file/20313/download>.

<sup>28</sup> IPU, “Women in Parliament 2022,” 2023, p. 20, <https://www.ipu.org/file/17189/download>.

<sup>29</sup> IPU, “World e-Parliament Report 2024,” p. 62, <https://www.ipu.org/file/20313/download>.

<sup>30</sup> IPU, “Women in Parliament 2023,” p. 27, <https://www.ipu.org/file/18626/download>

<sup>31</sup> For examples not mentioned previously, see IPU, “Evaluating the Gender Sensitivity of Parliaments: A Self-Assessment Toolkit,” 2016, <https://www.ipu.org/file/630/download>; Commonwealth Parliamentary Association (CPA), “Gender Sensitising Parliaments Guidelines: Standards and a Checklist for Parliamentary Change,” 2020, <https://www.cpaq.org/media/s20j1lws/cwp-gender-sensitizing-guidelines.pdf>; IPU, “Guidelines for the Elimination of Sexism, Harassment, and Violence against Women in Parliament,” 2019, <https://www.ipu.org/file/8412/download>; CPA, “Gender Sensitising Parliaments: A Seven-Step Field Guide,” 2022, [https://www.cpaq.org/media/pxmfpgw5/gender-sensitising-parliaments\\_a-seven-step-field-guide.pdf](https://www.cpaq.org/media/pxmfpgw5/gender-sensitising-parliaments_a-seven-step-field-guide.pdf); and “Gender-Sensitive Practices in Parliaments,” in (continued...)

## Executive Representation

The term *executive* refers to a person identified as either the head of state or head of government of a country. The EBSCO Advantage Politics and Government database defines *head of state* as the person “who represents the government symbolically, but does not manage the country’s daily activities. A head of state advances national pride and identity, hosts foreign ambassadors, and serves as a symbol of the country. The head of state does not pass any legislation.”<sup>32</sup> The head of government is the “chief officer of the executive branch of a government. They are responsible for overseeing the daily executive and legislative activities in their country. Typically, the head of government appoints members of the government, oversees governmental agencies, and oversees the operations of the civil service.”<sup>33</sup>

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.

According to a 2026 analysis from the Pew Research Center, 63 out of 193 United Nations member states (32.6%) have had female heads of government since 1960, when Sri Lankan Sirima Bandaranaike was elected the world’s first female prime minister.<sup>34</sup>

## Women Leaders in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century

**Table 6** lists alphabetically countries with heads of state and/or heads of government, excluding monarchs, who are women.

**Table 6. Countries with Women Executives**

As of May 1, 2026

| Country                          | Name                                      | Title  | In Office Since |
|----------------------------------|---|--|-----------------|
| Anguilla                         | Cora <b>Richardson-Hodge</b> <sup>a</sup> | Premier  | Feb. 27, 2025   |
| Barbados                         | Mia <b>Mottley</b> <sup>a</sup>           | Prime Minister                                 | May 25, 2018    |
| Barbados                         | Sandra <b>Mason</b> <sup>a</sup>          | President                                      | Nov. 30, 2021   |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina           | Željka <b>Cvijanović</b> <sup>a</sup>     | Member of the Presidency <sup>b</sup>          | Nov. 16, 2022   |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina           | Borjana <b>Krišto</b> <sup>a</sup>        | Chair of the Council of Ministers <sup>c</sup> | Jan. 25, 2023   |
| Bulgaria                         | Iliana <b>Iotova</b> <sup>a</sup>         | President                                      | Jan. 23, 2026   |
| Democratic Republic of the Congo | Judith <b>Suminwa Tuluka</b> <sup>a</sup> | Prime Minister                                 | May 29, 2024    |

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Toolkit for Mainstreaming and Implementing Gender Equality 2023* (2023), [https://www.oecd.org/content/dam/oecd/en/publications/reports/2023/07/toolkit-for-mainstreaming-and-implementing-gender-equality-2023\\_c68bd819/3ddef555-en.pdf](https://www.oecd.org/content/dam/oecd/en/publications/reports/2023/07/toolkit-for-mainstreaming-and-implementing-gender-equality-2023_c68bd819/3ddef555-en.pdf).

<sup>32</sup> EBSCO, “Head of State,” <https://www.ebsco.com/research-starters/politics-and-government/head-state>.

<sup>33</sup> EBSCO, “Head of Government,” <https://www.ebsco.com/research-starters/politics-and-government/head-government>.

<sup>34</sup> Sofia Hernandez Ramones, “About a Third of UN Member States Have Ever Had a Woman Leader,” Pew Research Center, March 2, 2026, <https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/2026/03/02/about-a-third-of-un-member-countries-have-ever-had-a-woman-leader/>.

| Country             | Name   | Title                               | In Office Since |
|---------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Denmark             | Mette <b>Frederiksen</b>                                 | Interim Prime Minister <sup>d</sup> | June 27, 2019   |
| Dominica            | Sylvanie <b>Burton</b> <sup>e</sup>                      | President                           | Oct. 2, 2023    |
| Iceland             | Halla <b>Tomasdottir</b>                                 | President                           | Aug. 1, 2024    |
| Iceland             | Kristrun <b>Frostadottir</b>                             | Prime Minister                      | Dec. 21, 2024   |
| India               | Droupadi <b>Murmu</b> <sup>f</sup>                       | President                           | July 25, 2022   |
| Ireland             | Catherine <b>Connolly</b>                                | President                           | Nov. 11, 2025   |
| Italy               | Giorgia <b>Meloni</b> <sup>a</sup>                       | Prime Minister                      | Oct. 22, 2022   |
| Japan               | Sanae <b>Takaichi</b> <sup>a</sup>                       | Prime Minister                      | Oct. 21, 2025   |
| Kosovo              | Albulena <b>Haxhiu</b>                                   | Acting President <sup>g</sup>       | Apr. 4, 2026    |
| Latvia              | Evika <b>Siliņa</b>                                      | Prime Minister                      | Sept. 15, 2023  |
| Liechtenstein       | Brigitte <b>Haas</b> <sup>a</sup>                        | Prime Minister                      | April 10, 2025  |
| Lithuania           | Inga <b>Ruginiene</b>                                    | Prime Minister                      | Sept. 25, 2025  |
| Malta               | Myriam Spiteri <b>Debono</b>                             | President                           | Apr. 4, 2024    |
| Marshall Islands    | Hilda C. <b>Heine</b> <sup>a</sup>                       | President                           | Jan. 3, 2023    |
| Mexico              | Claudia <b>Sheinbaum</b><br>Pardo <sup>a</sup>           | President                           | Oct. 1, 2024    |
| Moldova             | Maia <b>Sandu</b> <sup>a</sup>                           | President                           | Dec. 24, 2020   |
| Mozambique          | Maria Benvinda Delfina<br><b>Levi</b>                    | Prime Minister                      | Jan. 17, 2025   |
| Namibia             | Netumbo <b>Nandi-<br/>Ndaitwah</b> <sup>a</sup>          | President                           | Mar. 21, 2025   |
| North Macedonia     | Gordana <b>Siljanovska-<br/>Davkova</b> <sup>a</sup>     | President                           | May 12, 2024    |
| San Marino          | Alice <b>Mina</b>  | Captain Regent <sup>h</sup>         | April 1, 2026   |
| Slovenia            | Nataša <b>Pirc Musar</b> <sup>a</sup>                    | President                           | Dec. 23, 2022   |
| Sri Lanka           | Harini <b>Amarasuriya</b> <sup>a</sup>                   | Prime Minister                      | Sept. 24, 2024  |
| Suriname            | Jennifer <b>Geerlings-<br/>Simons</b> <sup>a</sup>       | President                           | July 16, 2025   |
| Tanzania            | Samia Suluhu <b>Hassan</b> <sup>a</sup>                  | President                           | Mar. 19, 2021   |
| Trinidad and Tobago | Christine Carla<br><b>Kangaloo</b>                       | President                           | Mar. 20, 2023   |
| Trinidad and Tobago | Kamla Susheila <b>Persad-<br/>Bissessar</b> <sup>a</sup> | Prime Minister <sup>i</sup>         | May 1, 2025     |
| Tunisia             | Sarra <b>Zaafrani Zenzri</b>                             | Prime Minister                      | Mar. 21, 2025   |
| Uganda              | Robinah <b>Nabbanja</b> <sup>a</sup>                     | Prime Minister                      | June 14, 2021   |
| Ukraine             | Yulia <b>Svyrydenko</b>                                  | Prime Minister                      | July 17, 2025   |
| Venezuela           | Delcy <b>Rodriguez</b> <sup>a</sup>                      | Interim President <sup>j</sup>      | January 5, 2026 |

**Sources:** Compiled by CRS using Sofia Hernandez Ramones, “About a Third of UN Member Countries Have Ever Had a Woman Leader,” Pew Research Center, March 2, 2026, <https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/>

2026/03/02/about-a-third-of-un-member-countries-have-ever-had-a-woman-leader/; and United Nations, “List of Heads of State, Heads of Government and Ministers for Foreign Affairs,” (accessed May 1, 2026, <https://www.un.org/dgacm/en/content/protocol/hshgnfa>; government websites, news sources, and consultation with CRS analysts.

**Notes:** Surnames appear in bold face.

- a. This person is the first woman to hold this position in her country’s history.
- b. Bosnia and Herzegovina has a rotating three-member presidency. Željka Cvijanović is the Serb member of the presidency. From November 16, 2024, through July 16, 2025, she was chairperson of the presidency.
- c. The chair of the Council of Ministers is the head of government in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- d. Mette Frederiksen has served as prime minister of Denmark since June 27, 2019. After the election on March 25, 2026, Frederiksen stepped down as prime minister but has been serving as interim prime minister as negotiations to form a new government continue.
- e. Sylvanie Burton is the first woman and the first member of the indigenous Kalinago community to be elected president.
- f. Droupadi Murmu is the second woman and first member belonging to a tribal community to be elected president in India.
- g. The term of the most recent president of Kosovo ended April 4, 2026. Albulena Haxhiu, the speaker of the assembly of the Republic of Kosovo, is serving as acting president until the assembly selects a new president.
- h. San Marino has co-chiefs of state called captains regent. Alice Mina is one of the current captains regent.
- i. Prime Minister Persad-Bissessar is the second Trinidadian and Tobagonian prime minister to serve non-consecutive terms. Although this is her second time being prime minister, she was the first female prime minister in Trinidad and Tobago during her first term from 2010 through 2015.
- j. The U.S. military captured President Nicolás Maduro and his wife, Cilia Flores, on January 3, 2026. Delcy Rodríguez was sworn in as interim president on January 5, 2026. For more information, see CRS Insight IN12618, *U.S. Capture of Venezuela’s Nicolás Maduro: Considerations for Congress*, by Clare Ribando Seelke.

## Women Leaders of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century

Table 7 identifies several notable female executives who held office in the 20<sup>th</sup> century with explanatory notes.

**Table 7. Selected Notable Women Executives, 1960-2000**

Listed Chronologically by Years in Office

| Country   | Name                            | Title          | Years in Office                 |
|---|---------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------------|
| Sri Lanka   | Sirimavo <b>Bandaranaike</b>    | Prime Minister | 1960-1965; 1970-1977; 1994-2000 |
| Bandaranaike was the world’s first female prime minister.   |                                 |                |                                 |
| India   | Indira <b>Gandhi</b>            | Prime Minister | 1966-1977 and 1980-1984         |
| Gandhi was India’s first and only female prime minister, assassinated while in office, and succeeded by her son, Rajiv. She was also the daughter of Jawaharlal Nehru, the first prime minister of India. |                                 |                |                                 |
| Israel  | Golda <b>Meir</b>               | Prime Minister | 1969-1974                       |
| Meir and her husband immigrated to then Palestine in 1921. She was a founder of the state of Israel and its fourth prime minister, the first and only one to be female.                                   |                                 |                |                                 |
| Argentina   | Isabel Martinez de <b>Perón</b> | President      | 1974-1976                       |
| 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 <b>Thatcher</b>        | Prime Minister | 1979-1990                       |

| Country   | Name                         | Title          | Years in Office         |
|---|------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|
| Thatcher became the first female prime minister in Europe and was the only British prime minister in the 20 <sup>th</sup> century to be elected to three consecutive terms. |                              |                |                         |
| Iceland   | Vigdis <b>Finnbogadottir</b> | President      | 1980-1996               |
| Finnbogadottir was the first woman in the world to be elected head of state in a national election.   |                              |                |                         |
| Philippines   | Corazon <b>Aquino</b>        | President      | 1986-1992               |
| Aquino restored democratic rule after the dictatorship of Ferdinand Marcos.   |                              |                |                         |
| Pakistan  | Benazir <b>Bhutto</b>        | Prime Minister | 1988-1990 and 1993-1996 |
| Bhutto was the first female prime minister of a majority-Muslim country.  |                              |                |                         |

**Source:** Compiled by CRS using news and research databases.

**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.<sup>35</sup> Violence may occur during the registration and voting processes, while campaigning and running for office, and/or while serving in a government.<sup>36</sup> 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.<sup>37</sup>

Information about violence against women in politics tends to be based on anecdotal evidence, making it difficult to determine the extent and prevalence of the problem. In addition, some women may be reluctant to report violence out of fear that doing so may limit their political aspirations and lead to reprisals, threats, and possible increased harassment.<sup>38</sup> According to a 2018 United Nations report, “women of color appear to be disproportionately affected, and risks are likely higher for women of marginalized communities.”<sup>39</sup>

<sup>35</sup> 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, <https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/articles/violence-against-women-in-politics/>. The Kofi Annan Foundation cited research that determined that “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, <https://www.kofiannanfoundation.org/publication/eliminating-violence-against-women-in-politics/>.

<sup>36</sup> UN Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, “Violence Against Women in Politics,” August 6, 2018, p. 9, <https://docs.un.org/en/A/73/301>.

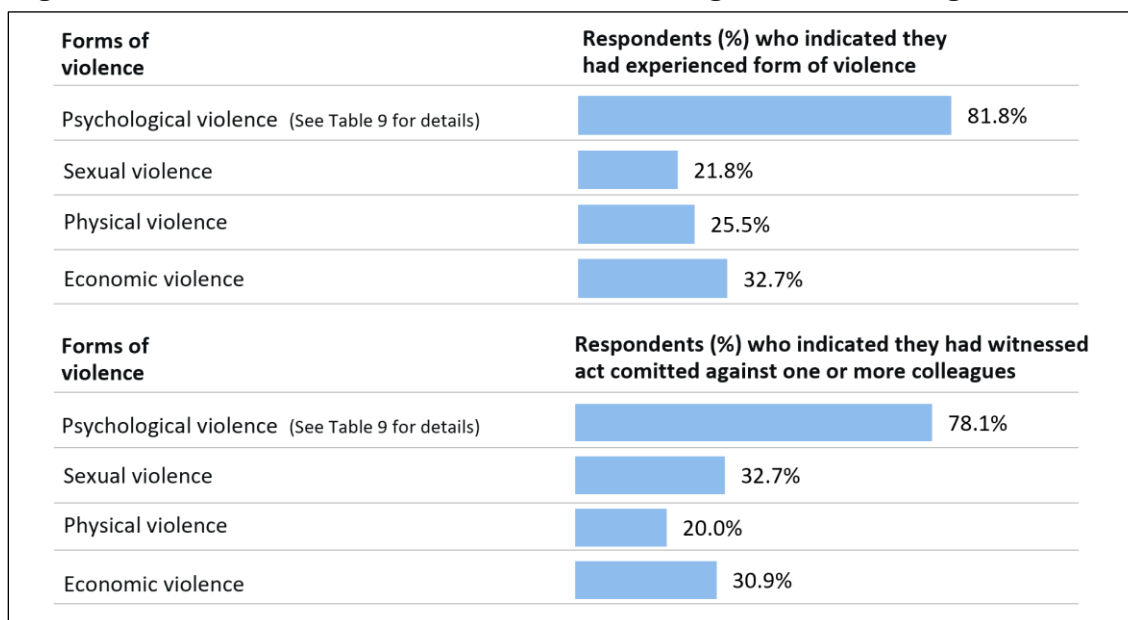
<sup>37</sup> UN Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, “Violence Against Women in Politics,” p. 6.

<sup>38</sup> UN Women, “Data and Violence Against Women in Politics: Expert Group Meeting Report and Recommendations,” December 4-5, 2019, pp. 9-13, <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2020/EGM-report-Data-and-violence-against-women-in-politics-en.pdf>.

<sup>39</sup> United Nations, “Violence against Women in Politics: Expert Group Meeting Report and Recommendations,” New York, NY, March 8-9, 2018, p. 6, <https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/Documents/Issues/Women/ViolenceAgainstWomeninPoliticsReport.pdf>.

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.<sup>40</sup> **Tables 9-12** illustrate the findings of this survey. Broadly, almost 82% of the women surveyed reported psychological violence, almost 22% reported incidents of sexual violence, 26% reported experiencing physical violence, and almost 33% had been subjected to economic violence.<sup>41</sup>

**Figure 3. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Women Legislators, 2016**



**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians,” October 2016, <https://www.ipu.org/file/2425/download>.

**Note:** The report defines various kinds of violence.

The 81.8% of respondents in **Figure 3** who reported psychological violence identified the manifestations of this violence in **Table 8**.

**Table 8. Psychological Violence: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2016**

| 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%  |

<sup>40</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians.”

<sup>41</sup> Examples of economic violence include being “denied funds to which they [women legislators] were entitled during their terms in office ... [and] other resources (offices, computers, staff, security) enjoyed by male colleagues in parliament.” The damaging or destruction of possessions are other examples. IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians,” p. 5.

| Actions of Psychological Violence   | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|---|--|
| 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:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians,” October 2016, p. 3, <https://www.ipu.org/file/2425/download>.

**Table 9** lists several factors identified in the IPU study that may make some women legislators likely targets for gender-based violence.

**Table 9. Risk Factors for Women Legislators, 2016**

| 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, <https://www.ipu.org/file/2425/download>.

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.<sup>42</sup> **Table 10** identifies how women legislators have reacted to the acts of violence they experienced.

**Table 10. Responses to Violence Against Women in Politics, 2016**

| 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:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians,” October 2016, p. 7, <https://www.ipu.org/file/2425/download>.

The IPU released regional updates on sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments for Europe (2018), Africa (2021), and the Asia-Pacific (2025).

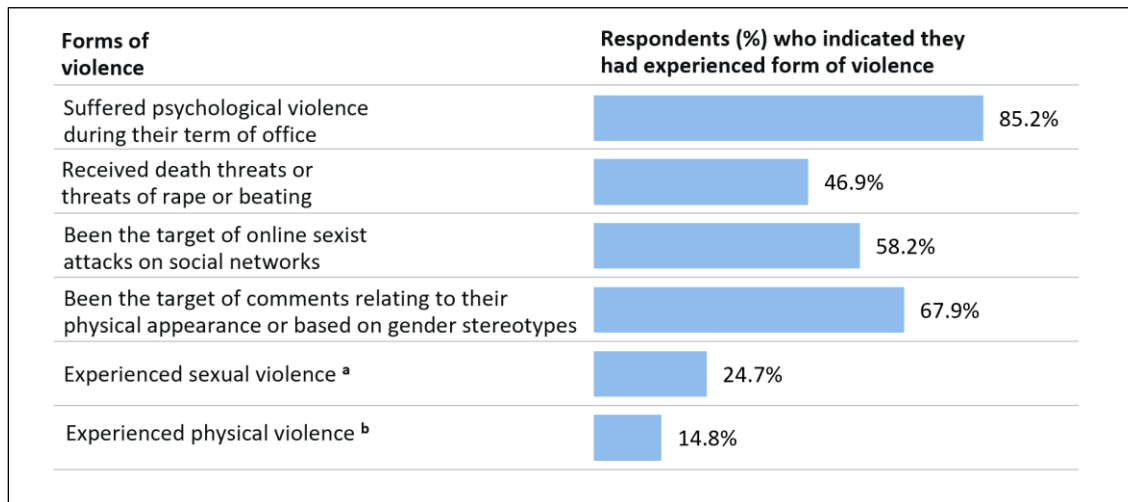
## Europe

The 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

<sup>42</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians,” p. 6.

(MPs), and 42 were members of the parliamentary staff.<sup>43</sup> **Figure 4** identifies the prevalence of various forms of violence against European women legislators.

**Figure 4. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against European Women Legislators, 2018**



**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” October 2018, p. 4, <https://www.ipu.org/file/5472/download>.

**Notes:**

- a. 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 to “engage in sexual acts, have sexual intercourse or carry out something of a sexual nature”).
- b. This report defines *physical violence* as being slapped, pushed, hit, or having something thrown at you; being threatened with a firearm, knife, or another weapon; or being confined, beaten, or abducted.

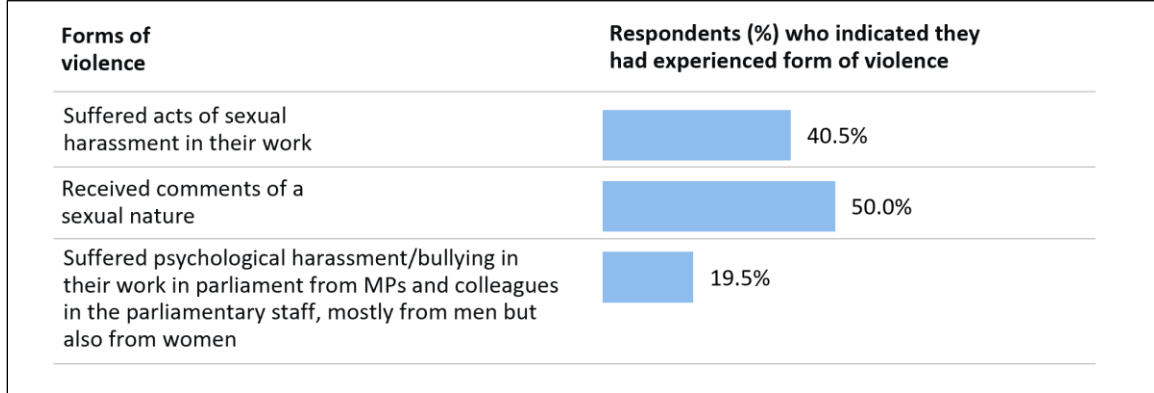
More broadly, female MPs in Europe under 40 experienced higher rates of psychological and sexual harassment than did male MPs.<sup>44</sup>

<sup>43</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” October 2018, p. 1, <https://www.ipu.org/file/5472/download>.

<sup>44</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” p. 1.

Figure 5 identifies the prevalence of forms of violence against European female parliamentary staff.

**Figure 5. Prevalence of Violence Against European Women Parliamentary Staff, 2018**



**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” October 2018, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/5472/download>.

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.<sup>45</sup>

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.<sup>46</sup>

## Africa

The 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 MPs, and 87 were members of the parliamentary staff.<sup>47</sup>

Figure 6 identifies the prevalence of violence against African women MPs.

<sup>45</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” p. 2.

<sup>46</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Europe,” p. 2.

<sup>47</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

**Figure 6. Prevalence of Violence Against African Women Legislators, 2021**

| Forms of violence                                  | Respondents (%) who indicated they had experienced form of violence |
|--|---|
| Experienced psychological violence <sup>a</sup>    | 80.0%   |
| Experienced sexual violence <sup>b</sup>           | 39.0%   |
| Exposed to economic violence <sup>c</sup>          | 29.0%   |
| Experienced physical violence at work <sup>d</sup> | 23.0%   |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

**Notes:** The IPU uses the following definitions:

- a. *Psychological violence* “includes all gestures, acts, words, writings and images that harm the psychological integrity of a person or group of people and that have the effect of weakening and injuring them psychologically, but also of subjugating and controlling them.”
- b. *Sexual violence* includes “all acts of sexual violence perpetrated against others without consent, including sexual harassment and other unwelcome acts carried out for sexual purposes (physical contact, advances, remarks with sexual connotations, or requests for sexual acts). It includes requests for sexual favours, sexual assault and rape.” *Sexual harassment* includes “any form of unwanted verbal, nonverbal or physical conduct carried out for sexual purposes, such as physical contact and advances, remarks with sexual connotations, or requests for sexual acts, the purpose or effect of which is to violate the dignity of a person, in particular when such conduct creates an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment.” *Sexual assault* is defined as “all acts of sexual violence against another person without consent, including rape, or coercing another person to engage in non-consensual sexual acts with another.”
- c. *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.”
- d. In the report, *physical violence* “includes a wide range of physical harm that threatens the life or physical integrity of the person concerned or their loved ones.”

The 80.0% of African women legislators in **Figure 6** who reported psychological violence identified manifestations of this violence in **Table 11**.

**Table 11. Psychological Violence Against African Women Legislators: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2021**

| 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:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

The 39.0% of African women legislators in **Figure 6** who reported sexual violence identified manifestations of this violence in **Table 12**.

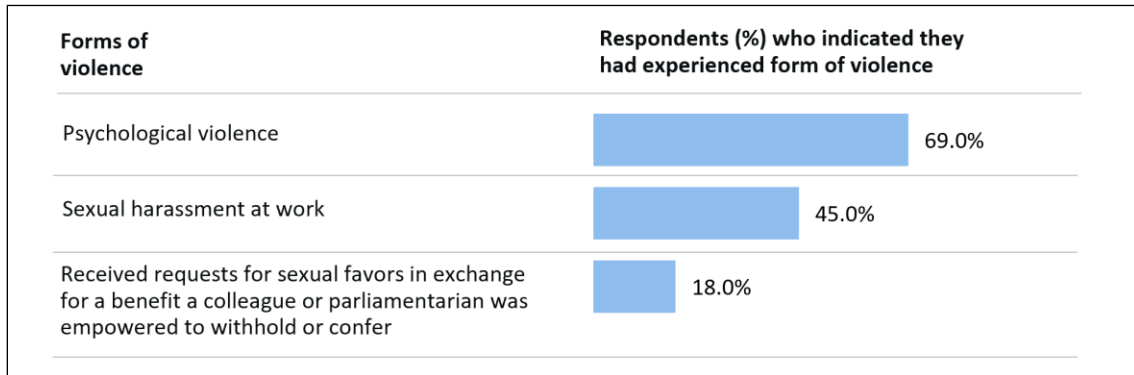
**Table 12. Sexual Violence Against African Women Legislators: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2021**

| 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:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

**Figure 7** identifies the prevalence of forms of violence against African women parliamentary staff.

**Figure 7. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against African Women Parliamentary Staff, 2021**



**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 3, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

The 45.0% of African women parliamentary staff in **Figure 7** who reported sexual harassment at work identified types of perpetrators of this behavior in **Table 13**.

**Table 13. Sexual Harassment Against African Women Parliamentary Staff: Perpetrators, 2021**

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

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 3, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

African women parliamentary staff reported that “18% have received requests for sexual favors 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.”<sup>48</sup>

The 69.0% of African women parliamentary staff in **Figure 7** who reported psychological violence identified manifestations of this violence in **Table 14**.

<sup>48</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” p. 3.

**Table 14. Psychological Violence Against African Women Parliamentary Staff: Prevalence of Specific Behaviors, 2021**

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

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” November 2021, p. 3, <https://www.ipu.org/file/12951/download>.

In the 56.0% of African women parliamentary staff who were targets of sexist remarks, 67% of these cases were by male colleagues working in parliament, and 30% of these cases were by male MPs.<sup>49</sup> In the 38.0% of African women parliamentary staff who experienced psychological harassment within the context of their work in parliament, in 22.0% of those cases, the perpetrators were male MPs.<sup>50</sup>

The 2021 Africa update also provided data on economic violence reported by women MPs, including that:

- 18% of female parliamentary staff have been threatened with losing their jobs or with having their career progression blocked, and
- 24% have been refused funds to which they were entitled, such as a salary or bonus.<sup>51</sup>

### Asia-Pacific

The IPU’s 2025 Asia-Pacific regional update is based on the results of confidential interviews conducted with 150 women from 33 countries.<sup>52</sup> Eighty-five participants were women MPs, and 65 were members of the parliamentary staff.<sup>53</sup> **Figure 8** displays forms of violence Asia-Pacific women legislators reported.

<sup>49</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” p. 3.

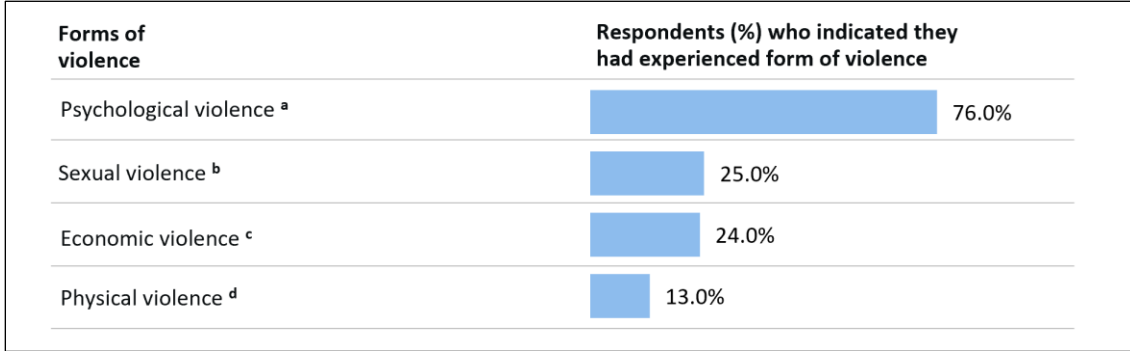
<sup>50</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” p. 3.

<sup>51</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in Africa,” p. 3.

<sup>52</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 1, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

<sup>53</sup> IPU, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women Parliamentarians in the Asia-Pacific Region,” p. 2.

**Figure 8. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025**



**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

**Notes:** The IPU uses the following definitions:

- a. *Psychological violence* is defined as “all gestures, acts, words, writings and images that harm the psychological integrity of a person or group of people and that have the effect of not only weakening and injuring them psychologically, but also of subjugating and controlling them.”
- b. *Sexual harassment* includes “any form of unwelcome verbal, nonverbal or physical behaviour motivated by sexual intent, such as physical contact and advances, remarks with sexual connotations or requests for sexual acts with the purpose or effect of violating a person’s dignity, in particular when this behaviour creates an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment.” *Sexual assault* is defined as “any act of sexual violence committed against another person without consent, including rape, or coercing another person to engage in non-consensual sexual acts with a third party.”
- c. *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 their livelihood in jeopardy as a form of intimidation.”
- d. *Physical violence* encompasses “a wide range of bodily harm that poses a threat to the life or physical integrity of the person concerned or their loved ones.”

Over three-quarters of Asia-Pacific women legislators in **Figure 8** who reported psychological violence identified types of this violence, found in **Table 15**.

**Table 15. Psychological Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025**

| Actions of Psychological Violence                            | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|--|--|
| Sexist remarks and behavior                                  | 61.0%  |
| Online attacks   | 60.0%  |
| Psychological harassment/intimidation                        | 39.0%  |
| Threats of death, rape, beating, or abduction                | 34.0%  |
| Denigrating images or remarks in newspapers or on television | 28.0%  |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 2, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

Of the 25.0% of Asia-Pacific women legislators in **Figure 8** who reported sexual violence, 52% stated that this violence occurred on parliamentary premises, as shown in **Table 16**.

**Table 16. Sexual Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025**

| Location of Sexual Violence               | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|---|--|
| On parliamentary premises                 | 52.0%  |
| In public places and constituency offices | 26.0%  |
| In political meetings                     | 9.0%   |
| In online platforms                       | 9.0%   |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 10, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

Of the 24.0% of Asia-Pacific women legislators in **Figure 8** who reported economic violence, 17% stated that “some of their belongings or those of loved ones had been damaged or destroyed during their term,” as shown in **Table 17**.

**Table 17. Economic Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025**

| Actions of Economic Violence   | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|--|--|
| Some of their belongings or those of loved ones had been damaged or destroyed during their terms | 17.0%  |
| Denied funds (allowances and parliamentary mission expenses) to which they were entitled         | 5.0%   |
| Denied access to parliamentary resources they were eligible to receive                           | 8.0%   |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 10, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

Of the 25.0% of Asia-Pacific women legislators in **Figure 8** who reported physical violence, 42% reported that this violence took place in parliament, as shown in **Table 18**.

**Table 18. Physical Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025**

| Locations and Actions of Physical Violence        | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|---|--|
| Took place in parliament                          | 42.0%  |
| Took place at a political meeting                 | 42.0%  |
| Took place in the street                          | 16.0%  |
| Slapped, pushed, hit, or targeted by a projectile | 8.0%   |
| Threatened with a weapon                          | 8.0%   |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 10, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

In this study, 60.0% of Asia-Pacific women legislators reported being targets of gender-based attacks online. **Table 19** provides more detail.

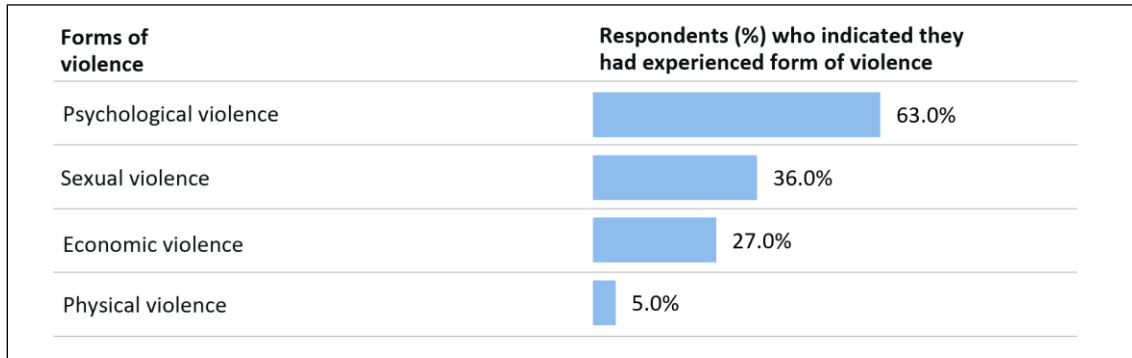
**Table 19. Online Aggression Against Asia-Pacific Women Legislators, 2025**

| Actions of Online Aggression  | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|---|--|
| Hate speech   | 38.0%  |
| Disinformation (deliberately sharing incorrect and often misogynistic information with the aim of causing harm) | 27.0%  |
| Image-based abuse (including deepfakes)   | 17.0%  |
| Doxing (sharing personal information without consent) and other tactics   | 18.0%  |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 8, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

**Figure 9** provides details about the kinds of violence reported by the 65 Asia-Pacific women parliamentary staff who took part in this study.

**Figure 9. Prevalence of Various Forms of Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025**



**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 12, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

**Table 20** provides more details about the psychological violence that 63.0% of women parliamentary staff in **Figure 9** reported.

**Table 20. Psychological Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025**

| Actions of Psychological Violence                                      | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|--|--|
| Sexist or sexist remarks   | 55.0%  |
| Psychological harassment/intimidation                                  | 40.0%  |
| Threatened with loss of job or having professional advancement blocked | 21.0%  |
| Online attacks   | 9.0%   |
| Death threats, threats of rape or beating                              | 6.0%   |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 12, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

Over a third of women parliamentary staff reported they had been sexually harassed while conducting work in parliament. **Table 21** provides details of whom they were sexually harassed by.

**Table 21. Sexual Harassment Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025**

| Actions of Sexual Harassment   | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|--|--|
| Unwelcomed sexual advances, sexual remarks and solicitations for sexual acts from male parliamentary staff | 67.0%  |
| Unwelcomed sexual advances, sexual remarks and solicitations for sexual acts from male parliamentarians    | 29.0%  |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025 p. 14, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

**Table 22** provides more details about the psychological violence that 27.0% of women parliamentary staff in **Figure 9** reported.

**Table 22. Economic Harassment Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025**

| Actions of Online Aggression   | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|--|--|
| Threatened with losing their jobs or having their career advancement blocked by parliamentarians, both male and female | 21.0%  |
| Threatened with loss of job or having professional advancement blocked   | 50.0%  |
| Denied funds to which there were entitled, such as salary or bonus   | 9.0%   |
| by a hierarchical superior   | 6.0%   |
| by a parliamentarian   | 75.0%  |
|  | 25.0%  |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 13, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

**Table 23** provides more details about the physical violence that 5.0% of women parliamentary staff in **Figure 9** reported.

**Table 23. Physical Violence Against Asia-Pacific Women Parliamentary Staff, 2025**

| Actions of Physical Violence   | % of Respondents Who Had Experienced These Actions |
|--|--|
| Have been hit or pushed in parliament  | 5.0%   |
| Witnessed this type of physical violence against other women parliamentary staff | 7.0%   |

**Source:** Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Sexism, Harassment and Violence Against Women in Parliaments in the Asia-Pacific Region,” March 2025, p. 14, <https://www.ipu.org/file/21204/download>.

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