

Global Issues in Gender Inequality: A Comparative Study

Pisker, Barbara; Radman-Funarić, Mirjana; Ramanathan, Hareesh N

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**REGION
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A scientific paper

Barbara Pisker, PhD, Scientific Associate

Polytechnic in Pozega, Croatia

E-mail address: bpisker@vup.hr

Mirjana Radman-Funarić, PhD, Senior Scientific Associate

Polytechnic in Pozega, Croatia

E-mail address: radmanfunaric@vup.hr

Hareesh N Ramanathan, PhD, Professor

Jain University Kochi, India

E-mail address: hareeshramanathan@gmail.com

GLOBAL ISSUES IN GENDER INEQUALITY: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

ABSTRACT

Current research on the position of women in society and the workplace is pointing that masculinity is valued in society and organizations. Numerous researchers have proven that gender and power permeate all facets of human interaction and operate within society and institutions with men controlling social, political and economic institutions, respectively the reality for many women in public bureaucracies is that gender and power relations are patriarchal.

This paper comparatively analyses a percentage of women in parliamentary seats of national countries worldwide with Legatum Prosperity Index ranks and its nine pillars aiming to show compatibilities and source of the level of participation of women in national parliaments. This paper's main aim is to explore political gender equality choosing female political representation as a dependent variable measured by the share of seats held by women in national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats. The explanatory variables in this research are split into two categories: political and socioeconomic determinants which are likely to explain whether there is gender inequality in politics across the globe. The set consists of eight variables, two political and six socioeconomic determinants: democracy level, GDP, total population, birth rate, military expenditure, gender equality clause in the constitution, the share of women in the labour market, the share of women with a post-secondary education degree. Data for this survey was obtained from the World Bank and Polity IV Project for 133 available countries between 2009 and 2017 and the periodicity of all variables is annual.

The analysis consists of two methods: bivariate correlation analysis and one-way (time) effect within the model. The primary goal of bivariate correlation analysis is to check how the set of determinants correlates with the variable share of women in parliament. The bivariate correlation is followed by the fixed effects within estimation regression, which consists of the normal OLS regression, across four different models. The results of the analysis conducted on both national and global levels show qualitative and quantitative aspects of interconnection in-between political and socioeconomic determinants with women representation in the parliament.

Key words: *gender inequality, gender diversity, political gender equality.*

1. Introduction

Although a debate of empowering women in terms of gender equality has been societies' focus for decades it still provokes controversies and debates. The question of gender equality is one of the universal questions debated over in different historical periods and aspects of human species life. Its origin, scope, cultural diversity and causes although changed in appearance persist in different forms all around the globe. The social utopists' ideal of equal society has not yet been reached in humankind's history, but it still shows the way we need and want to go for the sake of humanity.

Societal relationships are framed, directed and regulated in society through socio-legal surround, coined from the lawmakers and fought for in the political arena. To search through the decisive law-making tool in a sense of gender equality means to look throughout the globe to check whether gender equality is balanced in the national parliamentary seats of different countries. Does the situation of gender equality differ in different parts of the world and has it changed over the last decade? What does the trend show and where does it places gender frames – does it makes us equal, do all society members and groups even want more equality? What is the final line? The possibility to be independent and freely decide on our destiny, to project our lives into universal and starry dimensions not being afraid others may judge, dismiss or exclude us from society. Therefore, the paper aims to comparatively analyse a percentage of women in parliamentary seats of national countries worldwide with Legatum Prosperity Index ranks and its nine pillars. This paper's main aim is to explore political gender equality choosing female political representation as a dependent variable measured by the share of seats held by women in national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all seats occupied.

Political gender equality and woman representation in the political arena are key to ensure their well-being is taken into account in the political and consequently legislative process. Despite improvements we have witnessed in the twentieth century, women's participation and representation in national parliaments remain one of the major challenges to achieving gender equality globally. Its importance is also symbolic since it serves as a positive example of women's empowerment for wider society.

In this paper, we focus on national parliaments not just to raise the awareness of gender equality in the political and legislative process, but also to bring up the idea of gender-sensitive parliament to the academic debate (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019).

2. Theoretical Framework

Social scientists predominantly agree that categorical inequalities in a society are created by embedding membership in a particular category (e.g., being a man or woman) in systems of control over material resources and power (e.g., Jackman, M.R. 1994, Jackson 1998, Tilly, 1998). One of the recent research on the topic of political inequalities points out an urge for the topic investigation showing how less than a quarter of the world's parliamentarians are women (Carmichael, Dilli, and Rijpma 2014).

The need for women participation in the political arena has also been argued by Besley and Case (2000) reporting that there is a significant relationship between the percentage of women in the parliamentary houses and the state's workers' compensation policy. They further explained that state policymaking is a purposeful action with a gender responsiveness impact. This utility aspect is also suggested by Meier and Perry (1993) claiming that the descriptive

representation of particular groups marks the type of benefit they receive during policymaking. The research has provided the following justifications for expanding the role of women in the democratic process: democratic justice, proper usage of resources, women and role models for the society.

Norris and Lovenduski (2005) state that the substantive representation of women involves the representation of women's interests in decision making and policy processes based on the principle that it is only women who could represent their interests. This view that the lack of female and male representation in different bureaucracies affects the extent to which public organizations assist female or male clients is also pointed by Dee (2007).

Political participation of women and democracy has been debated by (Zungura et al., 2013). They reported that there is no correlation between democracy and the number of women participating in politics. Gender and political inequality among democratic nation-states are issues that require the greatest attention as they obstruct the very principle of citizenship, which is the foundation of democracy (Verba, 2001).

The political participation of women influences economic growth as well. Laura et al. (2018) found how the access of women to active political participation has significant effects on economic growth. Dinuk, Jayasuriy and Burke (2013) conclude that countries in the Middle East and Pacific including more women in politics reported an annual increase in the GDP rate. The study reported an annual increase in the growth rate in GDP/capita for each increased percentage point of females represents an average of 0,16 %. Gender equal parliaments are more likely to invest in women's education and inclusive gender policies, creating the same possibilities for men and women to participate in a country's economic performance.

There are numerous globally aggravating circumstances for the political participation of women regarding the rapidly growing populations in developing countries. Birth rate increases the dependency burden and exerts more pressures on limited material and social resources, thus hindered the advancement of women. This dependency burden puts a heavy burden on women striving for political participation (United Nations, 1975).

Furthermore, worldwide studies have also shown that women's involvement in governance reduces countries' military expenditure. Women are proven pacifiers rather than warriors. A study conducted by Enloe (1993) reports that masculinity is intimately connected to militarism as well as essential for effective and trustworthy soldiering. Women are stereotyped as being compromising and compassionate leaders and men as assertive, aggressive, forceful, and capable of handling crises (Huddy and Terkildsen, 1993). Female politicians are thus perceived to perform well in healthcare, welfare, and other social policies, and less competent in the military, national defense, and foreign policy (Holman et al., 2011).

Compared to men, women have very limited opportunities for economic and social activities (Sadik, 1986; Curtin, 1982) although the gradual expansion of opportunities for female education resulted in the increased influx of women into the labour market. The analysis of official Eurostat data in (Pisker, B. et al., 2019) show how the woman in EU-28 have a higher share of tertiary level education when compared to men, but their wages are significantly lower when compared to their male colleges with the same educational level. This difference is especially present in managerial positions and even higher in developed countries than in less developed, especially in post-socialist societies.

Political participation of women and the share of women holding a post-secondary education degree needs to be emphasised. Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995) showed that the education of women is directly related to their participation in politics as education develops the necessary skills for political participation. “Where women are more educated and empowered, economies are more productive and strong. Where women are fully represented, societies are more peaceful and stable” quotation from U.N.’s Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon (UNNC, 2013). Education is understood as a major factor providing women with the tools necessary to become global leaders (UNNC, 2013).

Maber (2014), Kissane (2012), and Wallace, Haerpfer and Abbott (2009) reported that education is a factor in determining gender equality in the political sphere. Maber (2014) explained that access, equal educational content and pro-gender equality curricula are required in the educational system for gender equality and women enablement for leadership positions. Kissane's (2012) qualitative study explores access to and pro-gender equality curricula as the important dimensions of education required allowing women in Afghanistan to bout against the patriarchal system and lead the country toward democracy. Wallace, Haerpfer and Abbott (2009) research study reported that women, despite their level of education, believed in political gender equality. With this optimism we proceed to our result findings.

3. The Share of Women in National Parliaments Throughout the World

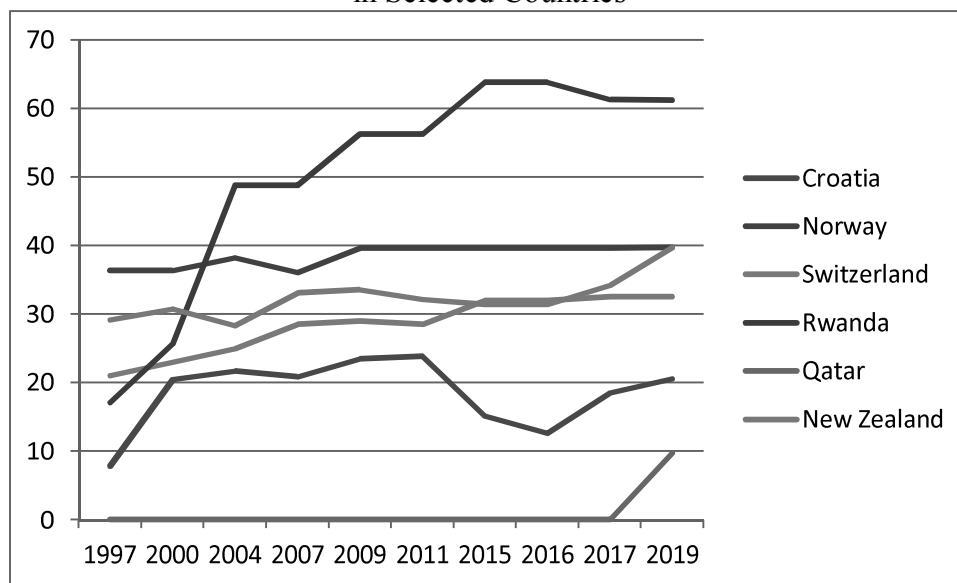
World Bank data (2019) show the lowest share of women representatives in national parliaments worldwide is present in some countries of the Arabian Peninsula (Qatar 9,8%, Oman 1,2%) and countries of the former Soviet Union - with the percentage varying from 15 to 16%. The highest percentage share of women representatives in national parliaments is found in Spain 47%, Finland 47% and Sweden 47% as the most developed countries of the world. Afghanistan 27,7% share has not been changed form 2009 which comes to a surprise especially since its Prosperity Index (PI) data show Afghanistan scores the last world rank position notably in personal freedom index (Legatum Prosperity Index, 2018).

The high percentage of women parliamentary representatives’ surprises in some African and South-American countries like Cuba 48,9% and Rwanda 61,3% taking the lead in world rankings of women parliamentary representatives. While no results are found for Cuba, Rwanda takes only 84th world rank in PI. A high share of women parliamentary representatives in Finland and Sweden is confirmed as expected with the PI world ranking (Finland taking 3rd and Sweden 4th place). Spain surprised taking 22nd place in PI ranking, with a falling tendency. France, on the contrary, shows PI growth tendency while New Zealand and Norway share worlds 1st and 2nd PI ranking place with 40% of women parliamentary seats representatives.

The unexpected quantitative indicators shown oblige us to analyse other PIs components differently and try to connect their particularities with the differences in women parliamentary seat representatives shares through national societies of the world. Exploring nine pillars of prosperity (Economic Quality - *econ*, Business Environment - *busi*, Governance - *gove*, Education - *educ*, Health - *heal*, Safety and Security - *safe*, Personal Freedom - *pers*, Social Capital - *soci* and Natural Environment - *envi*) it does not surprise that Rwanda does not take world lead by any of the components listed. On the contrary, the majority of the Rwanda PI indicators take middle ranges, so we cannot explain its top position on women's parliamentary national representatives’ world-scale by any of the quantitative macroeconomic indicators.

Finland, for example, takes 15th place in economic wealth and social wellbeing, but if compared to government efficiency (*gove*) it scores 1st world place. Sweden is ranked higher in *econ* (5th) and *pers* (7th) but lower in *gove* and *educ* indicator. Spain is thou 46th in *econ*, 37th in *educ* and 14th in *pers* indicators. High level of women representatives in the national parliament of New Zealand can be understood through 1st place in *pers* freedoms (including basic legal rights and social tolerance) and *gove* 2nd place, while Norway's rank can be understood in *econ*, *educ*, *gove* and *pers* ranked in top ten world countries. Relatively high Qatar rank in *econ* (22nd) did not influence women to occupy national parliamentary seats and the situation can be observed through low *pers* rank (104th) and *gove* 66th, as in Oman's case with *pers* positioned at 105th and *econ* 59th world rank.

Figure 1: Percentage of Women in National Parliaments between 1997 and 2019 in Selected Countries



Source of data: World Bank (2019)

Croatia's overall PI rank in 2017 was 41st (*econ* – 68th, *educ* – 29th, *gove* – 56th, *pers*- 40th) with women representatives in the national parliament of 18,5%. The 2019 growth showed 20,53% (while it reached its highest position in 2014 with 23,8%). This position is similar to Greece being 48th in PI and *econ*, *educ* and *pers* at a significantly worse rank (Radman-Funarić et al., 2019). Conclusively share of women in national parliamentary seats showed unexpected linkages to Prosperity Index and its pillars.

The data of history on women's rights to vote in the countries taken into consideration show how New Zealand was the first world county giving women the right to vote in 1893. Finland, Norway and Sweden voted on women's rights in the early 20th century, with the majority of European countries adopting the policy in the mid of the 20th century. On the contrary, in the majority of middle East and African countries women fought for a longer period to gain their right to vote and eventually succeeded in the dawn of the 20th and the beginning of the 21st century. This implies the importance of a century-long tradition women obtained participating in a political decision process in Europe, as a qualitative explanatory model in understanding the difference of women shares of parliamentary seats occupied in different countries throughout the world.

4. Research Methodology

The analysis consists of two methods: bivariate correlation analysis and one-way (time) effect within the model. We start with bivariate correlation analysis measuring the strength of correlation between two variables which is described by Pearson's correlation coefficient. The variables in this part of the analysis are not treated as either dependent or independent. The primary goal of bivariate correlation analysis is to check how the set of determinants correlates with the variable share of women in parliament. Additionally, we get insight into how determinants correlate with each other to avoid multicollinearity, and therefore, helps us to create models for further analysis.

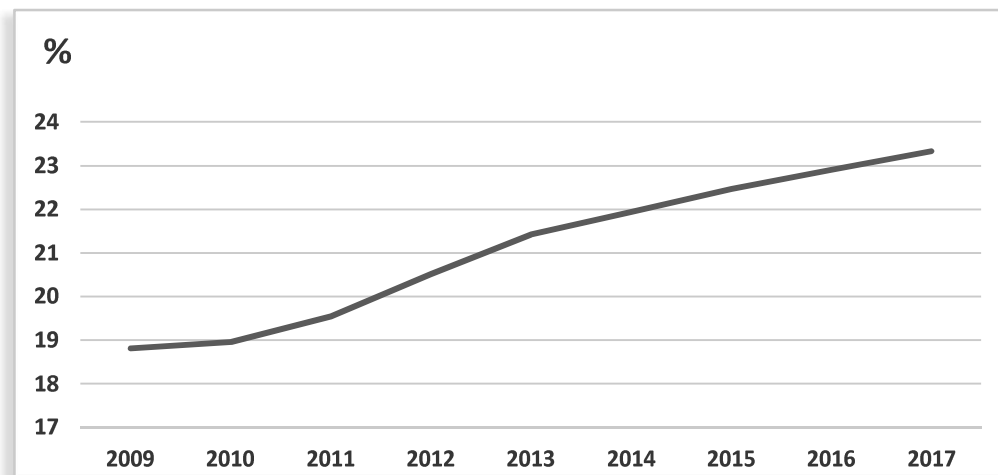
The results are used to prevent 'explaining away' the effect of determinants on our dependent variable by adding multicollinear determinants. After presenting results from the bivariate correlation, we move on to the next step of the analysis, one-way (time) effect within the model. All preliminary tests of normality, linearity and homogeneity of the variance were conducted before the next step of the analysis to ensure that the data is valid to investigate.

4.1. Data

The data is obtained from the World Bank and the Polity IV Project. The data sources are credible and widely used. The sample includes 133 countries data in a period between 2009 and 2017 with the annual periodicity of all variables. Other countries are excluded from the research due to the lack of full data availability. The full list of countries observed is presented in the Appendix. The period between 2009 and 2017 has been chosen for two reasons: firstly, the data for the set of variables observed are only available in the period mentioned and secondly, this period was never scientifically examined before this research conducted.

The dependent variable in this research is the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats. The data is collected from the World Bank and captures the percentage of women members in a single chamber in unicameral parliaments and the lower chamber in bicameral parliaments. Upper chambers in bicameral parliaments are not included in this measure. This dependent variable represents female political representation in each country which is a suitable measure for political gender equality. Despite all the differences mentioned in chapter 3 of this paper World Bank data (2019) show the percentage of women representatives in national parliaments increases globally in the period from 2009 until 2017 for 4,623%. The average annual growth of women shares in national parliaments in a period mentioned is 0,514% and has not changed since 1997. The overall growth rate in the period obtained is 11,692%.

Figure 2: Average Percentage of Women in Parliaments Across the Sample between 2009 and 2017



Source of data: World Bank (2019)

The explanatory variables in this research are split into two categories: political and socioeconomic determinants which are likely to explain whether there is gender inequality in politics across the globe. The set consists of 8 variables, 2 political and 6 socioeconomic determinants: Polity 2 democracy measure, the natural logarithm of GDP in current US Dollars, the natural logarithm of the total population, birth rate, military expenditure, dummy variable which denotes whether countries have gender equality clause mentioned in the constitution, the share of women in labour market, and finally, the share of women with a post-secondary education degree.

Firstly, Polity 2 variable is produced by Polity IV Project and measures democracy level of each country in each year. Democracy level is measured following numerous factors such as: free and fair elections, freedom of speech, freedom of trade, travel, etc. (SCO, Polity IV, 2018). The variable ranges from -10 to 10, where 10 denotes the most democratic country. Since countries with higher democracy scores are more likely to respect gender equality in all spheres, we expect this variable to be positively correlated with the dependent variable.

Secondly, GDP in current US Dollars refers to the real GDP of the country. The data is obtained from the World Bank database (2019). GDP is a critical variable since we want to see whether high-income countries are more likely to elect women in parliament. Therefore, we expect a positive relationship between GDP and gender equality in politics. GDP is transformed into a natural logarithm before the statistical analysis since it paints a clearer picture of GDP changes multiplicatively rather than additively over time.

Thirdly, the country's population refers to the number of residents in a country. Data is obtained from the World Bank (2019). The population variable represents the size of the country and the expected relationship between population and gender equality in politics is unclear. The population is transformed into a natural logarithm before the analysis to serve as a proxy for the population size and the country size.

Fourthly, the birth rate refers to the crude birth rate per 1000 people. Data is obtained from the World Bank (2019). We expect a birth rate to be negatively correlated with the share of women

in parliament since women who have families and children are less likely to pursue a political career.

Fifthly, military expenditure expressed as a percentage of GDP denotes all the funds spent on military staff and operations (World Bank, 2019). The predicted relationship between military expenditure and gender equality in politics is negative because countries with more military expenditure tend to be more male-oriented and therefore, tend to elect fewer women representatives in the parliament, or in the worst-case scenario restrict women's participation in politics.

Sixthly, the constitution variable is a dummy variable of 0 or 1, where 1 denotes that a country has a constitutional clause that mentions gender equality (World Bank, 2019). The expected relationship is positive because countries that have no gender equality clause are less likely to allow women to participate in politics.

Seventhly, the share of women in the labour market over the age of 15 represents a percentage of women employed out of the total number of women in the country. The data is also sourced from the World Bank. We expect this variable to be positively correlated to the share of women in the national parliament because countries with more women in employment are more likely to have more women pursuing a political career.

Lastly, the share of women holding a post-secondary education degree refers to the percentage of women with a post-secondary education degree or higher out of the total number of women (World Bank, 2019). The expected relationship is positive because countries with more educated women are more likely to have more qualified candidates for political representative positions.

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all variables included in the statistical analysis of this paper. The number of valid observations for each variable is described in column N, and it varies based on the availability of data for each variable. All variables except the share of women holding a post-secondary degree or higher have a small number of missing data. This might affect our analysis since the unavailable data may change results, but since it cannot be obtained, we are interested in the results that the data available can provide. The period covered is between 2009 and 2017 and the table shows that there is some deviation in the data because of the large sample. Furthermore, diversity in the data can be explained by the diversity of countries analysed.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

Variable Name	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
parliament	1179	.0000	53.1000	21.0968	11.0621
polity2	1188	-10.0000	10.0000	4.5791	5.9883
loggdp	1197	9.1814	13.2897	10.9198	.8237
logpop	1194	5.6154	9.1419	7.1503	.6286
birthrate	1197	7.0000	50.3770	20.5690	10.7271

Variable Name	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
military	1133	.0000	16.1566	2.0177	1.7681
constitution	1197	.0000	1.0000	.6600	.4739
laborfemale15	1197	11.9290	87.1180	51.7240	15.1102
postseceducationfemale	440	.7658	68.1727	24.6410	13.6546

Note: Descriptive statistics for all variables used in the analysis.

Source: authors

4.2. Experimental Design

The bivariate correlation is followed by the fixed effects within estimation regression across four models, where the first model starts with only 5 determinants. Gradually, we added one more determinant to each model and ended up with four different models to investigate how the results are going to change based on additional determinants added. Fixed (time) effects within estimation regression examine individual differences in intercepts, assuming the same slopes and constant variance across individual countries. Furthermore, the model is estimated within estimation regression which consists of the normal OLS regression using deviations from the time period means. Simplified, it uses variation within each country instead of a large number of dummies to perform an estimation (Baltagi, 2013). The model was estimated using the statistical package ‘plm’ in R programming language. The functional form of the fixed effect within the model is the following:

$$(y_{it} - \bar{y}_i) = (x_{it} - \bar{x}_i)' \beta + (\varepsilon_{it} - \bar{\varepsilon}_i), \quad (1)$$

Where \bar{y}_i is the mean of the dependent variable (percentage of women in parliaments) of individual country i . Moreover, \bar{x}_i represents the means of all determinants of individual i , and $\bar{\varepsilon}_i$ is the mean of errors of individual i .

5. Results and Discussion

The results are presented in Table 2 and Table 3 below. As mentioned in the previous section, the analysis starts with bivariate correlation analysis to check how variables relate to each other and to check for the potential multicollinearity of political and socioeconomic determinants. Table 2 shows that the Polity 2 democracy score is weak positively correlated (0.203) with the percentage of women in parliament, following our assumption. Military expenditure is in a weak negative correlation (-0.230***) compared to the percentage of women in parliaments, which is also in line with the assumption made in the previous section. Other notable correlations found in Table 2 include birth rate and democracy level, birth rate and GDP as expected due to the underdeveloped countries tend to have more children per family, attributed to the lack of birth control methods and sexual education.

Table 2: Bivariate Correlations

Variable Name	parliament	polity2	loggdp	logpop	birthrate	military	constitution	Labor female15
parliament	1							
polity2	.203***	1						
loggdp	.142***	.134***	1					
logpop	.040	-.133***	.636***	1				
birthrate	-.079***	-.334***	-.504***	.146***	1			
military	-.230***	-.463***	.078***	.032***	.047***	1		
constitution	-.075**	-.015	-.158***	-.015	.227***	-.013	1	
laborfemale15	.185***	.075***	-.169***	-.028	.241***	-.308***	.175***	1
Postsec educationfemale	0.83*	0.012	0.206***	-0.269***	-0.490***	0.119**	-0.094**	0.232***

Note: ***significant at 1% level, **significant at 5% level, *significant at 10% level.

Source: authors

The results of the fixed effects ‘within’ regression are presented in Table 3. It is crucial to note that regression coefficients represent the mean change in the dependent variable for one unit of change in the predictor variable. Model 1 of our regression suggests that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the natural log of GDP and the percentage of women in parliament. The regression coefficient is equal to 7.753 which represents that a change in one unit of the natural log of GDP equals a 7.753% increase of women representatives in the parliamentary seats. This result suggests that women are more likely to be elected in countries with higher GDP. These results match the findings shown in the comparative analysis of PI and women share in national parliaments in economically developed countries (Norway, Sweden) and opposes to economic indicators of development Qatar (*econ*– 22nd, women share in parliaments 9,8%) and Rwanda (*econ* – 75th, women share in parliaments 61,3%). Moreover, the birth rate is in a statistically significant negative relationship with women's representation in parliament. An increase in 1 crude birth per 1000 people in the country leads to 1.174% fewer women elected in the parliament. The result suggests that countries with more children born are less likely to have women representatives. All other coefficients are insignificant at 1, 5 or 10% level.

Model 2 includes an additional variable that captures the notion of whether countries embedded gender clause in their constitutions. The regression coefficient for the natural log of GDP remains almost equal to Model 1. However, the birth rate regression coefficient has substantially changed to -5.770. Model 3 includes all variables from previous models and adds a variable woman over 15 years of age in employment, measured as a percentage out of the total number of women. The natural log of GDP and birth rate are once again significant at 1% level and remain almost the same as the result in Model 1. However, women in the employment variable are now significant at 5% level and suggest that for every 1 percent more of women

employed, the percentage of women in parliament changes for 0.218%. Lastly, model 4 includes all variables in the previous three models and adds the additional variable – a percentage of women with post-secondary education. We now lose the significance of the GDP variable, and the birth rate remains highly significant with a coefficient of -1.845. Moreover, military expenditure becomes significant at a 5% level with a coefficient of -1.408. This result explains that every percent of GDP spent on military expenditure potentially reduces the percentage of women in parliament by 1.408%. Lastly, the percentage of women holding a post-secondary education is significant at a 1% level with a coefficient of 0.327 which suggests that every percent increase in women with post-secondary education increases women's representation by 0.327%.

Table 3: Fixed (time) Effect ‘within’ Regression

Dependent Variable: Percentage of women in parliament				
Political and Socioeconomic Determinants	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Polity2 Democracy Score	0.129 (0.189)	0.124 (0.210)	0.146 (0.141)	0.141 (0.506)
ln (GDP in current USD)	7.753*** (0.000)	7.742*** (0.000)	7.775*** (0.000)	1.723 (0.596)
ln (Population)	13.211 (0.127)	13.225 (0.302)	11.106 (0.200)	-1.235 (0.953)
Birth Rate	-1.174*** (0.000)	-5.770*** (0.000)	-1.166*** (0.000)	-1.845*** (0.000)
Military Expenditure (% of GDP)	0.167 (0.438)	0.756 (0.450)	-0.142 (0.509)	-1.408** (0.012)
Gender equality clause in the constitution		0.468 (0.640)	0.609 (0.690)	3.144 (0.402)
Percentage of women over 15 in employment, out of total N of women			0.218** (0.011)	-0.098 (0.514)
Percentage of women holding a post-secondary degree, out of total N of women				0.327*** (0.000)
Countries	133	133	133	133

Note: Estimated regression coefficients are reported. P-value is reported in parentheses. ***significant at 1% level, **significant at 5% level, *significant at 10% level.

Source: authors

6. Conclusion

The legacy of the case of traditional female-male roles in labour division, often considered not to prevail longer in our contemporary societies, seem to be so very well hidden under the society's surface. The stepping stone elements inherited from our ancestors in family-work as opposed to female-male terms seemingly continue to replay the maxim on gender-poled roles division in general and particular social roles women occupy.

The results of the survey have shown that country's democracy level achieved is weakly connected to the percent of women representatives in national parliaments. Although statistically relevant positive connection in-between women parliamentary representatives and GDP level is found its feature has shown weak. As expected, higher military expenses result in a lower share of women parliamentary representatives, as shown by statistically relevant negative correlation. It is also observed, as expected by the authors, how the birth rate is statistically significant negative concerning women representation in the national parliament, although the relationship is weak.

Similar results were obtained through a simple comparison exploring share of women parliamentary national representatives to Prosperity index and its pillars, especially Economic Quality which includes economic wealth and social wellbeing and personal freedom which included basic legal rights and social tolerance. It was also found how certain countries with high economic wealth, social wellbeing and effective government rank have a high share of women's national parliament representatives. Many of the countries observed in this survey although showing the same data do not result in the same proportion of women parliamentary seats held. Research limitations, in a sense of the methodological concept chosen, have shown no unambiguous explanation in authors' effort to determine the universally applicable cause and effect model on reasons for global differences in between the countries observed regarding the point of women national parliaments representatives found. Despite the limitations listed, we find research implications on cause and effect relationship between numerous model analyses presented, important and worthy step forward in our quest for answers on woman global political underrepresentation question. Therefore, meaningful cause to explain the lairs and multiple complexities of data presented in the national differences of the research topic still need further analysis.

Although we might assume how undeveloped countries adopting a socio-legal framework for women equality recently found very alive women motivation for political process participation (the case of Rwanda) and western civilisation countries historical legacy of women participation in overall societal activities showed fully different models in contemporary western societies we are still to find appropriate research tools to prove those ideas. We have learned how developed society's historical experience on active women's participation shows different patterns informing us on how in allowing both men and women to choose their patterns to balance professional and private we are to practice full gender equality.

To reach this utopic ideal of social equality further research development in the topic frame is needed through additional statistical analysis and the use of other statistical tools and methods to answer a set of causes persistently provoking global differences still present in gender inequality existence worldwide.

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Appendix: List of countries

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Congo, Dem. Rep., Congo, Rep., Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Estonia, Ethiopia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran Islamic Rep., Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea Rep., Kuwait, Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vietnam, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
