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GENDER EQUALITY IN THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENTS

It has surveyed the evolution of gender equality in the parliaments of European countries in the context of the legal framework and practices of international and European law on the regulation of gender representation in the highest legislative body in the last 20 years. The basic tendencies and prospects of further affirmation of gender equality in Europe and Ukraine in particular are pointed.

Key words: *gender, gender equality, parliament, parliamentary representation, gender quotas, international parliamentary cooperation*

ГЕНДЕРНА РІВНІСТЬ В ЄВРОПЕЙСЬКИХ ПАРЛАМЕНТАХ

Досліджена еволюція гендерної рівності в парламентах країн Європи в контексті розвитку законодавчого поля та практики реалізації світових та європейських правових норм що до регулювання гендерного представництва в вищих законодавчих органах влади за останні 20 років. Виявлені основні тенденції та перспективи подальшого ствердження гендерної рівності в країнах Європи та України зокрема.

Ключові слова: *гендер, гендерна рівність, парламент, парламентське представництво, гендерні квоти, міжнародна парламентська співпраця*

ГЕНДЕРНОЕ РАВЕНСТВО В ЕВРОПЕЙСКИХ ПАРЛАМЕНТАХ

Исследована эволюция гендерного равенства в парламентах стран Европы в контексте развития законодательного поля и практики реализации международных и европейских правовых норм по урегулированию гендерного представительства в высших законодательных органах власти за последние 20 лет. Определены основные тенденции и перспективы дальнейшего утверждения гендерного равенства в странах Европы и Украины в том числе.

Ключевые слова: *гендер, гендерное равенство, парламент, парламентское*

представительство, гендерные квоты, международное парламентское сотрудничество.

Intraduction. In democratic societies, the main board of political power in society is a parliament, which represents the interests of the entire population of the country and must make decisions in the public interest. Therefore, the Parliament should follow one of the main principles of democracy - the principle of equality, including gender.

Gender equality includes the right to differences between men and women. The existence in society of men and women suggests that they have specific needs that must be considered in the process of regulation. Gender differences are not an obstacle to equality, but only require differentiation legislation to regulate them in special regulations, and thus provide for improvement of the legislative technique.

Recent publications and researches. The issue of gender equality is researched by M. Berthold, M. Jagger, A. Young and domestic authors - I. Dobrozhanska, A. Kopylenko, L. Lushpay, G. Muzychenko, N. Onishchenko, Petrushkevich M., A. Pogorelov, A. Tsunytska, K. Chernov, A. Jarosz and others.

Unsolved aspects of the topic. Gender balance in parliament is not limited to the parity of men and women in the legislature, although it is extremely important. Great importance is the awareness of all MPs of the complexity of the subject, objective necessity of legal regulation of gender processes in Ukraine, awareness of gender equality in acts of international and European law, especially implementation of gender component in sectoral legislation.

Purpose of the article. This article aims to survey the evolution of gender equality in the parliaments of European countries in the context of the legal framework and practices of international and European law on the regulation of gender representation in the highest legislative body in the last 20 years. It will be done by identifying the basic tendencies and prospects of further affirmation of gender equality in Europe and Ukraine.

The main material research. There are two international organizations that impact the gender equality process in the World - the United Nations (UN) and the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU). They promote and defend democracy and the rule of law. They work in support of gender equality and the participation of women, minority and indigenous peoples in political and public life. The IPU assists parliaments in coping with a growing international agenda and in contributing a parliamentary dimension to the work of the United Nations and similar multilateral institutions. For the last 20 years they have been managing a lot of events and have already achieved some results.

In November 1989, the IPU organized an international Symposium in Geneva on the theme of Women's participation in the political and parliamentary decision-making process. The meeting brought together men and women MPs from 67 countries, experts, representatives of intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations and journalists for a free-ranging discussion on the following topics:

- Sharing decision-making power in political and parliamentary life;
- Factors that continue to limit women's participation in political and parliamentary life, and ways of improving the situation;
- Affirmative action and temporary measures to ensure that more women are elected, designated or appointed at all levels of political and parliamentary life and involved more equitably in the decision-making process [5].

In April 1992, in Yaoundé, the IPU Council had stated: "The concept of democracy will only assume true and dynamic significance when political policies and national legislation are decided upon jointly by men and women with equitable regard for the interests and aptitudes of both halves of the population"

In 1995, delegates to the United Nations (UN) Fourth World Conference on Women unanimously signed the Beijing Platform for Action. Described as a "new agenda for women's empowerment," its mission statement called for the removal of all "obstacles to women's active participation in all spheres of public and private life".

In September 1997, in Cairo, the IPU Council adopted the Universal Declaration on Democracy. The opening section of the Declaration, entitled "The Principles of Democracy", states: "The achievement of democracy presupposes a genuine partnership between men and women in the conduct of the affairs of society in which they work in equality and complementarity, drawing mutual enrichment from their differences" [3].

Again, when summarising in the New Delhi Declaration the outcome of IPU's Specialised Conference "Towards Partnership Between Men and Women in Politics" (New Delhi, February 1997), the Conference President stated: "As politics is deeply rooted in society and reflects dominant values, our discussions highlighted clearly that developing a partnership in politics necessarily depends on the degree of partnership as a social mode in general. This is undoubtedly why the Inter-Parliamentary Union asserts that what has to be developed, in modern democratic societies, is nothing less than a new social contract in which men and women work in equality and complementarity, enriching each other mutually from their differences. (...) What is basically at stake is democracy itself"[3].

Over the last 20 years, countries around the world have made substantial progress towards improving gender equality in the World. They've set a 30 per cent target for women in decision making, to be achieved through a wide range of strategies, including positive action, public debate, and training and mentoring for women as leaders.

As the IPU survey shows, the global average of women in national parliaments has nearly doubled, from 11.3 per cent in 1995 to 22.1 per cent in 2015 (+10.8 points). All regions registered some increase in their share of women in parliament, the greatest strides being made in the Americas. The countries that achieved the greatest progress between 1995 and 2015 in their single or lower houses are Rwanda (+59.5 points, achieving 63.8% by 2015), Andorra (+46.4 points with 50% in 2015), and Bolivia (+42.3 points with 53.1% in 2015) [6].

In 1995, eight of the top 10 countries were European and five of those were Nordic, leading the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) to create a separate category for this sub-region. In 2015, there is greater regional balance: four of the best performing countries are in Sub-Saharan Africa, and three are in the Americas. Only three States – Sweden, Finland, and Seychelles – made the top 10 in both 1995 and 2015.

At the same time, there has been a remarkable decrease in the number of single or lower houses of parliament with fewer than 10 per cent women. From 109 in 1995 (including 10 all-male chambers), that number has fallen to only 38 in 2015 (including only five all-male chambers).

The result of these changes has been a noticeable redistribution of countries according to their share of women parliamentarians. In 1995, nearly two-thirds of countries (61.6%) had less than 10 per cent women in their single or lower houses of parliament. Nearly all (88.1%) had less than 20 per cent. A mere 2.8 % of parliaments had attained 30 per cent or more. By 2015, only 20 % of countries had less than 10 per cent women parliamentarians. Unfortunately, Ukraine is one of them.

A majority (53.2%) still have fewer than 20 per cent. Yet nearly one in five (22.1%) of single or lower houses have achieved 30 per cent. Altogether, among the 174 countries for which 1995 and 2015 data are available, 89.7 per cent saw some degree of improvement, compared to 8% where women's representation decreased and 2.3 per cent where there was no change at all [6].

Table 1.

Gender representation in parliaments in 2015

№	Indicator	Parliament seats / %	Lower Chamber seats / %	Upper Chamber seats / %
1.	The total number of seats in the parliaments of the world:	45 029	38 082	6 947
	- available for analysis	44 431	37 484	6 947
	- in the parliaments of Europe *	12 456 / 28	9 577 / 25,5	2 879 / 41,5
2.	Number of seats that are occupied			

	by men in Parliament:			
	- in the World	34 555 / 77,8	29 039 / 77,5	5 516 / 79,4
	- in Europe **	9 112 / 73,2	6 974 / 72,8	2 138 / 74,3
3.	Number of seats that are occupied by women in Parliament:			
	- in the World	9 847 / 22,2	8 445 / 22,5	1 431 / 20,6
	- in Europe	3 344 / 26,8	2 603 / 27,2	741 / 25,7
	- in Ukraine***	422 / 93,7	50 / 11,8	-

Resource: created by the author on the base of IPU statistic info by www.ipu.org

* *Calculation of per cents includes all aspects of European Parliaments carried out in relation to the number of seats in parliament in the world available for analysis;*

** *Calculation per cents includes gender indicators carried out by the number of seats in the parliaments of Europe;*

*** *Percentage deducted at a rate of 422 Members of Parliament (not 450), as the elections-2014 in the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, Sevastopol and some districts of Donetsk and Lugansk regions were not conducted.*

Both global and country-specific factors explain these changes. Women face a host of difficulties in gaining access to parliament: cultural norms, gender roles, party practices, lack of financial support, and a traditionally masculine work environment – which together tend to favour and attract men and discriminate against and discourage the participation of women. These patterns have started to evolve as the issue of women's political participation has reached the political agenda in countries around the world. A growing number of global and regional declarations have highlighted the need for women's participation and the share of women in parliament has become a key indicator of a State's progress toward gender equality.

Countries in Europe saw a notable jump in the share of women elected to national parliaments between 1995 and 2015, from 13.2 per cent to 25 per cent (+11.8 points). In 1995, women's share of the single or lower house exceeded 30 per cent in five European countries and 40 per cent in one – Sweden. The rise in these figures by 2015 is remarkable: women's share has surpassed 30 per cent in 17 countries and 40 per cent in five, having achieved equal representation in one country, Andorra. Alongside newcomer Andorra, Europe's top-ranking countries still include two Nordic countries, Sweden (43.6%) and Finland (42.5%) [6].

The Nordic countries continue to stand out both regionally and globally for the relatively high share of women in their parliaments, although their rates of change vary somewhat. Their aggregate 5.1-point increase masks the fact that three of them – Norway (+0.3), Sweden (+3.2) and Denmark (+4.5) – have seen very little change over the past two decades. In contrast, Iceland (+15.9 points) and Finland (+9 points) have made more substantial progress. Prior to 1995, Iceland was the only Nordic country below 30 per cent. Iceland saw large jumps from election to election in the 1980s and 1990s, as women formed their own party, the Women's Alliance, and mobilized inside the traditional parties to get more women selected as 6 parliamentary candidates. In Sweden, the 2014 elections saw a small drop in the proportion of women elected, to 43.6 per cent from 45 per cent in 2010. Yet the country has elected more than 40 per cent women to every parliament since 1994 [6].

This result stems from women's mobilization to ensure that Swedish parties nominate roughly equal numbers of male and female candidates, whether through formal or informal quotas. Small variations over time, therefore, tend to be linked to the electoral strength of parties less committed to gender parity, like the Sweden Democrats who won 14 per cent of the seats in parliament in 2014. From a regional, and indeed global, perspective, Andorra has made particularly impressive gains, increasing the share of women in its national parliament from 3.6 per cent to 50 per cent over the last 20 years (+46.4 points). This increase – from one to 14 of Andorra's 28 parliamentary seats – may have been partly facilitated by the small size of the country's parliament. In contrast, the number of women in Andorra's local councils dropped by half between 2007 and

2012, indicating that gains at one level may not necessarily be replicated elsewhere.

Other countries in Southern Europe also made notable progress. Between 1995 and 2015, the share of women grew in Spain from 16 per cent to 41.1 per cent (+25.1 points), in France from 6.4 per cent to 26.2 per cent (+19.8 points), in Portugal from 13 to 31.3 per cent (+18.3 points), and in Italy from 15.1 to 31 per cent (+15.9 points). During this time, all four countries introduced legislative quotas – in some cases building on quotas previously adopted by one or more political parties. In Italy, however, constitutional changes have yet to be translated into a revised national electoral law. Although the legal measures taken in Spain, France, Portugal, as well as Belgium, refer to “parity,” the proportions specified in their policies range between 33 and 50 per cent. The interpretation is strongest in France, but progress has been limited by a loophole imposing a financial penalty on parties failing to nominate equal numbers of women and men.

Trends in Eastern and Western Europe differ substantially. The only European country to have fewer women in 2015 than in 1995 is Hungary, where women’s proportion dropped from 11.4 to 10.1 per cent (-1.3 points). Their share is 20 per cent or less in Eastern European States – largely because quotas, seen as a relic of the former regimes, have been unpopular in many of these countries since the change in political systems. Notable exceptions include several Balkan States, where legislative quotas were adopted in the wake of the civil wars and ethnic conflicts of the 1990s. Slovenia, for example, has seen women’s representation rise to 36.7 per cent from 14.4 per cent in 1995 (+22.2 points), owing to a 2006 electoral reform mandating that neither sex constitute less than 35 per cent of political party candidates. Serbia and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia have nearly identical quota laws and similarly high levels of women in their national parliaments – 34 per cent and 33.3 per cent, respectively. Balkan States also registered the greatest progress among European States in the share of women elected to parliament in 2014 [6].

By the IPU survey the advances as well as the setbacks witnessed between 1995 and 2015 are due to a variety of factors. At least six lessons (tendencies) can be drawn from country experiences with women’s representation over the past two decades.

1. Progress is not inevitable. Progress thus is not a given; it requires constant effort, action, and political will.

2. Changing political opportunities

Some of the most impressive changes have occurred in countries where existing political arrangements have been challenged, creating moments of instability, a willingness to experiment, and crucial windows of opportunity to move women’s representation onto the political agenda. This has occurred, for example, in many post-conflict countries. The end of genocide and civil war provided an opportunity in many countries to write new constitutions and establish new electoral systems. In other contexts, mass protests have led to the fall of authoritarian regimes – opening up conversations over how to devise new political arrangements.

3. Evolving gender roles

In the 20 years since the Beijing conference, a host of social and political changes have contributed to evolving views of gender roles. Surveys in the United States of America, for example, indicate that more people than ever would vote for a woman as president. In France, where parties tend to run women candidates in the “lost cause” districts, district-level election data show that, taking into account the “winnability” of districts, women candidates tend to win at equal or greater rates than men. Viewing women as a liability thus appears to be a poor electoral strategy.

4. Emerging discourse on women’s empowerment

Efforts to promote women’s political participation have been aided by a shift in the primary arguments used to justify greater representation for women. The “justice argument” focuses on fairness: since women are half of the population, they should be half of all representatives. This argument, often heard in the Nordic countries, is supported by cross-national surveys finding that both men and women consider political institutions more legitimate and democratic when more women are elected. This echoes the IPU Universal Declaration on Democracy in linking democratic governance with equal participation in decisionmaking of both men and women.

5. Adopting gender quotas

The last 20 years have demonstrated, perhaps more clearly than ever, the need for concrete measures to spur changes in women's political representation. While countries without gender quotas have in general seen fewer changes in the numbers of women elected, quotas in and of themselves do not guarantee a commensurate rise in women's representation. Their share may stagnate or even drop after quotas are introduced. Experience with quotas around the world reveals three key lessons. *First*, policies are effective when they are clear and firm in their requirements. They should mandate a high level of representation. They need to specify that women must be placed in winnable positions. They must impose strong sanctions on parties that do not comply, rejection of the list being the most powerful and convincing. The language used should preclude any loopholes in quota application. *Second*, to have an impact, quotas should be designed according to the institutional context, i.e. the electoral and political party systems in place. Since they are more easily applied to a list of candidates than in single-candidate districts, quotas are often most effective in countries with proportional representation (PR) electoral systems. In addition, when multiple positions are available in each electoral district, parties may feel pressure to "balance" their lists with candidates from different groups. Moreover, if designed appropriately, quotas can also be effective in majoritarian/first-past-the-post elections. *Third*, if quotas are to be effective, there must be substantial political will behind their application, as well as close and detailed oversight and scrutiny.

6. Resisting gender quotas

These dynamics are such that gender quotas do not, in and of themselves, level the political playing field. First, parties may nominate the requisite number of women but then find other ways to undermine the quota's purpose. *One tactic* is to nominate "fake" candidates: women with no intention of winning who do not campaign once nominated, or women who agree to resign their positions in favour of male alternates once elected. *Another strategy* is to nominate women but then deny them the necessary financial resources to wage successful campaigns, while making such resources available to male candidates. Another problem is that women who accede to political positions via gender quotas may be derided as "quota women," with supposedly no other qualifications for office than being female. These patterns show that increasing the numbers of women contesting elections is not sufficient to guarantee change in women's representation. In both cases, the results were shaped by the use of an open-list PR electoral system, a method requiring voters to choose a single candidate on a party list. Open-list systems do not always work against women candidates – Denmark and Finland use them and still elect high numbers of women to parliament – but they can make it difficult to engineer outcomes via requirements like alternation.

Developments over the last two decades illustrate how remarkable gains in women's representation are possible within a relatively short time frame. These achievements have in turn inspired new global and regional discussions on ways to tackle continuing challenges to women's participation, support women's legislative work, and assess women's impact in parliament. So the IPU suggested to pay attention to such of them:

1. From 30 per cent to parity

The 30 per cent target identified in the Beijing Platform for Action inspired campaigns around the world to pursue the adoption of 30 per cent quotas. In the last five years in Europe efforts have shifted the target to 50 per cent, referred to as "parity". This trend began in the early 2000s in such European States as Belgium, France and Portugal. But for Western Europe including Ukraine the 30 per cent is a big target for future¹. Maybe, the gender quotes can help, but these countries only speak about them. In Ukraine, for example, the 30 per cent quota was implemented only in 2015 on the local level, but the election shown that it didn't work.

2. Complementary legislation and initiatives

There has been work in recent years on complementary legislation and initiatives to bolster gender quotas – or substitute for them where quotas are not possible. In countries where parties are

¹ The gender representation in the parliaments of Western Europe countries was surveyed in details by author in [1; 2].

publicly funded, new laws have been introduced to regulate party access to public funds so as to create incentives for nominating or electing greater numbers of women. In Georgia, a party that includes at least two members of both sexes for every 10 candidates on its lists receives an additional 10 per cent on top of its regular entitlement. Rather than seeking to influence nomination processes, these laws require that parties earmark a certain percentage of their public funding for activities that contribute to the political development of women. Other laws further stipulate how funds must be used (from 3 to 25 per cent of its annual funding) to the training, promotion, and development of women's leadership skills. Civil society groups and political parties have both sought to provide capacity building opportunities for women. These include training courses to foster motivation, improve public speaking, and demystify the campaign process. In the United Kingdom, parties and women's organizations have established mentoring programmes, pairing first-time as well as prospective candidates with more experienced politicians.

3. *Diversifying the types of women elected to parliament*

An efforts to promote women in politics have until recently tended to treat women as a uniform category. Yet women, like men, are diverse – and some subgroups tend to be privileged over others. A global study of ethnic minority women's political representation calculates that minority women account for 11.2 per cent of the general population but only 2.1 per cent of parliamentarians. In contrast, the share of minority men is largely proportional, at 10.8 per cent of legislators versus 11.3 per cent of society. Similarly, a IPU report on young parliamentarians notes that women under the age of 45 were by far the least represented in national parliaments, at 8 per cent, compared to young men and older women, at 16 per cent each. Older men, on the other hand, were vastly over-represented, comprising 60 per cent of parliamentarians. Such statistics highlight the need to map which groups of women are elected and devise strategies for reaching out to different subgroups. The beneficiaries of quotas for women tend to come from dominant groups, while quotas for ethnic minorities tend to benefit minority men.

4. *Aggression and harassment against women politicians as emerging challenges to women's political participation*

Over the last few years, a growing number of international organizations and local networks of women politicians have convened seminars and published case studies on a rising tide of violence and harassment against female politicians. Attention has been drawn in particular to sexism in traditional media coverage, as well as the new social media, through the dissemination of demeaning messages and images of women in politics.

There are 4 forms of violence: *physical*- acts affecting a woman's bodily integrity or acts of bodily harm to members of her family; *psychological*- inflicts trauma on an individual's mental state or emotional well-being; *economic* violence - seeks to control women's access to, or behaviour in, the political realm by systematically restricting their access, though not that of male candidates, to available economic resources; *symbolic* violence - operates at the level of portrayal and representation, to erase or nullify women's presence in political office. This may include sexual objectification, whether on social media or on the floor of parliament, or deliberately shutting off women's microphones to block their participation.

Taking a variety of forms, such acts communicate the same message: women do not belong in politics.

5. *Supporting women's parliamentary work and building solidarity among women*

Accessing parliament is the first hurdle. Once in parliament, women MPs face a new set of challenges: to carve out their own space and gain influence over policy-making processes. Considering that women often lack access to the same networks as men, special induction sessions may be held for recently elected women, alongside the traditional orientation training provided to all newly-elected parliamentarians, to help them navigate some of the more informal aspects of parliamentary life. Establishing parliamentary caucuses for women is another way to support their legislative work, bringing them together across partisan lines and helping them connect with actors in civil society. The degree of formality and cooperation often depends on the strength of party politics: women are less likely to come together formally where partisan divides are strong.

6. *Towards gender-sensitive parliaments*

Emerging initiatives address parliament as a workplace. Many appear in the IPU publication on Gender-Sensitive Parliaments, mapping efforts to make parliaments more “women-friendly”. These initiatives include changing the timing of sittings so that parliamentarians can spend evenings with their families; establishing parental leave policies; developing alternatives for voting on bills in the absence of an alternate legislator; providing childcare facilities and breastfeeding rooms in parliament buildings, and making the language used in parliament more inclusive toward women. In Spain, the parliamentary standing orders were revised to require that both masculine and feminine forms be used in plenary and committee debates – rather than the masculine plural as the default for referring to both women and men.

7. *The impact of women in parliament*

Efforts to elect more women to parliament have often included claims that women will change how politics is done, bring new policy priorities, adopt a different style of interacting with constituents, and affect the political culture of parliament itself. The major changes witnessed over the last 20 years, however, provide a crucial opportunity to explore the validity of these claims. New issues like violence against women or women’s health concerns, which might not otherwise have received the attention they deserve, are making it onto the political agenda. Women in parliament also contribute, at least in some contexts, to a more collaborative political environment, both within and across parties. Their presence emboldens more women citizens to contact their representatives, enhancing democratic communication and accountability. The available evidence suggests that women do change the way that politics is done. Further, participation by women and men enhances the likelihood of responsiveness to the needs of all citizens. Equality in politics, in other words, makes parliaments stronger.

Conclusion. During the last 20 years, there has been notable progress in the percentage of women members of single or lower houses of parliaments around the world. The IPU is one of the biggest actors who powerfully influence the process of gender representation and gender equality in parliaments in Europe and in the World. By 2015, the vast majority of countries have moved closer to the 30 per cent target for women in decision-making identified in the Beijing Platform for Action. A growing number of States including the Ukraine have not only met this goal but exceeded it. There are some tendencies definite the 20-years efforts foe gender equality in the European parliaments: progress is not inevitable; evolving gender roles; adopting and resisting gender quotas, etc.

As perspectives for further improvement of gender equality, the IPU suggested to pay attention to make a change from 30 per cent to parity, to complete the legislation and initiatives, to diversify the types of women elected to parliament, to support women’s parliamentary work and build solidarity among women, etc.

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ПРОЦЕС ПОЛІТИЗАЦІЇ РЕЛІГІЇ ЯК СВІТОВА ТЕНДЕНЦІЯ.

Розкривається суть зв'язку політичного та релігійного процесів у суспільстві, їх взаємозалежність та взаємообумовленість. Обґрунтовується процес політизації релігії як світова тенденція, яка притаманні багатьом країнам, зокрема Україні. Акцентується увагу на негативних наслідках втягнення релігійних організацій у політико-партійні протистояння. Парадоксом української політики є те, що Закон «Про свободу совісті та релігійні організації», до якого були прийняті поправки, одразу ж потребував і потребує невідкладних змін, які мають відновити атмосферу взаємної довіри, зміцнити партнерство держави і церкви в Україні.

Ключові слова: релігія, політики, релігійні організації, держава, церква, політична система, політичні партії, політичне життя.

ПРОЦЕСС ПОЛИТИЗАЦИИ РЕЛИГИИ КАК МИРОВАЯ ТЕНДЕНЦИЯ

Раскрывается сущность связи политического и религиозного процессов в обществе, их взаимозависимость и взаимообусловленность. Обосновывается процесс политизирования религии как мировая тенденция, которая присуща многим странам, в частности Украине. Акцентируется внимание на негативных последствиях втягивания религиозных организаций в политико-партийное противостояние. Парадоксом украинской политики является то, что Закон «О свободе совести и религиозной организации» сразу же требовал и нуждается в безотлагательных изменениях, которые должны возобновить атмосферу взаимного доверия, укрепить партнерство государства и церкви в Украине.

Ключевые слова: религия, политики, религиозная организация, государство, церковь, политическая система, политическая партия, политическая жизнь.

PROCESS OF POLITIZATION OF RELIGION IS WORLD TENDENCY

Essence of connection of political and religious processes opens up in society, their interdependence and interconditionality. The process of politization of religion as world tendency which is inherent many to the countries is grounded, in particular to Ukraine. Attention is accented on the negative consequences of involvement of religious organizations in political-party opposition. The paradox of the Ukrainian policy is that Law «On the right of conscience and religious organization» at once required and needs exigent changes, which must pick up thread the atmosphere of mutual trust, infix partnership of the state and church in Ukraine.

Keywords: religion, politicians, religious organization, state, church, political system, political party, political life.

Упродовж багатьох століть світової та вітчизняної історії практично незмінною залишалася суть зв'язку політики (політичних відносин, політичних організацій) і церкви. Якими б високими цілями не пояснювалися чи виправдовувалися дії або декларації сторін