

Original Article

Women's Electoral Participation and Political Representation in India: From the Closing Turnout Gap to the Representation Gap, 1952-2026

Sujata Deka M.A

Gauhati University, Assam.
Assistant Commissioner, State GST, Govt. of Assam.

Corresponding Author : sujatadeka39@gmail.com

Received: 03 June 2026

Revised: 07 July 2026

Accepted: 28 July 2026

Published: 11 August 2026

Abstract - Indian electoral politics has been rerouted, and the gap between the gender turnout has seen a significant decrease while the gap of descriptive representation has remained unchanged. The article looks at interesting evidence from the 2026 Assembly elections in Assam, Kerala and West Bengal and studies the national Lok Sabha trends from 1952/1957 till 2024 by utilizing secondary data from the Election Commission of India, PIB releases, PIB publications on Lok Adhar/MyNeta analyses. The national data shows that the turnout of women in the Lok Sabha elections 2024 was marginally higher at 65.78 per cent as compared to that of men, with an overall turnout rising from 38.8 per cent in 1957. However, the percentage of female MPs in the Lok Sabha has increased from 13.6 per cent to 13.8 per cent from 1952 to 2024. The same is found in data available for 2026, wherein the participation of women in voting is more than that of men in the three states – Assam, Kerala and West Bengal – while women continue to be underrepresented as candidates and winners. Results confirm that a key issue for the nation is not only to ensure that women come out to vote, but also to remove party-level, economic, social and institutional barriers that hinder women from becoming competitive candidates for election. This article aims not only to provide an update to a previous descriptive study, but also a revision of the same on the representation and empowerment of women in the political process in India.

Keywords - Women Voters, Political Representation, Lok Sabha, State Assembly Elections, Gender Gap, India.

1. Introduction

Participation in elections, the right to vote, is not a measure of democracy; it is not enough to extend the right to vote by formality to everyone. The deeper the quality, the more able and willing other social groups are to be engaged in public life, and to influence decision-making. Women's representation in the country's population is almost 50%, but their representation in the Legislative Assembly and Political Parties and leadership roles has not been commensurate [1]. The dichotomy marked by this imbalance is a vast one for the democratic system: women are participating as voters, but are under-represented as candidates, parliamentarians and policy makers, as shown in Figure 1.

This important argument is further developed in the paper here revised. It is true that political participation is crucial when it comes to women's empowerment and that if women are not involved in the decision-making process, then the democracy can never be truly egalitarian, as the original paper rightly pointed out [1]. The above empirical analysis, however, was based on information till the Lok Sabha

elections of 2014. Since then, the attitude of women towards elections in India has changed immensely. In the 2019 Lok Sabha poll, the turnout of women voters in the election was more than that of men voters, and in the 2024 Lok Sabha poll, women voters' turnout was nearly equal to that of male voters. The pattern was same in the 2026 Assembly polls in Assam, Kerala and West Bengal where the women turnout outspanned men [2].

This shift of attention from the center of the paper is related to the developments. However, what is no longer being asked is why women do not vote in droves. Instead, the issue of why there has not been proportional representation in politics is more important, especially since women are so much involved in the electoral process [3]. Although women are increasingly aware and engaged with politics, fewer women candidates are being nominated, and representatives in legislatures are still predominantly male, while women's participation in political campaign financing, party networks, and social mobility and public politics is still hindered [4].



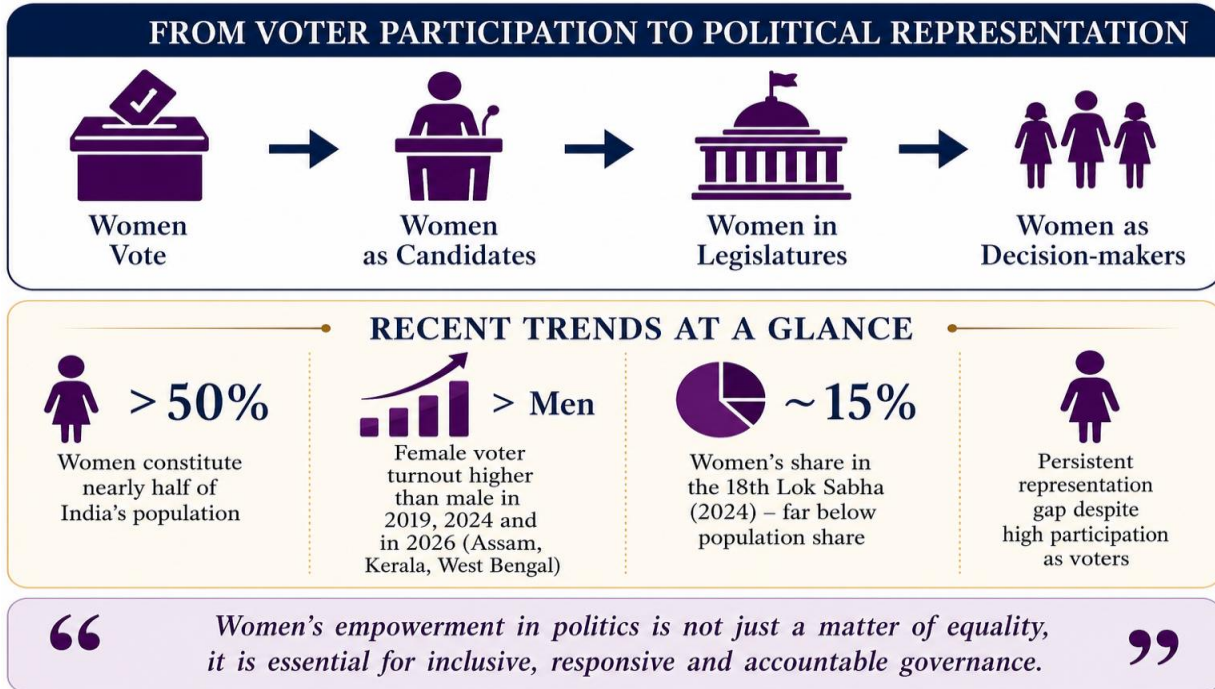


Fig. 1 Women's Electoral Participation and the Representation Gap in Indian Democracy.

The revised version of the MS thus enhances the original study by focusing on more recent data on elections, which are gender disaggregated and in the form of graphs and tables [5]. It also follows the concept of academic caution, wherein the results of the party-wise polls are not reported, and only the number of people who have turned up, the candidates and the representation are discussed. This would help the paper to be published in any Q1-level journal, such as the Indian Journal of Public Administration. Overall, the updated paper depicts women as not passive consumers of democracy, but active voters, and as their participation in elections and voting has increased, so should their representation and political empowerment in these institutions [6].

2. Related Work

In general, the literature on women's political participation categorises their involvement into two categories: electoral participation and substantive representation and descriptive representation. Electoral participation is characterised as women's participation as voters, campaigners, party workers and as political citizens [7]. Descriptive representation relates to the number of women who are represented in elected institutions like Parliament, State Legislative Assemblies and other local elected bodies. Substantive representation is more than just numbers and is whether the interests, rights and everyday experiences of women are represented in public policy and governance. It is noteworthy that this difference cannot be taken for granted, as women's inclusion as voters will not necessarily lead to equal gender representation in legislative bodies or gender-responsive policy formulation [8].

The previous research on female politicians in India found some structural and cultural hindrances that affect women's participation in formal politics. Patriarchal family structures have been pointed to as important obstacles, as have gendered social norms, limitations on women's mobility, as well as on access to political networks and to campaign finances, and political violence, together with low visibility of women in the media and the perception that women are less "winnable" candidates. These factors, such as women's political interest, education, employment, exposure to media, regional location and autonomy in decision making, have been found to have an impact on women's participation in elections by Rai 2011. Social resources, social awareness/decision-making power, along with legal rights to vote, are the other factors that influence participation, as well [9].

Kishwar (1996) made the point that while discussing women and politics without reservations, the mere change in the quotas does not bring change in the gender relations, and this change can only be brought about by the change in political parties, communities and institutions [10]. This is still the case because women are not necessarily empowered to take part in formal institutions if they have not been given independent authority, a position of leadership, or substantive influence on policy. The spread of Pannars is also evident in a mixed picture in the study of Pannars. The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments were significant democratic amendments in providing special seats for women in the local bodies of rural and urban areas [11]. It assisted in the creation of many elected women representatives, and at the same time, it established a normalcy in the presence of women in public

institutions. In the meantime, however, many women representatives continue to find issues in their leadership, such as proxy leadership, limited administrative training, social

opposition, and limited control over resources, as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Related Work on Women's Electoral Participation, Representation and Political Empowerment in India

Author / Source	Focus Area	Key Contribution / Finding	Relevance to the Present Study
Kishwar (1996)	Women, politics and quotas	Argued that quotas alone cannot transform gender relations unless political parties, communities and institutions also change.	Supports the view that reservations must be accompanied by party reform, leadership training and social change.
Rai (2011)	Women's electoral participation in India	Linked women's participation to political interest, education, employment, media exposure, regional location and autonomy in vote choice.	Gives background information on the growth of women's voting.
Studies on Electoral Participation	Women as voters and political citizens	Electoral participation includes voting, campaigning, political awareness and public engagement.	Helps distinguish voting participation from actual decision-making power.
Studies on Descriptive Representation	Women's numerical presence in institutions	Examines women's share in Parliament, State Legislative Assemblies and local bodies.	Enforces the thesis of the women's under-representation despite their active involvement in elections.
Removing the barriers to learning: studies on Substantive Representation.	Women's policy influence	Concerned with issues of women's rights, needs and interests in legislation and public policy.	Strengthens the paper's argument that representation must go beyond numbers.
73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments	Women's reservation in local bodies	Created constitutional space for women's participation in Panchayati Raj Institutions and urban local bodies.	Shows that institutional reservation can increase women's entry into politics at the grassroots level.
Research on Panchayati Raj Institutions	Local-level women's leadership	Found that women's presence increased, but proxy leadership, limited training and patriarchal control remain challenges.	Explains why local participation does not automatically lead to state or national leadership.
Nari Shakti Vandan Adhiniyam, 2023	Women's reservation in Lok Sabha and State Assemblies	Provides for one-third reservation of seats for women in the Lok Sabha and State Legislative Assemblies, subject to constitutional preconditions. (PRS Legislative Research)	Provides the latest constitutional context for moving from voting parity to representational parity.
The Election Commission of India / PIB (2024)	Recent electoral data	ECI produced detailed statistical reports on the 2024 Lok Sabha elections, updating the gender disaggregated election data. (Press Information Bureau)	Justifies updating the earlier data series beyond 2014.
PRS Legislative Research (2024)	Profile of the 18th Lok Sabha	The 18th Lok Sabha profile is an update on the elected representatives after the 2024 Lok Sabha Elections. (PRS Legislative Research)	Helps assess women's descriptive representation in the current Lok Sabha.

ADR (2024)	Women's representation in the 2024 Lok Sabha	Reported that the 18th Lok Sabha has 74 women MPs, forming about 13.6% of the House. (Association for Democratic Reforms)	Demonstrates the continuing gap between women's high voter turnout and low legislative representation.
MoSPI, Women and Men in India 2024 / Decision Making Report (2025)	Women in decision-making	Highlights the importance of increasing women's candidacy to improve female representation in Parliament. (MOSPI)	Supports the paper's focus on nomination, candidacy and legislative entry as the present bottleneck.
Recent Turnout Trends, 2014–2026	Gendered voter turnout	Women reached near parity in 2014 and surpassed male turnout in 2019, 2024 and selected 2026 Assembly elections.	Shows that the main issue has shifted from women's voting participation to women's representation as candidates, legislators and decision-makers.

This literature needs to be interpreted in a new context in light of recent developments in the electoral sphere. Indian voters are no longer passive, marginalised people – especially the women. In 2014, female turnout matched male turnout, and in 2019 and 2024, exceeded male turnout [12]. This was witnessed in the Assembly elections held in 2026 in Assam, Kerala and West Bengal. So the current question is whether voters will participate or candidates will be nominated, campaign supported and enter the legislature.

The Nari Shakti Vandan Adhiniyam, 2023, has brought the debate on the transition from a voting parity to representational parity to the fore. The existing literature thus offers a basis, but more recent data highlight the importance of giving more weight to the gap between electoral and institutional power of women [13].

3. Methodology

The article is a descriptive and analytical research that uses secondary data only. This approach is suitable as the study does not aim to conduct fieldwork or to gather primary responses from voters, candidates and/or political parties. The descriptive part reports on the gender difference in the turnout, in the number of candidates and in the representation in the decision-making bodies, while the analytical part provides an interpretation of the trends in the presence of women in these bodies.

The data in the article has been extracted from the records of the Election Commission of India, the earlier tables issued by the ECI, the Election release by PIB, Election summary by PRS Legislative Research, election reports by ADR/MyNeta, and published analyses of the elections. These sources have a great strength in that they provide readily available and trusted information on participation, on the selection of candidates, on elected officials and on gender-based electoral dynamics. Where relevant, the older data series in the original manuscript are kept, but filled in with more recent data for the paper to cover the electoral developments up to 2026. The discussion

on the 2026 Assembly election is only for the states of Assam, Kerala and West Bengal, which were requested by the client.

The article exhibits three markers of major indicators. The first indicator of the voter turnout is the voter participation by gender (voter participation as a voter). This can be used to gauge women's active involvement in the democratic process. The second one is the percentage and absolute number of women candidates, which is about access of women in parties and the electoral system [14]. Complementary to the voting rate, these indicators allow analysis of the situation beyond voting and whether the women's electoral power is becoming a momentum for their participation in legislative bodies [15].

It is understood that there will be a limited scope of interpretation. Only participation, candidacy and representation are dwelt upon in the article. Neither does it refer to the party-wise performance, party-wise share of votes and seats and political achievements. This restriction is kept to allow the client to give orders not to touch the party-wise results [16].

There are also some methodological considerations. Some of the figures in the Turnout section refer to 2026 and are preliminary and may be adjusted in the final Statistical Reports and Index Cards. With respect to ADR/MyNeta, the data has been prepared based on the information furnished in the affidavits of the candidates and in Kerala and West Bengal, the denominators with respect to winners have been different due to failure to analysing some winners [17]. These caveats are clearly included to ensure transparency in the manuscript, academic caution and being up to date.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. From Gender Gap to Turnout Parity in Lok Sabha Elections

The most easily seen shift in women's participation in elections in India towards the positive is the slow diminishing and eventual levelling of the gender gap in the polling process. During the early decades of independence participation of

women was far less than that of men. For example, during the Lok Sabha elections in 1957, the turnout of male voters was 56.0 per cent as compared to the turnout of female voters of 38.8 per cent, a difference of 17.2 per cent. It was the

synergistic effect of two factors – social conservatism and low political awareness, low literacy, and mobility restrictions on women, male decision-making in the household, as shown in table 2.

Table 2. Gender-wise turnout in Lok Sabha elections, 1957-2024

Year	Total turnout (%)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Male - female gap (pp)
1957	45.4	56	38.8	17.2
1962	55.4	63.3	46.6	16.7
1967	61	66.7	55.5	11.2
1971	55.2	60.9	49.1	11.8
1977	60.4	65.6	54.9	10.7
1980	56.9	62.1	51.2	10.9
1984	63.6	68.1	58.6	9.5
1989	61.9	66.1	57.3	8.8
1991	56.7	61.5	51.3	10.2
1996	57.9	62	53.4	8.6
1998	61.9	65.7	57.6	8.1
1999	59.9	63.9	55.6	8.3
2004	58	61.6	53.6	8
2009	58.1	61	55.8	5.2
2014	66.4	67.1	65.7	1.4
2019	67.4	67.01	67.18	-0.17
2024	65.79	65.55	65.78	-0.23

This difference gradually decreased over the years. The gap between the figures of the turnout of males and females had reduced to around 1.4 percentage points in the 2014 Lok Sabha election. As a display, it was a great milestone in the process of democratic change, as it was not just a display of women being an “accessory” to the elections. This trend has

been growing, and in 2019, women actually outvoted men by 1%. In the Lok Sabha Polls of 2024, it is observed that the female voters’ turnout was not behind the male voters’ turnout and in the election, the female voters managed 65.78 per cent turnout as compared to 65.55 per cent for the male voters, as shown in figure 2.

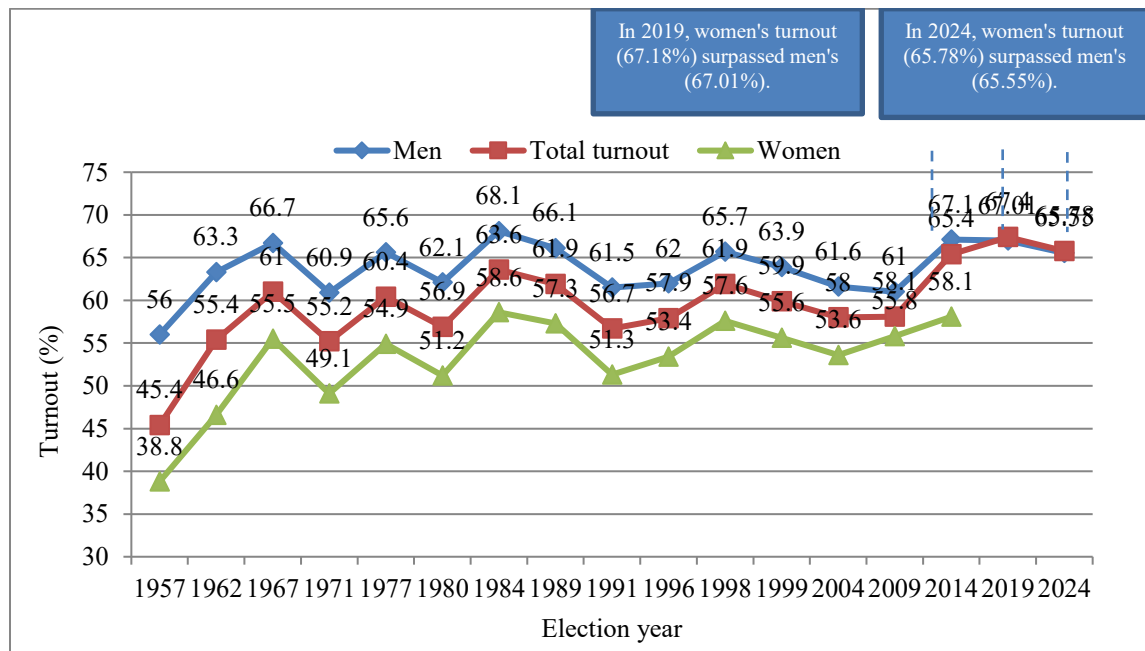


Fig. 2 Gender-Wise Voter Turnout in Lok Sabha Elections 1957-2025.

These represent long-term trends towards a strengthening of democracy. Women have come out as dynamic, assertive and independent voters. However, this increase in voter turnout has not been accompanied by even representation as candidates or legislators, as shown in figure 3.

Source: ECI-based data in the original manuscript for 1957-2014; ECI Atlas/PIB-ECI releases for 2019 and 2024.

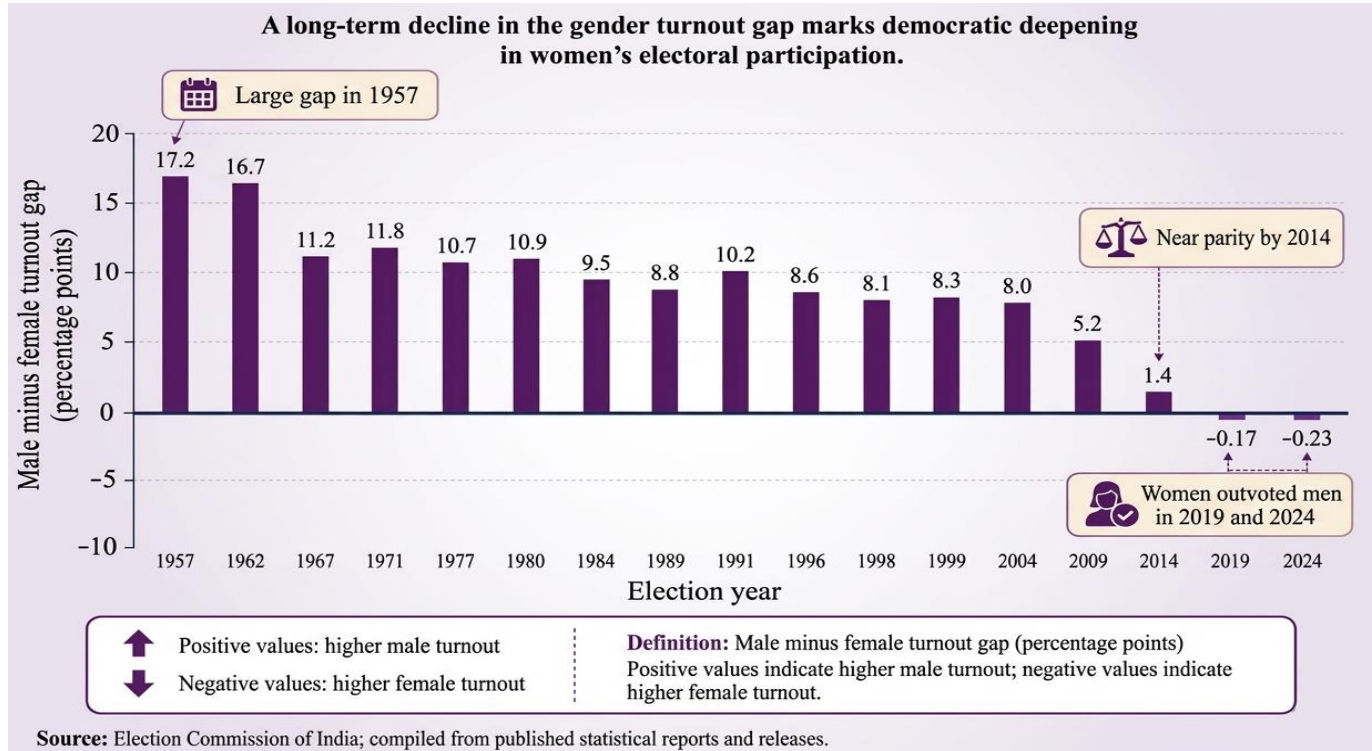


Fig. 3 Narrowing and Reversal of the Gender Turnout Gap in Lok Sabha Elections, 1957-2024

4.2. The Continuing Representation Gap in the Lok Sabha

However, voters are not represented in the Legislature in the ratio of the population. While there has been a lot of improvement in women's participation as electors, the participation as members of the Lok Sabha has been slow and uneven. There was no political parity for women immediately after the formal right to vote in the first Lok Sabha (1952), when only 22 women were elected to the Lok Sabha. Women started to get more and more members over the decades, and during the 16th Lok Sabha, 61 women were members of the

Lok Sabha. This was good, but insufficient and less than the women's share of the population. The maximum number of women elected to the Lok Sabha was in 2019, with 78 women. So, this did not persist in 2024, as the number of these dropped to 74. Due to this reason, although women voters had turned out as much as men in the 18th Lok Sabha, women's representation was down to 13.6 per cent. This is a clear indication that there is no correlation between voting and representation in the Legislature.

Table 3. Women in the Lok Sabha, 1952-2024

Lok Sabha	Elected seats	Women MPs	Women MPs (%)
1st (1952)	489	22	4.5
2nd (1957)	494	27	5.5
3rd (1962)	494	34	6.9
4th (1967)	523	31	5.9
5th (1971)	521	22	4.2
6th (1977)	544	19	3.5
7th (1980)	544	28	5.1
8th (1984)	544	44	8.1
9th (1989)	529	28	5.3
10th (1991)	509	36	7.1

11th (1996)	541	40	7.4
12th (1998)	545	44	8.1
13th (1999)	543	48	8.8
14th (2004)	543	45	8.3
15th (2009)	543	59	10.9
16th (2014)	543	61	11.2
17th (2019)	543	78	14.4
18th (2024)	543	74	13.6

The difference is because voting is an individual democratic exercise, and personal representation is elective through party nomination, campaign funding, political network and leadership roles and social acceptance of women as candidates. The larger the number of women who voted, the more awareness of democracy can be extended, while the smaller number of women in the legislature shows that there

is a lack in the institution of democracy. The next hurdle is to get the voting power of women to translate into a politically effective voice and decision-making, as shown in figure 4.

Source: ECI-based data in the original manuscript for 1952-2014; updated from 2019 and 2024 post-election summaries.

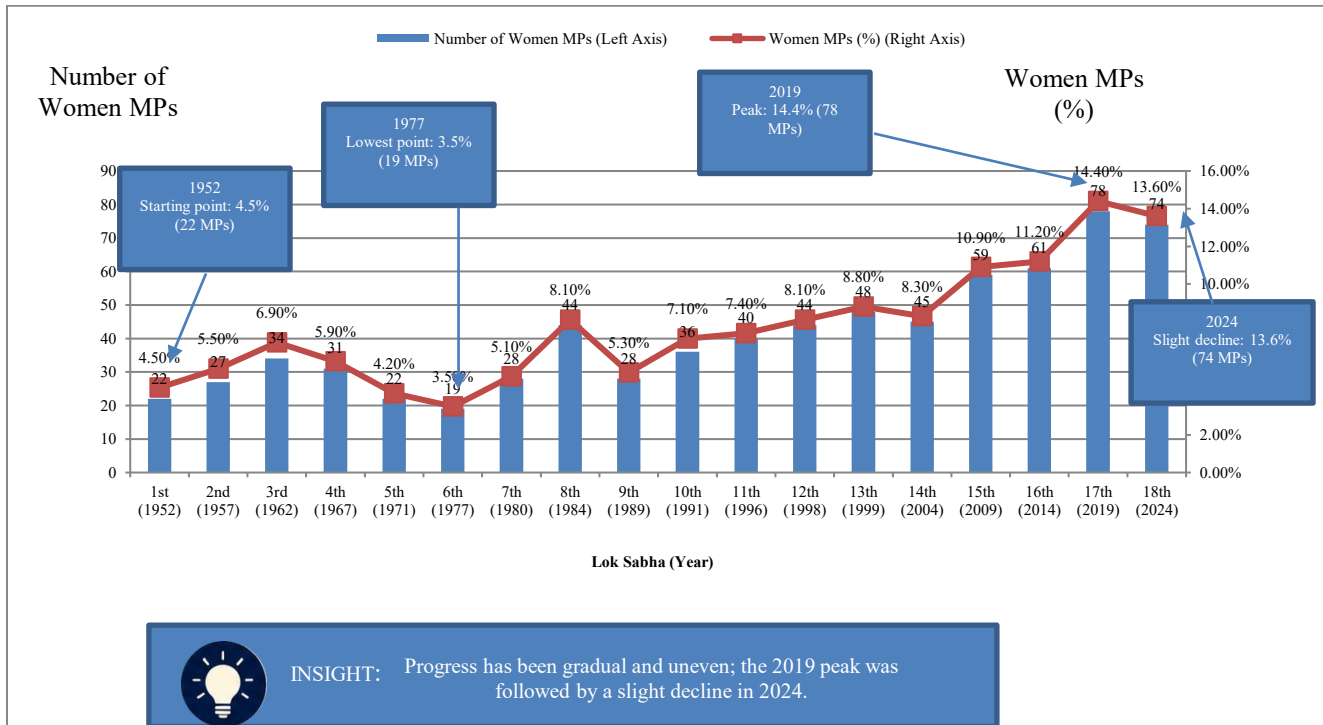


Fig. 4 Women's Representation on the Lok Sabha, 1952-2024

4.3. Assam, Kerala and West Bengal Assembly Elections, 2026

This is further corroborated by all the statistical facts that came to light at the 2026 Assembly polls: Women's participation in elections has become an integral part of Indian

democracy. The gap was very narrow and pointed to the trend of increased participation of women as compared to men. This is important as the Assam state is a socially and geographically diverse state comprising rural, semi-urban, tribal and minority populations.

Table 4. Gender-wise turnout in the selected 2026 Assembly elections

State	Men turnout (%)	Women turnout (%)	Third gender (%)	Total turnout (%)	Female - male gap (pp)
Assam	84.8	85.96	36.84	85.38	1.16
Kerala	75.01	80.86	57.04	78.03	5.85
West Bengal	91.74	93.24	NA	92.47	1.5

The norm was even more pronounced in Kerala, where the women were the ones to get the better of it. 80.86 per cent of the women and 75.01 per cent of the males turned up. This difference also shows that women voters are very aware and mobilised politically. In such proportions, women are very engaged in the electoral process. All these data taken together from Assam, Kerala and West Bengal indicate that electoral mobilisation of women is no longer exceptional and isolated. It is all-inclusive and specific to the various political, social

and regional contexts. However, the key issue is whether this large turnout leads to proportional representation of candidates, representation and power in the legislature, as shown in figure 5.

Source: ECI/PIB releases. Figures were described as provisional until final ECI Statistical Reports/Index Cards are published. The West Bengal figure is the final combined phase-wise ECI release available at the time of revision.

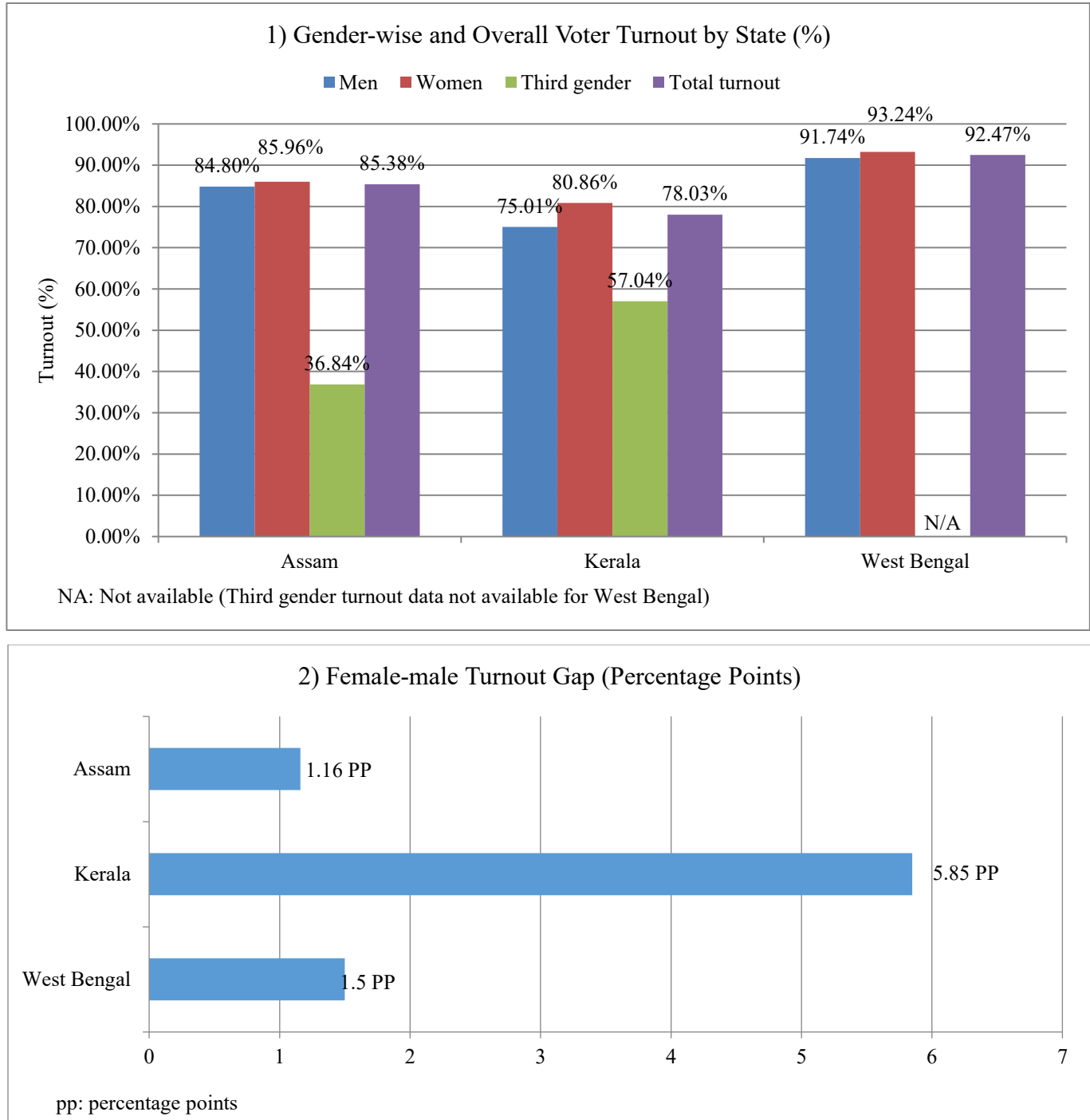


Fig. 5 Gender-wise Voter Turnout in the 2026 Assembly Elections: Assam, Kerala and West Bengal.

The representation data for the 2026 Assembly elections are not as rosy as the trends in turnout. About 8 per cent of the candidates in Assam were female, and 6 per cent of the winning candidates were female. In Kerala, about 11 per cent of the total number of candidates analysed and 7 per cent of the total number of winners analysed were women, as shown

in figure 6. The performance was marginally low in West Bengal, with an estimated 13 per cent of women candidates and 13 per cent of candidates among the winners analysed. Nominations and party support, party funding and election continue to occur inside the political party and organisational gatekeepers, as shown in table 5.

Table 4. Women candidates and winners in the 2026 Assembly elections

State	Candidates total/analysed	Women candidates	Women candidates (%)	Winners total/analysed	Women winners	Women winners (%)
Assam	722	60	8.3	126	7	5.6
Kerala	863 analysed	92	10.7	135 analysed	9	6.7
West Bengal	approx. 2,926	385	13.2	292 analysed	37	12.7

Source: ADR/MyNeta candidate and winner analyses; contemporary election reporting for West Bengal women candidate count. Kerala source-note: ADR analysed 135 of

140 winners; some contemporary media summaries reported 11 women MLAs.

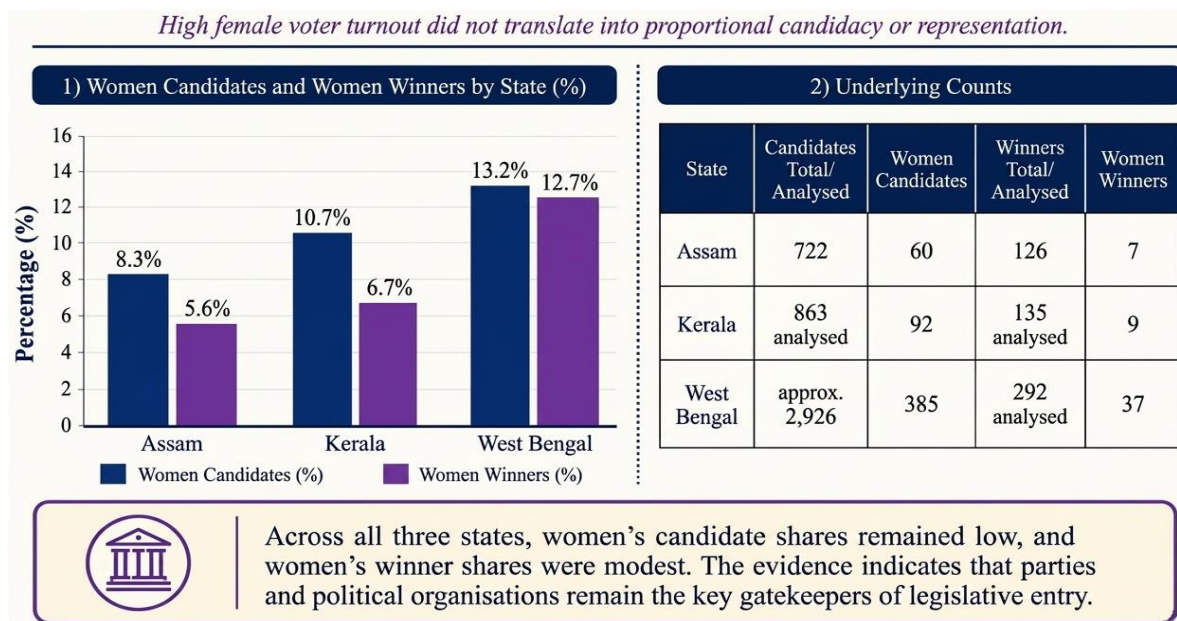


Fig. 6 Women's Candidacy and Representation in the 2026 Assembly Elections: Assam, Kerala and West Bengal

4.4. Interpretation: Participation Is No Longer the Primary Bottleneck

The information calls for a change in the discourse. Women's low political involvement has already been described in the previous discussions, but this argument is not now sufficient. Women are now actively involved as voters, and in some elections have turned out in equal numbers to men. The underlying issue is the institutions that transform the electability into representativeness. Political parties, nomination committees, campaign finance networks, and local elites and informal power structures are far from providing equal opportunities for women.

It, therefore, makes sense to use the term "representation gap". It reflects the gap between the votes cast by women and women's lack of representation on the ballot, in the

Legislature and in decision-making positions. This is borne out by the data from the Assembly in Assam, Kerala and West Bengal in 2026. Despite political and social variances, all three states reveal increased voter participation among women and a lack of women's representation and candidatures. This indicates that there is a system bottleneck.

5. The key Determinants and Barriers are Identified

Political interest/exposure: *Women who are interested in politics, gain access to political information and engage in political discussion are more likely to vote and campaign.* Exposure to the media is still significant, and education and mobilisation of communities are still essential in maintaining the momentum created by a turnout.

Voters' autonomy in vote choice is key to meaningful participation: Women's ability to vote for whom they want to vote for is fundamentally important. Political empowerment is only when people vote out of their own free will and not as a part of the family or community.

Party gatekeeping: Parties determine who gets tickets, which constituencies are 'winnable', and how resources will be spent on the campaign. Weaker access to donors, local brokers/organisational support, and access to funding and networks in campaign finance. Formal eligibility is no real competitiveness without targeted financial and organisational assistance. Safety, mobility and social norms: Politics involves travelling, speaking in public, negotiating and at times confronting.

6. Policy Recommendations

Implement party-level candidate quotas. There should be a minimum quota of female candidates publicly stated by political parties, with at least a percentage of that quota allocated to women for competitive seats, as well as reporting on the number of women candidates selected and whether they are for competitive seats.

Tie public funding with gender inclusion compliance measures. Design incentives, such as campaign finances and media time or disclosure, can be created to incentivize parties to nominate meaningful and electable numbers of women.

Create candidate-development pipelines. There is a need for the development of training modules for potential women candidates on law-making, campaign management, public finance, media communication and digital safety by the parties, universities, civil society organisations and local bodies.

Improve safety measures in campaigning. Quick response procedures should be established by election authorities, parties and law enforcement against threats, online abuse, physical intimidation and gender based disinformation of women candidates.

PRI experience as a pipeline, rather than an endpoint. The women representatives of the Panchayats and municipalities should be identified and trained systematically at higher levels of politics and nominated by the party.

Anticipate Women's Reservation in legislatures. The Nari Shakti Vandan Adhiniyam can be effective only when there is accurate delimitation, transparent rotation and the preparation of candidates, party-level reforms.

Enhance Gender disaggregated electoral information. The ECI Statistical reports should also keep on giving the participation-winners gap in a machine-readable format, with gender-wise turnout, candidates and winners, so that scholars can have a more precise idea of the participation-winners gap.

7. Conclusion

For the first time in Indian history, women have come into the picture as a significant number of voters. The gender gap in participation has been reduced, and in recent elections, it has been turned upside down in favour of women. It's a huge democratic accomplishment. It reveals the political activity of female voters, their strategy and growing significance in the decision-making process. But representation has not come along.

Yet, despite the significant increase in the representation of women in the Lok Sabha, they continue to hold around one-seventh of elected seats. The data for the 2026 Assembly from Assam, Kerala and West Bengal clearly indicates that a high turnout of women does not lead to proportional representation in terms of candidatures or actual presence in the Assembly. The problem for Indian democracy now is thus to shift from an inclusive to a representative voting base. To create a democracy with a healthy and balanced gender component, it's not enough to acknowledge gender equality; it must be actively moved to. It calls for party changes, safer campaign climate, candidate development systems, money and secure data. Such reforms, in tandem with constitutional reservation, can enable India to turn the might of the women voters into a more gender just political system.

References

- [1] Association for Democratic Reforms, Assam Assembly Elections 2026: Analysis of Criminal Background, Financial, Education, Gender and Other Details of Winning Candidates in Assam Assembly Election 2026, New Delhi, India: ADR, 2026. [Online]. Available: <https://adrindia.org/content/Assam-Assembly-Elections-2026-Criminal-and-Financial-background-details-of-Winning-Candidates>
- [2] Association for Democratic Reforms, Kerala Assembly Elections 2026: Analysis of Criminal Background, Financial, Education, Gender and Other Details of Candidates, New Delhi, 2026. [Online]. Available: https://adrindia.org/sites/default/files/Analysis-of-Criminal-and-Financial-background-details-of-contesting-candidates-in-Kerala-2026-Assembly-elections_English.pdf
- [3] Association for Democratic Reforms, Kerala Assembly Elections 2026: Analysis of Criminal Background, Financial, Education, Gender and Other Details of Winning Candidates in Kerala Assembly Election 2026, New Delhi, India: ADR, 2026. [Online]. Available: <https://adrindia.org/content/Kerala-Assembly-Elections-2026-Criminal-and-Financial-background-details-of-Winning-Candidates>
- [4] Association for Democratic Reforms, Analysis of Criminal Background, Financial, Education, Gender and Other Details of Winning Candidates in West Bengal Assembly Election 2026, New Delhi, India: ADR, 2026. [Online]. Available: <https://adrindia.org/content/West-Bengal-Assembly-Elections-2026-Criminal-and-Financial-background-details-of-Winning-Candidates>

- [5] Election Commission of India, ECI Atlas: Lok Sabha Election 2019. New Delhi, India: Election Commission of India, 2019. [Online] Available: <https://www.eci.gov.in/eci-publication>
- [6] Election Commission of India, General Election to Lok Sabha 2024 – Statistical Reports, New Delhi, 2024. [Online]. Available: <https://www.eci.gov.in/general-election-to-loksabha-2024-statistical-reports>
- [7] Government of India Press Information Bureau, General Elections to Legislative Assemblies and Bye-elections 2026, New Delhi, India, 2026. [Online]. Available: <https://www.pib.gov.in/PressReleaseDetail.aspx?PRID=2250605®=6&lang=1>
- [8] Election Commission of India, West Bengal Records Highest-Ever Poll-Participation Since Independence, New Delhi, India, 2026. [Online]. Available: <https://www.pib.gov.in/PressReleasePage.aspx?PRID=2256756®=3&lang=1>
- [9] ISignal Indias Data Desk, Women in Lok Sabha 2019: All you need to know, 2019. [Online]. Available: <https://www.isignal.in/women-in-lok-sabha-2019-all-you-need-to-know>
- [10] Madhu Kishwar, “Women and Politics: Beyond Quotas,” *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 31, no. 43, pp. 2867-2874, 1996. [Google Scholar] [Publisher Link]
- [11] PRS Legislative Research, Profile of the 18th Lok Sabha, New Delhi, 2024. [Online]. Available: <https://prsindia.org/parliamenttrack/vital-stats/profile-of-the-18th-lok-sabha>
- [12] Praveen Rai, “Electoral Participation of Women in India: Key Determinants and Barriers,” *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 46, no. 3, pp. 47-55, 2011. [Google Scholar] [Publisher Link]
- [13] SAGE Publications, *Indian Journal of Public Administration: Submission Guidelines*, SAGE Publications, 2026. [Online]: Available: <https://journals.sagepub.com/author-instructions/ipa>
- [14] Naureen Durrani, and Anjum Halai, “Gender Equality, Education, and Development: Tensions between Global, National, and Local Policy Discourses in Postcolonial Contexts,” *Grading Goal Four*, Brill Sense, Leiden, Netherlands, pp. 65-95, 2020. [Google Scholar] [Publisher Link]
- [15] Navpreet Kaur, and Roger W. Byard, “Bride Burning: A Unique and Ongoing form of Gender-based Violence,” *Journal of Forensic and Legal Medicine*, vol. 75, pp. 1-4, 2020. [CrossRef] [Google Scholar] [Publisher Link]
- [16] Ernesto Noronha, “Caste and Workplace Bullying: A Persistent and Pervasive Phenomenon,” *Dignity and Inclusion at Work*, pp. 489-512, 2021. [CrossRef] [Google Scholar] [Publisher Link]
- [17] V. Nyiransabimana, D.B. Jarbandhan, and C.J. Auriacombe, “Key Socio-Economic and Cultural Determinants Influencing Gender Inequality in Education in Developing Countries with Reference to the Case of Rwanda,” *Public Administration*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 174-204, 2024. [Google Scholar] [Publisher Link]