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Cross-Country Analysis of the Impact of Corruption and Other Factors on Youth Presence in Parliament

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Abstract

The purpose of research is to study the influence of corruption and other factors on the presence of young people in formal politics. The motivation for the study of this issue was the decrease in the representation of youth in the traditional district and republican parliaments due to the existence of different determinants. Such a decrease, as a rule, affects the socio-economic indicators of most countries, since it is the youth who are the socially active, able-bodied segment of the population, whose support young people must find from the youth parliament representing their interests and needs. Corruption is considered to be the main reason for this decline. To prevent this, asian states such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Thailand and South Korea introduced institutional measures in the form of establishing an anti-corruption agency or other developed and developing countries carried out legislative anti-corruption reforms, which, on the contrary, led to counter productiveness due to excessive regulation. Thus, we will check whether the factor of corruption is indeed a significant variable influencing the presence of young people in parliament or whether the existence of other factors is more important. To test the main hypothesis, namely the negative relationship between the factor of corruption and the share of youth in parliament, we have analysed data from 90 countries based on the regression analysis method. The results showed that corruption is not a statistically significant variable, i.e., it does not have a significant impact on the political presence of young people in politics. The education factor showed a statistically significant result, which is logical since politically educated young people are most often active in politics, as a rule they become potential candidates for deputies either through youth wings or through non-state youth associations. Therefore, it seems important in public policy to increase political competitiveness to develop the potential of education.

Keywords: *Corruption; Education; Young Candidates for Parliament*

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Introduction

The study of the issue of corruption is relevant not only for developed countries, but also for developing and least developed countries, since it harms all sectors of society, regardless of their level of development. Often, corruption is accompanied by various problems associated with a decrease in management efficiency, crises in the economy based on illegal rent-seeking behavior, as well as in politics, which inevitably lead to a number of other social problems associated with unemployment, poverty, alcoholism and drug addiction (Hsu, 2001; Wedeman, 2005; Sapio, 2005; Heilbrunn, 2006; Iyer, and Samociuk, 2006; Laird, 2000; Kaufmann, 2005; Pelizzo and Stapenhurst, 2013; Pelizzo, 2018; Akrman, 2003; Svensson, 2005; Giommoni, 2021). And this is only part of the problems from a long list of corruption that are known to society in one way or another. It is obvious that all these problems are especially relevant for the rising young generation of society, because at the initial stage of their life, young people are vulnerable, and in the absence of support from the family and the state, they often lose their life orientation. Parliament is the mediator of such corruption and youth issues, able to reflect the expectations and needs of those who vote in elections.

While corruption is a key research topic and there has been a growing literature, there is still a lack of empirical research to explore its impact on youth presence in Parliament.

The purpose of the study is to test the impact of corruption and other factors on the level of youth presence in the legislature. Based on the purpose of the study, the article conducts a cross-country regression analysis of data from 90 states. To conduct a cross-country analysis, drawing on the extensive literature on youth in politics, we additionally propose more than five variables by combining several datasets - these are the Inter-Parliamentary Union, the Corruption Perceptions index, Education index, E-participation index, and others.

The need to study the presence of young parliamentarians in politics is due not only to the early involvement of young people in the legislative and political culture, the formation of civic positions, but most importantly, the reflection of the interests of young voters in order to solve pressing problems. Studies by many scholars show that youth participation in politics has typically been accompanied by either an examination of the impact of social media (Ji Yoon Kim, 2019; Camello, 2021; Ashmawi, 2018; Giommoni, 2021; Olsson, 2014; Warren, 2013; Dahlberg and Solevid, 2013), education (Keating and Melis, 2017; Kim and Amna, 2015; Dalton, 2008; Norris, 2002; Henn, et.al., 2002), the impact of political destabilization in the country, expressed in strikes, demonstrations and protests of youth against the Palestinian-Israeli conflicts, or in the Israeli attack on Gaza, or in the elementary alienation of youth from politics associated with the fear of ongoing political repression (Andersson, 2012; Ashmawy, 2018). The above indicates that most of the youth are represented in informal forms of participation, while in formal decision-making procedures, namely, the representation of youth in Parliament is low.

This article aims to redefine variables, where we will also test for other factors in order to determine the degree of significance of the influence of corruption factor on

youth in politics. We argue that other things being equal, a high level of corruption affects the presence of young people in Parliament. Careful examination of a wide range of variables in regression analysis reveals the statistical significance of the influence of education factor. It is shown that the proportion of educated youth knows how to correctly position themselves in the public field and easily masters the work with citizens' appeals.

An article has several sections. The first section provides a literature review on corruption, emphasizing its importance in youth presence in formal politics. In the second section, a cross-country statistical analysis of the data is carried out, based on previously formulated hypotheses. In the last section, the results are defined, and conclusions are drawn.

Research Methods

Article used regression analysis of quantitative research method to establish the influence and causality between dependent and independent variables. Thus, data were sampled in different years, where the dependent variable is based on data for 2021, and independent and control data for 2018. This was done specifically to give the independent variables the necessary time to affect the dependent variable.

Data was collected from various sources of Inter-Parliamentary Union report, United Nations E-Government Survey, Transparency International Reports, United Nations Development Program, Reporters Without Borders (World Press Freedom), World Bank (Political Risk Index), as well as World Factbook and a sample of about 90 countries.

To analyze the data, a regression model was built and based on the calculated coefficients, we were able to interpret the percentage increase youth representation in Parliament, as well as the significance of each independent and control variable for the dependent variable, thus consistently rejecting or accepting the hypotheses presented for study.

Results and Discussion

Literature Review of Corruption

The main literature on corruption has been studied by scholars such as Mauro (1995), Kaufmann (1997), Kaufmann (2005), Pelizzo and Stapenhurst (2013), Pelizzo (2018), Ji Yoon Kim (2019), Akrman (2003), Huntington (1968) and others.

Ji Yoon Kim (2019) is interested in the question of why the turnout of young people in elections is declining and young people are not so actively involved in their civic duties. In this regard, the author considers the impact of the perception of corruption on the behavior of citizens in politics, as it can threaten democracy, economic growth (Mauro, 1995), and good governance (Kaufmann, 2005).

The perception of corruption is linked to society's connection to government, and people mobilize to punish corrupt politicians and hand over power to honest politicians. At the same time, it is noted that the participation of people in politics is not due to the

actions of corruption, but the expectation of people joining them and the demand for accountability. Stockemer et al. (2011) argued that the number of people participating in elections in democratic countries decreases with the growth of corruption. But upon careful study of the article, it becomes clear that the authors were interested in informal participation such as boycott, petition and demonstration. Although the study lacks official political involvement, it used data on financial corruption rather than representations of corruption from the International Country Risk Guide.

Corruption is understood as “the abuse of state power for personal gain” (Akrman, 2003). However, Kaufmann (2005) disputed this definition, arguing that it is narrow, focused on "public office" and "legal actions". At the same time, it is necessary to supplement the definition with private agents who can share this responsibility and whose actions cannot be recognized as illegal. Author defines corruption as “the privatization of public policy”, that is, in the development of sectoral policies (in the field of telecommunications or energy), votes in parliaments depend on private payments that are provided to decision makers, and such payments (contributions) are not necessarily illegal. Thus, in this definition one can trace the dual responsibility of those who make decisions and those who influence. Based on this "broad definition", the author concluded that the OECD countries (rich countries) did not fare well.

Whereas another definition by Samuel Huntington (1968) defines corruption as "a deviation from habitual behavior" or "a public conflict of interest for personal use" under international law (Akrman, 2003). Thus, the presence of many definitions of corruption and research indicates not only the relevance of the topic, but also the presence of destructive human behavior caused by their own purpose of gain.

Reflecting on the above definitions, we ask ourselves what the role of corruption and its influence on value orientations of young active generation is. After all, what is accepted in the traditions and culture of many Arab countries, for example, accepting and giving gifts is unacceptable in European countries, considering it a form of corruption.

Political transparency as a form of preventing corruption, when a clear and precise definition of the policy system encourages the public to monitor, collect and evaluate information, and the presence of full openness of public policy allows the public to express their disagreement, which in turn leads to increased trust (Akrman, 2003). In contrast, Mauro (1995) believed that corruption tends to grow economically through "quick money" that allows people to bypass bureaucratic red tape and "piecework" public service bribery allowed between employees. It is noted that where there is a cumbersome bureaucracy, "quick money" contributes to growth, while in the second case, "piecework" corruption operates regardless of the bureaucratic level. As a result of in-depth quantitative analysis, i.e., the impact of corruption taken from Business International (BI) and institutional data on the productivity factor, showed a reduction in investment and, as a result, a slowdown in economic growth. Whereas corruption is more precisely measured by bureaucratic efficiency, i.e., the average of the judiciary, bureaucracy and corruption indicators (Mauro, 1995). Despite the assertion that rich countries have good institutions, unlike poor ones, and, as a result, a high index of bureaucratic efficiency is unreliable. For example, in Thailand, with a high level of corruption, economic indicators

grew, and vice versa, South Korea developed rapidly, despite the inefficiency of institutions. Of particular interest is the relationship between bureaucratic efficiency and political stability when countries with stable policies have bureaucrats who are corrupt and inefficient. These include Egypt, Greece, Indonesia and Turkey. On the contrary, with effective bureaucracies in Angola, Chile, Iraq and Israel, there is political instability (Hsu, 2001; Wedeman, 2005; Sapio, 2005; Heilbrunn, 2006; Iyer, and Samociuk, 2006; Laird, 2000).

Kaufmann's (1997) article is replete with comparisons in Africa, South Asia and the former Soviet Union, Central and Eastern Europe, linking market reforms to rising corruption. It is noted that positive economic reforms in Central and Eastern Europe in the field of privatization, liberalization and deregulation contributed to development. Whereas the countries of the former Soviet Union lagged behind due to incomplete reforms creating discretionary decision-making by bureaucrats. More recently, Kaufmann (2005) examines governance and corruption using more than 350 variables that were collected from various organizations in 200 countries to measure the institutional environment for quality and governance.

In this study, we also use similar indicators of governance such as voices and accountability, political instability and violence and others, exploring their impact on youth representation in the legislature in a number of countries, since indicators can most accurately reflect not only the institutional quality of countries, but also at the same time, to answer the question why in different states the representation of young people in parliament is different. Moreover, due to the hidden nature of corruption, it is difficult to measure it most accurately. Therefore, even if there are specific questions about corruption and extrapolation to the whole population, as Kaufmann (2005) argues, it will be difficult to avoid error, and at the same time to interpret the results. Therefore, the Corruption Perceptions Index was chosen, because it uses 13 data sources, such as the African Development Bank's Institutional and Policy Assessment Index of the African Development Bank, the Bertelsmann Foundation's Sustainable Governance Indicators, the Transformation Index, and others, which are based on assessments of experts and business community about bribery, misuse of budgetary funds, nepotism (Corruption Perception Index, 2018).

In general, by disclosing 7 myths, the problem of corruption can be revealed from the point of view of rich and poor countries, while focusing the reader's attention on the fallacy of this assumption that low incomes are the cause of corruption. The Baltic States, Botswana, Chile, and Slovenia are proof of this, proving that, without being naturally rich countries, relatively high standards of governance can be achieved. Whereas in sub-Saharan Africa, not only poor governance, but also low incomes. Moreover, the myth of creating anti-corruption bodies, laws, and codes of ethics, coupled with disproportionate harassment, can reduce the effectiveness of the anti-corruption fight, and excessive regulation is often counterproductive. That is, this form of regulation can cause corruption and promote bribery (Kaufmann, 2005). Whereas, unlike Mauro (1995) and Kaufmann (1997; 2005), Pelizzo and Stapenhurst (2013) believe that good governance can pay dividends. In this regard, they use indicators of education, employment,

employment in agriculture, gross national income per capita, fertility and infant mortality, and finally the number of vehicles for descriptive statistics and regression analysis, the results of which claim that in less corrupt countries shows a higher level of development, while regression analysis shows that good governance contributes to high incomes, education, and faster industrialization (Pelizzo and Stapenhurst, 2013). However, in the same study, we find several contradictory statements that "development is internally organized on the basis of electoral meritocratic criteria".

The concept of meritocracy has had a positive connotation since its inception in 1958, presenting a positive ideal against which we could measure institutional justice (Bell, 2012). Building on the critique of Markowitz (2011), meritocracy is a trap created by radical inequality. Oligarchs, aristocrats, and the elite dominate elite colleges and universities, despite today's low prevalence of bribery and nepotism. That is, the middle class loses in strengthening meritocracy. As Markowitz (2019) points out, the cycle of inequality in meritocracy can be traced to the displacement of middle-class labor from the center of production through the acquisition of highly skilled jobs by the "working elite". With huge incomes, these "working elites" give their children an elite education, thereby securing a future for themselves in the form of consistent dominance in skilled fields, as opposed to the middle class. Thus, one should not expect equal competition from young people who have left the middle class, not only in the highly skilled labor market, but also in the political arena. Surely such youth will be less active in politics, although with the introduction of measures by the parent parties of youth wings, such a segment of society has a chance to compete for political positions (Roon, 2020; Malafia et.al., 2018; Liow, 2011).

Issues of Youth Participation in Parliaments

The definition of youth is a rather flexible concept that has a transitional status. That is, this status can change and is not permanent (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2021). The deputy can leave the young status for the next elections to belong to adult category. The Inter-Parliamentary Union compares the gap between the young population and the proportion of young parliamentarians in different states. Young people are supposed to mature at the age of 20, but not all countries grant the right to vote to persons under 18 years of age. Ashmawy (2018) argues that while the constitutions of various countries Kenya and Egypt set the age at 30, or between 18 and 35, other laws either did not mention young people or did not describe their rights (Azelton, et.al., 2019). Whereas the UN and the World Bank have defined youth ages as 15 to 25, Azelton, et.al. (2019) argue that such an initiative to reduce the age of youth to run for office is due, firstly, to a fundamental human right, and secondly, to the benefits to society from youth participation. Basically, such initiatives for the active involvement of young people in politics are observed in European countries that have been able, through non-governmental organizations and the provision of relevant information, to stimulate young people to vote and be elected in elections (Camello, 2021). For example, the average voting age in the European union is from 18 years old, in Argentina, Cuba and Ecuador from 16 years old, in South Korea from 19 years old, in Japan, Cameroon and

Bahrain it is 21 years old. By lowering the minimum age for young people, it is intended to revive political debate on highly sensitive topics such as economic growth, the environment, civil rights, and migration.

However, another group of scholars are concerned about the social and demographic problems that arise because of transition to adulthood and the focus on building a professional career and family (Shaffer, 1982; Soler Marti, 2015). At the same time, another problem of apathy is that young people are placed in institutions like schools and families - with a vertical form of power, where they do not participate in decision-making. Thus, influencing their political consciousness and not showing civic participation. Therefore, young people lack an understanding of what politics is (Toole, 2003). To overcome these problems, researchers are focusing on the development of education in the field of politics (Vecchione and Caprara, 2009; Verba, et.al., 1995; Stolle, et.al., 2005).

From the above, it follows that young people are more interested in politics through protests, demonstrations, petitions, and volunteering. According to a survey of 14 European countries (MyPlace), it is young people aged 16 to 24 (about 42%) who are interested in politics, they were interested in political topics related to the environment and security. But their interest is more related to non-traditional forms of participation through new technologies. An example is the European Youth Event (EYE), Erasmus+, communication channels. EYE, promoted by the European Parliament (launched in 2014), promotes the exchange of young people's ideas with experts, activists and influencers, where the number of young people has grown since the beginning of 2014, while the Erasmus+ program supporting the mobility of young people in education is focused on "active civic position. Thus, genuine interest on the part of public organizations contributes to the involvement of young people in political debates and communication channels. And the creation of online platforms (youthideas.eu) allows young people to promote ideas and solve problems in Europe (Camello, 2021). Ashmawy (2018) states that when active youth are marginalized, the example of Arab Spring, active youth join informal political movements, which leads to extremism and crime. Whereas by bringing young people closer to political connections, they can become an active political force if used properly. The author draws parallels between Egypt and US by interviewing young people in the parties of Egypt and US Democratic and Republican parties. It is noted that in Egypt, youth are involved in non-institutional and informal means of political participation - political movements (mobilized via the Internet and social networks), while official forms were not used. Comparing the two countries, the author demonstrated how the political participation of young people differs in the context of different countries. In Egypt, youth make up the bulk of population, around 60% under the age of 30, and should be seen as a “divine gift” for the prosperity of next generation, but lack of qualifications and education prevent them from running for office, perpetuating views about the corruption of political parties focused on one leader where there is no internal struggle and no connection with the ordinary citizen. All this has led to the rejection of youth from political parties, where additional factors such as the lack of sufficient resources to reach the broad masses in different regions, mistrust, and

reduced youth participation due to corruption, instability, splits, and conflicts are also added.

Country Analysis of Young Parliamentarians

An analysis of MPs - 2021 data by age group from 30 to 40 shows that the proportion of young parliamentarians under the age of 30 is about 10%, which is much lower compared to the age group under 40, which ranges from 30% to 40% (IPU -Parline, 2021). A special case in countries where the number of parliamentarians aged 40 reaches 50% is in Ukraine and Armenia. Moreover, statistics show that in Japan, South Korea, and Australia the share of young politicians is 0%. Therefore, a cross-country comparison of data on parliamentarians by age group (IPU - Parline, 2021) and the average age of the population of countries (The World Factbook) shows that in Japan, South Korea and Australia, the average age was 47,3 years, 41,8 years, and 39 years, which means that these countries are dominated by an older population than a younger one, explaining the low proportion of young people in politics (figure 1 and figure 2). Also, in contrast to the demographic challenges associated with replacing an older generation, the age requirements for potential parliamentarians vary from country to country (Stockemer and Sundstrom, 2018). If for Germany the age for nomination is 18 years, then in Tajikistan it is up to 35 years. Thus, formal restrictions hinder youth access to parliament. Additionally, in a study of newspaper articles (about 26,543) for the period 1999–2014, corruption scandals taking place in Italy produced negative perceptions among voters (Giommoni, 2021). Due to corruption, the turnout of older generation of voters in municipal elections is not only reduced, but the election of new candidates is also reduced, in contrast to existing politicians.

Therefore, such corruption scandals affect the long-term political participation of young people, because, having caused a negative image among the older generation once, the young segment of society with distrust, and then less and less run for candidates of a representative body, in addition, the problem of corruption is even more aggravated existing demographic problems of “generational replacement”. The likelihood of old candidates and politicians being elected will be high, which will affect local politics in Italy (Giommoni, 2021). In addition, the sensitivity of civil influence on politics is reduced (Olsson, 2014). The author applied a quantitative research method using ISSP in a survey of more than 29,299 people from different countries. The results showed that corruption is a deterrent. But unlike Giommoni (2021), Olsson (2014) and Warren (2013) argue about the risks of undermining people's self-expression through voting, that their opinions will not influence the establishment of democratic values when decisions are made on a corrupt basis. Similarly, Stockemer and Sundstrom (2013), Dahlberg and Solevid (2013) agree on the negative effects of corruption on voter turnout and undermining democratic values. Therefore, corruption appears to play an important role in building public confidence in politics but is also a deterrent to youth participation in traditional forms of voting and participation in elections.

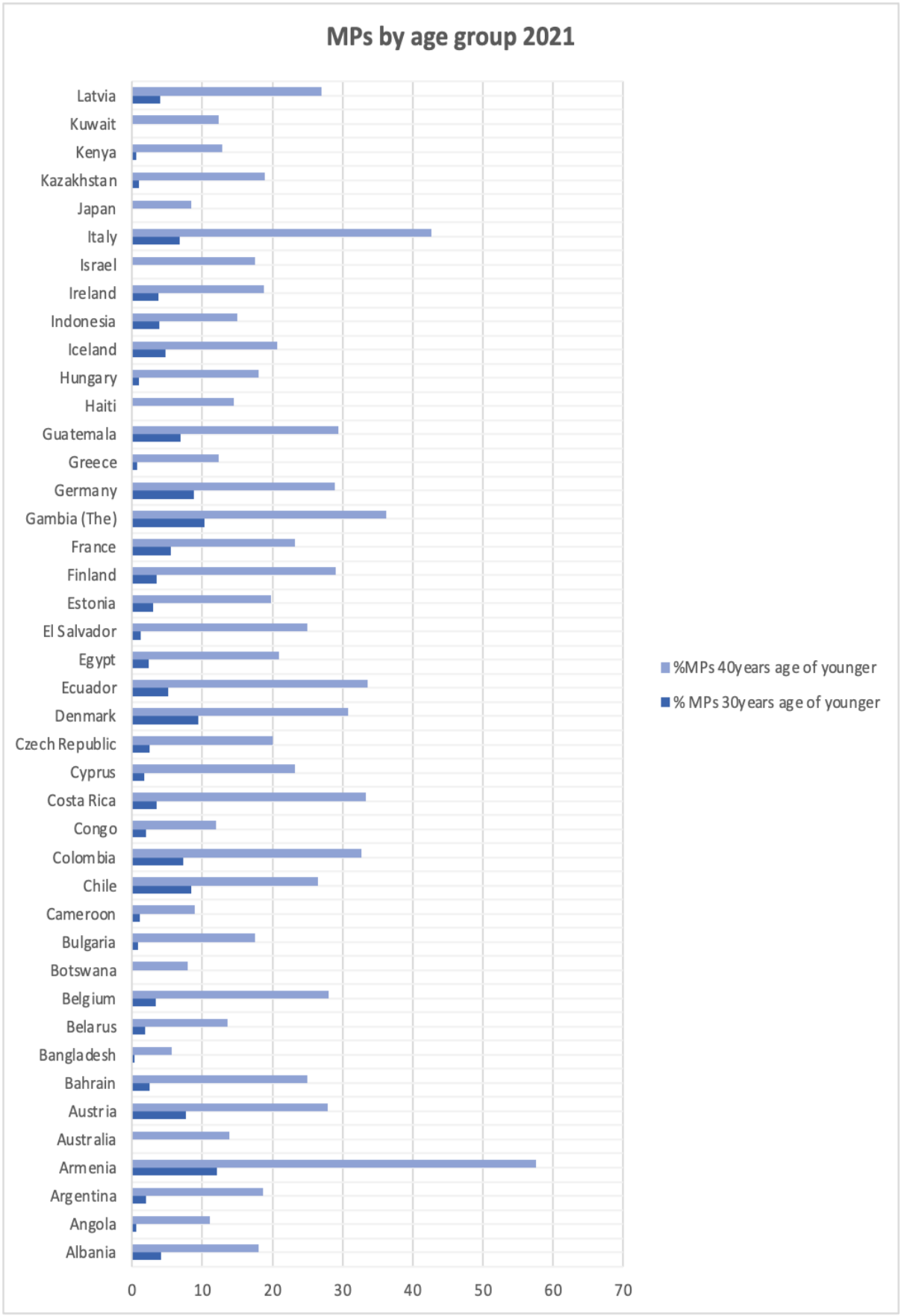


Figure 1. The level of MPs by Age Group in Country Aspect for 2021 (1)
Source: Processed by Author (2021)

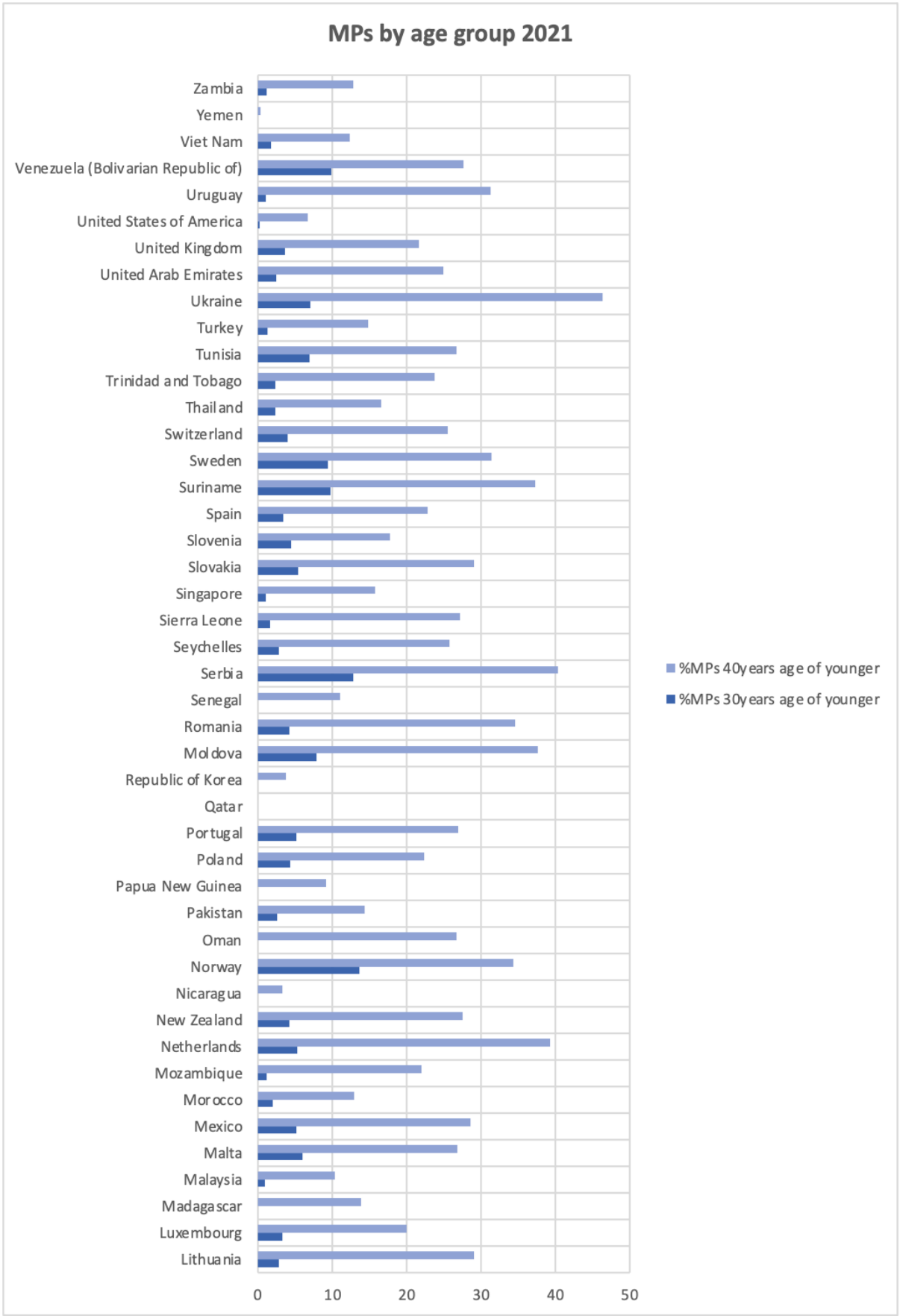


Figure 2. The level of MPs by Age Group in Country Aspect for 2021 (2)
Source: Processed by Author (2021)

While there is a vast body of literature on corruption and youth political participation, this literature is presented in isolation, there are no in-depth empirical studies on the relationship between youth in politics and corruption, and the scope of study was country-specific, while this study includes a huge sample of cross-country sampling and quantitative data analysis. Following the generally accepted hypotheses that voter turnout is low when corruption is high (Olsson, 2014; Ji Yun Kim, 2019 and others), we correct and derive the following hypotheses from the above literature review.
H-1: Ceteris paribus, a high level of corruption will have a negative impact on young candidates for deputies.
H-2: Ceteris paribus, having an education will have a positive impact on youth participation in politics.
H-3: Ceteris paribus, youth e-participation has a positive relationship with youth presence in politics.
H-4: Other things being equal, there is a significant negative relationship between the age of the population and the presence of youth in politics.

Data analysis: Dependent, Independent and Control Variables

To test above hypotheses, the dependent variable is youth in politics according to the Inter-Parliamentary Union data and the independent variable corruption taken from the Corruption Perceptions Index. Other independent variables were separated into data on e-participation index, education and freedom of press and voting rights and accountability, rule of law, political stability. We included online services, government efficiency and age as control variables to eliminate biasness (Table 1).

Table 1. Factors Affecting Youth Presence in Parliament
Source: Processed by Author (2021)

Variables/Year of Publication Index	Description/Measure	Source
Corruption Perception Index (2021, CPI)	Based on score: 100- very clean and 0-highly corrupt. CPI divide states according to corruption perception in public sector	Transparency International Reports
Education Index (2018, HDI)	Based on score: 1-Highest Human development; 0 – Lowest Human Development. Index includes 2/3 weighting adult literacy and 1/3 enrollment of education	Report Human Development (UNDP)
E-participation Index (2018, EPI)	Based on Index: Higher – Better from 0-1 Government provides information to citizen through system E-government and citizens using information in decision making	E-Government Survey, UN
Median Age Index (2018, MA)	Based on age structure from 0 to 65 and over. Age Index provides information on population age distribution	World Factbook, UN
Press Freedom Index (2018, WPI)	Based on score: 0- complete freedom and 100 – non complete freedom. It is annual state ranking which is based on evaluation of Reporters Without Borders in previous year	World Press Freedom Index, RWB
Voice and Accountability (2018, VA)	Based on range: -2,5 – weak and 2,5 – strong Participation of citizens in Government Elections, free expression and media	Worldwide Governance Indicators
Rule of Law (2018, RL)	Based on range: -2,5 – weak and 2,5 – strong The trust of citizens and abideness to the rules of society, namely to the police, courts, contract enforcement and property rights	Worldwide Governance Indicators
Political Stability and Violence Absence (PSVA, 2018)	Based on range: -2,5 – weak and 2,5 – strong Likelihood of destabilization of government and unconstitutionally overthrown as well as politically motivated violence	Worldwide Governance Indicators
Online Service (OS, 2018)	Based on Index: Higher – Better from 0-1 Government official website provide information and easy access to information and time of acquiring information	E-Government Survey, UN

The study used multiple regression analysis to test the above hypotheses, running in STATA program. Each variable was functionally defined in table 1. While the study model is presented in figure 3.

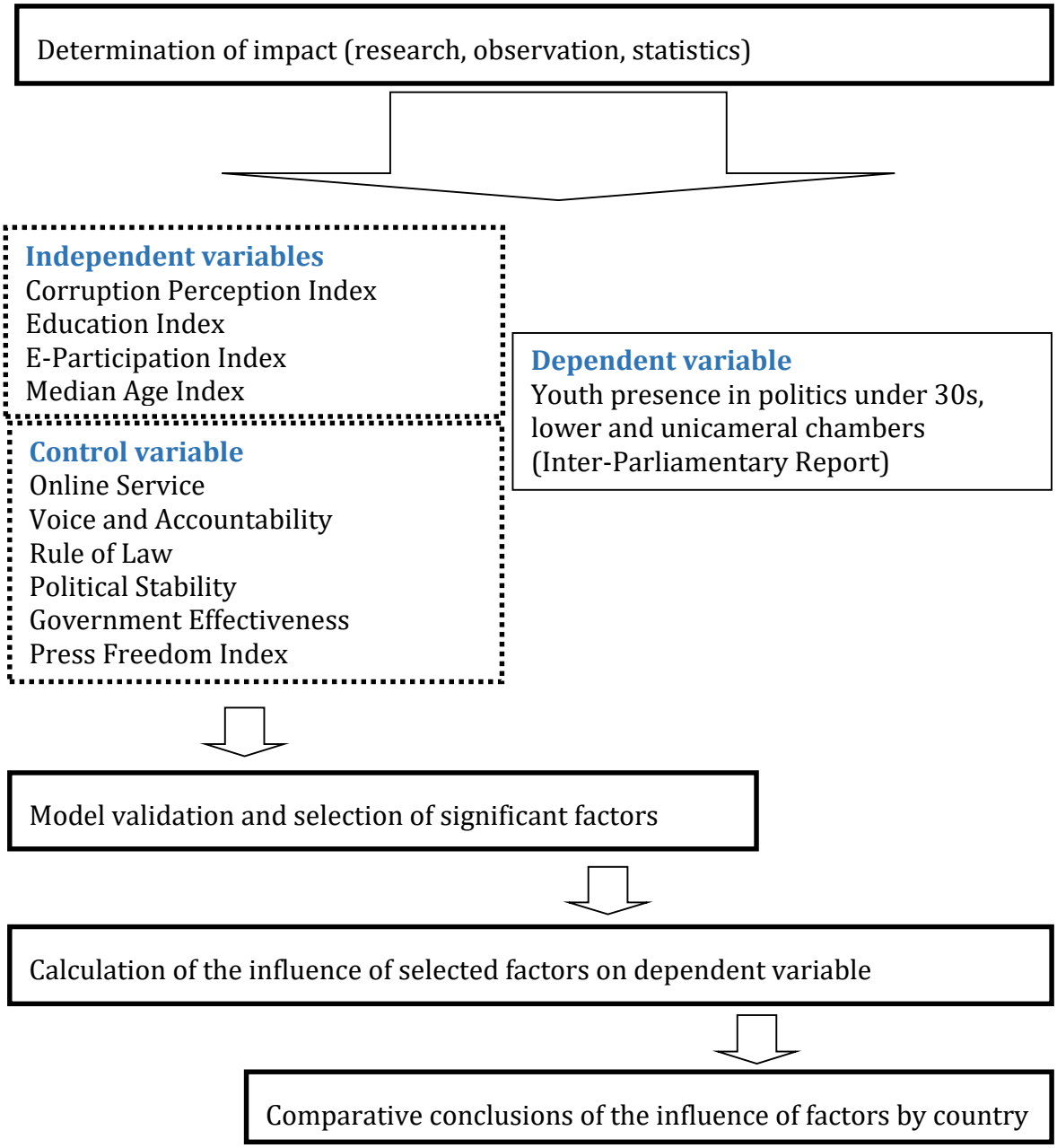


Figure 3. Structure of Factors Influencing on the Youth Presence in Politics
Source: Processed by Author (2021)

In accordance with the above model and using STATA program, the reliability between the presented independent and control variables and youth in politics under 30 years old (in the lower and unicameral chambers) will be determined.

Prior to regression analysis, the data will be checked for outliers through student residuals and Cook's D and processed (Figure 4). As you can see, observations like Norway and Gambia are listed as outliers in the dataset.

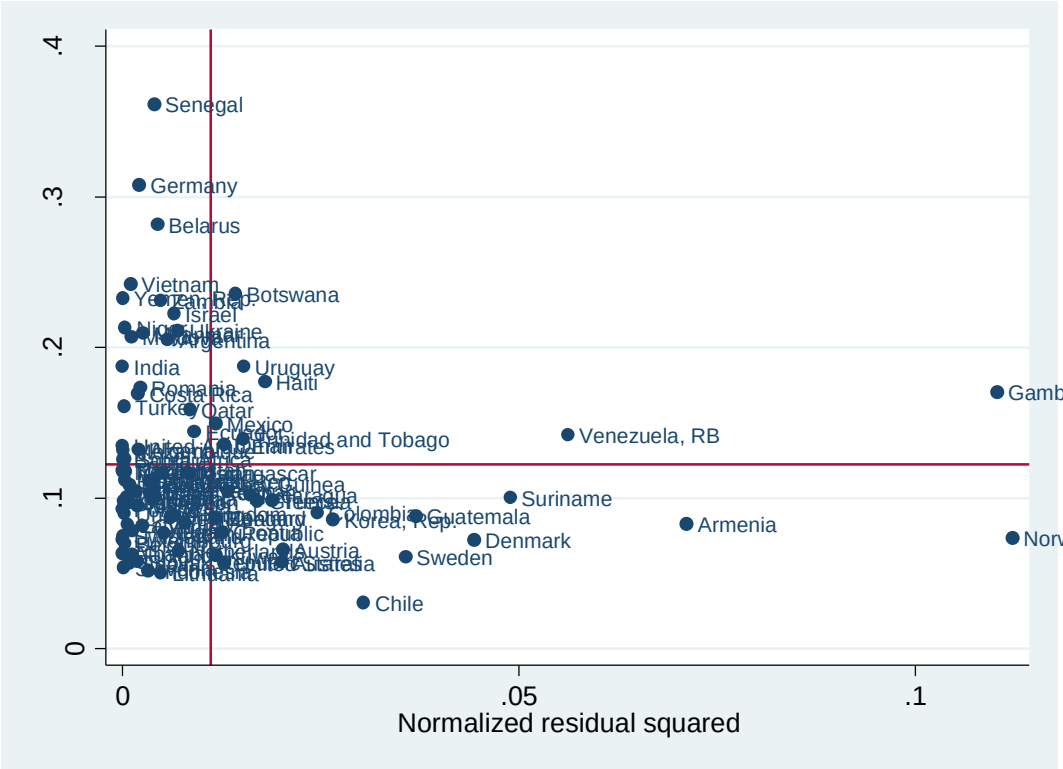


Figure 4. Cross-Country Analysis of Outliers
Source: Processed by Author (2021)

These problems are fixed by discarding such outliers and then running a multicollinearity test that shows that multicollinearity shows up in metrics like E-PartIndex (17,54). In this connection, E-PartIndex is excluded from the model. Finally, the linear regression model is run (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of Regression in the Country Aspect
Source: Processed by Author (2021)

	MPs30age
CPI	*-0.146*
	(3.312)
PresFreed	*-0.015*
	(0.033)
EducIndex	*5.924*
	*(2.99)**
OnlineServIndex	*2.410*
	(1.671)
VA	*3.291*
	(2.446)
PV	*-2.695*
	(3.573)
GE	*4.113*
	*(1.956)**
RL	*-0.364*
	(2.036)
age	*0.010*
	(0.0526)
_cons	*-0.892*
N	*84*
R	*0.29*

The interpretation of the results of regression equation is that a 1 percent increase in the level of education leads to an increase in young parliamentarians under the age of 30 by an average of 5,92 percent. Whereas with an increase in bureaucratic quality by 1 unit, the number of young parliamentarians increases by 4,11 units. These results provide partial support for hypotheses. The hypothesis regarding the negative impact of corruption on the reduction of young parliamentarians was not confirmed due to the lack of significance in the indicators. Whereas the education hypothesis showed a positive relationship between youth in parliament and education. The e-participation hypothesis was rejected due to the presence of high multicollinearity, and finally the latter hypothesis did not show statistical significance between age and young parliamentarians.

Conclusion

The article used a regression analysis of corruption perceptions index, education, e-participation, freedom of the press and others in order to assess the impact on the presence of youth in Parliament in various states. From the country analysis of young parliamentarians for 2021, it is noticeable that the highest % (about 10%) of young MPs aged 30 and under are observed in the Gambia, Denmark, Armenia, Serbia and Norway, and the lowest % in Kenya, Bangladesh, Angola, Yemen and others.

The results of the study indicate that education and government effectiveness contribute to increasing the level of youth representation in Parliament. The factor of education had a strong influence on young parliamentarians for all selected countries, since it is educated young people who most often learn about the changes taking place in the political system, make decisions and participate in the political processes of the state. Meanwhile, an important basis for the active participation of educated youth in electoral processes is the factor government effectiveness. We also see the strong influence of effective government on the presence of young people in Parliament.

At the same time, we note that statistics of young parliamentarians do not reflect potential candidates for deputies who are on the reserve lists of the party. In addition, the article uses only a quantitative research method. Therefore, despite the fact that statistics on youth parliamentarians show some definite trend, it would be interesting to include candidates on the reserve party lists in the study, and also to apply a mixed research method for further in-depth study, since the availability of a qualitative method will allow expressing the contextual and cultural characteristics of countries, which are difficult to capture with statistics.

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