# Collective Monograph

# Training of Specialists in Language Activity and Professional Communication

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# "TRANING OF SPECIALISTS IN LANGUAGE ACTIVITY AND PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION"

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# Section 3

# "Actual problems of education and personal development"

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## PECULIARITIES AND STUDYING OF GENDER NORMS, PRACTICES AND PROCESSES IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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*Abstract. The article deals with methodological peculiarities of studying gender norms and practices in the public civil service. Such norms and practices are of interest because the civil service is characterised by a clearly pronounced vertical gender segregation: women make up the majority of the employed, but their number is sharply reduced at higher levels of decision-making. Stoller in the second half of the 20th century to refer to social sex as opposed to the concept of gender, `biological sex`, which reflects the biological differences between women and men (anatomical and anatomical).*

*The term `biological sex` reflects the biological differences between women and men (anatomical, genetic, physiological). Gender refers to the universal biological differences between women and men. Gender is a system of values, norms and characteristics of masculine and feminine behaviour patterns, lifestyles, roles and relations of women and men, acquired by them as individuals in the process of socialisation. The system of values, norms and characteristics of masculine and feminine behaviours, lifestyles, roles and relations of women and men acquired by them as individuals in the process of socialisation. Gender refers not just to women or men, but to the relations between them and the way in which these relations are socially constructed, i. e. the way society `constructs` them. Gender asymmetry means the disproportion of the share of men and women in a particular sphere of society (economy, politics, education) and reflects explicit or implicit gender inequality in this sphere. Gender as a social phenomenon manifests itself at two levels: societal (i. e. society as a whole) and individual. Gender division of labour is a gender-based distribution of different activities and roles. The gender division of labour is the gender-based distribution of various activities and roles between men and women.*

*Keywords: gender, gender in public administration, gendered organisations, gender inequality in organisations, implantations of gender, public service.*

**Introduction.** Definition of gender and basic concepts. The term 'gender' was coined by the American psychoanalyst R. Stoller in the second half of the 20th

century to refer to social sex as opposed to the concept of gender. The term 'gender' was introduced by American psychoanalyst R. Stoller in the second half of the 20th century to denote social sex in contrast to the concept of 'biological sex', which reflects the biological differences between women and men. The term 'biological sex' was introduced by the American psychoanalyst R. Stoller in the second half of the 20th century to refer to social sex in contrast to the concept of 'biological sex', which reflects the biological differences between women and men (anatomical and anatomical). The term 'biological sex' reflects the biological differences between women and men (anatomical, genetic, physiological). In order to define the term 'gender' and understand how it differs from sex, it is necessary to consider both terms. Gender refers to the universal biological differences between women and men. Only minor differences in roles can be attributed to biological differences. For example, only women can bear children.

**The research methodology** is practically all societies have some kind of sex-based. Gender is a fundamental category that refers to social sex as a cultural and social construct and social construct, as opposed to the category of biological sex [2]. Gender is a system of values, norms and characteristics of masculinity modelled by society and supported by social institutions. Gender is a system of values, norms and characteristics of male and female behaviour, lifestyle, roles and relations of women and men, acquired by them. Gender is a system of values, norms and characteristics of masculine and feminine behaviour patterns, lifestyles, roles and relations of women and men, acquired by them as individuals in the process of socialisation. The system of values, norms and characteristics of masculine and feminine behaviours, lifestyles, roles and relations of women and men acquired by them as individuals in the process of socialisation. Gender refers not simply to women or men, but to the relationship between them and to the ways in which they are socialised. Gender refers not just to women or men, but to the relations between them and the way in which these relations are socially constructed, i.e. the way society 'constructs' them. [3]. Today, in scientific practice, it is common to use the adjective 'gender' only.

**The purpose of the research** is to find out the psychological, social, and even economic challenges of the adjective 'gender' is now common in scientific practice only when it is necessary to emphasise biological differences between women and men. In all other cases, the adjective 'gender' is considered correct, e.g. gender roles, gender non-equality, gender socialisation. There are different ways of expressing the social understanding of gender differences [2]:

- through cultural symbols (e.g. 'female mother' and 'breadwinner father');

- through normative concepts in political, scientific and religious theories (e.g., traditional patriarchy and patriarchy.

The traditional patriarchal belief system prescribes that women should wear skirts in public places, love children, and have little knowledge of politics:

- through the social division of social spheres of activity on the basis of gender (e.g. the labour market for women and men);

- subjective perception of the individual as a woman or a man, i.e. identification of the individual as 'masculine'.

The subjective perception of the individual as a woman or a man, i.e. the identification of the self as 'masculine' or 'feminine', which gradually develops in the individual of each gender through modelling, reinforcement and socialisation.

**The research problem.** Gender is one of the ways of social stratification of society, which, in combination with such socio-demographic indicators as race, nationality, age, organises the system of social stratification. The gender system is a socially constructed system of inequality by sex.

Gender consciousness is constructed through the dissemination and maintenance of social and cultural stereotypes, norms and prescriptions, the violation of which is sanctioned by society, labelling. Gender consciousness is influenced by gender stereotypes and gender ideals [4]. Gender stereotypes are special social attitudes, simple in form primitive and inaccurate in content, accompanied by an exaggerated sensual evaluation of ideas about men and women, their roles and status. Gender roles are learned behaviours that guide activities, tasks and status, tasks and responsibilities that are perceived as masculine and feminine.

**Relevance of the research.** Gender roles are fluid, changeable and diverse, both within one culture and across cultures. Roles in society are not predetermined by gender; they are conditioned by social structures that either support gender equality or exacerbate it [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]. The gender systems of different societies are not identical, but they are all asymmetrical.

Gender asymmetry means the disproportion of the share of men and women in a particular sphere of society (economy, politics, education) and reflects explicit or implicit gender inequality in this sphere [3]. It is understood as a disproportionate representation of social and cultural roles of both sexes, as well as representations of them in various spheres of life.

**The aim of the article.** The article deals with methodological peculiarities of studying gender norms and practices in the public civil service. Such norms and practices are of interest because the civil service is characterised by a clearly pronounced vertical gender segregation: women make up the majority of the employed, but their number is sharply reduced at higher levels of decision-making. Based on the theoretical ideas of American researcher J. Acker, public authorities are conceptualised in this article as 'gendered organisations'. Although many researchers note the analytical potential of J. Acker's theory for studying gender processes in public administration, the existing empirical studies rarely provide a detailed operationalisation of all the main components of this theory. The article fills this theoretical and methodological gap. Gender as a social phenomenon manifests itself at two levels: societal (i.e. society as a whole) and individual. At the societal level, gender includes the following elements. Gender division of labour is a gender-based distribution of different activities and roles. The gender division of labour is the gender-based distribution of various activities and roles between men and women [2]. Women are traditionally assigned the role of the keeper of the home and men the role of the breadwinner. The gender division of labour is largely characteristic of industrialised countries. One can speak of a gender division of labour, where in a particular sector, one gender predominates over the other by more than 60% [9]. As a result of the gender division of labour, gender segregation of labour has emerged -

division of professions into male and female professions, with female professions being considered to be those related to women's functions in the family, family and labour market.

Women's professions were considered to be those related to women's functions in the family, e.g. educator, teacher, nurse, social worker, etc. [6, 7, 9]. Gender ideals are the socially established ideas of what a woman should be and what a man should be. The ideals of femininity and masculinity are the most important ideals [4]. Femininity is a model of behaviour prescribed by society to female representatives of the female sex, which is associated with dependence, insecurity, passivity, emotional, sentimentality [10, 8, 11, 9, 60]. Masculinity is a behavioural model prescribed by society to male representatives, which is associated with independence, activity, self-confidence, rationality, emotional restraint [10, 8, 11, 9]. From the point of view of gender approach, the model of behaviour is not biologically programmed, but is conditioned by the values of a particular culture. The highest level of proximity of femininity and masculinity traits achieved by an individual. The highest level of closeness of femininity and masculinity achieved by an individual indicates androgyny [8, 11, 12, 59]. Andro-androgynous individual has a greater choice of behavioural options and is more flexible in terms of integration into the social system. Gender biological scenarios of behaviour are normative patterns of sexual desire and sexual behaviour. In traditional society, heterosexual contacts are considered heterosexual contacts [13, 11, 14, 61]. Gender-based social control - on the one hand, formal or informal endorsement and rewarding of gender-appropriate behaviour, social exclusion, contempt and medical treatment of non-compliant behaviour [10, 8, 9].

Gender ideology is a system of ideas that justifies the existence of gender inequality in society. In a society characterised by the presence of patriarchal ideology, the centre of social life is male, he performs the functions of management [4, 12, 14,62]. At the individual level, gender is superimposed over the biological sex of an individual species and includes the following components [4, 12, 14]. Gender identity is a personal realisation and acceptance of one's belonging to a certain sex.

Gender identity determines the degree to which each individual identifies himself- or herself with a certain sex.

Gender identity is the internalised (i.e. included in the internal structure of the personality) patterns of behaviour, feelings and feelings and emotions that serve to strengthen family structures and the institution of motherhood and fatherhood [4].

Gender marital and reproductive status is fulfilment or refusal of marriage, childbearing, and kinship roles [7, 11]. Gender presentation is a demonstration of oneself as an individual belonging to a certain sex, through clothing, cosmetics, jewellery and kinship roles [7, 11].

**Objectives of the study.** Gender roles established in society impose serious restrictions on the behaviour of women and men behaviour of women and men. Thus, the restrictions imposed by the male gender role include [15, 16, 4]:

- the norm of success is the norm according to which the social value of a man is determined by the size of his income and the success of his career;

- the norm of anti-femininity is the norm according to which a man should avoid feminine occupations and behaviours; an attempt to avoid feminine occupations and behaviours. The norm of anti-femininity is the norm that men should avoid feminine activities and behaviours;

- toughness norm is the norm that men should be physically strong, knowledgeable and competent, strong, knowledgeable and competent, and able to solve his emotional problems without help.

The constraints imposed by the female gender role are manifested in the following areas, listed below [15, 16, 4, 17]. Family and marriage sphere: double burden of women (high time expenditures on household and child-rearing are combined with paid labour-work. The family and marriage sphere: double burden of women (high time expenditure on household and child-rearing is combined with paid employment), family violence, etc. Thus, according to Ukrainian studies, 70-80 per cent of housework is done by women, and every fifth woman is subjected to domestic violence, etc [17]. According to estimates of the World Bank in developing countries due to rape and domestic violence women aged 15 to 44 years lose up to 5% of their

healthy life expectancy. According to a study conducted by the World Health Organisation in 2013, globally, 38 in 38 countries in the world are affected by rape and domestic violence 38 per cent of murders of women worldwide are committed by intimate partners and 42 per cent by intimate partners. Employment: women are less likely to be active in the labour market; women are more likely to be the first candidates for dismissal. Women are more likely to be the first candidates for dismissal; women are concentrated in the so-called 'women's professions' which have lower wages; the overall structure of women's employment is shaped as follows. The general structure of women's employment is pyramidal: the higher the social status of women, the higher the social status of the labour force. The higher the social status of a position, the fewer women are in these positions; the higher the level of management, the fewer women are in these positions. Socio-political sphere: insufficient participation of women in decision-making and management of the state. According to Anders Johnson, Secretary General of the Inter-Parliamentary Union, women currently hold about 19 per cent of all parliamentary seats in the world. Among the heads of state there are only nine female representatives of the weaker sex [15, 19].

Ensuring gender equality and empowering all women and girls is one of the Sustainable Development Goals (Goal 5) adopted by the UN General Assembly on 25 September 2015. According to this resolution, each country shall form its own action plan, consistent with national legislation and assessments of developing regulations that have a regulatory impact. To achieve this goal, the National Action Strategy for Women, adopted in Ukraine in 2017, identified five directions for improving the gender situation, one of which is to increase women's participation in public and political life. This direction has a high priority, but most often the implementation of measures in this direction is accompanied by problems in ensuring an adequate level of women's representation and the degree of their participation in key political processes [30]. Hereinafter, political empowerment is understood as women's political empowerment, in other words, not only women's access to the decision-making process in the state, but also opportunities for its effective use.

**Scientific novelty.** The management sphere, especially in terms of leadership of large teams, is characterised by a clear dominance of men and insignificant representation of women [10]. This leads to a situation of vertical and sometimes horizontal segregation in the field of public administration, as well as generates gender imbalance in the most influential departments of the authorities, related to budgeting, financing, international relations, etc., where women may be represented to a greater extent. Departments where women may be better represented, however, are characterised by a cultural or social orientation, which prevents them from gaining access to key political positions to influence the decision-making process.

Given the increasing attention to the study and evaluation of gendered processes in public administration, there is a need to develop methodological approaches and adapt those used both in the field of gender studies and in the field of public service studies, in order to improve the quality of tools for data collection and analysis. It should be noted that this, in turn, requires the use of technologies of interdisciplinary approach, the possibilities of which are currently being widely discussed in social research [22].

**Research material.** Interdisciplinary research on the status of women in public administration is relevant not only at the level of political decision-making, but also at the level of civil servants. The authors in this thesis are based on the results of their own studies of civil servants, which confirm the need for qualitative research in the field of studying gender in public administration and expanding possible tools for collecting and analyzing the data obtained. In the context of public administration and the achievement of gender balance, the study of the prerequisites for the formation of gendered processes in public administration is of particular importance. This will be one of the tasks addressed in this paper. The methodological tool proposed in this paper can be used in conducting empirical research at the intersection of public administration and gender studies.

**Gender in public administration: framing the problem**

Theorists of representative bureaucracy argue that if an organization is demographically representative of the society it works for, the decisions made will be

consonant with the interests of all citizens of that society. This suggests that the representative inclusion of people of different classes, genders, ethnic groups in the political decision-making process, in which everyone 'votes' for the interests of their group, will achieve decisions that favour the entire public [15].

In most countries of the world, women are well represented in the public sector: they often occupy a significant proportion of jobs. However, most women work in lower and middle management positions, with relatively few reaching senior management positions. In fact, the State relies on women's labour, as it is women civil servants who do the routine paperwork. At the same time, women in state institutions - bureaucratised patriarchal hierarchies - are less likely to build a career and reach decision-making levels. According to Ukrainian State Statistics , 72% of civil servants in Ukraine are women. However, as the level of positions increases, the number of women is noticeably decreasing. For example, data for 2019 shows that while women make up 66% of managers (vs. 34% of men), they are 30% of senior managers (vs. 70% of men). If among assistants (advisors) women are 82 % (against 18 % of men), their share among top advisors more than halves to 33 %, while the number of men, on the contrary, triples to 68 % [20]. Thus, the public service is characterized by a pronounced vertical gender segregation, and public authorities become 'gendered organization. As J. Acker argued, the concept of gendered organization implies that 'advantage and disadvantage, exploitation and control, actions and emotions, meanings and identities are distributed according to the idea of differences between men and women, masculinity and femininity' [1].

In this regard, analysing the work of public authorities only from the perspective of public administration theory limits the possibilities of understanding the phenomenon of women's under-representation at the decision-making level, given that they make up the majority of all those employed in the public sector. Nevertheless, when describing and analyzing the work of civil servants, a civil servant is usually understood as a man whose work takes priority over everything else and who has a wife who takes care of all personal (and often professional) issues [21]. This approach to civil service research, which normalizes 'male' careers and

problematises 'female' careers, discriminates against many women who have to bear the burden of a double burden. For example, under the 'working mother' gender contract, they cannot allocate additional time beyond the 40-hour working week because of childcare and other domestic responsibilities [29]. However, women and men in public administration are formally subject to the same requirements. The high demands of professional duties for women in public service and career building remain incompatible with what is expected of them as women. Moreover, when it comes to a man with family responsibilities, public administration is also not within his position. Nevertheless, the problems of employees with family responsibilities are usually gendered, because according to the stereotypes prevalent in society, it is women who to a greater extent perform domestic work on a par with professional employment [14].

In the foreign literature on gender in public administration in recent years, there has been a debate on what methodology is most appropriate for the study of this topic. In particular, it is discussed how to optimally operationalise the concept of gender for studying processes in organization. A meta-analysis of 70 quantitative studies examining the relationship between gender and organisational performance indicates that most of them found a positive impact of a more gender-balanced workforce on the performance of public institutions [25]. In the literature, the impact of gender is usually studied at the individual and organisational levels. At the individual level, the attitudes or behaviours of male and female public servants, such as their leadership styles, are compared [12]. At the organisational level, gender is measured as the ratio of men to women or the proportion of female employees [23]. This operationalisation has clear advantages. Nevertheless, the problems of employees with family responsibilities are usually gendered, because according to the stereotypes prevalent in society, it is women who to a greater extent perform domestic work on a par with professional employment [14].

**Gender in public administration: research methodology**

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gender for studying processes in organisations. A meta-analysis of 70 quantitative studies examining the relationship between gender and organisational performance indicates that most of them found a positive impact of a more gender-balanced workforce on the performance of public institutions [25]. In the literature, the impact of gender is usually studied at the individual and organisational levels. At the individual level, the attitudes or behaviours of male and female public servants, such as their leadership styles, are compared [12]. At the organisational level, gender is measured as the ratio of men to women or the proportion of female employees [23]. This operationalisation has clear advantages. Such operationalisation has clear advantages. For example, researchers using it have been able to prove on the basis of massive empirical data that increasing the share of women among employees up to the so-called critical mass leads to a change in gender norms in the organisation [7].

At the same time, this way of measuring gender has been criticised. In particular, it has been labelled as an approach that takes women as an independent variable [22;938], or a nominal approach to the study of gender in the public service [21;63]. In other words, from the critics' point of view, this mode of gender measurement fails to capture a) the multiplicity of identities and experiences of individuals [22], and b) the variety of mechanisms through which gender norms create and sustain inequalities between men and women in the public service [21]. For example, one study that adopts this approach suggests using the proportion of female staff as a measure of the amount of emotional labour [23]. The authors acknowledge that research in public administration has established that women are more likely to be required to perform emotional labour and that devaluing this type of work in organisations leads to lower pay for female employees [12].

In doing so, they test the following hypothesis: organisations with more emotional labour (i.e. a higher proportion of female employees) will have higher levels of employee satisfaction and productivity, and lower turnover rates. However, proponents of using this measure of the impact of gender on organisational performance miss the point that even if organisations benefit from emotional labour

(i.e. have higher productivity), such labour is not paid for, and this exacerbates gender inequality.

One approach that is seen as offsetting the weaknesses of gender 'nominalism' is the study of gender norms, practices and processes in public organisations [21;867]. This approach is based on the theory of gendered organisations (theory of gendered organisations), first systematised by American researcher J. Acker [1, 2]. Relying on Acker's theory in her study of gender processes in US men's and women's prisons, D. M. Britton found that although practices such as induction seminars for new staff were formally defined as gender-neutral, the teachers leading the seminars unconsciously imagined the ideal staff member as a man [3]. For example, the particular problems experienced by female prison officers were glossed over (e.g. sexual harassment by prisoners), while emphasising the need to be physically strong and ready to interact with violent prisoners on a regular basis, despite the fact that prison officers are predominantly bureaucratic and supervisory. D.M. Britton concludes that such gender-neutral rules and practices reproduce gender segregation and inequality [3]. Another study based on the theory of J. Acker demonstrates similar results. Analysing the opportunities and obstacles to the career development of women scientists in technical fields at an American university, J. Hart shows, for example, that women often could not satisfy the gender-neutral requirement to conduct research with colleagues for promotion because they were not accepted into informal groups of male colleagues [13].

Despite the popularity of J. Acker's theory of gendered organisations, it is cited in many studies but not fully applied for analysis [8]. A content analysis of 38 articles from the field of research on organisations and higher education institutions showed that only about a third of them used all components of J. Acker's theory [17].

This partial application of the theory leads to the inability to demonstrate how the processes that produce and maintain gender inequality in an organisation interact with each other [17].

Modern researchers have repeatedly referred to J. Acker's theory, but they have used it either to discuss the structure of organisations and workplace hierarchies

in general, including in the context of gender segregation [7], or when trying to reflect on private subjects, for example, those related to the balance of life and work.

In addition, the existing foreign studies rarely provide a detailed operationalisation of all five main components of the theory of gendered organisations. The next part of the paper details the elements of this theory and their possible operationalisation.

## Peculiarities and problems of empirical study of gendered processes in public administration organisations

J. Acker's theory about the influence of organisational culture and working atmosphere on gendered processes remains relevant in the framework of modern research [1,2]. On the one hand, this theory directs the focus of attention not only to structures and macro-processes, but also to practices of interaction on the ground. On the other hand, the application of this theory in empirical work poses a complex task for researchers to operationalise the components of gendered processes in the course of research implementation. In our opinion, the task becomes more complicated when studying the sphere of public administration, as there is a need to take into account the level and effectiveness of women's political empowerment in the state, the peculiarities of motivation of civil servants, as well as the existing structure of government bodies. Another important feature is the close connection of the civil service with publicness, which reinforces the effects of institutionalised gender norms existing in society, so the study of power asymmetrical relations in various aspects of the work and organisational process becomes even more relevant.

This section addresses the methodological complexity and particularities of measuring gendered processes in the workplace. The methodological reflection presented here draws on the experience of empirical research on civil servants. Emphasis is placed on the detailed operationalisation of the components of gendered

processes, the collection of data about them and the potential problems that researchers may encounter.

The focus is on the detailed operationalisation of the components of the gendered processes, the collection of data about them and the potential problems that researchers may encounter. Given the difficulties in operationalising the components of these processes, it should be noted that qualitative methods, such as in-depth interviews, have an advantage for the study of public administration employees, as they promote openness and greater reflexivity on the part of the respondents.

In addition to interviews, surveys are also used in the research practice of studying gendered processes, but, in our opinion, as a tool they have a number of limitations in establishing a trusting contact between the interviewer and the respondent and limit the respondent's reflection on the answers. Our experience in studying civil servants shows that, although respondents sometimes initially denied the presence of gender-based injustices (e.g. discrimination), as the conversation progressed they were able to change their minds: recalling details of conversations with colleagues, explaining in more detail practices in the workplace, i.e. noting details that had previously seemed insignificant to them.

According to J. Acker's theory, there are five main components of gendered processes within an organisation: 1) the division of labour and responsibilities between men and women; 2) the construction of symbols, images that explain, support or question the established differences and division of labour and responsibilities between men and women; 3) practices of interaction in the workplace; 4) the process related to the construction of one's own identity and comprehension of one's place in the organisational hierarchy, as well as performative practices that constitute the main routine actions performed at work; 5) reproduced within the workspace; and 3) the processes of gendered processes within the organisation [1, 2].

If we talk about using interviews as the main method of data collection, it is important to note that the fifth component (reproduced social structures and institutionalised norms of behaviour) can be analysed only in contextual dependence

on the culture of the society in which the studied organisational environment is located.

Under the first component (division of labour and responsibilities between men and women), researchers should consider both formal and informal indicators. Formal indicators refer to wage levels for the same position held by men and women with the same set of authority for them, as well as differences in the set of formal and informal authority and responsibilities, or lack thereof. These indicators are widely used in economic sociology in measuring gender segregation in the labour market [32;27]. To obtain information on informal aspects of the division of labour and responsibilities, we propose to focus on the peculiarities of the career trajectory of men and women, as well as on the study of the presence or absence of purely 'masculine' and purely 'feminine' tasks.

Measuring the construction of symbols and images seems to be a more difficult but feasible task. In order to obtain valid information about cultural processes in the workplace, it is first of all necessary to pay attention to the metaphors, associations and images that respondents use when describing their work process, their experiences and the ideal image of a worker in the professional environment under study. Metaphors are understood here as 'culturally rich verbal judgements' or other verbal symbols that can carry information about respondents' interpretations [6; 28].

Dress code is one of the significant aspects through which gendered processes manifest themselves within an organisation. Dress code is involved in the process of identity construction and can be used as a tool of control [18, 19]. Dress code requirements are sometimes different for men and women, and this affects the manifestation of femininity and masculinity of employees in the organisation. The way of dressing and other external attributes are part of the identification display that openly shows to which group an individual belongs. From the point of view of the theory of C. West and D. Zimmerman, this aspect is closely related to the gender display, the latter is manifested in general in the behaviour of an individual and also reflects the way it is perceived and marked by others [31; 129-130]. In our study, the question about dress code and its changes was included in one of the main blocks of

the interview guide, but, characteristically, none of the respondents indicated a significant difference in this aspect or the inconvenience associated with it. Nevertheless, the experience of previous empirical studies indicates the significance of dress code, which can be manifested in other professions and spheres of activity.

The space of images and symbols (the second component) is also reflected in the language and discursive practices adopted in the workplace, along with the dress code and the construction of symbols, through which hierarchies and asymmetrical power relations can be explored [26; 10]. The way in which communication between men and women in the workplace differs, both in form and content, is one of the indicators of gendered processes and their impact on the structure of workplace interaction.

Interaction practices primarily indicate the degree of conflict in the environment and alternatives in the channels of interaction between colleagues at work. When investigating gendered processes, it is necessary to focus on the differences in communication rules and channels of interaction between men and women, something that will be investigated in the next section of the study [33;24]. The degrees of inclusiveness and horizontality of the interaction system indicate the formation of basic networks of communication from which workers can be excluded on the basis of gender (e.g. the existence of informal ways of interaction outside work for which only men or only women are considered appropriate). At the same time, online communication and the digitalisation of the workplace interaction space must also be taken into account in the modern context [4]: respondents use social networks and other communication platforms for their daily work interaction, so it is possible to take into account not only offline activity.

The most difficult is to conceptualise and measure is the component of constructing one's own identity. The difficulties arising from gathering information about the respondent's identity and how it relates to the gendered process in the workplace primarily arise from the potential lack of reflection on this by the respondent. The construction of identity may remain unarticulated, this fact creates difficulties in the collection of empirical data. In the study it is possible to solve this

problem through the indicator of realisation of one's own position in the collective. It can be assumed that the identity of an employee/worker can be recorded through reflection on his/her role and responsibilities not in terms of formal distribution of authority, but in terms of his/her own assessment of his/her significance in informal communication and his/her informal role in the collective, for example, as a leader or, on the contrary, as an outsider.

Thus, the conflict between the construction of identity and the actual distribution of roles in the team can be captured by asking questions about the difficulties and opportunities for the employee/worker to move from one position to another and to assume a role in the team different from the current one. An equally important aspect is the assessment of the degree of conflict between the representatives of both genders, which makes it possible to determine whether there is a significant difference in the interaction between men and women in the workplace and what consequences this may lead to.

Considering the main methodological features of studying gender processes in public administration, from the point of view of the theory of sociologist J. Acker, public service bodies act as 'gendered organisations' and are a source of empirical material for studying gender imbalance. Despite the popularity and frequent citation of the main principles of this theory, researchers rarely provide a detailed description of how the main components of the theory can be operationalised in data collection. This article proposes such an operationalisation, drawing on both existing literature and the authors' methodological reflection on their experience of collecting information "in the field", namely through interviews with women in the public service. Interviews were conducted only with female civil servants, as the authors studied perceptions of changes in gendered organizational processes in the context of measures against COVID-19 (for example, remote work), which, as other studies have shown, had more negative consequences for women [5; 6]. However, in the future it seems possible to continue this research, enriching it with materials from interviews with male civil servants. In the future, it is possible to refine these indicators, as well as use the measurement of gendered processes based on the theory

of J. Acker when using other methods of data collection (for example, surveys and focus groups).

Moreover, the gender of theorists is an important factor because there is increasing attention to gender equity and inclusion in both public administration practice and research, and theorizing is a creative process that often benefits from demographic diversity [34]. This comprehensive edited work examines the intersection of gender with policy and practice, tracing the discipline's historical trajectory, current status, and future directions. Roddrick Colvin, in the foreword, rightly underscores the urgent need for this work, emphasizing that men have taken too long to acknowledge and embrace their responsibility in advancing gender equity in public administration. In short, as recognized by Pandey, Newcomer, DeHart-Davis, Johnson, and Riccucci, this book is both timely and impactful [35]. The book is organized into an introduction and three comprehensive sections. The first section explores the theoretical and historical foundations, the second section delves into the core pillars of public administration, and the third section examines the various contexts of gender within the field. Spanning 27 chapters, the book addresses a wide range of topics related to gender, policy, and the public sector, offering a thorough overview of the field's past, present, and necessary future developments. In the introductory chapter of this book, co-editors Patricia M. Shields and Nicole M. Elias [36]. They offer a critical analysis of the field's historical exclusion of women, arguing that this overlooked history remains a present-day issue. The authors stress that students of public administration should recognize that both men and women play significant roles in shaping the field. They acknowledge Camilla Stivers for being the first to highlight women's contributions, noting that women were practicing the New Public Administration paradigm long before men received recognition for it. Additionally, they point to the COVID-19 pandemic as a pivotal event that laid bare the depth of gender inequities, using it as a central focus for their examination of gender in the public sphere.Following the introduction, the first section of the book delves into the historical and theoretical underpinnings of gender studies within public administration. It brings to light historically marginalized works and ideas,

particularly focusing on gender theory. This section not only addresses existing gaps in the literature but also adopts a broader perspective on gender, examining intersectionality and the interplay between gender, race, and sexual orientation. Chapter 2 revisits Camilla Stivers's Gender Images in Public Administration, summarizing her arguments about the dominance of masculine ideals in the field's leadership [37]. Chapter 3 traces Florence Nightingale's influence on public administration, rooted in an ethic of care [38]. Chapter 4 uses Jane Addams's metaphor of women's long historical memory to reassess the narrative of American public administration, integrating concepts of gender, care, and social justice from the Progressive and New Deal eras. Subsequent chapters further explore gender as a construct [39]. Chapter 5 investigates the theory, practice, and scholarship of emotional labor, connecting it to gender and public administration. Chapter 6 [39] suggests that scholars in public administration should consciously study hegemonic masculinity to gain a more complete understanding of how gender shapes public organizations. Chapter 7 discusses moving beyond the gender binary, celebrating strides, and the addition of a non-binary gender option on official documents [41]. Finally, Chapter 8 uses the concept of intersectionality to address the challenges black women face in leadership, highlighting the importance of an intersectional approach to studying and practicing public administration [42]. Thus, this section offers an excellent overview of the gendered history of public administration, illustrating how this history continues to shape contemporary practice and scholarship. It demonstrates how emerging approaches can help advance the field for scholars and practitioners alike. As the most crucial part of the handbook, it sets the stage for the subsequent chapters by providing essential context. The only downside or perhaps the positive aspect-is that it leaves readers wanting more.The second section offers a detailed analysis of public administration's functions through a gender lens, providing valuable insights for practitioners. It features scholarship on common topics such as bureaucracy, human resources, ethics, and budgeting, all examined with a gendered perspective. Chapter 9 discusses the global adoption of gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) to promote gender equality through equitable

resource allocation and revenue generation, highlighting successful initiatives and policy outcomes across over 80 countries [43]. Chapter 10 reviews recent scholarship on gender in public personnel administration from 2008 to 2019, categorizing research into themes of exclusivity, incentives, career advancement, and hazards [44]. Chapter 11 examines Jane Addams's philosophical contributions and her leadership in public service, emphasizing her feminist and pragmatist approach that redefines professional values and positions social equity as a core aspect of administrative ethics [45].The subsequent chapters explore diverse aspects of gender within public organizations, including gender norms, organizational structures, the nonprofit sector, representative bureaucracy theory, and performance measurement systems. Each chapter provides a thorough analysis of the challenges and opportunities in striving for gender equality in public administration. Chapter 12 and Chapter 14 emphasize the issue of representation, highlighting that women and gender non-conforming individuals remain underrepresented in the public sector due to entrenched masculine norms and practices within organizational culture [47]. These chapters provide valuable material for teaching about diversity, equity, and inclusion in public administration and organizational studies.Chapter 13 takes a historical and forward-looking view of nonprofit administration, showcasing its feminine origins [45]. Chapter 15 examines the pivotal role of organizational culture in promoting social equity, noting that women-led organizations often outperform their male-led counterparts despite the additional challenges women face in the workplace. It also demonstrates how performance measurement can support gender equity objectives [46]. Chapter 16 investigates the neglected nexus of gender and public service motivation, underscoring the importance of organizational culture in the public sector and showing that different aspects of public service motivation can affect men and women differently. In summary, this section provides a thorough examination of the challenges and opportunities in achieving gender equality within public administration [47]. It highlights how traditional aspects of the field can be reevaluated through a gendered lens, offering valuable insights for advancing public administration toward greater equity and inclusion. The analysis effectively illustrates

how gender dynamics influence the field and provides practical recommendations for fostering a more inclusive landscape.

**Conclusions.** However, while the chapters present important insights, a broader inclusion of international perspectives would significantly deepen the analysis and increase its global relevance. Although the section addresses gender-responsive budgeting and gender scholarship from an international viewpoint, the section is largely focused on developed nations, offering limited representation of developing or underdeveloped countries. For example, discussions on the disadvantages women face in the public sector, gender roles in the nonprofit sector, representative bureaucracy, and public service motivation lack an international perspective. Exploring how different forms of marginalization-like poverty, class, caste, and other social factors-intersect with gender as a power structure would have added further depth to the analysis.In the third and final section, the handbook broadens the discussion to include international perspectives, which are essential for developing inclusive models for understanding gender dynamics beyond conventional frameworks. Chapters 17 to 27 cover a diverse array of topics, including second-generation gender bias, the global impact of the #MeToo movement, challenges that women face in military roles, and evolving gender terminology in public administration. Chapter 17 compellingly tackles deceptive forms of gender bias in public administration, showing how workplace gender bias has evolved, particularly focusing on second-generation gender bias [48]. This chapter provides nuanced insights that enhance classroom learning in gender-specific courses.Chapter 18 explores how federal and state workplace legal requirements have changed in response to the MeToo movement, highlighting the organized protest and policy changes it has spurred. Chapters 19 and 20 focus on women's roles in administration [49]. Chapter 19 replicates a 1986 study on Utah women administrators with a 2016 survey, finding persistent salary disparities and noting that contemporary women administrators are more likely to be married with small children [50]. Chapter 20 Wayman, Ashley, Samantha Alexander, and Patricia M. uses résumé data from Texas City managers and survey data from women in the city manager pipeline,

recommending mentoring programs to increase the proportion of women city managers [51]. Chapters 21 to 23 examine gender dimensions in broader policy contexts. Hatch, Megan E. reveals how seemingly gender-neutral housing programs can result in gender discrimination through disparate impacts, despite the United States outlawing gender discrimination in housing in 1974 [52]. Chapter 22 discusses the multiple representation challenges women face in natural resource conservation agencies due to the historically masculine nature of the agricultural sector [53]. Chapter 23 recounts the uneven progress of women's integration into militarizes worldwide[54]. Chapters 24 to 26 delve into gender in academia and policy. Chapter 24 examines gendered dimensions in public administration scholarship, highlighting disparities in who produces scholarship and its influence. Despite women filling graduate public administration classes, they are less likely to achieve full professorship or leadership positions. Chapter 25 explores the reasons behind the "leaky pipeline" in academia, noting that the environment of higher education and academic leadership makes excessive demands on women. Chapter 26 examines the role of gender in the 2016 Colombian peace agreement, initially inclusive of women's and rights but later diluted by conservative backlash [59]. The section concludes with a success story in Chapter 27 about Ethiopia's National Policy on Women. This chapter details Ethiopia's commit-men to gender equality reform since 1993, highlighting significant female leadership by 2019, including the first woman president and female head of the highest court, with women holding 38% of parliamentary and 50% of cabinet seats. This third section is very engaging as it covers a variety of topics and methods. However, it could benefit from a more cohesive synthesis to tie the diverse topics together. Overall, the Handbook on Gender and Public Administration offers a groundbreaking perspective on gender in public administration, challenging traditional views and deepening the understanding of gendear-related social constructs. This handbook addresses a broad spectrum of international and nuanced topics relevant to contemporary discourse. It offers valuable insights through its diverse chapters, making it an excellent resource for enhancing classroom teaching in public administration, nonprofit management, and

gender studies courses. It provides readers with essential tools to address and dismantle gender inequities, paving the way for a more inclusive and equitable discipline.

**Prospects for further research.** However, a more robust inclusion of international perspectives-particularly beyond gender, race, and sexual orientation, such as the experiences of immigrants-would have been useful. Nevertheless, it is an invaluable resource for scholars, practitioners, and advocates dedicated to advancing gender equity in public administration, suggesting that achieving gender parity is not just a distant ideal but a tangible goal within our reach. The handbook serves as a foundational guide for continued exploration of gender in public administration, inviting further detailed and nuanced investigation.

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