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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE BEST PRACTICES OF GENDER AUDIT IN EDUCATION

Abstract. *Gender audit in education is necessary to assess the gender equality in educational institutions. As it was proven that the gender equality has a positive impact on the economic development it is important to determine the best methods to assess the issue and to improve its state. As a result, the purpose of our article is to determine the best practices of gender audit as a tool to assess and facilitate gender equality. To achieve our goal, we used several scientific methods, such as synthesis, analysis, deduction, etc. Gender equality issues have been found to be linked to economic development and are currently part of expanded economic growth models. This is especially true for gender equality in education, which is crucial for all subsequent areas of activity. It has been determined that approaches to gender equality and gender audit have evolved recently, starting from a purely formal one, when equality was defined as equal access for boys and girls to school education, and to the use of comprehensive gender equality indices ranging from 3 to 5 weighted elements, cover lifelong learning, financial component and representative component, i.e. women's participation in governance at different levels. It is substantiated that gender audit at this stage focuses on a broad definition of gender equality and is a tool to help determine its current level and possible ways to improve the situation. Currently, gender audit is in the form of a participatory audit involving not only external experts but also representatives of the organization where it is conducted. Not only formal statistics are analyzed, but also surveys, interviews among team members are conducted. The practice of gender audit in Lithuania and France shows that France, which started this process earlier, is at a stage when the legal support of this issue is relatively well-established, but there are still problems with compliance with the established norms. Incentives for their observance at this stage are mainly penalties. Lithuania has also begun to form a legal framework for gender equality, but practical implementation has not yet become widespread. Gender stereotypes are still very strong in the country.*

Keywords: *gender equality, gender inequality, gender audit, gender equality in education, gender audit in education.*

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Women's rights and gender equality are among the fundamental human rights guaranteed in numerous international treaties, resolutions, declarations, platforms and human rights action programs. The main international treaty on women's rights is the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and its Optional Protocol. At the same time, women's rights and non-discrimination are fundamental components of the other UN norms, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women. The Association Agreement with the EU provides not only a commitment to democratic European values but also a responsibility to take into account equality between men and women in the development and implementation of laws, regulations, administrative provisions, policies and activities.

Recently, the topics of gender equality, gender inequality and gender audit became more widespread when before due to the fact that empirical studies confirmed that gender equality facilitates successful activities of the organization. Among the researchers of the topic we should mention S. Aikman, K. Brosnan, M. David, L. Engeli, A. Mazur, K. Forbes, V. Limanauskienė, C. Moser, J. Slagter, T. Taljunaite, E. Unterhalter, J. Wrigley etc.

The purpose of our article is to determine the best practices of gender audit as a tool to assess and facilitate gender equality.

The concept of gender equality in education is prominently present in a wide range of international treaties, memorandums and declarations, nowadays it is included in the majority of those concerned with human rights, the reduction of poverty, and the expansion of education based on gender equality. However, those efforts notwithstanding, it is not an easy task to implement gender equality in education at the national and local level in many cases. Although statistics suggest large steps towards equality especially considering increasing numbers of girls and boys getting access to secondary education and the improvements in attainment by many girls, sometimes they are merely a formality to conceal persistent inequalities regarding gender that continue to persist.

To assess the real situation, the gender audit is used as a tool that provides data with regard to gender equality and denotes the need to integrate a gender perspective into the activities of all actors.

One of the reasons the issue of gender equality became widespread was due to the economic aspect. For example, the theoretical approaches to the conditions and causes of economic growth have become different in recent years. In the 1960s and early 1970s the most prominent theories of economic growth were based on the modernization and human capital perspectives, after that those approaches were heavily criticized and partially supplanted by neo-Marxist conceptualizations based on the dependency and world system perspectives. Recently, the theoretical studies of economic growth became centered on the dynamics of the world system that structures and conditions

economic transformations in both the core and periphery of the world economy. Another notable change in theories can be attributed to the role of education in the process of economic development. Early theorists on human capital and modernization played a prominent role in education for facilitating economic growth and development. The most widespread theories stipulated that the main contribution of education to economic growth lied in increasing the level of cognitive skills possessed by the work force leading to the improvement of their marginal productivity [1].

In 2012, UNESCO published the World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education, which became the best example of the commitment of the international community to global gender equality encompassing all levels of education. This atlas contains a great amount of statistical information about the gender situation in higher education including the global distribution of male and female students, relating the information to international criteria. It became quite clear based on the information from the global atlas that education could be considered vital for economic growth today and that the concept of universal education for all is becoming a reality. Nonetheless,

even the statistics from the UNESCO Atlas demonstrated that the enormous growth in student numbers over the last 40 years, including a 500 percent global increase, is offset by the fact that women do not benefit from their involvement in higher education (HE) equally compared to men. Women still experience discrimination at work and among different professions, disparities in power, voice and political representation, and in several cases the laws themselves are prejudiced based on gender. As a result, well-educated women often end up working where they are not allowed to realize their full potential and skills [2; 3].

The studies of gender equality contain at least four different frameworks for the field of education, that often use a number of metaphors or comparisons to explain the different relationships at play within each abovementioned approach (see Figure 1).

(1) Gender is considered as a descriptive identification of numbers of girls and boys in or out of school or achieving particular grades or levels of employment. Using this approach, achieving gender equality in education means reaching a parity, that is equal numbers, so the gender inequality can be measured as the number of girls as a proportion of the number of boys in any

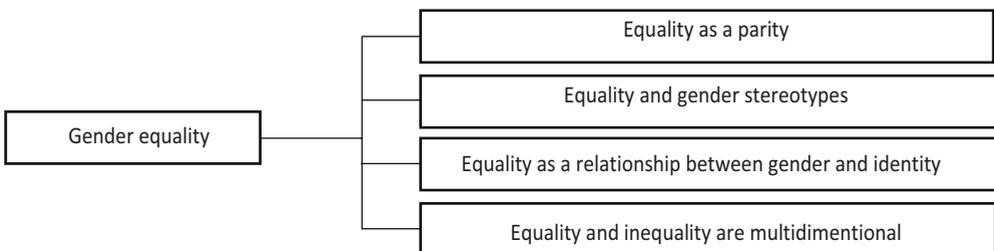


Figure 1. **Different approaches to gender equality**

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particular stage of schooling or form of attainment [4].

The GEI (gender-related EFA index) was developed by UNESCO for use specifically in its Global Monitoring Reports (GMR). Its purpose is to make an attempt to determine the extent to which boys and girls are equally represented at different levels in the education system (primary, secondary, and adult education). The GMR uses the concept of «gender» as merely the number of boys and girls entering and progressing through a school system. These units of measurement and resulting indicators give no idea of power relations in schooling based on gender, which has a marked impact on carrier success and achievements [5].

(2) The second approach to the concept of gender draws out the interconnections associated with power and meaning in different sites, both between men and women, and girls and boys. This approach notes the way in which (i) the curriculum is geared towards gender, (ii) particular assumptions are used by teachers and stakeholders about what kinds of knowledge are appropriate for girls and boys, and (iii) there are courses or professions defined as being preferable for girls or not based on the assumption that girls are «good» at them or not.

This approach defines how girls are «encouraged» into lower status professions and career paths.

(3) A third approach to the relationship between the concepts of gender, equality, inequality and education is based on the ways the notion of gender is used in language and action. It is stipulated that the relationship between gender and identity is derived from policy, media, and everyday talk, furthermore, they set limits on the possibilities of change regarding those. As a result, gender equality in education is considered to be the process of setting the conditions and processes that allow people to critically review processes and to act in relation to their own wellbeing [4].

Starting from 2003, UNESCO developed and introduced the Education Development Index (EDI) for the purpose to bring together information on access, equality, and the gender gap (see Figure 2).

The EDI uses the following 4 elements and related indicators to make an assessment:

- 1) universal primary education: represented by net enrolment ratio;
- 2) adult literacy: calculated as the literacy rate of the group aged 15 and over;
- 3) gender: assessed as the GEI or gender-related EFA index (for its

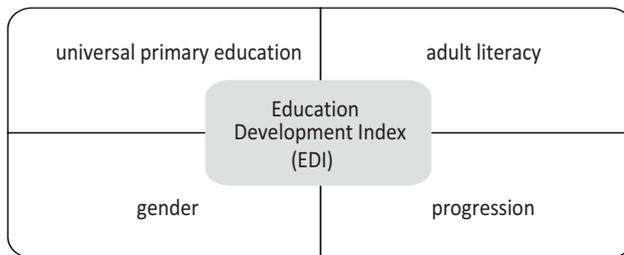


Figure 2. UNESCO Education Development Index components

Created by the authors.

calculation the arithmetical mean of the Gender Parity Indices for the primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios and the adult literacy rate is used);

4) progression: meaning survival rate to grade 5.

There are several key problems with the EDI regarding gender, among them we can notice as follows:

- The GEI (main gender component) uses the parity approach, which, as we pointed above, gives insufficient insight into context. Men and women, or girls and boys, may have gender parity in literacy or access to schooling but have low levels of participation.

- The EDI does not assess children's survival in schooling by gender. As a result, it primarily takes into account access by gender and not an achievement.

- The EDI uses equal weights for each of its four constituents. As such gender parity in enrolments and achievements is weighted equally. However, empirical research for many cases proves that enrolling children in school is only the first step on the long road. It's much more difficult to ensure attendance and completion, and this is particularly the case for girls, whose progress is constrained by many factors linked to safety, hygiene, nutrition, and family responsibilities [5].

(4) Gender inequalities in education should be considered multidimensional. That means taking into account more than just enrolment or attendance. We should assess not just formal gender equality in schools but widespread media representation of inequality or the tenets of religion or legal frameworks as well. Such things can cause limited mobility of women or their capacity or legal ability to own or inherit property. As a result, the comprehensive approach

should include several key issues, such as (i) the segmentation existing in the labor market, (ii) different types of exclusions (for example, political, cultural and social), (iii) varying preferences adapted by girls' and boys', (iv) limits imposed on the information flows, and (v) the importance of both intellectual and political alliances [4].

To combine the previously mentioned elements using available indicators estimated by the international organizations, the Gender Equality in Education Index (GEEI) was created. It's a compilation of 3 sets of data: (1) on girls' attendance at school, gathered by UNICEF, (2) girls' achievement in primary school and access to secondary school, assessed by UNESCO, and (3) the gender development index (GDI), created by UNDP. The GDI puts together several components, including the distribution of female to male life-expectancy in a country, literacy and enrolment in school, and estimated earned income. When compiling the index, the weights for the three indicators (life-expectancy, education, and income) are equal. Furthermore, the education part of the index consists of two indicators with different weights, such as two-thirds weight to the adult literacy index and one-third weight to the gross enrolment rate.

To simplify matters, the GEEI uses four previously existing for girls' access to and retention in school:

- girls' net attendance rate at primary school,
- girls' survival rate over five years in primary schooling,
- girls' secondary Net Enrolment Ratio (NER),
- a country's gender development index (GDI).

These measures are used because they allow us to access primary schooling (net attendance rate), with data received from household surveys; retention in primary schooling (survival rates); the potential of the education system to generate teachers and managers who are concerned to achieve gender equality (girls' secondary NER); and the possibilities for these women to survive and flourish as adults (GDI) [5].

A gender audit is usually used to assess the progress achieved on gender equality by many criteria. To ensure an accurate, comprehensive, and thorough analysis of the implementation of gender equality while reviewing an organization, it is preferable to use a number of methods. As a rule, the work plan presumes three stages: (1) Desk review and initial consultations; (2) Gender equality audit consultative phase involving an organization-wide questionnaire, interviews and focus groups; (3) Final report and presentation of findings and recommendations [6].

Empirical studies demonstrate that organizations with enhanced diversity and equality of employees in the workplace perform better in attaining improved and increased outputs. Results of the research undertaken worldwide show that the reasons for the gender balance to enhance workplace effectiveness are not limited to the question of whether men or women are better employees. Studies have found that the true reason is the different approaches to work men and women tend to have, as well as different leadership characteristics. It's their complementary that was identified as enhancing workplace culture, effectiveness and outputs.

The results of workplace cultures based on the dominance of men and women's talents, motivations by reward and career opportunities being ignored are the loss of experienced and highly qualified staff. Considering that those organizations have already invested in the staff's training, it leads to the reduction in staff morale, motivation and overall output [7].

Gender auditing belongs to the category of «quality audits» in contrast to traditional «financial audits».

Gender audit:

- determines how effective the rules of gender mainstreaming in the organization are, as well as the system of support for their implementation; to what extent they complement each other and whether they are observed in practice;
- monitors and evaluates the relative progress in promoting gender equality;
- establishes initial principles and criteria;
- identifies «bottlenecks» and problems;
- recommends solutions to these problems and proposes new, more effective strategies;
- notes the positive experience in achieving gender equality.

Based on the principles of self-assessment and joint participation, the audit takes into account both objective data and employees' perceptions of how to achieve gender equality in their organization.

The term gender audit has evolved over time. Before 2005, terms such as gender evaluations (technical assessments) and gender audits (personal and institutional biases in organizations obstructing gender equality) were used separately [8]. More

recently, the term gender audit is wide as a comprehensive notion including gender evaluations and gender audits. In some cases, gender audits imply a review of government programs to ensure the participation of women in decision-making processes.

The gender equality issue is rather complex. It is proved as such by the fact that there is no universal measure to assess gender audits effectiveness. For example, higher education research in the United States shows that men still attain more management and upper-tier status, despite the increasing number of women in positions of power. The issues of gender audit measurement in developing countries include ignoring the results obtained, political resistance to changes, and ineffective documentation of the conclusions. International efforts to promote gender audit include areas of health care, mental health, economic development, politics, and sociocultural participation.

As it was mentioned before, the models of economic growth now include the indicators of gender equality, that's why economic systems around the world are trying to implement laws, policies, and assessment systems to accurately measure gender audits, despite the mentioned disparities. For instance, the progress of women in higher education in the United States was boosted by the creation of Title IX, and the establishment of women's studies in various academic institutions of learning [9]. As a result, various facets of economic development put significant pressure on an increase in a gender audit culture. Without effective gender audit, it creates a limitation while implementing diversified policies geared toward gender equality. The

role and needs of women and men in given positions of responsibility need to be addressed by the gender audit research activities to further assess self-efficacy perspectives. To assess the necessary expectations for professional development in professional circles, the gender audit process should include more female engagement in the decision-making process.

Regardless of significant progress towards gender equality measured as a divergence between education received by women and men, labor market participation, professions, jobs, and working hours in most developed countries, women continue to earn lower wages. For instance, in 2019 in France, for all positions combined women's wages were 25% lower than men's. According to the French Ministry of Labor data, there remains a gap of 9% for work of equal value. The research shows that in this particular case to decrease the gender gap both for the wages and the employment it is necessary to employ various firm-level actions, including adhering to the existing policies of «equal pay for equal work», organizing reporting of the pay gaps at the firm level, or implementing procedures and regulations to raise the share of women occupying the top management positions. As recommended by the ILO (International Labor Organization), collective bargaining as another way to achieve equality has become an efficient method and the instrument of the «regulatory toolkit» in several countries, to facilitate combating against gender inequalities in wages and working conditions. Formally the data in the Wage Indicator Collective Bargaining Agreements Database show significant achievements, as for the

European countries at least one clause on gender equality is present in 65% of collective agreements.

One of the leading countries in regulating collective bargaining on gender equality is France, as they were the first to introduce an obligation to negotiate on this topic. As a result, French firms have a requirement to negotiate collective agreements on these issues to commit to the reduction in gender inequalities. The issue is that the legal obligation has existed as early as 2001, but the sanctions for the non-compliance were implemented only since 2012. Before the introduction of sanctions, a lot of firms hadn't complied with the law, afterwards, their number was only slightly reduced. The most important issue is to determine if the firms' willingness to negotiate a collective agreement on gender equality depends mostly on the strict regulation measures (it became effective for France nowadays, and it is borrowed by some other countries) or it depends less on regulations and more on the goodwill of the participants (as before in France or today elsewhere). In France, the method used by the legislator is geared to encouraging firms to aim for equal employment and equal pay through the negotiation of firm-level agreements. The gradual development of collective bargaining on gender equality in firms started since Roudy Act was implemented in 1983. According to that piece of legislation, the employer has the obligation before the works council to submit a written report comparing the situation with general employment and training conditions faced by women and men (*Rapport de situation comparée* (RSC)). The novelty of that regulation is that for the first time it presented

employers with the opportunity to bargain with union delegates for the purpose of implementing measures to reduce gender inequalities within the firm., The G'enisson Act, enacted in 2001, transformed an opportunity to bargain into an obligation, especially regards to the firm's objectives for gender equality at work and on the actions to achieve them. Additionally, the Act of March 23, 2006, introduced and defined the measures and their implementation to reduce and eliminate gender wage inequality, which was to be achieved by making the annual negotiations regarding the firm's wage policy and improving gender equality mandatory.

Starting from 2010 onwards the firm-level collective bargaining started accelerating. The public authorities strongly promoted it by a set of laws imposing sanctions as well as establishing the strictly defined parameters and procedures of the mandatory negotiations. Nowadays, the common practice to negotiate is to use bargained public policy or state-managed bargaining. Another achievement is the implementation of the Act of November 9, 2010, containing financial penalties for the first time (up to 1% of payroll) for firms with 50 employees violating the terms referred to by a collective agreement or, in other cases, by an employer decision made unilaterally (plan of actions) for the gender equality at the workplace. To facilitate gender equality, the negotiations should be renewed after one year in case of an action plan, or after three years in case of a collective agreement. These sanctions were implemented from January 1, 2012, and the prohibition to bid on

public contracts was introduced for the violators. The Decree of December 18, 2012, made bargaining on the effective compensation area compulsory. Further regulations include the Real Equality Act (2014) transforming obligations into a unique global negotiation on gender professional and pay equality, the Rebsamen Act (2015) consolidating the obligations of negotiation, merging equality bargaining with quality of working life, and the El Khomri Act (2016) developing collective bargaining and modernizing social dialogue.

The French model of negotiated equality has another feature that it is based on a principle of complementarity between industry and firm-level collective bargaining, ensured by law. Both levels are obliged to negotiate and bargaining at the firm level is an addition to the agreements set at the industry level (encompassing topics such as pay scales, classifications, joint initiatives on key issues of the industry). Those negotiations are supposed to address gender equality issues specific to the workplace. Since 2013, legislation developments encouraged and facilitated gender equality bargaining, however, they have not created guaranteed enforcement mechanisms and procedures of agreements, especially between the time when the new laws were enacted and their decrees published. In particular, there is a certain issue regarding the bargaining level (firm or industry) of the collective agreement required to comply with the law and the validity period of the bargained texts [10].

In 2013, to address persistent, deep-seated gender-based inequities, fill the gaps in knowledge, understanding and science-based policy, and to answer

these complex questions, the Gender Equality Policy in Practice (GEPP) network was created. The GEPP became a platform for the cooperation of over 100 policy experts in the field of the implementation and impact of equality policies. The group conducts the research at different levels, including sectoral, corporate and country as a whole. The topics of the study encompass several fields, such as care policy, corporate board equality and political representation. The GEPP group paid particular attention to the developed countries, among them Germany and France.

The purpose of the GEPP activity is to determine the impact of the gender equality policies for the equality between men and women concerning administrative outputs and results, impacts and outcomes. The GEPP uses the approach based on the mainstream in the Comparative Gender Policy Studies, meaning the method of «turning toward implementation». The approach consists of three key parts, including researching the black box of government and administration, creating the analytical framework and unified indicators for the policy instruments and policy success regarding women's empowerment and gender transformation [11].

Using the framework provided in Figure 3 it is possible to track an individual policy through every step of the process implementation and to assess cross-case processes and outcomes. Figure 3 makes it clear that all policies operate within a given context that has its own impact on the policy implementation and outcomes. The first stage of the policy implementation is the preadoption including agenda-setting

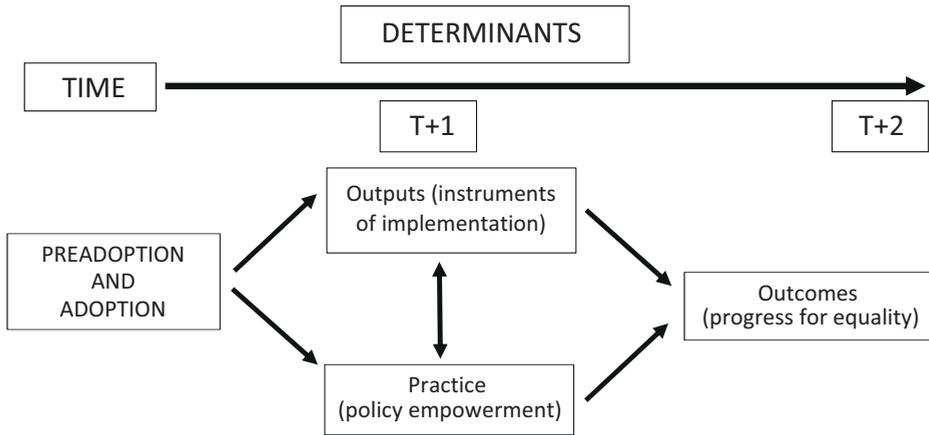


Figure 3. Sub-national, sectorial and extra-national contextual determinants of the Gender Equality Policy in Practice Model

Created by authors based on [12].

and problem definition, and adoption, meaning a formal decision expressed by the final policy statement, such as some form of the legislation. The second stage includes the administrative outputs necessary for the implementation. They are usually included in the formal policy statement, sometimes they contain a ready set of policy instruments. As a result, the policy is put into practice, and the process of implementation begins encompassing various actors and different levels of engagement. The last stage supposes the assessment of the three levels of outcomes: (1) direct (the degree of the problem been solved), (2) indirect (impact on the perspective about gender equality issues); (3) significant levels of gender transformation (can be simple or complex, then next are gender accommodation, gender-neutral and gender row back). The model features to determine the design of the GEPP project, the ways to collect and analyze data, to interpret the results. As the GEPP model shows, the context in which the policy process unfolds can

affect policy implementation practice and outcomes [12].

Among the new member-states of the EU, Lithuania follows a very similar strategy of gender mainstreaming as that in its other countries. According to the legislation and regulation of that country, «gender mainstreaming is an objective or a principle governing gender equality policy». However, there is not much evidence that this approach is implemented in practice, except for a few initiatives, even if there are formal commitments to gender mainstreaming. There is a significant degree of fragmentation in different government departments (and policy domains) within the country regarding the understanding of the gender equality issue and the objectives of the policy. Sometimes «gender mainstreaming» is used as a tool for various political needs. Mostly, the politicians and officials are trying to present the term «gender mainstreaming» to refer to the equality of genders, shifting the focus from women specifically. The term «gender mainstreaming» in this context is used

to denote existing policy practices, including equal treatment legislation, gender equality in administration, positive statistical achievements.

Sure, it is a standard practice in the EU countries to use those instruments to address the structural and cultural roots of gender inequalities formally to present a background for the necessary changes. The difference is that in too many countries, including Lithuania, there is a significant gap between formality and practice. Despite that, there were important developments in equal treatment legislation. In Lithuania, the changes in legislation now include the concept of indirect discrimination, and the sphere of its application, meaning public services and facilities, as well as education and the workplace. The analysis of the laws of Lithuania regarding the principle of gender equality, conducted by the EGG, showed that in principle the country's legislation does not conflict with the equality principle or the legal instruments of the European Union and other international organizations.

Many pieces of the Lithuanian legislation proclaim equal opportunities for women and men, such as the Act on Elections, the Referendum Act, the Employment Contracts Act, the Civil Service Act, the Work Safety Act, and the Act on Support for the Unemployed, etc. There was an attempt to implement the principle of gender mainstreaming in the form of the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2003–2004). The Equality Commission within the Lithuanian government is responsible for the coordination, delivery and implementation of the Mainstreaming Strategy. However, it is not sufficient to have a well-developed

mechanism in state institutions and to demonstrate the positive attitude of legislators towards this issue to ensure that society really adheres to the principle of equal opportunities for women and men. For the most efficient implementation of the equality mainstreaming approach in Lithuania, the participation of the NGOs, and academics is necessary. The foundation of the gender mainstreaming initiatives in Lithuania requires a great deal of effort from certain women in key positions of power, women's organizations, and the decisions to pursue a new gender equality policy approach, made at a high governmental level, are the background and prerequisite but not a guarantee of success [13].

Regarding gender equality in education, there are several key obstacles for women to pursue careers in science and occupy managing positions in the administration of universities equally to men, among them:

- the pay gap depending on gender, creating disadvantages for women;
- difficulties of combining family obligations and career that men rarely face, and maternity leave interrupting scientific work;
- the so-called «glass ceiling» phenomenon that is one of the most harmful of the social stereotypes, meaning prejudices and organizational barriers to the women career;
- non-sufficient selection of competent female candidates leading to the lack of women at the managerial level.

To determine the level of gender equality in higher education in Lithuania, there were two sociological studies in Lithuanian universities carried out in 2012 and 2014. Their results showed

the existence of asymmetric gender distribution and vertical segregation within the Lithuanian higher education system, similar to other EU countries. Women dominate in the lowest administrative and research levels, and men prevail in the highest levels:

- there was only one female rector of a university;

- women concentrate in the lowest administrative positions in the administration of universities (about 70%). Gender equality is preserved up to the faculty vice dean positions (proportion of women is about 54%). On the other hand, top management positions of faculty heads and directors of institutes are dominated by men (about 71% of deans, about 59% of department heads, 56% of faculty councils' members, and about 59% of institute directors);

- men also dominate in collegial management bodies (about 65% of members of the senate's and about 77% of members of the councils);

- the vertical segregation principle still existed as shown by the data for academic staff from a gender perspective. As a result, women represent the majority of junior researchers (about 54%) and researchers (about 56%), while men made up a majority as senior researchers (about 53%), and especially as chief researchers (about 71%);

- regarding the academic title, men dominate in professor positions (about 69%), and women prevail in assistants (about 63%) and lecturers (about 57%) positions.

It should be noted that the results of the survey showed that the gender situation is slightly better for the non-state (private) universities, compared to the state. There was a higher

representation of women in the top and middle administrative positions. The reasons for that are difficult to determine with certainty based solely on the abovementioned studies. One of the contributing factors is the fact that state universities are more traditional and older while private universities are more modern and younger organizations, so they were already created with the equal participation of women and men in top-level administrative and research structures as it is considered natural and matter-of-course process of nowadays European academic society [14].

The following observations about the factors influencing the negative choice of girls gifted for sciences are an unattractive and inadequate image of scientists; social environment does not motivate girls to choose sciences as a profession; teaching of computer sciences is not oriented to women: the textbooks are engaging for boys, given examples reflect masculine hobbies; girls neither see their place in computer science nor foster further career perspectives in science; parents' attitudes and support are invaluable while choosing a scientist's profession; university education and support are invaluable while choosing a scientist's profession; does not take into account the peculiarities of the way women think [15].

Conclusions. Informed by the findings of studies of gender and workplaces worldwide, organizations both in the public and private spheres are increasingly recognizing the merit and necessity of addressing gender equality issues. Gender equality is now not only perceived as a right but also more strategically as a pivotal factor

in achieving organizational excellence, best practice in management and increased as well as improved outputs. It is increasingly recognized that failure to address gender inequalities is not only costly in the economic sense but has significant and broader social consequences, including negative impacts on the fundamental unit of society, the family. A gender audit is a tool and process based on the principles of active participation and involvement

of stakeholders. It facilitates the process of self-learning of the organization of the methods of effective application of gender mainstreaming in practice, provides an opinion from different points of view for analysis and provides reliable data for planning change. A gender audit is a tool that helps to overcome major obstacles to gender equality and shows the need to integrate a gender perspective into the activities of all actors.

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ПОРІВНЯЛЬНИЙ АНАЛІЗ СВІТОВОГО ДОСВІДУ ГЕНДЕРНОГО АУДИТУ В ОСВІТІ

Анотація. Гендерний аудит є важливим для оцінки гендерної рівності. Метою статті є аналіз світового досвіду гендерного аудиту як інструменту підвищення гендерної рівності. У статті розглянуто питання гендерної рівності та гендерного аудиту в освіті. В процесі дослідження використані загальнонаукові методи, зокрема синтез, аналіз, дедукція. Проаналізовано ключові підходи до визначення гендерної рівності та основні механізми проведення гендерного аудиту для її забезпечення. Встановлено, що питання гендерної рівності пов'язані з економічним розвитком і на даному етапі

входять до розширених моделей економічного зростання. Визначено, що останнім часом відбувся еволюційний розвиток підходів до гендерної рівності та гендерного аудиту, починаючи від суто формального, коли рівність визначалася як рівна можливість хлопчиків і дівчат отримати доступ до шкільної освіти й до використання комплексних індексів гендерної рівності, що мають від трьох до п'яти елементів, охоплюють освіту протягом усього життя, фінансову складову та представницьку, тобто участь жінок в управлінні на різних рівнях. Обґрунтовано, що гендерний аудит на даному етапі орієнтується на широке визначення гендерної рівності та є інструментом, який допомагає визначити її поточний рівень і можливі шляхи покращення ситуації. Розглянуто практику гендерного аудиту Литви та Франції. Встановлено, що ці країни досягли значного успіху на шляху досягнення гендерної рівності. Особливо це стосується нормативно-правового регулювання. За практичним упровадженням Литва децю відстає від Франції, оскільки в цій країні досі залишаються дуже сильні гендерні стереотипи.

Ключові слова: гендерна рівність, гендерна нерівність, гендерний аудит, гендерна рівність в освіті, гендерний аудит в освіті.