

TEACHING GENDER IN THE MILITARY

A Handbook



Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
Confédération suisse
Confederazione Svizzera
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With the support of the Swiss Government.



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This handbook was created by the Security Sector Reform Working Group (chaired by DCAF), in collaboration with the Education Development Working Group, of the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes.

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The Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC) is an international security cooperation organization of over 800 defense academies and security studies institutes across 60 countries. Founded in 1999 during the NATO Summit, the PfPC was chartered to promote defense institution building and foster regional stability and security cooperation through multinational defense education and research, which the PfPC accomplishes via its international network of educators and researchers. Visit us at www.pfp-consortium.org.

The Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF) is an international foundation whose mission is to assist the international community in pursuing good governance and reform of the security sector. DCAF develops and promotes norms and standards, conducts tailored policy research, identifies good practices and recommendations to promote democratic security sector governance, and provides in-country advisory support and practical assistance programmes. Visit us at www.dcaf.ch.

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Foreword

General Bengt Axelsson, Sweden

The Women, Peace and Security (WPS) Agenda has put the need to integrate gender considerations in military institutions and operations at the forefront of discussions in the military and gender community of experts, practitioners and military personnel. The United Nations has established a comprehensive women, peace and security framework through the adoption of Security Council Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106, 2122 and most recently 2422, sometimes referred to as the WPS UNSCRs. The United Nations has reiterated its commitment to women's inclusion in matters of peace and security and the prevention and protection of women and girls (and, more recently, men and boys) from conflict-related sexual violence as 2015 marked the 15th anniversary of the landmark resolution 1325. Similarly, NATO has responded to this pressing topic with a policy and operational framework to implement these UN resolutions. NATO countries and partner countries have also, on a national level, adopted National Action Plans on implementing UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions.

Seven of the UNSCRs on WPS state the need for training. As much of the gender-related training is ad-hoc and externally delivered there is a significant need to institutionalize and improve gender-related training and education. Educators are faced with the twin challenges of developing new curricula and teaching materials on gender and on women, peace and security and integrating gender dimensions across all military education and training more broadly.

The SSR and Education and Development Working Groups of the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (PfPC) have integrated gender in their activities since 2010. Since 2012, the two working groups have run a joint programme on teaching gender in the military. The programme consisted of four workshops, which were held respectively at the NATO School in Oberammergau (July 2012)¹, the George C. Marshall European Center for Security Studies in Garmisch-Partenkirchen (December 2012)², and in Geneva (December 2013³ and July 2014⁴).

These activities have demonstrated that there is a need to strengthen both the capacity of educators to integrate gender in their work and the capacity of military gender experts to deliver educational content. Workshop participants have expressed the need for more materials and resources to create a multiplier effect, and support the building of faculty and gender experts' capacity on, respectively, the integration of gender in military education and the application of educational principles to the delivery of gender content by gender experts.

The handbook aims to provide some of these resources. It aims to strengthen the capacity of faculty and gender experts to deliver gender education, and to foster the community of practice among experts involved in its creation. This should contribute to the integration of gender in military education in NATO/EAPC countries, ultimately contributing to the integration of gender in military institutions and operations, as mandated by the national, NATO, and international policy framework. In essence, the handbook covers both "what to teach" and "how to teach" when it comes to gender and the military. It consists of ten chapters divided into two sections. The purpose of this handbook is to make gender more visible, especially in military contexts.

The handbook was developed through a collaborative process that aimed to foster an ongoing exchange of experience and expertise among participants involved in teaching gender in military programmes. The process involved an editorial team who oversaw project implementation, coordinated the contributions and took responsibility for copy-editing of the final product; contributing authors from the programme participants; and experts in the field of gender and/or military education who served as peer reviewers.

Responsibility for implementing the Women, Peace and Security Agenda lies with the leadership. Education and training is crucial to strengthen the capacity of leaders and gender trainers as well as regular servicemen and women. However, the best expertise in the world has no impact and no leverage if leaders do not take the lead and champion these questions when needed.

I should like to express my appreciation to all those who supported and were involved in creating this handbook. I congratulate the authors for their contribution and their collaboration. This handbook demonstrates how important and relevant it is for military educators and gender experts to come together and jointly create a resource of value to everyone involved. I am glad to see such a unique resource on teaching gender in the military has been developed. Sharing knowledge and expertise on how to teach and educate about gender in the military should be at the forefront of future discussions.



Brigadier General Bengt Axelsson
Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Swedish Defence University



Notes

1. <http://www.dcaf.ch/Event/PFPC-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military>
2. <http://www.dcaf.ch/Event/Designing-Sample-Gender-Lessons-Second-PFPC-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military>
3. <http://www.dcaf.ch/Event/Integrating-Gender-in-the-Curriculum-3rd-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military>
4. <http://www.dcaf.ch/Event/Gender-Responsive-Evaluation-in-Military-Education-4th-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military>

Preface: a little bit of history... where have we come from?

Anja Ebnöther, on behalf of the PfPC Security Sector Reform Working Group, and
Kathaleen Reid-Martinez, on behalf of the PfPC Education Development Working Group

The journey that led to the development of this handbook began in **2009** when the Slovenian defence minister highlighted the need to better integrate gender into NATO and the Partnership for Peace's (PfP) work on security during her plenary speech at the annual conference of the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (PfPC) in Munich. In **2010**, we in the PfPC Working Group on Security Sector Reform (SSR WG) took this as our cue to develop programming to promote human security and gender perspectives within the Consortium's work.

In **2011** the SSR WG held a seminar hosted by the Swedish National Defence College (now renamed as the Swedish Defence University) in Stockholm, Sweden. The seminar was so productive and well-received that the idea was sparked to build and maintain a network to facilitate the exchange of ideas and information, and the development of joint initiatives in the field of gender and defence transformation. The PfPC is uniquely equipped to engage in this endeavour as it has expertise in professional military education through its highly successful Education Development Working Group (EDWG) as well as through its SSR WG led by DCAF's gender and security programme, bringing together experts on gender and security from across the member nations of NATO and Partner countries.

Since 2010 a series of four most constructive and highly interesting workshops was held to build on the expertise developed by the group. We started with a workshop on teaching gender to the military in **July 2012** hosted by the NATO School. The seminar brought together experts to share knowledge and exchange experiences. The workshop centred both broadly on the adult education theory of teaching gender, and on specific teaching approaches. This was followed by a workshop in **December 2012** on designing sample gender lessons, co-organized by DCAF and in partnership with the George C. Marshall European Center for Security Studies. Participants discussed and exchanged on integrating educational best practices into the development of sample lesson plans for teaching gender to the military. A third workshop was consequently held by the two working groups jointly in Geneva in **December 2013**, this time on integrating gender in the curriculum. This enabled participants from both NATO and Partner countries with backgrounds in gender and education to build skills and formulate strategies aimed at integrating gender across military curricula. In **July 2014**, the two working groups held their fourth workshop on teaching gender to the military in Geneva again, this time focusing on gender-responsive evaluation in military education, and coaching and mentoring. At this workshop participants agreed on a need for further resources on gender education and training, and endorsed a corresponding proposal to develop a practical resource documenting the knowledge exchanged and created over the two-year, four-workshop 'teaching gender to the military' programme. This "Handbook on Teaching Gender in the Military" is the outcome of this collaboration.

This handbook is also exemplary of the PfPC's spirit and collaborative approach to defence education and the promotion of cooperation between non-governmental institutes, universities and similar bodies, as well as governmental defence academies and security studies institutes.

The handbook is a useful tool for gender experts, military instructors and educators. It is a comprehensive resource and guidance on *what to teach* and *how to teach gender in the military* and should ultimately serve as a support to the military teaching community, cultivate a network of experts and enhance further collaboration between NATO and Partner Nations. As such, this handbook represents the "State of the Art" when it comes to teaching gender in the military in 2016. Our aim is to distribute it widely throughout the NATO and PfP Member Nations so that those who did not have the opportunity to attend the workshops may also benefit from lessons identified during this fruitful collaboration. We also hope that it will bring new people into the conversation, thus fostering further cooperation across the NATO/PfP area and the development of new and innovative approaches to the furthering of gender equality in and by the military.



Anja Ebnöther
Assistant Director and Head of Operations III
DCAF

Chair
PfPC Security Sector Reform Working Group



Kathaleen Reid-Martinez
Provost and Chief Academic Officer
Oral Roberts University

Chair of Defense Educator Workshops
PfPC Education Development Working Group

About the Authors and Editors

Ms Bojana Balon (Editor) coordinates all UNDP SEESAC (South Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons) activities related to gender mainstreaming in the security sector, including both the Women Police Officers Network in SEE (WPON) and the Gender Equality in the Military project, which she helped develop. She initially joined SEESAC in July 2010 as a Project Officer, working mostly on the implementation of the WPON - Support to Gender Mainstreaming in Policing Practices in South East Europe project. Bojana holds master's degree in International Relations and European Studies from Central European University in Budapest, Hungary and a bachelor's degree in Political Science from the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia. She previously worked for the General Police Directorate in Ljubljana, Slovenia, and the OSCE Mission to Serbia before joining UNDP in Serbia, where she worked on gender issues and was appointed as a Gender Advisor in 2008.

Captain Anna Björsson (Editor) is an army officer working at the Swedish Armed Forces Headquarters. Currently she holds the position of Gender Advisor to the Chief Operations at the Joint Forces Command. She supports the staff and the Commander in planning, executing and evaluating the Swedish Armed Forces' operations in accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1325. Anna formerly worked as a Gender Field Advisor in Afghanistan among other roles. She holds a master's degree in Public Policy from Erasmus University Rotterdam and a bachelor's degree in Political Science and Peace and Conflict Studies from Stockholm University.

Major Yvette Foliant (Author: Chapter 3) is a legal advisor for the Netherlands Armed Forces. She was previously placed at the Civil Military Cooperation Centre of Excellence and worked as the Dutch liaison for the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations. She was deployed to Afghanistan in 2012-2013 as the gender advisor for the Commander of Regional Command North, ISAF. Yvette holds a master's degree in law, specializing in international criminal law.

Ms Tanja Geiss (Editor & Author: Chapter 9) is the Advanced Distributed Learning (ADL) Chair at NATO School, Oberammergau, Germany. Her roles include the management of NATO School's online course programme, establishing and fostering NATO School's strategic engagement with its major eLearning Partners within NATO and PfP. She was also involved in the conceptual development of the NATO School eLearning Course, which provides participants with the skills to develop, evaluate and implement eLearning solutions in support of NATO E&IT requirements. Tanja has been engaged in the PfP Consortium ADL Working Group and the Education Development Working Group for many years. She lectures on "Combating Human Trafficking", "Gender", "Equal Opportunities" and "Terrorism". She holds a Magister Artium from Ludwig-Maximilian's University, Munich, in Political Science and International Relations, History and Marketing Psychology.

Major Rachel Grimes (Author: Chapter 1) has served in the British Army for over twenty years. She has been deployed to Northern Ireland, Bosnia, Iraq and Afghanistan. She also worked in the Democratic Republic of the Congo as the UN's military Child Protection and Gender Field Advisor. Rachel recently returned from Erbil, Northern Iraq where, in support of the UK Preventing Sexual Violence Initiative, she taught Peshmerga soldiers and multi-national instructors how to respond to survivors of sexual violence at the hands of ISIS. From 2011-2013 Rachel was the Deputy Chair of the NATO Committee for Gender Perspectives. This role saw her contributing to various workshops and conferences looking at the military role in support of UNSCR1325. She has taught counterinsurgency, stabilization and gender to an array of audiences from Mongolia to Uganda. Rachel has a Master of Science in International Relations and Gender from Bristol University.

Commander Andreas Hildenbrand (Author: Chapters 5 and 7) is a professor at the College of International and Security Studies at the George C. Marshall European Center for Security Studies. He has been Deputy Director of the Program in Advanced Security Studies, the Center's largest and most comprehensive resident program for several years. The main focus of his professional experience is on contemporary leadership, the European Security and Defense Policy as well as active learning methods. He has been a member of the Education Development Working Group of the PfP-Consortium for eight years and has participated in several workshops on how to teach gender to the military. He holds a diploma (master's degree) as a Diplom-Ingenieur for Aeronautical Science.

Ms Aiko Holvikivi (Editor & Author: Chapter 4) is a doctoral researcher at the Gender Institute of the London School of Economics and Political Science. Her LSE-funded PhD focuses on gender education and training for peacekeeping personnel. Aiko previously worked as a project officer in the Gender and Security Programme of the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces, and co-chaired the SSR Working Group of the Partnership for Peace Consortium. Her professional experience includes research and technical advisory and capacity building projects on gender and security sector reform with NATO, UN Women, and national partners in the Western Balkans, Southern Caucasus and West and Southern Africa. Aiko holds a master's degree in political science from the Graduate Institute of International and Development Studies and a Master of Arts (1st class honours undergraduate) in International Relations from the University of St Andrews.

Ms Anna Kadar (Editor) works for the Gender and Security Programme at the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF). Anna studied liberal arts at the University College Maastricht with a concentration on international affairs, international law and sociology and holds a Master of Arts in Gender Studies from Utrecht University. She previously worked at swisspeace and the Center for International Peace Operations (ZIF). She has gained experience at Human Rights Watch and the United Network of Young Peacebuilders (UNOY).

Lieutenant Colonel Lena P. Kvarving (Author: Chapter 1) started her career in the Royal Norwegian Air Force in 1989 and has served in various military positions in Norway, the USA and Afghanistan. In addition to her traditional military higher education and training, she also holds a Master of Arts in Comparative European Social Studies from Hogeschool Maastricht/University of North London (London Metropolitan University), where she compared the work on equal opportunities for men and women in the EU and the Council of Europe. For two years she has served as Leader of the Gender Project at the Norwegian Defence University College (NDUC) in Oslo where implementation of UNSCR 1325 and gender perspectives in military operations through education, dissemination and research was the core mandate. She is now in the final phase of her PhD scholarship with a focus on cultural, functional and structural factors that promote and prevent the implementation of gender perspectives in military operations. She lectures nationally and internationally, has been a member of the combined Police and Armed Forces group in the Human Rights Dialogue with Indonesia since 2010 with focus on implementation of UNSCR 1325 and gender perspectives. She now serves as Senior Staff Officer at the Norwegian Defence Staff with focus on equality, diversity and gender perspectives

Commander Elizabeth Owens Lape (USN (ret)) (Author: Chapter 8) completed a 23 year career in the U.S. Navy after serving in a wide variety of shore management, training, and joint billets retiring as an Education & Training Subspecialist and as a Joint Specialty Officer. She graduated from the Purdue University NROTC program, received her master's degree in Education from Old Dominion University, and is a Doctoral Candidate in the Higher Education Administration programme at Old Dominion University. As a Government Civilian (GS14), she is currently serving as Deputy of the Individual Training and Learning Branch for the Joint Staff J7 where she is responsible for Joint Course Certification, Blended Learning, Joint Staff Officer Fundamentals and Women, Peace and Security Training/Education.

Major Nathaly Levesque (Author: Chapter 10) is currently serving as the North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD) J7 Training Development Officer in Colorado Springs, USA. Since she joined the Canadian Armed Forces in 2006, she has occupied several positions. She graduated from Joint Command Staff Program in 2013. She holds three master's degrees: French Teaching, Human Performance Technology and Defence

Studies. The latter includes a thesis on the relationship between the Canadian Armed Forces and the Partnership for Peace Consortium. Her expertise in training and education allowed her to represent the Canadian Defence Academy within the Education Development Working Group over the past four years.

Ms Virpi Levomaa (Author: Chapter 7) currently works at the Finnish Defence Forces International Centre (FINCENT). From 2014-2015 she worked at the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations (NCGM). She worked as a course director and instructor. Her main tasks were curriculum development and pedagogical course development. She was course director for the Gender Training of the Trainers course and seminar director for the Commanding officers' seminar on gender perspectives. Previously she has worked at the Finnish Defence Forces Defence Command and at Finnish National Defence University. She holds two master's degrees, one in political science and the other in educational science.

Ms Martina Lindberg (Author: Chapter 3) is currently a university lecturer and manager of the implementation process of integrating UNSCR 1325 and gender at the Swedish Defence University in Stockholm. Martina works closely with the Swedish Armed Forces and other actors in the military education and training arena. She was previously working for the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations (NCGM) and belongs to their subject matter expert pool used in exercises and operations nationally and internationally. She holds a Master of Arts in Peacebuilding and Crisis Management and a Bachelor of Arts in Peace and Conflict Studies from Umeå University, Sweden and Institut d'Études Politiques, Université Science Po Lille, France.

Ms Sally Longworth (Author: Chapter 2) is a non-practising barrister specializing in international human rights, international humanitarian and international criminal law. She was called to the Bar of England & Wales in July 2010 and holds an LLM in international human rights law from the Raoul Wallenberg Institute of Human Rights and Humanitarian Law. She has worked as a lecturer and researcher in international law at the Swedish Defence University, as a legal assistant for the Sesay Defence Team at the Special Court for Sierra Leone, and for the defence at the Bangladesh International Crimes Tribunal. She has also acted as a legal consultant with a number of international and intergovernmental organisations on a broad range of issues, including transitional justice mechanisms, international humanitarian law, international human rights law and procedure and EU law.

Dr Iryna Lysyckina (Editor & Author: Chapters 5 and 7) is Chair of the Department of Philology, Translation and Lingual Communication at the National Academy of the National Guard of Ukraine. She is an alumna of PASS-CB at the George C. Marshall European Center for Security Studies. The last 5 years with Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC) Education Development Working Group have given her experience in conducting multi-national and national Defense Educators' Programs. She is actively involved in the educational process specializing in curriculum design, active learning and assessment. She holds a PhD in linguistics. Her current research deals with the formation of public perceptions of the military and the influence of globalization on the military professional cross-cultural communication and leadership skill development.

Lieutenant Colonel Nevena Miteva (Author: Chapter 2) has been Chair of the Bulgarian Armed Forces Women Association (BUAFWA) since 2009 and is currently Chair of NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP). The BUAFWA is an NGO which aims of to support implementation of the international women, peace and security agenda within the Bulgarian defence sector. One of its notable projects is called "Female Leaders in Security and Defence" (FLSD), which was developed in 2010 and approved by the ministers of defence of the South-Eastern Europe Defence Ministerial (SEDM) process in 2011. It was subsequently included in Tier 1 of NATO's Smart Defence initiative. The project continues its development in parallel in both regional organizations. Nevena is the project officer, coordinator and one of the authors of the "FLSD White Paper and Roadmap" which led to her successful nomination for the Chair-elect of NCGP for the 2013-2015 period and Chair of NCGP for the 2015-2017 period.

Ms Maka Petriashvili (Author: Chapter 10) has worked at the Ministry of Defence (MoD) of Georgia since 1999. Currently she holds the position of Deputy Director of the Human Resource Management Department and chairs the Gender Equality Monitoring Team at the MoD. Her work experience includes positions in the Military Intelligence Department, Defence Policy and Planning Department, and Strategic Defence Review Commission in the MoD. She teaches Civil-Military Relations and Civilian Oversight over Armed Forces at the Command and

General Staff College. Maka holds a Master of Arts in Security Studies (Civil-Military Relations) from the Naval Postgraduate School, USA and a Master of Science in Human Resource Management from the University of Manchester, UK.

Dr Kathaleen Reid-Martinez (Author: Chapter 5) currently serves as Provost and Chief Academic Officer of Oral Roberts University. Since completing her degree in communication, she has spent the last two decades in communication, leadership, and leadership education research as well as administration and teaching. She is a researcher, consultant, and advisor on innovative approaches in the use of experiential and virtual learning in leadership education. Her research, presentations, and consultancy have spanned five continents as she has pursued a better understanding of leaders and their communication. Accomplishments include leading the team to develop the first interdisciplinary online leadership doctoral program. Internationally she is noted for her capacity to work with multinational teams to bring democratic values into the best practices of leadership development in globally diverse settings.

Gigi Roman (Author: Chapter 9) is the Course Director for NATO School's eLearning Design Development and Deploy course and Advanced Distributed Learning (eLearning) Coordinator responsible for NATO School's online education, training and online content management. His work involves new product design and strategic relationships for the organization learning management system, authoring tools and collaboration solutions. In previous roles with NATO School and the PfP community, he has overseen the development of web-based knowledge management systems and the repurposing of instructional materials for online delivery. He is a member of the Advanced Distributed Learning and the Education Development Working Groups of the PfPC.

Ms Ankica Tomić (Author: Chapter 2) has spent the last 15 years working on international relationships within the Ministry of Interior of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH) and the Ministry of Security. She personally contributed to the implementation of the initiative "Public Participation in Peace Processes – the UNSCR 1325 in Bosnia and Herzegovina: Women, Peace and Security" for which the Ministry of Security of BiH, won the 2012 United Nations Public Service Award in the category of "Promoting Gender Responsive Delivery of Public Services". She co-chairs the Coordination Board of the Council of Ministers of BiH for monitoring the implementation of UNSCR 1325. She also teaches gender-related topics to military and police audiences at the Peace Support Operations Training Centre (PSOTC) in Sarajevo. She is currently working on her PhD thesis titled "Gender Mainstreaming in the Policies of Defence and Police Systems in Euro Atlantic Countries" at the Faculty of Political Sciences, University of Sarajevo. Ankica holds a master's degree in International Relations and National Security from the University of Zagreb in Croatia.

Ms Kristin Valasek (Author: Chapter 4) has over ten years of work experience on security sector reform and gender, including field work in the Dominican Republic, Ghana, Liberia, Palestine, Sierra Leone, South Africa and Timor-Leste. She is currently a Gender Equality Consultant with the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR) and has previously worked as a Gender and Security Project Coordinator with the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF). At DCAF her focus was on providing education and training, policy development, research and technical advice including managing a three-year multi-region project on building the internal gender capacity of security training institutions, including defence academies. She has also worked as a gender, peace and security specialist with UN Women, UN-INSTRAW and the UN Department of Disarmament Affairs. She holds an Master of Arts in Conflict Resolution from the University of Bradford and a Bachelor of Arts in Women's Studies and International Studies from the University of Oregon.

Mr Callum Watson (Editor & Author: Chapter 6 and Conclusion) has been working on military capacity building on gender while also conducting research on men and masculinities for over three years. He currently works for the Gender and Security Programme at the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF). He previously conducted research for DCAF's UN and SSR programme on UN support to National Security Policy-making processes. Prior to this he worked as an English teacher for the Fukuyama Board of Education in Japan. Callum holds a master's degree in international affairs from the Graduate Institute of International and Development Studies in Geneva and an undergraduate degree in international relations from the London School of Economics and Political Science.

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Acronyms

ADDIE	analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation	NAP	national action plan (on women, peace and security)
ADL	advanced distributed learning	NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
ARRC	NATO Allied Rapid Reaction Corps	NCGM	Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations
ACO	NATO Allied Command of Operations	NCGP	NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives
ACT	NATO Allied Command Transformation	NCM	non-commissioned member
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women	NCO	non-commissioned officer
CIMIC	civil-military cooperation	NGO	non-governmental organization
COMARRC	NATO Allied Rapid Reaction Corps commander	OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
CRSV	conflict-related sexual violence	PfP	NATO Partnership for Peace
CSDP	EU Common Security and Defence Policy	PfPC	NATO Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes
DFS	DPKO Department of Field Support	PME	professional military education
DPKO	UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations	PMESII	political, military, economic, social, information, infrastructure
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy	QIP	quick-impact project
ESDC	European Security and Defence College	R2P	responsibility to protect
EU	European Union	RCAF	Royal Canadian Air Force
GENAD	gender adviser	RFI	request for information
GFA	gender field adviser	SAE	special area emphasis
GFP	gender focal point	SME	subject-matter expert
GO	governmental organization	STEM	science, technology, engineering and mathematics
HQ	headquarters	TA	training audience
ICC	International Criminal Court	UN	United Nations
INSTRAW	UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women	UNSCR	UN Security Council Resolution
ISAF	International Security Assistance Force	WPS	women, peace and security
IO	international organization		
JADL	joint advanced distributed learning		
JPME	joint professional military education		
LMS	learning management system		
LO	learning outcome		
MOE	measure of effectiveness		
MOP	measure of performance		

Glossary of Key Definitions

active learning: Learning in which the learner is the principal driving force, with the instructor (if one is present) as facilitator of the process - among the many active learning approaches are experiential learning, cooperative learning, problem-solving exercises, writing tasks, speaking activities, class discussion, case-study methods, simulations, role playing, peer teaching, fieldwork, independent study, library assignments, computer-assisted instruction, and homework.¹

Advanced Distributed Learning: A form of e-Learning that features educational or training courses delivered over a network using a standard web browser. ADL adheres to the standards and specifications of the Sharable Content Object Reference Model (SCORM).²

andragogy: The art and science of the facilitation of adult learning, distinguished from child-oriented “pedagogy” in terms of learner self-direction, application of knowledge and experience, learning readiness, orientation to the present, and problem-centeredness.³

assessment: The systematic collection of data to monitor the success of a programme or course in achieving intended learning outcomes for students. Assessment is used to determine: what students have learned (outcome); the way they learned the material (process); and their approach to learning before, during, or after the programme or course.⁴

backward design: A design process that starts with the outcome, what the learner should know and be able to do and produce after the lesson. It then works ‘backward’ to selecting the right assessment tools, in order to make sure that learners have actually reached the required learning outcomes and that they have opportunity to demonstrate that.⁵

Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1: This Directive describes NATO’s gender policy. It aims to ensure implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325, related resolutions and integration of gender perspective in military organizations and forces in the NATO command structure and NATO force structure of the Alliance and within NATO-led operations.⁶

blended learning: The combination of different training “media” (technologies, activities, and types of events) to create an optimum training programme for a specific audience. The term “blended” means that traditional instructor-led training is being supplemented with other electronic formats.⁷

Bloom’s taxonomy: A classification system used to define and distinguish different levels of human cognition (i.e. thinking, learning and understanding).⁸

coachee: A person being coached.

coaching: The process of helping people to reflect upon their work style in a frank and rigorous way and to establish new patterns as a consequence.⁹

Comprehensive Approach: A strategic concept for effective crisis management, adopted by NATO, that involves combining political, civilian and military instruments.¹⁰

courses: Educational units within the curriculum dealing systematically with a particular subject or discipline for a given period of time.¹¹

critical thinking: A term to describe learning, thought, and analysis that go beyond the memorization and recall of information and facts. In its most basic expression, critical thinking occurs when students are analyzing, evaluating, interpreting, or synthesizing information and applying creative thought to form an argument, solve a problem, or reach a conclusion.¹²

curriculum: A plan incorporating a structured series of intended learning outcomes and associated learning experiences - generally organized as a related combination or series of courses.¹³

education: A process undertaken in the hopes of furthering individual's knowledge and developing the intellect.¹⁴

evaluation: The systematic determination of the merit, worth and significance of a learning or training process by collecting evidence and using criteria to judge whether it has met its intended learning outcome.¹⁵

formative assessment: A type of assessment conducted during the course of programme implementation whose primary purpose is to provide information to improve the programme under study.¹⁶

gender: The social attributes associated with being male and female learned through socialisation and that determine a person's position and value in a given context. This means also the relationship between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men.¹⁷

gender-based violence: Any harmful act directed against individuals or groups of individuals on the basis of their gender. It may include sexual violence, domestic violence, trafficking, forced/early marriage and harmful traditional practices.¹⁸

gender advisor (GENAD or GA): A member of staff who reports directly to the Commander and provides support to ensure that planning, execution and evaluation properly integrate gender perspective. It is a full-time role and requires adequate training, education and experience.¹⁹

gender dimensions: A concept regrouping the various elements concerning biological characteristics and social/cultural factors of women, men, girls and boys into any analysis.²⁰

gender focal point (GFP): A member of staff in a dual-hatted position that supports the Commander in implementing directives and procedures with gender perspective. The GFP maintains functional dialogue with the GENAD, but reports within the chain of command. The GFP at the tactical level ensures that gender perspective is fully integrated into the daily tasks of the operation.²¹

gender mainstreaming: A strategy to achieve gender equality by assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes in all areas and at all levels, in order to assure that the concerns and experiences of women and men are taken into account in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres.²²

gender perspective: A tool to increase operational effectiveness. By identifying an often overlooked populace, recognising their specific needs, and providing the appropriate comprehensive response, the operational environment is positively influenced.²³

hidden curriculum: Unstated norms, values, and beliefs that are transmitted to students through the underlying educational structure.²⁴

human security: A framework for assessing the threats to the civilian population's freedom from want, freedom from fear and freedom to live in dignity. It compliments state security which assesses threats to the survival and the territorial integrity of the state.²⁵

instructor: A person tasked with guiding the process of education or training.

learner: A person undergoing an educational or training process. This may not necessarily take place within a formal institution or under the supervision of an instructor and hence is a more encompassing term than the word 'student', for example.²⁶

learning: A self-directed, work-based process that leads to increased adaptive potential.²⁷

learning methods: Any interventions that are deliberately undertaken to assist the process of learning at individual, team or organisational level.²⁸

learning outcomes: Goals that describe how a student will be different because of a learning experience. More specifically, learning outcomes are the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and habits of mind that students take with them from a learning experience.²⁹

lesson plan: A document that reflects a clear vision and structure of the lesson, and is a tool used for conducting a lesson and revising it afterwards in order to improve the learning process. It documents both the content and teaching methodologies of the lesson.

mentee: A person being mentored.

mentoring: A professional relationship in which a more experienced person (mentor) voluntarily shares knowledge, insights, and wisdom with a less-experienced person (mentee) who wishes to benefit from that exchange.³⁰

motivation: The process whereby a goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained.³¹

operational level: The command level at which campaigns and major operations are planned, conducted and sustained to accomplish strategic objectives within theatres or areas of operations.³²

programme: Schedules or plans of procedure under which a series of intended activities is directed toward desired results.³³

sex: A scientific classification based on the biological differences between male, female and intersex organisms.

strategic level: The command level at which a nation or group of nations determines national or multinational security objectives and deploys national, including military, resources to achieve them.³⁴

summative assessment: An assessment used to evaluate student learning, skill acquisition, and academic achievement at the conclusion of a defined instructional period—typically at the end of a project, unit, course, semester, programme, or year.³⁵

tactical level: The command level at which activities; battles and engagements are planned and executed to accomplish military objectives assigned to tactical formations and units.³⁶

training: An instructional process aimed at the acquisition of defined skills relating to particular functions or activities.³⁷

transformative learning: Learning by reflecting critically on one's own experiences, assumptions, beliefs, feelings, and mental perspectives in order to construe new or revised interpretations -- often associated with adult learning.³⁸

transgender people: A broad, umbrella term that refers to individuals who do not identify with the gender that they were assigned at birth, irrespective of whether they have or plan to physically transition to that different gender.³⁹

women, peace and security agenda: The international policy framework based on the UN resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106, 2122 and 2242.

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Introduction

Editorial Board

“ *If you know the enemy and know yourself, you need not fear the result of a hundred battles. If you know yourself but not the enemy, for every victory gained you will also suffer a defeat. If you know neither the enemy nor yourself, you will succumb in every battle.*¹

Sun Tzu

Why teach gender to the military?

Gender is an important, but sometimes invisible, part of most of social life. It is also present in and affects many aspects of military institutions and operations. Many recent developments have demonstrated an increased urgency, need and willingness to integrate a gender perspective into the armed forces. Modern military missions require the capability to gather and disseminate information from and through the local population, a task which requires the capacity to interact with both men and women in culturally diverse contexts.² At the same time, as new skills and knowledge are needed to be able to respond to new security threats, the armed forces need to tap into the potential of the widest population. Accurate casualty estimates in planning kinetic operations require application of a gender perspective.³ And military forces are often called upon to respond to conflict-related sexual violence and deal with male and female survivors of such violence in the theatre of operations.⁴ Military institutions have had their own challenges, which include strong gender dimensions. There have been high-profile national and global debates in recent years focused on preventing misconduct – such as sexual exploitation and abuse in missions or sexual harassment within the ranks – as well as on the integration of women in the services.⁵ All share a concern with defining the professional identity, obligations and capability requirements of servicemen and servicewomen.

It is clear from this that military forces need to take gender perspectives into account, both to ensure that they are able to fulfil their mission and to respect the rights and dignity of men and women, whether they are civilians or uniformed personnel. As Lena Kvarving and Rachel Grimes in Chapter 1 of this handbook so poignantly put it, “It’s about doing things right and doing the right thing.” In recognition of this necessity, various legal and policy documents have been drafted which mandate the inclusion of gender perspectives in the military, ranging from the UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security to the NATO policy for implementing these resolutions. Thus integration of gender perspectives is not only an operational necessity, and crucial to the fulfilment of human rights; it is also a legal obligation.

Education is a key method for integrating gender perspectives into military operations and institutions. Whether the challenge is interaction with (and responding to security needs of) women and men in the local population or addressing discrimination or sexual harassment within the ranks, military education and training should foster the appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable personnel to overcome these challenges. Accordingly, both the UN Security Council resolutions and the NATO policy and action plan mandate the inclusion of gender in education and training.

Training

Undertaken in the hopes of gaining specific skills.

Education

Undertaken in the hopes of furthering individual knowledge and developing the intellect. A lifelong process.⁶

Three principles of mainstreaming and implementing UNSCR 1325⁷ within the armed forces

1) Equal rights.

The equal rights principle – the right to influence and participate in society, and to have access to power and influence – is seen as the basis for democracy and the legitimacy of the state. In the planning, execution and evaluation of military operations this principle involves guaranteeing human rights for women and men, boys and girls.

2) Recruitment and retention.

Recruitment and retention aim at building the capability of the armed forces to create legitimacy, to broaden the basis for recruitment and to construct a position as a desirable employer. To create conditions where men and women can work and develop within all areas and at all levels of the armed forces will create accountability – nationally and internationally – and strengthen the armed forces internally and externally.

3) Operational capability.

The operational capability of the armed forces is strengthened if the best individuals from a broad basis of recruitment are selected. Capability in this sense refers to an individual human being's capacity to perform based on the knowledge and experience that the individual has. Capacity of human beings can be influenced and shaped, supported by processes, methods, directives and approaches. A solid basic capacity and personnel who feel capable can increase the effectiveness of military operations. Situational awareness improves if personnel have a deeper understanding of the needs and preconditions of different groups. The ability to facilitate improved conditions for both men and women strengthens security for the different groups. This in turn will generate support for the mandate of the armed forces.⁸

Purpose and audience: What and who this handbook is for

Noting that teaching gender in the military is an operational necessity and a legal obligation, and responds to a humanitarian need, the purpose of this handbook is to provide educators and instructors with knowledge and resources to aid them in these efforts. The handbook addresses two related questions: *what* do we need to teach about gender in the military, and *how* should we teach it?

In addressing these questions, the hope is that the handbook will speak to a wide range of people involved in education and training. The “what to teach” part may be of interest to educators and instructors who wish either to integrate gender in the content of the courses they deliver or to design a specific module or course dedicated to the topic. The question of “what to teach” will likely also be of interest to gender experts who do not come from a military background, and wish to build their expertise of gender in the military. The “how to teach” part likewise offers something for both gender experts and educators. On the one hand, this part of the

handbook gives an introduction to the principles of adult education and active learning methods, which will provide resources and guidance to those relatively new to delivering educational content. On the other hand, the section may provide seasoned educators with some fresh ideas on how to ensure that their instruction is gender-responsive, regardless of the topic at hand, and how to incorporate transformative gender learning in their instruction.

In brief, this handbook seeks to provide gender experts and military instructors and educators with resources and guidance on what to teach and how to teach when it comes to gender in the military. This is an ambitious topic, and one that a single handbook cannot claim to cover exhaustively. Moreover, the editors and authors recognize the excellent literature and practical resources that already exist on these topics. As such, the aim of the handbook is to fill in knowledge and resource gaps, and to serve as a complement to existing resources. To mention a few areas deliberately omitted, the reader will note that the handbook does not contain ready-made lesson plans or presentations – these resources have been provided by NATO Allied Command Transformation with the NATO department head and the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations.⁹ This handbook aims to equip instructors and educators with the background knowledge regarding gender and skills for delivering this content. In a similar vein, the handbook does not offer a military curriculum that integrates gender: gender has been included in the recently published Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC)/NATO reference curricula for the professional military education of officers and non-commissioned officers.¹⁰ Instead, the chapters of this handbook provide guidance to faculty members on how they might integrate gender in their own curricula, and expands upon how to design gender lessons and what types of learning methods and classroom activities might come in useful. To ensure complementarity and help direct the reader to further resources, each chapter includes an annotated bibliography that describes the key resources related to the topic at hand.

In addressing a diverse audience of gender experts, instructors and faculty members, this handbook focuses on the experience and normative frameworks of NATO Member Nations and partners. Nonetheless, as the aim of the handbook is to provide resources and suggestions, rather than being prescriptive, the hope is that it may also be useful for the wider global community.

Methodology: How this handbook was compiled

This handbook draws from the work of two PfPC working groups: the groups on Security Sector Reform and Education Development. Between 2012 and 2014 the two working groups jointly organized a series of four workshops under the title “Teaching Gender to the Military”.¹¹ These workshops involved 66 gender and education experts from 23 countries of the NATO Member Nations and partners.

The workshops covered the topics included in this handbook – ranging from learning methods to lesson planning, integrating gender in the curriculum, and assessment and evaluation. The series established a need to document the knowledge outcomes of the workshops, and to provide a resource for a broader audience.

In autumn 2014 the working group chairs established an editorial board for the handbook, which sought volunteers from among the workshop participants to write chapters corresponding to their areas of expertise. The authors were chosen for the diverse and complementary expertise and points of view they bring to the publication. They include academics, faculty in professional military education, military gender experts, civilian staff from ministries of defence and security, and civil society experts.

The authors and editorial board held an initial working meeting in Stockholm in December 2014 to agree on the handbook’s contents, and to draft and exchange chapter outlines. During spring 2015 the editorial board circulated draft chapters to expert reviewers, who provided written feedback on the drafts. This peer review process culminated in a review workshop held in Vienna in June 2015, which enabled the reviewers and authors to exchange views and gather more input. The authors submitted final drafts of their chapters by August 2015.

This final product has been content edited by the editorial board and edited for language. It attempts to provide a coherent approach while respecting the diverse experiences and views of its contributing authors. The authors and editors hope that it will be widely used and serve as a useful resource. Our wish is that it will support the delivery of quality education on gender, ultimately contributing to furthering gender equality both within the armed forces and through their operations.

Introduction to the content

This handbook is divided into two parts, following its dual goals of establishing what to teach and how to teach when it comes to gender in the military.

Part I focuses on content, asking what military audiences need to know about gender. In its opening chapter, Lena Kvarving and Rachel Grimes address the overarching question of why gender is a relevant consideration in the activities of armed forces. They demonstrate how introducing a gender perspective is crucial to understanding modern conflict and its human cost, as well as how taking gender into account contributes to operational capacity. In Chapter 2, Sally Longworth, Nevena Miteva and Ankica Tomić unpack the legal basis and normative obligations for teaching gender in the military. They provide an overview of the different international instruments that mandate gender education and training for military audiences, arguing that not only is the integration of a gender perspective beneficial, it is also a requirement. Martina Lindberg and Yvette Foliant delve into more detail in Chapter 3, discussing what gender knowledge, attitude and skills are most relevant to military audiences at different levels and in different contexts. Their overview of what should be taught regarding gender also provides an introduction to existing gender training initiatives currently under way in the context of NATO Member Nations and partners. In the final chapter of this part, Aiko Holvikivi and Kristin Valasek examine how gender can be integrated in military curricula. Chapter 4 explores ways of integrating a gender perspective into curricula that are not exclusively dedicated to gender. Its holistic understanding of the curriculum – including not only content but also faculty, assessment and evaluation – serves as a bridge for thinking about how to teach as well as what to teach.

Part II of the handbook is dedicated to the question of how to teach. It aims to provide gender experts with more information on how to deliver educational content, as well as to provide seasoned educators with some considerations that may be useful in ensuring that their instruction is delivered in a gender-sensitive manner. In Chapter 5, Iryna Lysyckina, Andreas Hildenbrand and Kathaleen Reid-Martinez introduce basic principles of adult learning and the concept of transformative learning. They present the principles underpinning effective education, as well as discussing why learning about gender should be transformative and how this can be achieved. Callum Watson then examines gender dynamics in the classroom in Chapter 6. He draws attention to a multitude of practical considerations that can help educators ensure that the instruction they provide is both effective and gender-responsive. In Chapter 7, Iryna Lysyckina, Virpi Levomaa and Andreas Hildenbrand outline how to plan lessons (including gender content). They also provide examples of classroom-based activities that realize the goals of good adult education through active and transformative learning. Chapter 8 turns to consider how we measure whether the required learning has taken place through assessment and evaluation. In this chapter, Elizabeth Lape presents the evaluation process and its different levels, considering how we can ensure that learning outcomes have been met and that the process is gender-responsive and non-discriminatory. The last two chapters are dedicated to teaching gender outside the classroom setting. In Chapter 9, Tanja Geiss and Gigi Roman ask how technology can be leveraged to support education and training on gender. They examine currently available e-learning applications, and discuss the advantages and limitations of online learning for teaching gender. Chapter 10 focuses on coaching and mentoring as distinct but complementary methods for advancing gender equality and competence across educational institutions. Nathaly Levesque and Maka Petriashvili explore ways in which mentoring can enhance gender equality and gender mainstreaming in military organizations, and how coaching can support leaders in ensuring that gender perspectives are addressed in their institutions.

Final remarks

The aim of this handbook is not just to support those tasked with teaching gender in the military, but also to foster the development of a network of experts. While the terminology and examples have been tailored to NATO Member Nations and partners as the primary audience, significant sections will also be relevant to a wider audience. With this in mind, we encourage the use, reproduction and translation of this handbook, given appropriate credit. We also welcome feedback at gender@dcaf.ch.

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11. "After action" reports of these workshops are available at www.dcaf.ch.



What to Teach

ONE

TWO

THREE

FOUR

Why and how gender is vital to military operations

Lena P. Kvarving (Norway) and Rachel Grimes (United Kingdom)¹

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1. Introduction

Would you do it? Would you make the effort to study a new perspective if you knew that you could achieve greater situational awareness than you ever had before? Would you make the effort to learn about this perspective knowing it was relevant to all social interaction, including war and conflict, if you knew you could improve your unit's chance of success, improve the lives of many and make sure they would be better protected and able to participate in shaping their own future?

These are all essential questions related to teaching gender to the military, and ideally should serve as motivation for learners to learn, change and evolve. A gender perspective should be an inherent and necessary part of a comprehensive approach to military operations. It is not only the right thing to do, it also helps us do things right. In this chapter we consequently focus on why a gender perspective has become an important goal and a tool in military operations, and why this has national as well as international implications.

We begin the chapter by presenting a definition of gender and gender perspectives in military operations, before discussing the changing nature of war and conflict and how it has led to creation of the women, peace and security agenda through United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325.² Finally we discuss why gender perspectives are relevant internally in military organizations and what the implementation of a gender perspective looks like at the strategic, operational and tactical levels of national and international military operations.

2. Gender and gender perspectives

Usually the term “sex” is used to describe fixed biological differences and is something you *are*, while “gender” is a term used to define the flexible and changeable socially constructed roles and attributes you learn through socialization processes and perform in society as both women and men. In other words, gender is something you *learn*. Without wishing to refute Goldstein’s³ claims that the terms are mutually interdependent (in other words, our conception of gender influences biological discourses on sex and vice versa), being aware of the distinction between sex and gender is especially helpful when we want to understand our own and other social norms and behaviours. The definition of gender supports the understanding that gender and culture can be changed, and that the different roles we hold in society will affect and be affected by other social factors like access to justice, economy, healthcare, education and security. The following opening statement from a Swedish general at a conference on gender mainstreaming in the Swedish Armed Forces⁴ is a great example of how expectations and cultural assumptions related to gender roles and performances change over time.

“ *In the beginning of the last century an aggressive and loud debate arose regarding women being given the possibility to work in the Governmental sector. The argument was that the wrists of women were too weak to write through several layers of carbon paper.*

Lieutenant-General C.-G. Fant

It is a common belief that the topic of “gender” only refers to women and women’s issues. This is a misconception, however, as gender refers to the socially constructed characteristics of both men and women (and other genders⁵), and the relationships, norms and expectations of and between groups of men and women. To have a gender perspective thus means being aware of these differences and observing, analysing, understanding and taking into account the limitations and possibilities of *all* the diverse social roles individuals have in different cultures and societies. It means to learn based on your observations, analyse how your actions and goals will affect and be affected by these gender roles and adapt your actions accordingly. Understanding gender roles is in no way equivalent to supporting or accepting them. On the contrary, it is an increased awareness of and focus on the unequal situation of the different genders.

“ *Appalling abuses are still being committed against women. And these include: domestic violence, dowry murders, coerced abortions, honour crimes, and the killing of infants simply because they are born female. Some say, all this is cultural and there’s nothing you can do about it. I say it’s criminal and we all have an obligation to stop it.*

Madeleine Albright⁶

Discussions around gender and gender perspectives are not new, but increased attention to the nexus between security (especially human) and development has led to greater support for universal human rights and demands for equality in areas such as access to justice, education and healthcare. As a result, the need to address gender inequality has been placed firmly on the international agenda in both political and military circles. War and conflict affect men, women, girls and boys differently, and military operations conducted in areas with very different cultures and gender roles, especially where there are also high levels of sexual violence or other forms of abuse and repression, have made it obvious that gender perspectives are an integral part of the so-called “comprehensive approach” to civil-military crises.

Within the context of the comprehensive approach, striving for gender equality and incorporating gender perspectives are seen as both a goal (the right thing to do) and a means to effectiveness (doing things right). These binary objectives are paramount, and will be discussed further under the umbrella of the women, peace and security agenda. However, the essence of gender is that it is dynamic and changeable over time due to changing values and other socio-economic factors. This is important for military forces to remember when integrating a gender perspective into activities aimed at bringing about a better, more just and equal world on behalf of their people and their government.

Box 1.1 Sex versus gender

Sex: Biological differences, something we are.

Gender: Socially constructed differences, something we become and are expected to be and perform – learned and changeable roles adopted as a result of interacting with other people in various cultures and societies.

3. The changing nature of conflict and the importance of a gender perspective in military operations

In modern democratic societies a military operation is never an end in itself. Rather, violence can only be used as a last resort to reach a political aim when all other non-violent avenues have been exhausted. The use of lethal force and advanced weapons systems on behalf of a population can only legally be authorized within a very narrow set of circumstances. Needless to say, this demonstrates why vigorous investigations into the conduct of the armed forces, their ethics and their ability to work towards reaching the political aim with a minimal use of force are an inherent part of a democratic state. Extraordinary caution is used to make sure that the armed forces exercise their duties in an effective and legal way.

It is indisputable that since the end of Cold War and the catastrophic events of 9/11 the character of armed conflict has changed. Historically civilians have often been caught up in the morass of conventional war, but they are an alarmingly regular feature in today's conflicts. As General Rupert Smith explains, "war amongst the people" is becoming routine.⁸ In fact, while research on the First World War suggests that "soldiers accounted for around 95% of victims, in more recent conflicts this ratio has been inverted, with non-combatant civilians now accounting for the vast majority of victims, being displaced, exiled, attacked, tortured, killed or disappearing".⁹ In applying a gender perspective to this shift, the Peace Research Institute Oslo concluded that while "men die more frequently than women in direct armed conflicts... more women than men die in post-conflict situations of the indirect causes of war".¹⁰ While men and some boys are sent (sometimes forcefully) to the battlefield in disproportionate numbers, many women and girls are left with the simultaneous burdens of managing the home, growing or providing food, earning an income and caring for children, the elderly and the wounded. This means they are often the first to be affected by any breakdown of infrastructure.¹¹

Box 1.2 Gender in theories of international relations and war studies⁷

Many of the recent legal and policy developments related to gender, peace and conflict, such as the provisions of the eight UNSCRs on women, peace and security, stem from critiques by gender theorists of some of the mainstream theories in international relations and war studies. For example, some have drawn on gender studies to call into question our traditional understanding of “just war” theories presented by thinkers such as Hugo Grotius and Carl von Clausewitz. Some have argued that if the right to go to war (*jus ad bellum*) is being justified by the need to protect women, then efforts must be made to include women in decision-making on whether this would respond to their security needs and, if so, what kinds of actions would be proportionate. Women, however, continue to be excluded from security-related decision-making, including post-conflict peace settlements (*jus post bellum*) of wars apparently fought in their name. The “participation” pillar of the resolutions on women, peace and security can be seen as a response to this critique.

Deeper understanding of how conflict directly and indirectly affects civilian women, men, girls and boys in different ways has also led gender theorists to question whether the use of force is, as Clausewitz advocates, being restrained by “wise policy”. This is one of the reasons behind the “prevention” pillar, in which the UN Security Council calls for greater recognition of the role women (can) play in the creation and implementation of policies to prevent conflict.

Gender theorists have also pointed to gaps in the application of international humanitarian law (*jus in bello*). With some degree of success, they have promoted the idea that conflict-related sexual violence constitutes a failure in command responsibility that may even undermine the case for using military force as a form of government policy. They assert that sexual violence can no longer be considered as an unfortunate yet inevitable consequence of an otherwise just war. In addition, light has been shed on the fact that many female combatants and male civilians are not recognized as such. Factors such as these have fed into work related to the “protection” pillar of the UNSCRs.

Women and girls (as well as men and boys) are also subject to sexual violence, which is sometimes used systematically by warring parties to achieve military or political objectives. Furthermore, some women and girls are forced to undergo exploitative sexual acts in order to support themselves and their families. This may involve forced prostitution, sexual exploitation or abuse by peacekeepers or aid workers responsible for the distribution of humanitarian aid.¹²



It is now probably more dangerous to be a [civilian] woman than a soldier in modern conflict.

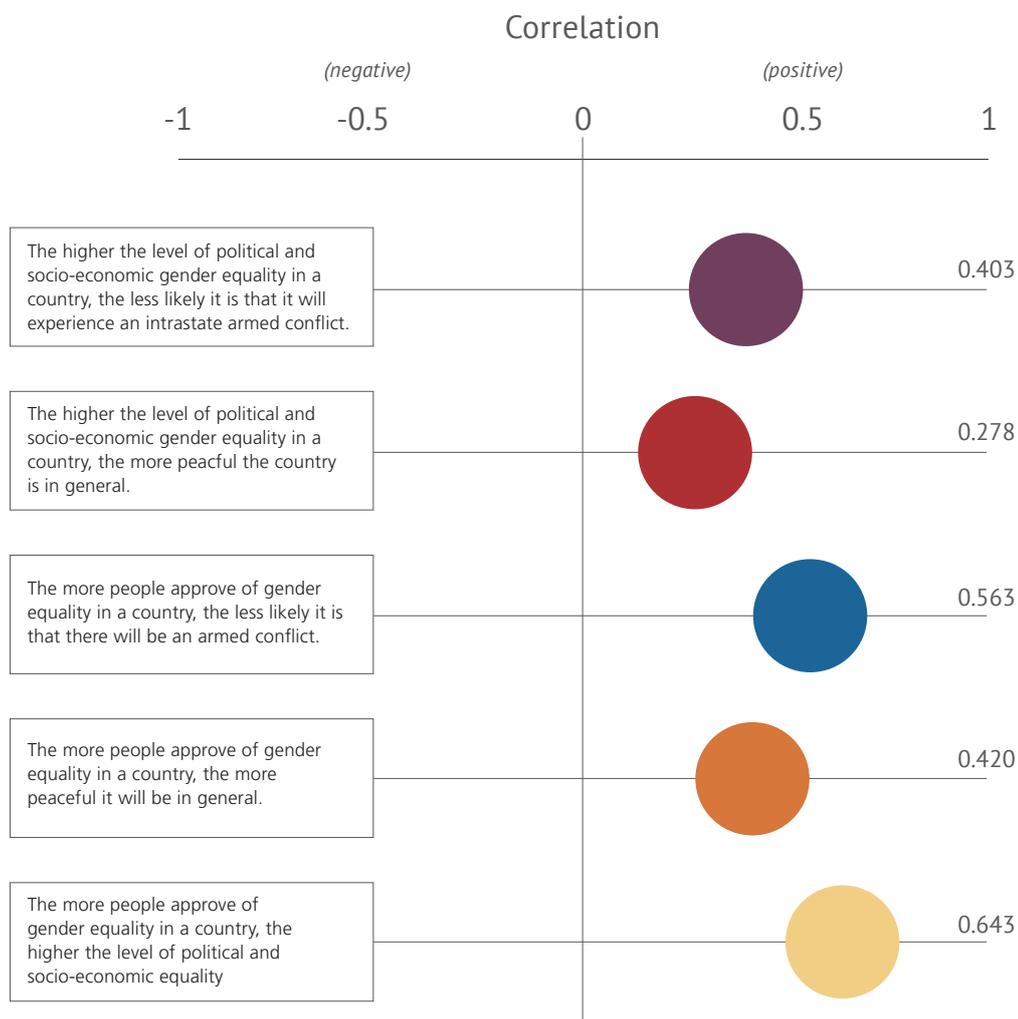
Major-General Patrick Cammaert, former force commander in eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo and military adviser in the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations¹³

Post-Cold War changes in the nature of conflict have also led to the widening of the definition of security. Traditional notions of state security are now joined by newer conceptions of human security. While state security focuses on defending against threats to the survival and the territorial integrity of the state, human security seeks to protect the civilian population’s freedom from want, freedom from fear and freedom to live in dignity.¹⁴ One of the reasons why human security is beginning to be taken more seriously is because of an increasing understanding that many humanitarian crises are multicausal. Often termed as complex emergencies, these situations occur when one threat to security, such as armed conflict, is aggravated by other negative economic, environmental, political or social factors.¹⁵ Complex emergencies can only be resolved by a comprehensive approach to crisis management. This involves military actors coordinating with other humanitarian actors to

prevent, protect, intervene and rebuild in these situations, and to create lasting stability by addressing different aspects of security, development and rights in a coordinated manner. This comprehensive approach to crisis management was endorsed by NATO in its 2010 strategic concept.¹⁶

Measures of human insecurity have also been used by researchers to predict the resilience of a given area to violent conflict. More recently, researchers have drawn upon measures of gender equality to highlight correlations between countries likely to experience conflict and those that rate poorly when it comes to gender equality (Box 1.3).¹⁷ This would suggest that the promotion of gender equality is a critical component to preventing violent conflict, not because women are inherently more peaceful but because more gender equality is linked to both more sustainable development and lower levels of interpersonal violence, which, in turn, reduce the likelihood of conflict.¹⁸

Box 1.3 The correlation between gender inequality and peace and conflict



Åsa Ekvall tested the five hypotheses in the graph by comparing data on gender equality from the World Values Survey and the Global Gender Gap Index to data on the presence of conflict or peacefulness within a country from the Uppsala Conflict Data Base and the Global Peace Index. The data analysis confirmed all five hypotheses with strong, positive correlations at a confidence interval of 99.9 per cent. While Ekvall’s analysis does not prove a causal link between gender inequality and violent conflict, it does support qualitative research suggesting that there may be one. She argues that gender equality should therefore be considered as an integral part of violence and conflict prevention rather than as a “women’s issue” to be dealt with once the “hard” security threats have been addressed.¹⁹

The changing perception of security and what constitutes a security threat has also had consequences for what role states see for their militaries. While the UN Charter²⁰ generally forbids the use of the military to violate the sovereignty of another state, some states have argued in favour of a responsibility to protect (R2P) that gives the international community the right to intervene, using military force as a last resort, “where a population is suffering serious harm, as a result of internal war, insurgency, repression or state failure, and the state in question is unwilling or unable to halt or avert it”.²¹ The R2P principle was invoked and, for the first time, endorsed by the UN Security Council in regard to the situation in Libya in 2011, resulting in Operation Odyssey Dawn and Operation Unified Protector.²² This use of an armed intervention to avert a humanitarian crisis highlights a new emerging role for the military. The political objective in this case was not to repel an enemy military threat but rather to guarantee the human security of a country’s population. Militaries in countries with the resources to invoke the R2P therefore need to consider this new role and adapt their structure, education and training to respond to this new kind of political objective on the part of their governments and people.

“

Global systems of the 20th century were designed to address inter-state tensions and civil wars. War between nation states and civil war have a given logic... 21st century violence and conflict have not been banished... But because of the success in reducing inter-state war, the remaining forms of violence do not fit neatly into “war” or “peace” or into “political” or “criminal” violence.

World Bank²³

Another development is that armed forces are increasingly being asked to contribute in the response to terrorist and criminal threats committed by non-state actors. This often involves conducting operations in populated areas rather than on a traditional battlefield, hence it is critical that the United Nations and regional security organizations such as NATO and the African Union understand the cultural and anthropological terrain in which their soldiers are operating. For them to respond effectively to the likes of the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda in the Democratic Republic of the Congo or the so-called Islamic State, it is critical to have a broader understanding of the environment. A fundamental aspect of this will be recognizing what the gender roles of the people in the area of operations are, and how women, girls, men and boys are being targeted and affected differently. Without this knowledge they risk overlooking security threats (by, for example, assuming that all women are non-combatants), and may fail to identify those in vulnerable situations who are in need of protection. To have this situational awareness soldiers will require support such as host-nation training and cultural awareness training, plus language skills and the ability to view the situation with a gender perspective – including the ability to conduct a gender analysis of the human terrain.

4. Legal foundations for the implementation of a gender perspective in military operations

In October 2000 the UN Security Council took an important step and elevated women’s rights and conditions from the social and economic agenda to the agenda for international peace and security. The women’s movement had lobbied and argued persistently for the issues to be taken seriously, and ultimately the UN Security Council came to a well-informed and deeper understanding of the security concept.²⁴

The unanimous adoption by the Security Council of UNSCR 1325 on women, peace and security heralded a historic change in the global security agenda. The resolution calls on all member states to ensure that women’s and society’s security needs are safeguarded through increased emphasis on the three pillars of prevention, protection and participation. The prevention (of conflict and gender-based violence) and participation (at all

levels of decision-making related to peace and security) pillars recognize the fact that the effects of war and conflict on women and girls have been historically overlooked, and that increased efforts are needed in order to protect their basic human rights (the third pillar). However, the main shift in the security agenda is that women are now seen as actors and active contributors in shaping their own future and that of their nations through participation in conflict resolution and peacebuilding activities.

Additionally, the resolution goes on to detail some specific actions to be taken. For instance, more women are to be deployed in peacekeeping operations, and gender perspectives are to be part of all planning and execution of military operations. These actions can be interpreted as both aims and tools to bring about gender equality. They are also believed to increase the chances of achieving mission success and sustainable peace, as well as the resolution's main objectives related to prevention, protection and participation.

Following the adoption of UNSCR 1325, many countries have generated their own national action plans to detail and evaluate their own efforts towards the aims of the women, peace and security agenda. This is a unique response to a UNSCR and emphasizes widespread commitment to the implementation of this resolution. The UN Security Council has in turn cemented its commitment to gender equality by subsequently adopting another seven resolutions on women, peace and security.²⁵ Together, the eight resolutions represent an important framework for improving women's situations in conflict-affected countries.

5. The military's role in implementing the women, peace and security agenda

How is this relevant to the armed forces? First of all, different nations have international, regional and national obligations related to the women, peace and security agenda, and most UN mandates for military operations now include references to UNSCR 1325 and the other resolutions on women, peace and security. The armed forces therefore need to incorporate the objectives and desired outcomes of these UNSCRs into their operational plans. Secondly, including gender perspectives as a tool in conducting all parts of operations gives a greater chance of being more effective in addressing constant challenges such as protection of civilians, situational awareness and understanding the security needs of different groups of people. For the military this means force protection, intelligence and information efforts, especially within the context of complex emergencies.

For its part, NATO has comprehended and embraced its role in relation to the women, peace and security agenda through its Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, which was adopted in 2009 and revised in 2012 (see Chapter 2). In addition, the first special representative for UNSCR 1325 to the NATO Secretary General was appointed in 2012, and gender adviser positions have been established in Allied Command Operations at the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe in Mons, and at the Allied Command Transformation in Norfolk, VA and the Joint Force Commands in Brunssum and Naples. In addition, gender advisers at strategic, operational and tactical levels have been deployed in recent operations in Kosovo and Afghanistan. NATO has also appointed the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations in Sweden as department head for all curricula related to gender for NATO and Partnership for Peace countries (see Chapter 3).²⁶ These structural changes have been created in an effort to implement gender perspectives in NATO's military operations and fulfil the aims of UNSCR 1325.

The way in which the armed forces apply the women, peace and security agenda to their missions involves a three-step process. First, a gender-specific component is needed in the environmental analysis of the area of operations, which is a standard part of the planning phase. A military strategy needs to be based on a full analysis of the operational environment. This will not be possible, however, unless geographic, economic, political and military factors are understood within their socio-cultural context. Furthermore, this analysis will need to be gender specific because the experience of living in any given environment varies for different groups of women, men, girls and boys, and changes in that environment will have different consequences for each of them.

This gender-specific knowledge can then feed into the next step, which is to consider how the needs of the population relate to the three pillars (prevention, protection and participation) of the women, peace and security agenda and what impact the military might have on its implementation. The third step is to consider the specific mandate for each military operation and what this means in terms of the scope and opportunities for implementing the women, peace and security agenda. For example, an operation with a mandate to protect civilians would see the military playing an active role in its implementation. Conversely, if the mandate were to establish air supremacy in an arctic area, the armed forces would play a more passive role but operations would still need to be adapted so as not to exacerbate the situation for women and girls and avoid undermining the work of non-military actors operating in the same environment.

6. Implementation at strategic, operational and tactical levels

To implement gender perspectives in military operations, gender dimensions must be included in all phases of an operation. Implementation at all levels, however, requires the different actors to be educated and trained on what gender is and how it relates to their daily work, which explains the need for this handbook. Box 1.4 outlines the different tasks of personnel at the strategic, operational and tactical levels.

Box 1.4 Definitions of the strategic, operational and tactical levels

The *strategic level* can be described as the “level at which a nation or group of nations determines national or multinational security objectives and deploys national, including military, resources to achieve them”.²⁷

The *operational level* can be described as the “level at which campaigns and major operations are planned, conducted and sustained to accomplish strategic objectives within theatres or areas of operations”.²⁸

The *tactical level* can be described as the “level at which activities, battles and engagements are planned and executed to accomplish military objectives assigned to tactical formations and units”.²⁹

First of all, the *strategic level* has to ensure that gender perspectives and the provisions of UNSCR 1325 and associated resolutions are part of the mandate for the operation as a legal foundation and there is a clear, politically defined for the aims to be achieved. The strategic level is also responsible for following up on implementation. Many of the conditions for women’s participation in the military are set at this level, since policies for recruitment and retention are instigated here. The strategic level also plays a key role in determining how codes of conduct are formulated, and leadership at this level can exercise influence to make sure that unlawful behaviours such as sexual exploitation and abuse of civilian populations and sexual harassment within the troops are seen as being morally and ethically unacceptable.

At the *operational level*, the strategic political aims are transformed into military tasks and form the core of the military profession: operational planning. In the planning process, gender-specific analyses of the mandate, operational environment and the particular forces need to be incorporated. This will have an impact on how the military plans to undertake tasks related to, for example, situational awareness, intelligence gathering, information sharing, mission analysis and reporting, as well as the interaction with civil society. This will lead the military to evaluate whether its existing structures and competencies are sufficient, and may result in changes to recruitment procedures, force composition and the provision of facilities (e.g. to ensure that the needs of all personnel are met regardless of their gender), as well as the kinds of education and training that military personnel receive.

At the *tactical level* gender perspectives are important in everyday operations. To understand the security needs of the civilian population one needs to understand the different conditions and contexts that men, women, girls and boys are subject to in an operational area. Also, from a participation point of view it is important to involve women as actors and let them define their concerns themselves. Often women have primarily been seen as victims of conflict, but gender roles change over time and in different parts of the world. There are, for instance, situations when gender stereotypes on the part of the military constitute a threat to force protection. Misconceptions that women cannot be combatants and a lack of capability to search women have cost militaries dearly in the past. There are well-known examples from the Afghan war where male Taliban fighters dressed up as women in *burqas* in order to detonate bombs, and women have shot coalition forces in Iraq.³⁰

7. Conclusion

Integrating a gender perspective into military operations is logical in terms of promoting both justice and effectiveness. The ability to implement gender perspectives at all levels in military operations increases with more women in international operations.³¹ Efforts aimed at the recruitment and retention of women are therefore fundamental. This involves minimizing prejudice and promoting career opportunities for women by having a diverse workforce that includes a critical mass of female staff, fostering a cooperative and equal work environment, and ensuring that people from minority groups have access to senior positions. This will result in more women working in national services, thus creating a larger recruitment pool for international deployments. In addition, national military forces will have to make changes to ensure their structures, functions and organizational cultures facilitate a thriving environment for men and women. This is where the need for integrating a gender perspective into all military education and training comes in – more details are given in the following chapters of this handbook. This cannot be achieved, however, without the full support of and buy-in from senior leadership. With this in mind the inclusion of gender perspectives needs, first and foremost, to be integrated in the steering documents upon which military education and training are based.

Although a gender perspective is neither a “silver bullet” nor the answer to every question or challenge in military operations, it is a perspective that will create better situational awareness and substantively contribute to reaching the goals of international obligations of working towards a more equal society and making the use of military forces more effective.



[If] the International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan (ISAF) and the NATO Kosovo Force (KFOR) are to succeed with gender mainstreaming throughout their missions, then the support and advocacy of senior leadership is imperative. If NATO intends to support development of gender equality and improve protection for women and girls, a constant focus from NATO civilian and military leadership, as well as from senior leaders in alliance and partner countries, is a key ingredient for succeeding. The Review found that it is of critical importance that military commanders at all levels – strategic, operational and tactical – lead by example and integrate a gender perspective into their actions.³²

Helené Lackenbauer and Richard Langlais (eds), *Review of the Practical Implications of UNSCR 1325 for the Conduct of NATO-led Operations and Missions*

8. Annotated Bibliography

Caprioli, M., "Primed for violence: The role of gender inequality in predicting internal conflict", *International Studies Quarterly*, Vol. 49, No. 2 (2005).

This article draws on methodologies used to examine the relationship between ethnic discrimination and its link to ethno-political intrastate rebellion-conflict, and applies them instead to measure whether gender inequality can also increase the likelihood of intrastate violence. The author's conviction that there is indeed a demonstrable link was one of the reasons why she became one of the lead contributors to an online database of quantitative data on the status women. This can be found at www.womanstats.org.

Defense Department, National Defense University [USA], *Women on the Frontlines of Peace and Security* (Washington, DC: National Defense University Press, 2014). Available at: ndupress.ndu.edu/Books/WomenontheFrontlinesofPeaceandSecurity.aspx.

This compilation, which contains a foreword from Hillary Rodham Clinton and Leon Panetta, consists of a selection of chapters written by high profile academics, ambassadors and practitioners specialising on peace and security issues, many of whom have previously held high-ranking positions in the US Military. The chapters are grouped into five broad themes which broadly reflect the pillars of the women, peace and security agenda: the integration of women into US defence and foreign policy, women and conflict prevention, women as equal participants in conflict resolution, protections for women during and after conflict and women's equal access to the means for recovery.

de Lara, B.F., and M. Robles Carrillo, "Integration of the perspective of gender into the analysis of armed conflicts and security", in Spanish Institute for Strategic Studies and Granada University – Army Training and Doctrine Combined Centre (ed.), *The Role of Women and Gender in Conflicts*, Strategic Dossier 157-B (Madrid: Ministry of Defence, 2012). Available at: dialnet.unirioja.es/descarga/articulo/4055800/1.pdf

This article provides an overview of how changes in the nature of contemporary conflicts, as well as developments in the field of security studies, resulted in a greater focus on the gendered dimensions of conflict towards the end of the twentieth century. It documents how this shaped the women, peace and security agenda and concludes with an analysis of how effective this policy framework is in addressing atrocities such as sexual violence in wartime.

Goldstein, J.S., *War and Gender* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001).

This book is commonly used as a textbook for university-level introductory courses on gender for students in social science. It looks at the historical depiction of women and men in wartime settings, outlines relevant basic concepts of gender studies such as the distinction between sex and gender and provides an overview of the different schools of academic research on topics related to gender and conflict.

Hammar, L., and A. Berg (eds), *Whose Security? Practical examples of gender perspectives in military operations* (Kungsängen: Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations/Swedish Armed Forces, 2015). Available at: <http://www.forsvarsmakten.se/en/swedint/nordic-centre-for-gender-in-military-operations/>.

This publication was produced by the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations which is the NATO department head for the delivery of all gender education and training. It contains a wide selection of case studies that detail practical examples of how gender perspectives have been integrated into military operations around the world. These are grouped into several themes such as gender perspective in operational planning, capacity to deliver on the mandate and enhancing operational effect through training. Many of the examples are drawn from contexts where NATO member nations were deployed such as Afghanistan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Iraq.

Sjoberg, L., *Gender, War, and Conflict* (Cambridge: Polity Press, 2014).

This book uses a combination of both personal stories and macro-level analysis to make the case for gender analysis as a critical tool for understanding war and conflict to its full extent. It first highlights the shortcomings of conflict analyses that ignore gender dimensions and then goes on to outline some of the tools that can be used to better assess how gender influences war and conflict, including in the pre- and post-conflict stages.

Tryggestad, T. L., *International Norms and Political Change: "Women, Peace and Security" and the UN Security Agenda* (Oslo: University of Oslo, 2014). Available at: [urn.nb.no/URN:NBN:no-46203](https://nbn-resolving.org/urn:nbn:nb:urn:nbn:nb-no-46203).

This thesis examines the international developments that lead to the emergence of the Women, Peace and Security framework in 2000, a milestone that would have been unthinkable even five years previously. It looks at how collaborative efforts between dedicated member states, influential individuals within the UN system and transnational advocacy networks of women's organisations brought about the formation of this new normative framework and how it has subsequently influenced regional and national institutions.

Annex: Quick reference guide – Gender at the strategic, operational and tactical levels

GENDER AT THE STRATEGIC LEVEL

Political-military level

At the *political-military level*, objectives are created for the military to execute. To ensure that a gender perspective is achieved at the tactical level, these strategic objectives should:

- reinforce the UN resolutions on women, peace and security – noting the critical role the inclusion of women plays in achieving an enduring peace;
- acknowledge that civilians, particularly women and children, account for the vast majority of those affected by conflict;
- include specific direction to consider the protection of women and children as important as the neutralization of armed groups;
- relate the mandate to specific gender matters (e.g. that any disarmament, demobilization and reintegration programmes include female combatants as well as male combatants, and should not only focus on people carrying weapons);
- include wording in the mission that encourages the military carrying out the strategic direction to consider a gender perspective – for example, instead of stating that “the force is to create a safe and secure environment”, one could state that “the force is to create a safe and secure environment cognizant that the view of security varies between women and men, taking into consideration that women and men experience security in different ways”;
- include formal liaison with international and national bodies that represent women’s groups within the country where the deployment will take place;
- capture gender-disaggregated data to understand the area of operations better and use these for future operational planning purposes;
- direct units to deploy gender advisers and gender focal points;
- budget for gender advisers and gender focal points;
- make finances available for initiatives supporting women as well as men in theatre.

Recruitment and retention of servicewomen

While a gender perspective is predominantly focused on external interaction with local communities in the area of operations, without enough servicewomen to engage with women in this area it is difficult to achieve a gender perspective. It is critical at the strategic level that:

- recruitment campaigns are run to encourage women to join the military;
- servicewomen have terms and conditions of service that inspire them to stay in the military as a long-term career choice;
- promotion for women is at (proportionally) the same numbers as promotion for men;
- the career paths to senior military appointments are reviewed to ensure women and men have the same opportunities;
- the armed forces’ organizational structures, functions and culture support recruitment and retention of servicewomen.

GENDER AT THE OPERATIONAL LEVEL

The *operational level* acts as a bridge between the objectives set at the strategic level and the military action carried out at the tactical level. The direction and orders issued by the operational HQ should be gender mainstreamed and provide specific guidelines to units that will ensure a gender perspective is included at ground level.

Operational HQ staffing and procedures

Over time a gender perspective will run in the “veins” of military HQ and not require additional staffing, but at this moment the military mindset is not intuitively attuned to a gender perspective and fails to mainstream gender. To that end the operational HQ should:

- establish a staff officer responsible for the implementation of UNSCRs resolutions relating to women, peace and security – this appointment could be based on the NATO gender field adviser or termed the “protection of civilians officer”;³³
- include in the main body of the operational order and operational plan paragraphs that are gender mainstreamed;
- include a gender-specific annex for gender focal points in units and other staff branches that would benefit from a gender perspective.

Box 1.5 Gender mainstreaming in military functions at the operational level³⁴

J1: Personnel/chief personnel officer	J2: Operational intelligence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Ensure that the deploying force has a gender field adviser/protection of civilians officer.³⁵ ▶ Sufficient numbers of servicewomen to be deployed to conduct searching operations and engage with local women, and of women interpreters and trained women to respond to survivors of conflict-related sexual violence. ▶ Soldiers to be made aware of standards of behaviour towards the local population. ▶ Zero-tolerance policy towards using prostitution services to be implemented. ▶ Zero-tolerance policy towards sexual harassment or violence between service members to be implemented. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Information to be collected from women as well as men. ▶ Data to be disaggregated to show the experiences of women, men and the under-18s. ▶ Data to be analysed to provide commanders and staffs with relevant intelligence. ▶ Procedures to be put in place to push intelligence out to the field.

<p>J3: Current operations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Ensure that orders direct units to conduct mixed patrolling and have servicewomen on cordon and search operations. ▶ Create templates for reporting which include headings to provide information relating to the gender dynamics of the area, e.g. formally report incidents of rape/human rights abuses in the name of witchcraft. ▶ Train staff on and implement gender overlay in collateral damage estimates for air-dropped munitions. ▶ Ensure missions using gendered interface units (female engagement teams, cultural support teams, women's initiative training teams, mixed patrols) are tracked in the joint operations centre. ▶ Information operations. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Are products communicating with local population inclusive? ✓ Has the force considered whether its messages reinforce cultural mores of the society that undermine the human rights of children and women? ✓ Does key leader engagement include dialogue with women? 	<p>J4: Logistics/medical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Contracts to be given to companies that have a transparent record on treatment of women and children. ▶ Contracts to be given to businesses run by women or supporting women in local society. ▶ With J1 and military police, ensure that civilians employed on camp are protected from sexual exploitation, trafficking and prostitution. ▶ Medics to have servicewomen trained in how to respond to conflict-related sexual violence and use PEP³⁶ kits, etc. ▶ Camps to have ablutions for women that are safe and secure. ▶ Adequate supplies of urinary diversion tubes exist in theatre. ▶ Medics are trained in the health needs of servicewomen operating in austere environments. ▶ Laundry facilities available for women service members who choose not to use camp laundry services.
<p>J5: Deliberate planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Operational plans and orders to have a gender perspective throughout, plus a dedicated annex on gender. ▶ Security sector reform programmes should specifically include training and infrastructure for indigenous women and not only focus on training local men. ▶ Disarmament, demobilization and reintegration to consider women and girls as well as the men involved in armed groups. ▶ Post-conflict negotiations/key leader engagement to include women. ▶ Should the force be involved in internally displaced persons or refugee camps (which is rare, as this is the role of UN agencies and humanitarian actors), consider the security of women, locks on showers, lighting, separate areas for men and women, etc. ▶ Special operating forces' concepts of operations must include gender-relevant considerations. 	<p>J6: Communication and information systems</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Ensure communications structures are not placed near schools or areas usually occupied by local women. <p>J7: Training</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Ensure induction training for the force includes a gender-specific lesson. ▶ If involved in security sector reform, ensure women are included in training. ▶ Ensure specific staff section officers, e.g. targeters and weapons users in the dynamic targeting cell, have training in the incorporation of gender perspectives in their specific functional standard operating procedures. <p>J8: Finance and human resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Money should be allocated to units for funding women's projects.

GENDER AT THE TACTICAL LEVEL

The *tactical level* requires soldiers to be aware of a gender perspective, to think beyond the traditional norms of conflict and to understand that their job is not purely about neutralizing armed groups or insurgents. They must be taught before they deploy about how men and women experience conflict differently, and how some groups are more at risk than others during deliberate operations.

Box 1.6 Gender mainstreaming in military functions at the tactical level

<p>J1: Personnel</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Units have male and female battle casualty replacements at the home unit. ▶ Discipline of soldiers is monitored and zero tolerance shown to soldiers who transgress the rules regarding prostitution and the exploitation of women and children. 	<p>J2: Operational intelligence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Units to use mixed and female engagement teams to gather information from the entire spectrum of society. ▶ Patterns and trends for conflict-related sexual violence to be monitored and collated.
<p>J3: Current operations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Patrols to be of mixed gender as often as possible. ▶ Post-patrol briefs to include assessment of threats to civilians and reports of conflict-related sexual violence or other human rights violations. ▶ Commanding officer and company commanders to engage with local women (where culturally acceptable) and use female engagement teams when there are no female military staff or the local women cannot meet with the men from the unit. 	<p>J4: Logistics/medical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ With J1 and military police, ensure that women employed on camp are not able to practise prostitution. ▶ Medics to have servicewomen trained in how to respond to conflict-related sexual violence and use PEP kits, etc.
<p>J5: Deliberate planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Units to have servicewomen prepared and trained to assist with security sector reform, disarmament, demobilization and reintegration, internally displaced persons camps, etc. 	<p>J6: Communication and information systems</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Ensure communications structures are not placed near schools or areas usually occupied by local women. <p>J7: Training</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Training officer to ensure soldiers are refreshed in gender training during tour. ▶ If involved in security sector reform, ensure women are included in training. <p>J8: Finance and human resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Commanding officer to allocate funding for women's projects.

Notes

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 33. POCO – protection of civilians officer – is not yet a formally recognized staff appointment within UN or NATO missions, and is used for illustrative purposes only.
 34. This table shows how the different military functions can mainstream a gender perspective into their routine work. J refers to joint, i.e. a naval/land/air operation. If the military deployment is a single service, the military functions are G (ground), A (air) and N (navy).
 35. The creation of the table which states who needs to deploy is traditionally drafted by the current operations branch (G3).
 36. PEP kits: after rape, people are given anti-retroviral medication to prevent HIV infection. This treatment is called post-exposure prophylaxis or PEP.

Gender training and the military: The legal and policy framework

Sally Longworth (Swedish Defence University), Nevena Miteva (Bulgaria) and Ankica Tomić (Bosnia and Herzegovina)¹

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1. Introduction

As is highlighted in Chapter 1 and throughout this handbook, there is a growing understanding of the different impact that armed conflict has on women, girls, boys and men.² Incorporating a gender perspective in military operations can assist in identifying those in vulnerable situations and the protection needs of people in society. The law provides the critical framework for ensuring that the objectives pursued by the international community with regard to gender are implemented and maintained in the correct, non-discriminatory way. As such, understanding how international legal standards have developed to address the protection needs of different groups can also assist us in understanding the importance of incorporating a gender perspective in military operations, as well as the rationale behind many of the policy developments related to gender and security.

Training in both the legal requirements and how to incorporate a gender perspective in operational processes is essential. It needs to be emphasized, however, that training on legal requirements should be conducted by legal experts, such as legal advisers or experts within military operations, academics and practitioners, and their advice and assistance should be sought in courses on gender where these areas are covered.

This chapter builds on Chapter 1 by detailing the international legal and policy requirements relating to incorporating a gender perspective in military operations and the need for training in this regard, and provides the backdrop to Chapter 3, which describes what gender training can entail. The aim of providing this background to the underlying legal and political framework is to aid in understanding other chapters in the handbook and assist in explaining to others the development and importance of incorporating a gender perspective in operations. It is not a comprehensive review of the applicable legal standards or literature, but highlights areas where instructors should have knowledge in explaining the background and historical development. It also aims

to help learners in understanding where they might need the assistance of and can enlist legal experts within their work.³ The chapter begins by giving a broad outline of the legal obligations under international human rights law, international humanitarian law and international criminal law that provide the basis for the UN Security Council's resolutions (UNSCRs) on women, peace and security, followed by a summary of the UNSCRs relating to this area. It moves on to provide an overview of UN strategy and the frameworks for implementing a gender perspective used by the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the European Union (EU) and other regional bodies.

2. The international legal framework

Under international law, all human beings have the right not to be discriminated against based on any ground such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.⁴ In addition, all persons have the right to be recognized as equal before the law.⁵ Human rights law and international humanitarian law contain legal rights and protections for all persons and specific rights and protections for different groups within society. Certain grave violations of the international legal standards are recognized as criminal acts for which individuals are criminally responsible and liable to prosecution and punishment; several of these have a gendered element or their commission may impact on different genders differently. Non-discrimination, equality before the law and equal protection of the law form a bedrock for the protection of all human rights and the protections flowing from international humanitarian law, the violation of which entails state responsibility.⁶ States are obliged to respect and ensure respect for international human rights law and international humanitarian law.⁷ This obligation applies to all those exercising state authority, and includes the actions of military personnel. Training and education on these standards and their integration into codes of conduct, disciplinary structures, manuals and procedures are therefore critical. In military operations, the protections and obligations set out in international human rights law, international humanitarian law and international criminal law are of primary relevance, and as such are the focus of this chapter. Protections afforded under international refugee law may also be relevant, and domestic legal frameworks may include additional protections.

2.1 International human rights law

The protection of human rights is a critical component in the framework for international peace and security established under the UN Charter. Its importance was summed up by a former UN High Commissioner for Human Rights: "Today's human rights violations are the causes of tomorrow's conflicts."¹⁰ Indeed, in defining the purposes of the UN, Article 1 of the UN Charter stipulates the achievement of international cooperation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all

Human rights law is a body of law that regulates the relation between states and individuals through the legal recognition of inherent and inalienable rights owed to all human beings, setting out obligations on states to respect, protect and fulfil the realization of those rights.⁹

without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion, together with the maintenance of international peace and community and the development of friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples. Article 55 builds on this, providing that the UN shall promote universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedom for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion. Article 56 obliges UN member states to take joint and separate action in cooperation with the UN for the achievement of the purposes set out in Article 55.

Box 2.1 A short recap of the sources of international law

States' obligations under international law are derived from the recognized sources of international law. The classic sources are listed in Article 38 of the Statute of the International Court of Justice as:

- a. international conventions (treaties)
- b. customary international law
- c. the general principles of law recognized in the legal systems of states
- d. subsidiary means for determination of rules of law – judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified practitioners.

<p>Treaties (Also referred to as “conventions”, “protocols”, “charters”, etc.)</p> <p><i>Examples</i> The Charter of the United Nations, 1945; the Geneva Conventions, 1949, and their Additional Protocols of 1977 and 2005; the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1979.</p>	<p>A treaty is an international agreement between states in written form and governed by international law. Treaties are legally binding on the states party to them. They may be multilateral, involving many parties, or bilateral between two states.</p>
<p>Customary international law</p> <p><i>Examples</i> Prohibition of the use of force in international relations; prohibition of genocide; prohibition of torture, inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment; the principle of distinction between civilians and combatants in international humanitarian law.</p>	<p>Custom is made up of established, widespread and consistent practice by states followed in the opinion that they are legally required to do so (<i>opinion juris</i>). All states are bound by customary international law, unless it is a “special” or “local” custom, and save for the exceptional case of a “persistent objector”.⁸</p>
<p>General principles of law</p> <p><i>Example</i> The principle of good faith.</p>	<p>Where there is no provision in treaty or customary international law, recourse may be had to general principles of law as evidenced by the national legal systems of states. As treaty and customary law has grown, this source has less importance today.</p>
<p>Subsidiary means for the determination of rules of law</p> <p><i>Examples</i> Decisions of the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR).</p>	<p>These are not authorities in and of themselves, but are evidence of the sources of international law. States and international organizations adopt a great many instruments which, although not a classic source of international law, contribute to evidence of other sources of law, such as customary international law. As such, the resolutions issued by different UN bodies and international commitments made by states at conferences may be used as evidence of a legal obligation on states.</p>

The UN Charter does not define human rights, however. The substantive provisions on human rights obligations can be found in treaties and customary international law. The first instrument adopted by the UN was the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), adopted by consensus by the General Assembly on 10 December 1948. Although not a binding international instrument, its provisions are now considered to be reflective of customary international law.¹¹ The UDHR lists civil and political rights, as well as economic, social and cultural rights. The recognition that all human beings are equal in dignity and rights is set at the forefront of Article 1, closely followed in Article 2 by the provision that everyone is entitled to all rights and freedoms set out

in the UDHR without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. This includes adverse distinction based on gender or gender identity. Article 2 further provides that no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty. Article 7 provides that all are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law, and to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of the UDHR and against any incitement to such discrimination. These universally recognized and protected principles are fundamental for the exercise of all other rights and mean that all persons, regardless of gender, sex, gender identity, sexual orientation or other similar status, are entitled to the enjoyment of human rights recognized under international law.

Following the adoption of the UDHR, there has been significant development in the treaty regulation of human rights. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), adopted in 1966, are often referred to together with the UDHR as the “International Bill of Rights”.¹² In addition, there are to date ten core international human rights instruments covering specific persons or areas, including the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965 (CERD), the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984 (CAT), the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989 (CRC) and the International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2006.¹³ Beyond the international system of human rights protection, the Council of Europe, the Organization of American States and the African Union (AU) have adopted sophisticated systems for upholding and enforcing human rights law.¹⁴

Box 2.2 Key legal instruments in international human rights law

- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1979 (CEDAW)
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984
- Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989
- International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990
- International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2006
- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006
- Second Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1989, aiming at the abolition of the death penalty
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 2000, on the involvement of children in armed conflict
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 2000, on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography
- Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 2002

A full list of these instruments is available at www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CoreInstruments.aspx.

States have negative obligations not to infringe upon the rights of individuals and positive obligations to protect the human rights of individuals and ensure the fulfilment of these rights.¹⁵ In this, states are required to exercise due diligence to prevent, investigate, punish and ensure redress for the acts of private persons or entities that breach the human rights of others.¹⁶ This does not mean that states cannot make distinctions for certain categories of persons. Differential treatment may be used by states if it is founded on reasonable and objective criteria and has a legitimate purpose.¹⁷ In addition, the international community has recognized that certain groups are in need of specific protections and has reinforced the general protections provided under the UDHR, ICCPR and ICESCR with treaties addressing the rights of specific groups of persons or areas, such as CERD, CRC and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006.¹⁸ CEDAW is the most comprehensive international treaty on women's rights.¹⁹ As noted by the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW Committee), "Protecting women's human rights at all times, advancing substantive gender equality before, during and after conflict and ensuring that women's diverse experiences are fully integrated into all peacebuilding, peacemaking, and reconstruction processes are important objectives of the Convention."²⁰ By becoming party to this treaty, states are legally obliged to undertake measures to end discrimination against women in all forms, including incorporating the principle of equality of men and women in their legal systems, abolishing discriminatory law and adopting laws prohibiting discrimination against women, ensuring access to justice and equal protection of the law and taking measures to ensure women are protected from discrimination by others in society.²¹ It includes specific provisions relating to the participation of women in political and public life, in government and at the international level.²² In addition to provisions requiring states to ensure the realization of all human rights, the treaty includes provisions specifically relating to the suppression of all forms of traffic in women and exploitation or prostitution of women, the rights of rural women, education and healthcare, among others.²³

State parties to these treaties implement their international obligations in their national legal systems through the adoption of legislation, policy, education and training. To be effective, this requires systems in place to ensure oversight of the standards, enforcement and sanctions for non-compliance. Countries vary on exactly how this is done within their respective legal systems. However, international monitoring mechanisms are established within the treaties to review and assess compliance. For example, in relation to CEDAW, the CEDAW Committee is the treaty body established to monitor state party compliance. When conducting gender training, it is important to understand to what extent the state concerned has implemented international legal requirements under relevant human rights treaties. Advice from legal experts will assist with this.

Human rights are interdependent and indivisible, meaning that they are linked and the non-observance of one right may impact on another. During situations of armed conflict it has been shown that conflicts exacerbate inequalities in society, which can lead to an increase in gender-related and other forms of discrimination. This in turn can affect the exercise and protection of other human rights. The impacts of a lack of or reduced access to essential services, including healthcare, schools and employment, have significant gendered elements, which may in turn be made worse by other socio-economic and/or cultural aspects.²⁴ Examples of these issues have been highlighted in the reports of international bodies, such as the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights Monitoring Mission in Ukraine, which documents breaches of human rights law in the armed conflict, including detailed breakdowns of the numbers of women, men, girls and boys killed or injured by armed conflict-related violence.²⁵ These reports have documented, for instance, allegations of sexual and gender-based violence against women, trafficking of human beings, the impacts of the conflict on children and the security and health concerns of the predominately male prisoner population in Crimea. They have also highlighted the increased violence and restrictions on freedom of religion and expression affecting the peninsula's Tatar minority, which have had unique consequences for different individuals within the community according to their gender.²⁶

Box 2.3 Gender-based violence as a violation of human rights

The situation of armed conflict increases the risk of violence within society generally, which has gendered impacts. It can increase the risk of violence directed towards individuals based on socially determined roles, expectations and behaviours linked to ideas about gender, referred to as “gender-based violence” (see Box 2.7). Historically the gendered dimensions of violence, as well as many of the specific forms of violence that affect women in particular, were not seen as falling within the domain of international human rights law. However, over time things began to change, and in 1992 the CEDAW Committee issued an important general recommendation recognizing violence against women as a form of discrimination in the application of human rights law.²⁷

Gender-based violence takes many forms, including sexual violence and acts of a non-sexual nature, such as domestic violence.²⁸ Women and men are not homogeneous groups, and certain groups of women and men may be more at risk of violence, such as internally displaced persons and refugees.

A correlation has been shown between the increased prevalence of gender-based violence and discrimination and the outbreak of conflict.²⁹ Women and girls have been shown to be particularly vulnerable to trafficking, which can increase in situations of armed conflict, with internally displaced and refugee women at particular risk.³⁰ It is indisputable that women and girls are primarily and increasingly targeted by the use of sexual violence, which remains severely underreported during armed conflict.³¹ Again, internally displaced and refugee women and girls as well as members of minority groups can be particularly at risk due to the effects of double discrimination.³² A conflict situation can also lead to increases in domestic violence against women.³³

2.2 International humanitarian law

The fundamental aim of this area of law is to protect those who do not or no longer participate in the hostilities from the effects of a conflict, thus striking a balance between military necessity and humanity. International humanitarian law, otherwise referred to as the law of armed conflict, is applicable during armed conflicts.³⁵ Parties to an armed conflict are obliged to ensure respect for international humanitarian law, which includes incorporating the legal requirements in the execution of military operations during armed conflicts, as well as taking measures during peacetime to disseminate knowledge of the requirements, including education of military personnel.³⁶ The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has compiled a database of state practice in national implementation, which among others gives examples of national legislation, military manuals, court decisions and peace agreements implementing these standards.³⁷ International humanitarian law requirements set the framework for planning of operations, planning within an operation and conduct in the execution of operations during armed conflicts. Understanding the differences that may affect judgements in implementing the requirements of this body of law is therefore fundamental in ensuring the ultimate goal of protecting those who do not take direct part in the hostilities.³⁸ In addition, women, men, boys and girls are afforded specific protections under this body of law.

International humanitarian law, also known as “the law of armed conflict”, is the body of international law that regulates the conduct of hostilities during armed conflict. It protects persons who are not, or are no longer, participating in hostilities, and imposes limits on the means and methods of warfare.³⁴

The rules of international humanitarian law regulating the conduct of hostilities are applicable in “armed conflict”. International humanitarian law differentiates between international and non-international armed conflicts. Broadly speaking an international armed conflict exists when there is a resort to force between states. This relates to both total and partial occupations, and there is no need for the occupation to be met by armed resistance.³⁹ A non-international armed conflict exists when there is protracted armed violence between governmental authorities and organized armed groups, or between such groups in the territory of a state.⁴⁰ Whether or not a situation amounts to an armed conflict is a question of fact. Specific rules also apply to situation of occupation.⁴¹ The question of whether the law of occupation applies to a given territory is also one

of fact, of whether territory has been made subject to the effective control of another state by its military forces and the second state is in a position to exercise authority over the population in the territory in question without the consent of the sovereign state.⁴²

The treaty regulation of international armed conflicts is far more extensive than treaties applicable during intrastate armed conflicts. However, many of the rules for international armed conflicts are now considered to be reflective of customary international law applicable in both interstate and intrastate armed conflicts.

Box 2.4 Key legal instruments in international humanitarian law

- Hague Declaration Concerning Expanding Bullets, 1899
- Hague Convention (IV) on War on Land and its Annexed Regulations, 1907
- Geneva Convention (I) on Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field, 1949
- Geneva Convention (II) on Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea, 1949
- Geneva Convention (III) on Prisoners of War, 1949
- Geneva Convention (IV) on Civilians, 1949
- Additional Protocol (I) to the Geneva Conventions, 1977
- Additional Protocol (II) to the Geneva Conventions, 1977
- Additional Protocol (III) to the Geneva Conventions, 2005
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict, 2000
- Geneva Protocol for the Prohibition of the Use in War of Asphyxiating, Poisonous or Other Gases, and of Bacteriological Methods of Warfare, 1925
- Convention on the Prohibition of Biological Weapons, 1972
- Convention Prohibiting Certain Conventional Weapons (CCW), 1980
- CCW Protocol (I) on Non-Detectable Fragments, 1980
- CCW Protocol (II) Prohibiting Mines, Booby-Traps and Other Devices, 1980
- CCW Protocol (III) Prohibiting Incendiary Weapons, 1980
- Convention Prohibiting Chemical Weapons, 1993
- CCW Protocol (IV) on Blinding Laser Weapons, 1995
- CCW amended Protocol (II), 1996
- Anti-Personnel Mine Ban Convention, 1997
- CCW Amended Article 1, 2001
- CCW Protocol (V) on Explosive Remnants of War, 2003
- Convention on Cluster Munitions, 2008
- Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property, 1954
- Second Hague Protocol for the Protection of Cultural Property, 1999

The ICRC has compiled a comprehensive database of instruments relating to international humanitarian law at www.icrc.org/ihl.

The majority of the provisions of international humanitarian law do not differentiate between genders. Alongside the prohibition enshrined in the Geneva Conventions and additional protocols of making any adverse distinction in the application of international humanitarian law based on race, colour, sex, language, religion or belief, political or other opinion, national or social origin, wealth, birth or other status or any similar criteria, this means that these provisions should be interpreted in a neutral manner.⁴³ However, as noted above, in the implementation of the law perceptions and stereotypes relating to different groups within a society may lead to differences in how the law is applied.⁴⁴ International humanitarian law provides specific obligations for state

parties in relation to the civilian population within their territories or under their control. Different groups within the civilian population will have different needs and different vulnerabilities. Awareness of this is critical to ensure their protection needs are met while still making no adverse discriminatory distinctions.

There are specific requirements in international humanitarian law that do make a distinction based on gender.⁴⁵ Article 76 of Additional Protocol I provides special protection to women, and Article 77 provides special protection for children. In the general obligation to respect, protect and treat humanely without adverse distinction any wounded, sick or shipwrecked persons, specific mention is made that women must be treated with all consideration due to their sex.⁴⁶ Special protections for women, children and families are included in the regulation of detention under international humanitarian law.⁴⁷ For example, in the protections for prisoners of war and civilian internees, Geneva Conventions III and IV provide for the separation of women and men.⁴⁸ Similarly, Article 5(2)(a) of Additional Protocol II provides that except when men and women of a family are accommodated together, women shall be held in quarters separated from those of men and shall be under the immediate supervision of women. Cases from human rights law have highlighted the different vulnerabilities of different genders in detention and provide important clarification on the standards of treatment of women, men, boys and girls in detention.⁴⁹ Further requirements relating to the provision of food and medical care for pregnant women and nursing mothers, as well as obligations relating to recreation, education, welfare, sports and games for all children, are found under Article 94.⁵⁰

A situation of occupation raises specific obligations for the occupying power in relation to the civilian population within the occupied territory. In addition to obligations owed to all members of the occupied civilian population, several provisions relate to different genders.⁵¹ As an example, under Geneva Convention IV an occupying power is obliged not to hinder the application of any preferential measures regarding food, medical care and protection against the effects of war which may have been adopted prior to the occupation in favour of children under 15 years, expectant mothers and mothers of children under seven. Specific provisions are also included relating to the detention and internment of women, men, children and families, including pregnant women and women with dependent infants.⁵² The occupying power is also under a general obligation to respect “family honour and rights”.⁵³

International humanitarian law provides specific protection for women against rape, forced prostitution and any other form of indecent assault.⁵⁴ The particular vulnerabilities of children are recognized, and children are afforded specific protection against “any form of indecent assault” in Article 77 of Additional Protocol I. These acts are also prohibited during non-international armed conflicts under Article 4(2)(e) of Additional Protocol II,

Box 2.5 The impact of gender on the implementation of international humanitarian law

Gender dynamics may affect the implementation of the general principles of international humanitarian law. For example, understanding gender roles in the local context may assist in identifying civilians directly participating in hostilities during non-international armed conflicts who lose their protection under international humanitarian law and may be lawfully attacked.⁵⁵ By way of example of the different roles undertaken within the context of the conflict in Syria, the UN’s Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic has noted that women make up an essential part of the Kurdish frontline fighting forces. In areas besieged by various parties to the conflict, women have been active in smuggling food and medicine into these areas.⁵⁶ While women engaged in active combat on the front line would classify as directly participating in the hostilities and so would not be protected as civilians, those involved in smuggling aid into besieged areas would not and would therefore still be protected as civilians.

In implementing the requirements of precautions and proportionality in attacks, parties to the conflict must base their planning and conduct on the best available information possible.⁵⁷ Applying a gender perspective may assist in providing a more detailed understanding of the situation at hand and highlight particularly impacts the attack may have on the civilian population, thus ensuring greater adherence to the legal requirements.

and no distinction is made in this provision between protections being afforded to either men or women. In addition Common Article 3(1)(a) and (c) of the Geneva Conventions, which is applicable in all conflicts, establishes that “violence to life and person, in particular murder of all kinds, mutilation, cruel treatment and torture” and “outrages upon personal dignity, in particular humiliating and degrading treatment” are prohibited and makes no distinction based on gender or sex.

In carrying out military operations it is essential to understand when these different obligations apply and how they relate to each other. Human rights law does not cease to apply during armed conflict or with the application of international humanitarian law.⁵⁸ How human rights law applies does change, though, with the application of international humanitarian law.⁵⁹ This will vary depending on the specific context and type of operation. It is therefore essential to ensure that military personnel receive the education and training to enable them to carry out their duties in a lawful manner and implement these obligations correctly.

2.3 International criminal law

Certain acts breaching international human rights and international humanitarian law constitute international crimes, for which individuals are liable to be prosecuted and punished. States are obliged to prevent such acts from taking place and are primarily responsible for investigating and prosecuting individuals who commit those acts.⁶¹ As such, they are required to implement national legislation establishing these acts as crimes within their domestic systems.⁶² Military personnel must therefore have sufficient knowledge in the relevant legal principles to be able to identify and prevent or report such acts if they take place.

International criminal law is the body of international law that proscribes and defines certain acts as crimes by international law and ascribes responsibility to individual persons for committing such acts.⁶⁰

In recent years there has been significant development in the substantive legal provisions relating to sexual and gender-based violence, as well as greater understanding of how different genders can be affected by particular international crimes. Indeed, there is now considerable progress in recognizing and understanding the impacts of these crimes on victims, their families and within the wider societal contexts.⁶³ Much of this follows from the work of the *ad hoc* tribunals established in the wake of conflicts during the 1990s, particularly the ICTY and ICTR, and was influential in the drafting of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (ICC).⁶⁴

Box 2.6 Key legal instruments in international criminal law

- Hague Convention (IV) Respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land, and Annex, Regulations Concerning the Laws and Customs of War on Land, 1907
- Genocide Convention, 1948
- Geneva Conventions, 1949, and Additional Protocols of 1977 and 2005
- Convention on the Non-Applicability of Statutory Limitations to War Crimes and Crimes against Humanity, 1968
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984
- Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 1998
- International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2006

There are further international conventions relating to protection of cultural property, apartheid, piracy, terrorism, slavery and human trafficking, drug trafficking, hostage taking and other international crimes.

The ICC is a permanent body and can prosecute crimes listed as within its jurisdiction committed in or by nationals of state parties after 1 July 2002 when the Rome Statute came into force.⁶⁵ In addition, the Security Council may refer a situation to the jurisdiction of the ICC, as happened in the situation of Darfur, Sudan,⁶⁶ or a state which is not a party to the Rome Statute may lodge a declaration accepting the jurisdiction of the court with respect to a crime under the jurisdiction of the court, as happened in the situation of Côte d'Ivoire.⁶⁷ Many of the crimes included in the jurisdiction of the ICC are based on customary international law,⁶⁸ and several crimes have specific gender elements. For example, Article 6(d) of the Rome Statute provides that imposing measures intended to prevent births within a group with the intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnic, racial or religious group constitutes genocide. Article 7(g) provides that rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization and any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity constitute crimes against humanity when committed with knowledge as part of a widespread or systematic attack directed against any civilian population.⁶⁹ In addition to crimes with specific gender elements, different genders may be specifically targeted or impacted by the commission of international crimes.⁷⁰ For example, in relation to the crime against humanity of enslavement under Articles 7(1)(c) and 7(2) of the Rome Statute, "enslavement" is defined as "the exercise of any or all of the powers attaching to the right of ownership over a person and includes the exercise of such power in the course of trafficking in persons, in particular women and children".⁷¹

Box 2.7 Gender-based violence from a criminal law perspective

The Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic has reported that civilian men make up the largest community of victims, with those perceived to be of fighting age being targeted by warring parties during ground attacks, and civilian men also being primary victims of enforced disappearance, torture and unlawful killings.⁷² Women have been targeted not only on the basis of their gender, but also because of their familial links, actual or assumed, with male members of opposing warring parties.⁷³ Members of minority groups are particularly vulnerable to double discrimination based on their gender and membership of a minority group, as demonstrated in the Syrian conflict where Yazidi women and girls have been held captive in sexual slavery and specifically targeted because of their community's religious identity.⁷⁴ The cases before the ICTY and ICTR showed how sexual violence is often conducted alongside other crimes. In addition, these cases highlighted how different genders may be subjected to different treatment based on their gender, such as in relation to the war crime of committing outrages upon personal dignity, in particular humiliating and degrading treatment.⁷⁵

Cases against perpetrators of such crimes are an important symbol of the international community's definition of wrongful actions, with significant consequences for the perpetrators and recognition of the victims of such crimes.⁷⁶ It is critical to be able to identify groups that might be vulnerable to international crimes to take measures to prevent the commission of these crimes. Incorporating a gender perspective may help not only in identifying such groups, but also in identifying the commission of international crimes, as well as preventing them.⁷⁷ Gender aspects are therefore fundamental in identifying the commission of and culpability for crimes.⁷⁸ In addition, gender aspects may also have an impact in determining the gravity of the crime: if an international crime is conducted for a motive involving discrimination on any of the grounds set out in Article 21 of the Rome Statute, this may also be an aggravating factor in the sentence ultimately imposed.⁷⁹

3. The policy framework

The international legal framework is accompanied by a policy framework which sets out the principles and long-term goals for implementing the legal requirements, and gives overall direction for planning and development and guidance on how aspects of the legal framework alongside other political commitments should be implemented in practice.

3.1 History and development of the women, peace and security agenda

Box 2.8 Pillars of the women, peace and security agenda⁸⁰

The commitments expressed in the UNSCRs adopted under the women, peace and security agenda are often divided into three broad areas, or “pillars”.

Prevention: Prevention of conflict, and prevention of all forms of violence against women and girls in conflict and post-conflict situations, including sexual and gender-based violence.

Participation: The promotion of women’s right to participate equally and gender equality in peace and security decision-making processes, and the meaningful engagement of women in all aspects at all levels (e.g. local, national, regional and international) in public and private spheres.

Protection: Effort to achieve full respect for and promotion of women’s and girls’ rights under international and national laws in conflict-affected situations.

Following developments over the years, some have come to refer to a fourth pillar.

Relief and recovery: Understanding and meeting the specific relief needs of women and girls and ensuring that the capacity of women to act as agents in relief and recovery efforts is reinforced in conflict and post-conflict situations.

On 31 October 2000 the UN Security Council adopted UNSCR 1325 on women, peace and security,⁸¹ expanding efforts during the 1990s by both the UN and states to incorporate a gender perspective more broadly in all their actions, including legislative, policy and programmatic work.⁸² This followed a greater recognition and more developed understanding within the international community of the impact of armed conflicts on women, men, boys and girls and the need to reinforce compliance with legal protections established under human rights law, international humanitarian law and international criminal law. In the 15 years following the passing of this landmark resolution, the Security Council passed seven further resolutions developing and adding to the original framework established in UNSCR 1325. Importantly, these issues are now firmly established on the Security Council’s agenda and linked with its role as being primarily responsible for maintaining international peace and security.⁸³

The UN had addressed the impact of armed conflict on women and girls through a variety of forums over the years, particularly during the 1980s and 1990s.⁸⁴ The issue was brought to the fore again through the work of the ICTY and the ICTR, established in 1993 and 1994 respectively. The cases before these *ad hoc* tribunals highlighted the particular vulnerabilities of different genders to sexual and gender-based violence during the armed conflicts within their jurisdictions. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action of 1995 adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women established an agenda for women’s empowerment by the international community, recognizing that civilian casualties outnumber military casualties, with women and children comprising a significant number of the victims.⁸⁵ In 2000 the Report of the High-Level Panel on United Nations Peace Operations (known as the Brahmini Report), which reviewed the whole of the UN’s activities in peace and security, recognized the need for equitable gender representation in the leadership of peacekeeping missions. These documents, together with the Windhoek Declaration and the Namibia Plan of Action on Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Multidimensional Peace Operations of June 2000, were critical developments that led to the adoption of UNSCR 1325.

Box 2.9 The legal nature of UN Security Council resolutions

UNSCRs are formal expressions of the opinion or will of the Security Council. The nature of the resolution determines if it is considered binding on states. Under Article 25 of the UN Charter, member states agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council. Under Chapter VII of the Charter, the Security Council is authorized to decide on measures to be taken in accordance with Articles 41 and 42 to maintain or restore international peace and security.

While not all UNSCRs entail legal obligations and not all are legally binding, they can often refer to and reinforce legal obligations of member states already in place, such as the UN Charter and CEDAW. In addition, they can include instructions to the Secretary-General and other UN bodies, such as in relation to UN peace operations, which must be followed. The Security Council is the body within the UN system with primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, and therefore instructions to bodies relating to this must be carried out.

UNSCR 1325, the first resolution passed by the Security Council relating to women, peace and security, recognized the “urgent need” to mainstream a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations and the importance of specialized education for all peacekeeping personnel on the protection, special needs and human rights of women and children in conflict situations.⁸⁶ In the resolution, the Security Council urged the Secretary-General to ensure that, where appropriate, field operations include a gender component, and to expand the role and contribution of women, including as military observers.⁸⁷ The resolution stressed the importance of the full and equal participation of women in the prevention and resolution of conflicts and peacebuilding, rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts, urging all actors to increase the participation of women and promote gender equality in all areas.⁸⁸ In subsequent resolutions the Security Council has built and expanded on these areas, addressing the three pillars of prevention, protection and participation.

UNSCR 1820 (2008) links sexual violence with the primary responsibility of the Security Council, namely the maintenance of international peace and security.⁸⁹ The Security Council notes the developments in international criminal law confirming that rape and other forms of sexual violence can constitute a war crime, a crime against humanity or a constitutive act with respect to genocide, and stresses the importance of ending impunity for such actions. The resolution demands that parties to armed conflict take appropriate measures “to protect civilians, including women and girls, from all forms of sexual violence” and sets out certain measures for furthering this. This resolution also extends the requirements for training and educating peacekeeping personnel.

UNSCR 1888 (2009) expands on and reiterates calls in UNSCR 1820 for the protection of women and children from sexual violence in armed conflict.⁹⁰ The resolution requested the UN Secretary-General to appoint a special representative to “provide coherent and strategic leadership ... to address, at both headquarters and country level, sexual violence in armed conflict, while promoting cooperation and coordination of efforts among all relevant stakeholders”.⁹¹ It encouraged states to “increase access to health care, psychosocial support, legal assistance and socio-economic reintegration services for victims of sexual violence, in particular in rural areas”, and requested the Secretary-General to develop indicators to measure progress in the implementation of UNSCR 1325.⁹²

UNSCR 1889 (2009) addressed women’s participation in peace processes, calling for further increased participation in “all stages of peace processes, particularly in conflict resolution, post-conflict planning and peacebuilding”.⁹⁸ It set out requirements for the UN Secretary-General and urged member states to take specified actions relating to gender equality, increased participation and women’s empowerment and to ensure women’s and girls’ needs are addressed.⁹⁹

Box 2.10 National action plans

In 2002 the Security Council issued a presidential statement “encourag[ing] Member States, the entities of the United Nations system, civil society and other relevant actors, to develop clear strategies and action plans with goals and timetables, on the integration of gender perspectives in humanitarian operations, rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes, including monitoring mechanisms, and also to develop targeted activities, focused on the specific constraints facing women and girls in post-conflict situations, such as their lack of land and property rights and access to and control over economic resources”.⁹³ Following this, states developed the practice of adopting national action plans (NAPs) – policy documents adopted in the national framework to implement the commitments under the UNSCRs on women, peace and security.⁹⁴ These have become a vital tool in the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda. When incorporating gender into military education, it is therefore critical to review and understand these documents relating to the relevant national context.

The Security Council has welcomed the adoption of NAPs by member states, and reinforced its support for this approach in further presidential statements and resolutions on women, peace and security.⁹⁵ Most recently, in UNSCR 2242 (2015) para. 2, the Security Council indicated strong support for the adoption of NAPs by member states in recent years, as well as efforts by regional organizations to adopt regional frameworks, and encouraged them to pursue further implementation.⁹⁶

The CEDAW Committee has also noted that all the areas of concern addressed in the UNSCRs on women, peace and security find expression in the substantive provisions of CEDAW, and as such has recommended state parties to use the reporting procedure under CEDAW to file information on the implementation of Security Council commitments, including NAPs, to consolidate CEDAW and the Security Council’s agenda and thereby broaden, strengthen and operationalize gender equality.⁹⁷

UNSCR 1960 (2010) also addressed sexual violence in armed conflict, adopting a “naming and shaming” approach in which the Secretary-General was encouraged to compile lists of those who are “credibly suspected of committing or being responsible for patterns of rape and other forms of sexual violence in situations of armed conflict”.¹⁰⁰ In addition, the Security Council requested the Secretary-General to develop monitoring, analysis and reporting arrangements on conflict-related sexual violence, including rape in armed conflict, post-conflict and other situations relevant to the implementation of UNSCR 1888.¹⁰¹ The Secretary-General’s reports on this provide detailed country-specific information on conflict-related sexual violence and can be a useful tool when teaching gender.¹⁰²

As an extension of UNSCR 1960 the Security Council adopted UNSCR 2106 (2013), which requires strengthening the efforts of member states and UN agencies to fulfil their obligations in the fight against impunity for perpetrators of sexual violence in conflict, and calls on parties to armed conflict to make and implement specific and time-bound commitments to combat sexual violence and conduct timely investigation of alleged abuses to hold perpetrators accountable.¹⁰³ Educational requirements on gender and sexual and gender-based violence are addressed to personnel working in peace operations, as well as encouragement for more women to be recruited and deployed in peace operations.¹⁰⁴

UNSCR 2122 (2013) addressed gaps in the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda that were highlighted in a report by the Secretary-General,¹⁰⁵ and again emphasized the need for the participation of women in all phases of conflict prevention, conflict resolution and peacebuilding.¹⁰⁶ It also addresses the need for timely information and analysis on the impact of armed conflict on women and girls, the role of women in peacebuilding and the gender dimensions of peace processes and conflict resolution for situations on the Security Council’s agenda, and sets out measures in relation to these.¹⁰⁷

Box 2.11 Examples of provisions on training and education in UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security

UNSCR 1325, 30 October 2000 (S/RES/1325)	
Preamble	Recognizes the importance of specialized training for all peacekeeping personnel on the protection, special needs and human rights of women and children in conflict situations.
Para. 6	Requests the Secretary-General to provide training guidelines and materials for both member states to incorporate into military and police pre-deployment training and the UN to integrate into its training for civilian peacekeeping staff. Topics should include the protection, rights and particular needs of women, and the importance of their involvement in all peacekeeping and peacebuilding measures.
Para. 7	Calls on member states to increase financial and logistical support for these training efforts.
UNSCR 1820, 19 June 2008 (S/RES/1820)	
Para. 3	Demands that all parties to armed conflict take measures to prevent sexual violence, such as training troops on the categorical prohibition of all forms of sexual violence against civilians, debunking myths that fuel sexual violence and upholding the principle of command responsibility in this area.
Para. 6	Requests the UN to develop appropriate training programmes for all peacekeeping and security personnel to help them better prevent, recognize and respond to sexual violence and other forms of violence against civilians.
Para. 7	Urges troop- and police-contributing countries to implement the policy of zero tolerance towards sexual exploitation and abuse through pre-deployment and in-theatre awareness training.
UNSCR 1888, 30 September 2009 (S/RES/1888)	
Para. 19	Encourages member states to deploy greater numbers of female military and police personnel in peacekeeping missions and to ensure that all personnel are given adequate training to carry out their responsibilities.
Para. 20	Requests the Secretary-General to provide technical support, including guidance, to troop- and police-contributing countries in their pre-deployment and induction training on the policy of zero tolerance towards sexual exploitation and abuse.
UNSCR 1889, 5 October 2009 (S/RES/1889)	
Para. 4	Calls upon the Secretary-General to develop a strategy, including appropriate training, to increase women's participation in UN political, peacebuilding and peacekeeping missions.
UNSCR 1960, 16 December 2010 (S/RES/1960)	
Para. 11	Encourages member states to use the UN's newly developed scenario-based training materials on combating sexual violence for peacekeepers.
UNSCR 2106, 24 June 2013 (S/RES/2106)	
Para. 8	Calls on the Secretary-General to ensure comprehensive gender training of all relevant peacekeeping and civilian personnel.
Para. 14	Calls for pre-deployment and in-mission training on sexual and gender-based violence prevention and response to take into account the distinct needs of children.
UNSCR 2122, 24 June 2013 (S/RES/2122)	
Para. 8	Calls on the Secretary-General to ensure comprehensive gender training of all relevant peacekeeping and civilian personnel.
Para. 14	Calls for pre-deployment and in-mission training on sexual and gender-based violence responses to take into account the distinct needs of children.
UNSCR 2242, 13 October 2015 (S/RES/2242)	
Para. 9	Deeply concerned over continuing allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse, urges police- and troop-contributing nations to provide robust pre-deployment training on sexual exploitation and abuse, and vet their peacekeeping personnel.

Marking the fifteenth anniversary of the adoption of UNSCR 1325, UNSCR 2242 (2015) addressed women's roles in countering violent extremism and terrorism. In this resolution the Security Council decided to integrate women, peace and security concerns across all country-specific situations on the Security Council's agenda, including relating to counterterrorism and countering violent extremism.¹⁰⁸ The preamble to the resolution affirmed "the primary role of Member States to implement fully the relevant provisions of Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security, and the important complementary role of United Nations entities and regional organizations".¹⁰⁹ The resolution returned to central themes of preventing and addressing sexual and gender-based violence, women's participation and gender equality. In relation to the latter, the Security Council welcomed the Secretary-General's commitment to prioritize the appointment of more women in senior UN leadership positions.¹¹⁰ The resolution also addressed allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse in UN missions, urging current troop- and police-contributing countries to cease such violations and implement action plans expeditiously, thereby avoiding suspension from peace operations.¹¹¹ The UN has also instituted a zero-tolerance policy for sexual exploitation and abuse in UN peace operations in other resolutions issued by the Security Council.¹¹²

The UNSCRs on women, peace and security contain both requirements for actions within the UN system and systematic calls on member states to carry out actions in ensuring gender equality, women's empowerment and participation, and the prevention of sexual and gender-based violence.¹¹³ The implementation of these UNSCRs has led to extensive changes in practice by both member states and the UN. When establishing peace operations the Security Council now routinely references its resolutions on women, peace and security, and those on children and armed conflict and the protection of civilians in armed conflict.¹¹⁴ As noted in Box 2.11, specific instructions are given in relation to peace operations, including the need for gender training and increasing numbers of women deployed in such operations. The Security Council explicitly links these actions with contributing to and ensuring the maintenance of international peace and security. Throughout, the Security Council references the international legal standards of protection and prevention as one way to achieve this, establishing the work in this area firmly within the legal framework and reinforcing states' obligations to uphold and implement these requirements. The CEDAW Committee has highlighted that all the areas of concern addressed in the resolutions on women, peace and security find expression in the substantive provisions of CEDAW and the implementation of these resolutions must be premised on a model of substantive equality, covering all rights enshrined in CEDAW and placed within the broader framework of the implementation of CEDAW and its optional protocol.¹¹⁵

Box 2.12 Examples of Security Council practice incorporating the women, peace and security agenda in peace operations

The Security Council has established specific requirements within the mandates of peace missions to address women, peace and security. For example, in the mission in Mali the Security Council mandated for women's protection advisers to be deployed as part of the mission's task to provide specific protection for women and children affected by armed conflict, and to incorporate gender considerations as a cross-cutting issue throughout the mandate.¹¹⁶ The UN Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in the Central African Republic is similarly mandated to provide specific protection for women and children affected by armed conflict, including through the deployment of protection advisers for children and women.¹¹⁷ Other mandates are less direct, but many do include reference to the rights of women and children. For example, UNSCR 2240 (2015) references the need to promote and protect effectively the human rights and fundamental freedoms of all migrants, regardless of their migration status and especially those of women and children, in addressing international migration.¹¹⁸

3.2 The policy framework on training and education of the military on gender and women, peace and security

National and international policy requirements emphasize the need to integrate gender into military education and training, including during UN and NATO deployments, which plays a vital role in ensuring that states adhere to their legal obligations to protect, respect and fulfil the human rights of all persons regardless of gender. Institutional structures and requirements have therefore been introduced to ensure that this is done within all national, regional and international organizations.

3.2.1 United Nations

The UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) is responsible for planning and management of UN peace operations. It plays a coordination role between UN, governmental and non-governmental entities in peacekeeping operations. It also provides staff on UN political and peacekeeping missions with guidance and support on matters related to the military, the police and mine action.

As a first step in implementing the resolutions relating to women, peace and security, the DPKO Department of Field Support (DFS) developed its "Policy on gender equality in UN peacekeeping operations" in 2006, which was revised and updated in 2010, and reaffirms the UN's commitment to the women, peace and security agenda.¹¹⁹ The DFS also developed its "Gender forward looking strategy (2014–2018)" to highlight the women, peace and security agenda. This strategy supports the implementation of the UNSCRs in a changing operational environment. It articulates the importance and objectives of gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping, and also outlines a strategic direction for the organization and offers tools to help military personnel better support and protect women and girls where peacekeeping missions are deployed.¹²⁰ Training and education are among the most important objectives in the strategy, and it includes concrete recommendations for training and education on gender in general as well as in pre-deployment and specialized in-mission programmes, such as the collection of sex-disaggregated data for all internal (UN forces) and external (interaction with locals) activities.

In 2009 the Office of Military Affairs and the Gender Unit of the DPKO initiated work on a document titled "Integrating a gender perspective into the work of the United Nations military in peacekeeping operations".¹²¹ This provides guidelines aiming to enhance the operational effectiveness of UN peacekeeping operations through the implementation of a gender perspective. It serves as a practical tool to translate the Security Council's resolutions on women, peace and security into the work of military components. The guidelines aim to support military personnel in recognizing and addressing the security priorities of all parts of the local population – women, men, boys and girls – in a peacekeeping context. They further inform the content of training and education activities targeted at military peacekeeping personnel. In this regard, troop-contributing countries are encouraged to embrace the tool and use it to aid their pre-deployment planning, education and training activities.

While acknowledging the integrated nature of peacekeeping activities, the guidelines are designed to focus specifically on the tasks of military peacekeepers within a broader integrated framework. They are presented in three sections, corresponding to the three levels of military engagement in peacekeeping (strategic, operational and tactical), in accordance with mandated tasks and working conditions.¹²² In addition, the guidelines established a number of mechanisms on how to implement a gender perspective across a mission, including the implementation of a military gender task force and mandatory gender training for all military personnel.¹²³

3.2.2 NATO

NATO's work on gender dates back to 1961, when the first NATO Conference of Senior Women Officers of the Alliance was held. Gender-related activities began to take place on a more regular basis after 1976 when the Committee on Women in the NATO Forces was established, now known as the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives.¹²⁴ In its current form, it advises the Military Committee on gender-related policies for the armed forces of NATO member nations.

Box 2.13 Structure of the actors responsible for integrating the women, peace and security agenda within processes at NATO



Policy

In response to UNSCR 1325, NATO allies working with their partners in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) adopted a policy for its implementation in 2007. Since then the document has been reviewed every two years, and in April 2014 the updated overarching “NATO/EAPC policy for the implementation of UNSCR 1325 on women, peace and security and related resolutions” was adopted. The policy broadly outlines commitments to implement the provisions of the women, peace and security agenda within the framework of NATO’s strategic concept, specifically in relation to three essential core tasks: collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. It also encourages member nations to implement the women, peace and security agenda in their defence and security policies and activities. Alongside public diplomacy and human resource policies, education, training and exercises are listed as the three “cross-cutting enablers” that can contribute to implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions. The policy includes specific commitments to

develop appropriate education and training programmes on gender, integrate a gender perspective in existing programmes and exercises and include education and training on gender aspects in all reform efforts within security and defence institutions.¹²⁵

On the tenth anniversary of UNSCR 1325 in 2010, at their Lisbon Summit NATO leaders adopted an action plan for the implementation of the UNSCRs on women, peace and security in NATO-led operations and missions. Updated every two years following a progress report, the latest action plan for the period 2014–2016 translates the policy into 14 outcomes, each with between one and six concrete actions to be implemented by a designated entity. Outcome 12 focuses on education, training and exercises, and calls for “Improved understanding of the civilian and military staff of the practical implications of the Women, Peace and Security agenda, thereby improving their ability to act accordingly.” The actions to be undertaken by NATO international and national staff are to integrate UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions in all levels of education and training curricula, as well as NATO-led exercises, and to involve local civil society in this endeavour as appropriate.¹²⁶

Another of NATO’s milestone gender documents is Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, which integrated the requirements of UNSCR 1325 and a gender perspective into the NATO command structure. Chapter 2 of the directive details how gender is to be implemented in existing education and training policy and frameworks. The first revision of the document, made in 2012, designated the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations (NCGM) as the department head for the delivery of gender adviser (GENAD) and gender field adviser training. It also states the minimum responsibilities for compliance regarding integration of the women, peace and security agenda into the education and training of NATO troops, and details what must be included in pre-deployment training and education.¹²⁷

Finally, NATO’s Strategic Commands developed the NATO gender education and training plan for integrating gender perspectives, approved in 2014. This plan seeks to standardize and harmonize the NATO education and training system for gender in military operations so it is compatible with NATO’s education, training, exercise and evaluation policy. It provides specific guidance on how gender can be integrated in many existing NATO education and training programmes and exercises.¹²⁸

*Implementation*¹²⁹

The implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions is the joint responsibility of NATO’s Strategic Commands and several divisions and governing bodies within NATO headquarters. These entities also monitor and report on the progress made. To coordinate these different actors, the Women, Peace and Security Task Force (see Box 2.13) was established, headed by the NATO Secretary General’s special representative for women, peace and security. First appointed in 2012, the special representative is the highest focal point for the implementation of this agenda within the alliance. The position became a permanent post in 2014.

Another actor in the implementation structure is the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP). This expert committee advises NATO leadership and member nations on gender-related issues to enhance organizational effectiveness in support of alliance objectives and priorities, including the implementation of the relevant UNSCRs on women, peace and security.¹³⁰ All NCGP recommendations, guidelines and documents explicitly emphasize education and training as one of the most important tools for strengthening the implementation of UNSCRs at NATO and among NATO members and partners.

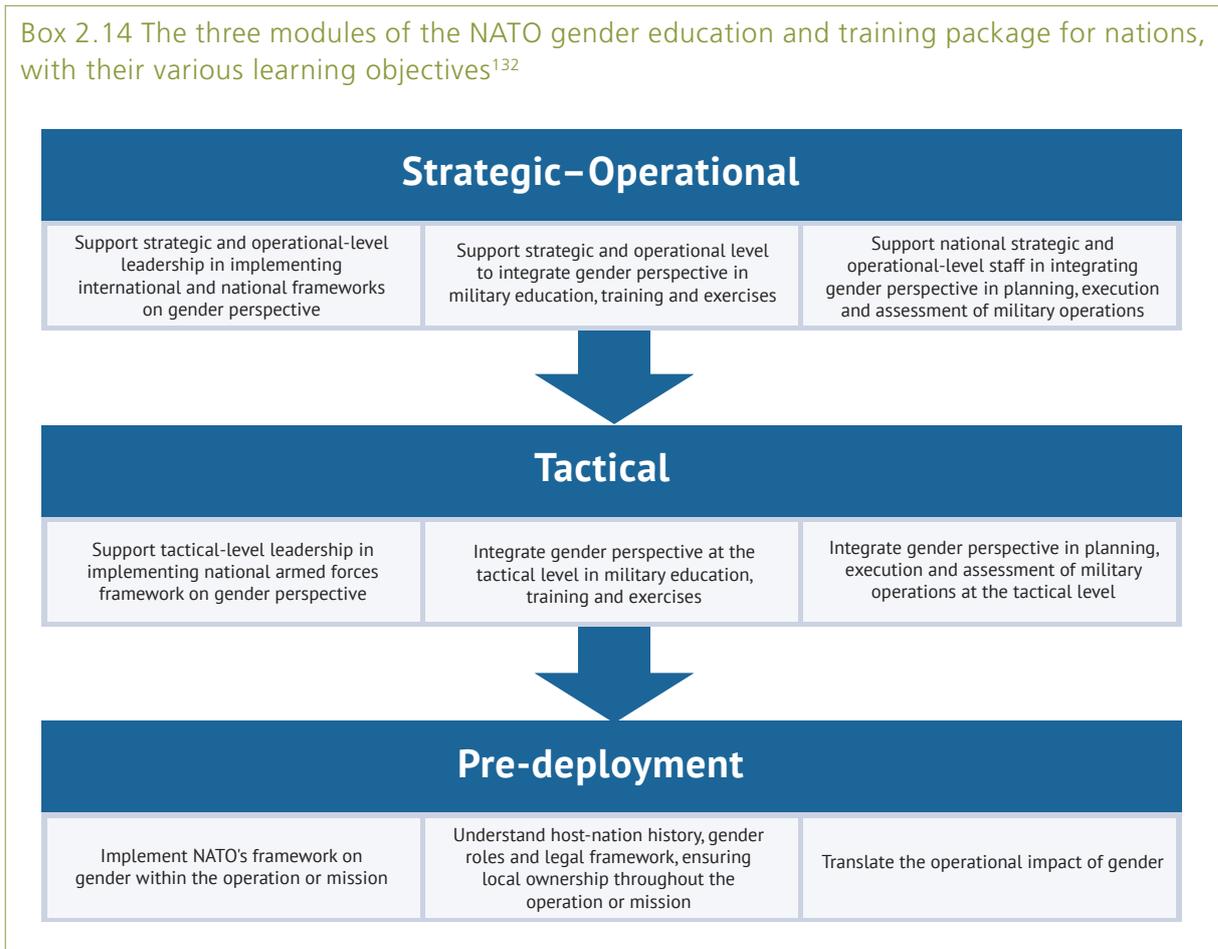
In addition, NATO has GENADs deployed at different levels of its command structure, including within the international military staff, Allied Command of Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT). GENADs can advise their respective units and institutions on how NATO policy on the women, peace and security agenda should be implemented in specific contexts.

There are also a number of committees and working groups that develop and review specific and overall policy. For example, the ACO Gender Perspective Working Group was established by the SHAPE chief of staff to implement recommendations and operational lessons related to women, peace and security in all aspects of NATO operations.

As noted above, the NCGM has a specific role in implementation of military training and education on gender as the NATO department head. One such activity was to provide support to ACT, which developed a package of gender training and education tools based on a training needs analysis the NCGM conducted. This package was offered to NATO members and partners, and includes best practice examples and guidance from different nations on the institutionalization of a gender perspective within the framework of NATO policy.¹³¹ The package contains three modules, each with three learning objectives (see Box 2.14).

It is worth highlighting that many of the training and education resources produced by NATO are available to other militaries outside the alliance. Training and education on gender have been one of the themes in NATO's cooperation with partner nations through, for example, the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (PfPC).

Box 2.14 The three modules of the NATO gender education and training package for nations, with their various learning objectives¹³²



3.2.3 ORGANIZATION FOR SECURITY AND CO-OPERATION IN EUROPE

In its comprehensive security concept the OSCE recognizes that gender equality is essential for peace, sustainable democracy and economic development, and has thus committed itself to integrate gender equality into policies and practices within the organization itself and in its missions. Together with participating states and local partners, the OSCE has various initiatives and programmes aimed to empower women and expand local capacities on gender issues.¹³³ The OSCE's commitment to implement UNSCR 1325 is stipulated in numerous Ministerial Council decisions (Box 2.15). In 2004 the OSCE presented its action plan for the promotion of gender equality.¹³⁴ This document recognizes that the full and equal participation of women and men is key to achieving the goals of the OSCE, namely peace, prosperity and stability. It assigns responsibilities and tasks to the OSCE and its states. Essentially, the OSCE's approach to gender equality is based on three pillars: mainstreaming gender in all

OSCE policies, programmes and activities; developing a professional, gender-sensitive management culture and working environment; and promoting the rights, interests and concerns of women to its participating states and supporting them in their efforts to achieve gender equality.¹³⁵

The OSCE has a Gender Section which is part of the Office of the OSCE Secretary General. It is responsible for integrating a gender perspective in policies and programmes; it advises relevant bodies on the implementation and monitoring of the OSCE action plan for the promotion of gender equality; and it directly assists field operations, OSCE institutions and the Secretariat's departments. The Gender Section also produces tools and materials for staff members and participating states, as well as organizing discussions, meetings and courses on gender mainstreaming. Each field operation, institution and department has a gender focal point.

In a joint session in 2015, the OSCE Forum for Security Co-operation and the Permanent Council discussed introducing a gender coach leadership programme to the OSCE member countries. This programme aims to provide key leadership tools that enable gender mainstreaming in an organization. The programme realizes that the successful implementation of gender mainstreaming, especially in military contexts, is dependent on the leadership's role in attaining these goals.¹³⁶

Box 2.15 OSCE documents related to gender

- Istanbul Summit Declaration, 1999
In this declaration the OSCE stated its commitment to make gender equality an integral part of its policies both at the state level and within the organization.
- Ministerial Council Decision 14/04 on OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality, 2004
This decision establishes increased efforts to integrate gender in all areas of the organization. Ultimately it aims to promote gender equality in participating states.
- Ministerial Council Decision 14/05 on Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-Conflict Rehabilitation, 2005
Based on UNSCR 1325, this decision integrates the UN commitments into the OSCE and its participating states.
- Ministerial Council Decision 15/05 on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women, 2005
This decision aims to encourage participating states to adopt measures to counter violence against women, as it undermines security.
- Ministerial Council Decision 7/09 on Women's Participation in Political and Public Life, 2009
This decision aims to increase the representation of women in the decision-making structures within legislative, executive and judicial branches in the OSCE area.
- Ministerial Council Decision 10/11 on Promoting Equality in the Economic Sphere, 2011
This decision acknowledges women's essential contribution to economic recovery, sustainable growth and the creation of cohesive societies, and thus promotes their equal participation in the economic sphere.
- Ministerial Council Decision 07/14 on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women, 2014
This decision recognizes new developments in the field of ending violence against women and makes new commitments.

3.2.4 EUROPEAN UNION

Gender equality is central to all EU activities, and EU regulations apply to EU member states, nearly all of which are NATO or Partnership for Peace (PfP) members. Also, EU military and civilian missions are often in NATO member nations or countries where NATO has previously been engaged, thus EU legislation and policies are relevant. Moreover, crisis management through both civilian and military missions is a task that the EU has increasingly begun to take on. The complexity of these situations and the fact that personnel are expected to be involved in both peacekeeping and peacebuilding means that a greater amount of knowledge is required to incorporate a gender perspective.

When analysing EU gender policy and mainstreaming, we should take into account the specific character of the EU as a legal entity. The EU is a political and economic partnership of 28 member states which have relinquished part of their sovereignty to EU institutions. It has evolved significantly from its origins to become a unique legal entity operating supranationally and intergovernmentally to formulate policy and legislation across a broad range of areas.

Principles

Article 2 of the Treaty on European Union lists respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities, as the founding values of the EU.¹³⁷ Article 2 also sets out pluralism, non-discrimination, tolerance, justice, solidarity and equality between women and men as values common to the member states. Human rights standards have been integrated into EU policy and within the EU legal system over time. The Lisbon Treaty (2010) developed this further by making the EU Charter on Fundamental Rights legally binding and providing under Article 6(2) that the EU in its entirety shall accede to the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (ECHR).¹³⁸ In addition, fundamental guarantees, as outlined by the ECHR and as they result from the constitutional traditions common to the member states, are now established under the treaty as general principles of EU law and thereby binding on all EU countries. One area upon which the EU has expanded significantly is equal treatment and anti-discrimination, and there is now a substantial framework for anti-discrimination law within EU law.¹³⁹

Civilian and military crisis management plays a pivotal role in the EU's external policies. The Treaty on European Union establishes that the EU's Common Foreign Security Policy (CFSP) encompasses all foreign and security issues: the EU has competence to define and implement this policy, but not to adopt legislative acts in this field.¹⁴⁰ In this the EU acts more as an international organization, with the European Council and Council of the EU being the bodies responsible for defining, acting unanimously on and implementing the CFSP and the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and member states being responsible for putting this into effect.¹⁴¹ Article 21 of the Lisbon Treaty governs the EU's external action and provides that it shall be guided by the principles of democracy, rule of law, the universality and indivisibility of human rights and fundamental freedoms, respect for human dignity, equality and solidarity, and respect for the principles of the UN Charter and international law. Under Article 21(2) one of the EU's objectives in defining and pursuing common policies and actions is to preserve peace, prevent conflicts and strengthen international security, in accordance with the purposes and principles of the UN Charter, among others.¹⁴²

In 1999, in response to the crisis in the former Yugoslavia, the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) was launched as part of the CFSP. The ESDP was integrated into the European treaties in 2001 and subsequently converted to the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) in 2007. The CSDP enables the EU to be engaged in crisis prevention, crisis management and post-conflict recovery. CSDP missions cooperate with third countries and other international crisis management organizations, such as the UN, NATO and the OSCE. Cooperation between NATO and the EU has been regulated through the Berlin Plus Agreement since 2003.¹⁴³ In the aftermath of the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 a European security strategy was initiated, giving the CFSP a strategic orientation.¹⁴⁴

Through the CSDP the EU is able to take a lead in matters of international security, peacekeeping operations and conflict prevention. Since 2003 the EU has launched more than 30 peace missions and operations.¹⁴⁵ While gender is not a predominant component in CSDP missions, the EU's role in providing development aid and humanitarian assistance is closely tied to its effort to integrate women, peace and security issues in its external policies. In its CSDP the EU has committed itself to both promotion and protection of human rights of women and their participation as positive agents of change and development and the protection of women in conflict situations.

Structures

All current CSDP missions and operations have human rights and/or GENADs or gender focal points appointed.¹⁴⁶ This system has been introduced to ensure that the EU's policies and knowledge are translated into operational guidelines and women, peace and security matters are systematically included in all strategies of CSDP missions (planning, implementation and review), as well as to aid mission and operations staff in their everyday work on gender matters.¹⁴⁷

As part of its efforts to prioritize gender equality internally, the EU has established the post of the European External Action Service principal adviser on gender and the implementation of UNSCR 1325. This position serves to engage with the EU's international, regional and national actors on policies and actions related to gender and women, peace and security, and to coordinate the EU's internal gender mainstreaming. Additionally, the appointed representative will work towards enhancing the visibility of gender in the EU's external action and will collaborate with relevant UN services and agencies.¹⁴⁸

Policies in practice

In 1996 the EU adopted a gender mainstreaming approach, which initially focused on fostering equal opportunities for women and men within EU institutions and bodies. The breakthrough in terms of integrating gender came one month after the Security Council's adoption of UNSCR 1325 in November 2000, when the European Parliament issued a resolution on gender aspects of conflict resolution and peacebuilding.¹⁵⁰ This was the first official document of the EU that called for more active and effective commitment of the European Commission and member states to gender equality and gender issues in the EU's foreign policy and international agenda.

Two core documents adopted by the Council of the EU are essential for understanding the EU policy framework on implementing UNSCR 1325 and gender mainstreaming. The EU's "Comprehensive approach to the EU implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 on women, peace and security",¹⁵¹ adopted in 2008, constitutes the strategic framework on gender and gender mainstreaming. It gave substantial impetus to the political and operational processes of implementing the UNSCRs, and reflects and legitimizes the EU-specific holistic approach to gender issues in EU external relations, development, security and defence policies.

The EU's comprehensive approach introduced concrete measures that member states and the relevant EU bodies are required to implement. Furthermore, it declared that awareness of gender and UNSCR 1325 are a consistent part of the training requirements for CSDP operations. As such, gender training and education conducted by the EU must be intensified and consolidated at all levels. The policy contains some important innovations concerning education on gender for CSDP operations. Firstly, it calls for the provisions of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 to be incorporated into the mandatory pre-deployment training and education of personnel and staff. Secondly, it requires the head of mission/operation commander to be given a specific briefing on EU policies and concepts related to UNSCRs 1325 and 1820.¹⁵² Although pre-deployment training of forces and personnel remains a national responsibility, these are important policy developments that should serve to complement and to some extent contribute to the coordination of national efforts. Another innovation is the objective to increase the participation of women from the local population, such as female judges and penitentiary officers, in the training and education given by EU representations as part of their mission.

The second document, entitled "Implementation of UNSCR 1325 as reinforced by 1820 in the context of ESDP"¹⁵³ (now known as the CSDP), was adopted in its revised form in 2008 based on the original version from 2005. It is considered to be the main political directive, and facilitates the implementation of the strategy. In other words, the EU's comprehensive approach defines the overall goals that should shape the EU's policy on security and defence, while the implementation policy contains specific activities that need to be carried out to achieve those goals.

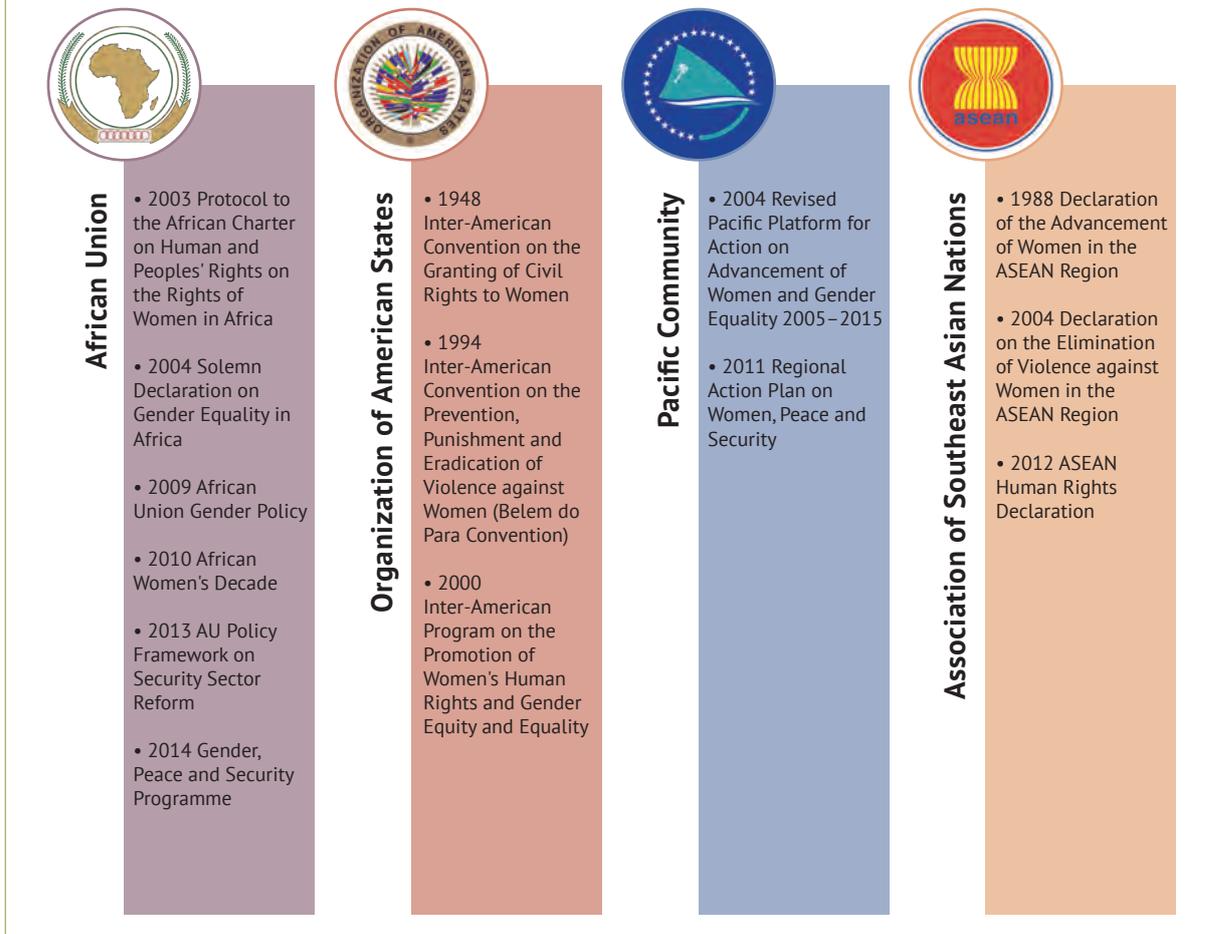
The main goal of the implementation policy is “to ensure gender mainstreaming and implementation of UNSCR 1325 and UNSCR 1820 from the early planning to the conduct of ESDP operations, including their follow-up”.¹⁵⁴ The text itself focuses on increasing the representation of women in the civilian component of ESDP operations as well as promoting the UN’s women, peace and security agenda. The document also dedicates an entire section to gender training and encourages the development of a course on gender in ESDP operations, as well as the inclusion of a gender perspective in all training and education activities, including pre-deployment training and courses offered by the European Defence and Security College.¹⁵⁵

It is also worth noting that the 2008 implementation policy in its “generic standards for behaviour” reaffirms the EU’s pledge of zero tolerance of abuse and misconduct committed by any military or civilian member of mission staff/personnel, including gender-based abuse or violence. The policy included 17 indicators to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda.¹⁵⁶

To consolidate different policies, initiatives and activities related to gender training within the EU, the Council of the EU adopted a specific policy paper in 2009 entitled “Implementation of UNSCR 1325 and 1820 in the context of training for the ESDP missions and operations – Recommendations on the way forward”.¹⁵⁷ This paper aims to establish a consolidated system of gender training and education within the EU by outlining key principles that should be adopted by all member states, especially in pre-deployment training.

3.2.5 OTHER REGIONAL FRAMEWORKS

Box 2.16 Main documents from four regional organizations regarding women, peace and security



Other regional organizations worldwide have committed themselves to implementation of the UN women, peace and security agenda (see Box 2.16). It will often be the case that deployments involving personnel from NATO and PfP member nations take place in contexts where existing regional frameworks need to be considered, as well as national frameworks such as action plans on UNSCR 1325. This section provides examples of some of the existing frameworks outside the NATO/PfP area.

African Union

The AU's commitment to gender equality is rooted in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights. The AU gender policy promotes a gender-responsive environment and practices which contribute to gender equality and women's empowerment in member states. A gender management system is responsible for creating appropriate institutional structures as well as frameworks for gender analysis, gender training, monitoring and evaluation.¹⁵⁸

The AU Women and Gender Development Directorate has the specific mandate to promote gender equality within and throughout the AU as well as within member states by translating the policy agreements and instruments into measurable programmes and projects. It provides oversight by facilitating the development and harmonization of policy and coordination, and initiating gender-mainstreaming strategies. The directorate was created in 2000 under the Office of the Chairperson of the AU Commission.¹⁵⁹

In 2014 the five-year Gender, Peace and Security Programme was launched by the AU Commission, providing a framework for the development of strategies and mechanisms for women's increased participation in the promotion of peace and security. It will also promote the protection of women in conflict and post-conflict situations throughout Africa.¹⁶⁰

Similarly, in 2013 the AU adopted its policy framework on security sector reform, marking another significant accomplishment of its broader peace and security goals.¹⁶¹ The policy acknowledges gender perspectives as critical components of conflict management and peacebuilding processes, which is considered to reinvigorate the debate on and practice of gender mainstreaming.¹⁶²

In 2015 the director of the Women and Gender Development Directorate at the AU Commission declared the year as the "Year of Women's Empowerment and Development towards Africa's Agenda 2063", and 2016 as the "African Year of Human Rights, with Particular Focus on the Rights of Women".¹⁶³

Organization of American States

The Organization of American States brings together 35 member states from the Americas, and aims to foster cooperation in the areas of democracy, human rights, security and development.¹⁶⁴ One of its advisory bodies is the Inter-American Commission of Women, a forum generating policy to promote the rights of women and gender equality and equity, and overseeing mainstreaming gender into the organization's projects, programmes and policies.¹⁶⁵

Pacific Community

As an international development organization, the Pacific Community promotes sustainable Pacific development through science, knowledge and innovation. After the adoption of UNSCR 1325 the Pacific Community has increasingly recognized women's role in conflict prevention and peacebuilding and the security implications of sexual and gender-based violence in the region. Consequently, in 2010 the Pacific Regional Working Group on Women, Peace and Security was established with members from the Pacific Community Forum, the Council of Regional Organizations in the Pacific, UN agencies and civil society, and it developed a regional action plan on women, peace and security in 2011. The plan sets out goals for mainstreaming gender in security policy-making, ensuring women's rights in humanitarian crises and post-conflict situations and enhancing women's role in leadership and conflict prevention and peacebuilding. This framework applies at the regional level for forum members and Pacific territories.¹⁶⁶

Association of Southeast Asian Nations

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Secretariat and its member states have committed themselves to the protection and advancement of women's economic and human rights. Their commitments include the Declaration of the Advancement of Women in the ASEAN Region, 1988, the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the ASEAN Region, 2004 and the ASEAN Human Rights Declaration, 2012, and the establishment of the ASEAN Committee on Women in 2002 and the ASEAN Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Women and Children in 2009.¹⁶⁷ Supporting the ASEAN ministerial meetings on women and these declarations, the Secretariat is keen to promote gender mainstreaming in the activities of its member states. While these regional commitments show ASEAN's engagement with the topic of women, peace and security, UNSCR 1325 is not fully accounted for in its commitments.¹⁶⁸

4. Conclusion

For states to implement their obligations to respect and protect the human rights of all those within their jurisdiction, it is essential that military personnel have a firm grasp of what those legal obligations are. Training and education are central to this, and should also provide military personnel with a greater understanding of the needs of different groups within society and how different genders are impacted by military actions, thus strengthening the application of the legal requirements. In addition, education by experts on the legal requirements and having the assistance and advice of legal expertise during operations are fundamental in ensuring these obligations are met.

The international community has recognized the importance of training and education in gender for the military as a means of strengthening the implementation of the relevant international legal provisions, as reflected in the UNSCRs on women, peace and security. NATO, the EU and other regional bodies are adopting specific requirements on military gender education and training, to be integrated in national and collective educational programmes, plans, curricula and training courses. Gender education and training are recognized as preconditions for more effective and efficient fulfilment of military tasks at the national level, as well in operations and missions led by the UN, NATO, the EU and the AU.

This chapter has provided a brief background on the international legal framework for protection and how military structures ensure these obligations are incorporated into their operations. It is by no means exhaustive, but hopefully it has highlighted the critical link between the legal requirements and the need to incorporate a gender perspective in military operations, training and education. Through the implementation of the UNSCRs on women, peace and security, states are contributing to fulfilling their legal obligations, and in doing so ensuring the protection of all.

5. Annotated bibliography

5.1 International human rights law

Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, "Report to the Human Rights Council on discrimination and violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity", May 2015, A/HRC/29/23, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Discrimination/LGBT/A_HRC_29_23_One_pager_en.pdf.

This summary report for the UN Human Rights Council details human rights violations commonly committed against individuals based on their sexual orientation and/or gender identity. It also lists key recommendations that states should adopt to provide minimum standards of protection to lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people, as required under international human rights law.

Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, “Women’s human rights and gender equality”, www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/WRGS/Pages/WRGSIndex.aspx.

This webpage includes links to other resources and overviews of legal standards and work to promote women’s rights and gender equality, including sections on women, peace and security, trafficking in persons, sexual and reproductive health and rights, land, property, housing and gender stereotypes/stereotyping.

International Committee of the Red Cross, “How does the law protect in war? The interplay between IHL and human rights: Use of force and conduct of hostilities”, 1 July 2015, www.icrc.org/casebook/doc/11-highlight/highlight-the-interplay-between-ihl-and-human-rights-use-of-force-and-conduct-of-hostilities.htm.

The ICRC has produced a collection of case studies and teaching materials to assist university professors, practitioners and students with up-to-date documents on international humanitarian law. There is a specific section on how international humanitarian law and human rights law relate to each other, which includes case studies, reference materials and further resources exploring this topic.

Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, “Women’s rights are human rights”, United Nations, 2014, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/HR-PUB-14-2.pdf.

Publication outlining the protection of women’s rights under international law, the global commitments, UN bodies, key concepts and how the framework is applied in practice.

5.2 International humanitarian law

International Committee of the Red Cross, “Customary international humanitarian law database”, www.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/home.

This is an updated and online version of a study on customary international humanitarian law conducted by the ICRC.

International Committee of the Red Cross, “Treaties, states parties and commentaries database”, www.icrc.org/ihl.

This website contains a compilation of treaties relating to international humanitarian law published by the ICRC.

Tengroth, Cecilia, and Kristina Lindvall (eds), *IHL and Gender – Swedish Experiences* (Stockholm: Swedish Red Cross and Swedish Ministry for Foreign Affairs, 2015), www.redcross.se/ihlandgender.

This e-book produced by the Swedish Red Cross brings together contributions and experiences from a broad field of expertise related to armed conflict, military operations, humanitarian assistance and gender, analysing how gender impacts on international humanitarian law.

International Committee of the Red Cross, *Handbook on Rules Governing Military Operations* (Geneva: ICRC, 2014), www.icrc.org/eng/assets/files/publications/icrc-002-0431.pdf.

This handbook was produced as a tool to assist commanders in incorporating the legal requirements into military strategy, operations and tactics. It provides a broad outline of legal obligations applicable in military operations and places them in a practical, operational context.

“Women”, *International Review of the Red Cross*, Vol. 92, No. 877 (2010), www.icrc.org/en/international-review/women.

This issue of the ICRC’s quarterly journal published by the ICRC and Cambridge University Press focuses on the experiences of women in armed conflict. It includes articles analysing a historical approach to women and war, women as participants in conflict, women in detention, gender violence and discourse and Security Council actions.

International Committee of the Red Cross, “Gender perspectives on international humanitarian law”, report summary of international expert meeting, 4–5 October 2007, Stockholm, www.icrc.org/eng/assets/files/other/ihl_and_gender.pdf.

This report was produced following an international expert meeting held at the Swedish National Defence College on 4–5 October 2007 debating international humanitarian law and gender.

5.3 International criminal law

Washington College of Law, American University, “Gender jurisprudence and international criminal law project”, www.genderjurisprudence.org/index.php/gender-jurisprudence-collections/browse-collections.

This is a collaborative project between the War Crimes Research Office and the Women and International Law Program at American University Washington College of Law which aims to raise awareness of and encourage research and debate about the jurisprudence emerging from international and hybrid tribunals regarding sexual and gender-based violence committed during times of conflict, mass violence or repression, and to facilitate the investigation and prosecution of these crimes under international law.

The ICRC has produced various educational materials and publications on sexual violence in armed conflict.

- “Sexual violence in armed conflict”, *International Review of the Red Cross*, Vol. 96, No. 894 (2014), www.icrc.org/en/international-review/sexual-violence-armed-conflict.
- “Sexual violence in armed conflict”, e-briefing, 2014, app.icrc.org/e-briefing/sexual-violence-armed-conflict/index.html.

Based on *International Review of the Red Cross* No. 894, this e-briefing compiles various electronic resources produced by the ICRC on the topic. It is structured in five parts: introduction, the human cost, the humanitarian response, legal dimensions and prevention efforts. Side-bars point to other useful links and additional resources.

- “How does the law protect in war? Sexual violence in armed conflict”, 7 April 2014, <https://www.icrc.org/casebook/doc/12-previous-highlight/case-study-highlight.htm>.

The ICRC has produced a collection of case studies and teaching materials to provide university professors, practitioners and students with up-to-date documents on international humanitarian law. It includes a specific section on sexual violence in armed conflict, with case studies, movies and workshop outlines to assist in teaching and learning more on the topic.

5.4 Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security

UN Women, “Preventing conflict, transforming justice, securing the peace: A global study on the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325”, United Nations, 2015, <http://wps.unwomen.org/en>.

This study was produced 15 years after the passing of UNSCR 1325, reviewing implementation of the resolution at global, regional and national levels to inform the high-level review of women, peace and security held by the Security Council in October 2015. The study includes important recommendations informing the work of the Security Council and member states in progressing this area of work.

Notes

1. Sally Longworth wrote the section on the legal framework and the subsection on the history and development of the women, peace and security agenda. Nevena Miteva and Ankica Tomić wrote the remainder of the section on the policy framework with the support of Anna Kadar. The authors would like to thank Dr Ola Engdahl, Megan Bastick, Bojana Balon, Fernando Izquierdo, Dessy Lazarova and Jody Prescott for comments on this chapter.
2. See, for example, United Nations, “Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action”, adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women, 27 October 1995, UN Docs A/CONF.177/20 (1995) and A/CONF.177/20/Add.1, para. 135. See also United Nations, “Women, peace and security: Study submitted by the Secretary-General pursuant to Security Council Resolution 1325”, 2002, pp. 13–31, www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/public/eWPS.pdf.
3. A basic understanding of public international law is essential for understanding the legal framework. This is outside the scope of this chapter. Suggested resources on the topic include Malcolm Evans, *International Law*, 4th edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2014); Malcolm N. Shaw, *International Law*, 7th edn (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2014); International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), *Handbook on International Rules Governing Military Operations* (Geneva: ICRC, 2013).
4. Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), adopted by UN General Assembly Resolution 217 A(III), 10 December 1948, UN Doc. A/810, Art. 7; International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966, 999 United Nations Treaty Series (UNTS) 171, Arts 2, 4(1) and 26; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966, 993 UNTS 3, Art. 2; Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989 (CRC), 1577 UNTS 3, Art. 2; International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families 1990, 2220 UNTS 3, Art. 7; International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1965 (CERD), 660 UNTS 195, Art. 3; Council of Europe, European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (ECHR), as amended by Protocols 11 and 14, 4 November 1950, European Treaty Series (ETS) 5, 213 UNTS 22, Art. 14; Council of Europe, Protocol 12 to the ECHR, 4 November 2000, ETS 177; African Union, African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (Banjul Charter), OAU Doc. CAB/LEG/67/3, Rev. 55, 1520 UNTS 217 (1982), Art. 2; African Union, African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, OAU Doc. CAB/LEG/24.9/49 (1990), Art. 3; Organization of American States, American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man, OEA/Ser.L.V.II.23, Doc. 21, Rev. 6 (1948), reprinted in *Basic Documents Pertaining to Human Rights in the Inter-American System*, OEA/Ser.L.V./II.82, Doc. 6, Rev. 1, p. 17, Art. 11; Organization of American States, American Convention on Human Rights (ACHR), OEA/Ser.K/XVY1.1, Doc. 65, Rev. 1, Corr. 1, Organization of American States Treaty Series No. 36 (1970), Art. 1; League of Arab States, Arab Charter on Human Rights, 22 May 2004, reprinted in *International Human Rights*, Vol. 12, Rep. 893 (2005), Arts 3 and 11; European Union, Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (EU Charter), 26 October 2012, 2012/C 326/02, Art. 21.
5. UDHR, *ibid.*, Art. 7; American Declaration, *ibid.*, Art. 11; ACHR, *ibid.*, Art. 24; ECHR Protocol 12, *ibid.*; Arab Charter on Human Rights, *ibid.*, Art. 11; EU Charter, *ibid.*, Art. 20.
6. UN Human Rights Committee, “General comment No. 18: Non-discrimination (37th session, 1989)” in “Compilation of general comments and general recommendations adopted by human rights treaty bodies”, 1994, UN Doc. HRI/GEN/1/Rev. 1, p. 26, para. 1; Common Article 3 to Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field (GCI), 12 August 1949, 75 UNTS 31, Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea (GCII), 12 August 1949, 75 UNTS 85, Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War (GCIII), 12 August 1949, 75 UNTS 135 and Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (GCIV), 12 August 1949, 75 UNTS 287; GCIII, Art. 16; GCIV, Art. 13; Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 and Relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts (API), 1125 UNTS 3, Arts 9(1), 69(1), 70(1) and 75(1); Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 and Relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts (APII), 1125 UNTS 609, Arts 2(1), 4(1) and 18(2). See also International Law Commission, “Draft articles of the responsibility of states for internationally wrongful acts”, UN General Assembly, 56th Session, 2001, Supp. 10, UN Doc. A/56/10.
7. Common Article 2 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV, *ibid.*
8. According to the theory of persistent objector, a state that objects consistently to the application of a rule of international law while it is still in the process of forming into a rule will not be bound by it when it comes into existence. See further Elias Olufemi, “Persistent objector”, in Rüdiger Wolfrum (ed.), *The Max Planck Encyclopaedia of Public International Law*, Vol. VIII (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012), pp. 280–285.
9. For general background on human rights law see Dinah Shelton (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of International Human Rights Law* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2013); Olivier de Schutter, *International Human Rights Law: Cases, Materials, Commentary*, 2nd edn (Cambridge: Cambridge

- University Press, 2014); Philip Alston and Ryan Goodman, *International Human Rights* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012).
10. Mary Robinson, "Realizing human rights: Take hold of it boldly and duly", lecture, Oxford University, 11 November 1997, quoted in Monique Castermans-Holleman, Fried Van Hoof and Jacqueline Smith (eds), *The Role of the Nation State in the 21st Century: Human Rights, International Organisations and Foreign Policy – Essays in Honour of Peter Baehr* (The Hague: Kluwer Law International, 1998), p. 440.
 11. See, for example, International Court of Justice (ICJ), *United States v. Iran*, 1980 ICJ, 3, 42, Judgment of 24 May; International Conference on Human Rights, "Declaration of Tehran", 1968, UN Doc. A/CONF.32/41.
 12. See for background UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), "The International Bill of Human Rights", Fact Sheet No. 2 (Rev. 1), www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/FactSheet2Rev.1en.pdf.
 13. CERD and CRC, note 4 above; Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhumane and Degrading Treatment and Punishment 1984, 1465 UNTS 85; International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance 2006, 2716 UNTS 3. For a full list of the core international treaties see www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CoreInstruments.aspx. In addition to these treaties, states have adopted optional protocols that add further rights, as well as treaty monitoring bodies and mechanisms for individuals to bring complaints of violations of rights provided under treaties.
 14. See American Declaration, ACHR, Banjul Charter, ECHR and EU Charter, note 4 above. It is outside the scope of this chapter to give a full overview of the regional systems of human rights protection. For further information see, for example, Rhona Smith, *Textbook on International Human Rights*, 6th edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012), pp. 86–154.
 15. See further UN Human Rights Committee, "General comment no. 31 [80]: The nature of the general legal obligation imposed on States Parties to the Covenant", 26 May 2004, CCPR/C/21/Rev.1/Add.13.
 16. Martin Scheinin, "Core rights and obligations", in Shelton, note 9 above, pp. 536–538.
 17. UN Human Rights Committee, note 6 above, paras 13 and 18.
 18. Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2007, 2515 UNTS 3.
 19. Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 1979 (CEDAW), 1249 UNTS 13.
 20. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW Committee), "General recommendation No. 30: On women, conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations", CEDAW/C/GC/30, 18 October 2013, para. 2. The committee was established by CEDAW, *ibid.*, Art. 17, and monitors state party implementation of the treaty through receiving national reports (Art. 18) and individual communications and initiates inquiries into situations of grave or systematic violations of women's rights by states that have ratified the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 1999, 2131 UNTS 83. The committee also issues general recommendations clarifying the scope and content of the rights and obligations set out in the convention. See www.ohchr.org/en/hrbodies/cedaw/pages/cedawindex.aspx.
 21. CEDAW, note 19 above, Art. 2 (policy measures).
 22. *Ibid.*, Arts 7 (political and public life) and 8 (representation).
 23. *Ibid.*, Arts 1 (discrimination), 2 (policy measures), 3 (guarantee of basic human rights and fundamental freedoms), 4 (special measures), 5 (sex role stereotyping and prejudice), 6 (prostitution), 10 (education), 12 (health) and 14 (rural women).
 24. See CEDAW Committee, note 20 above, paras 48–52. See also Swedish Red Cross, "Study on access to health care during armed conflict and other emergencies: Examining violence against health care from a gender perspective", March 2015, http://healthcareindanger.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/report_-_study_on_hcidg_src_tryck.pdf.
 25. In March 2014 the OHCHR deployed the Human Rights Monitoring Mission in Ukraine (HRMMU) upon the invitation of the government of Ukraine; it also provides regular updates on the human rights situation in Crimea. The HRMMU reports are available at www.ohchr.org/EN/Countries/ENACARegion/Pages/UARports.aspx.
 26. See OHCHR, "Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 8 October 2014", paras 142–148, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/OHCHR_eighth_report_on_Ukraine.pdf; OHCHR, "Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 1 June 2015", para. 56 (noting that the International Organization for Migration had already identified 230 victims of trafficking from Ukraine), www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/11thOHCHRreportUkraine.pdf; OHCHR, "Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 16 May to 15 August 2015", paras 172–173, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/11thOHCHRreportUkraine.pdf; OHCHR, "Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 1 June 2015", para. 171, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/11thOHCHRreportUkraine.pdf; OHCHR, "Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 16 September 2014", paras 150–172, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/OHCHR_sixth_report_on_Ukraine.pdf; OHCHR, "Report on

- the human rights situation in Ukraine, 15 December 2014”, para. 80, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/OHCHR_eighth_report_on_Ukraine.pdf.
27. OHCHR, “8 October 2014”, *ibid.*, paras 142–148; OHCHR, “1 June 2015”, *ibid.*, para. 56.
 28. Gloria Gaggioli, “Sexual violence in armed conflicts: A violation of international humanitarian law and human rights law”, *International Review of the Red Cross*, Vol. 96, No. 894 (2014), pp. 503–538 at p. 510.
 29. CEDAW Committee, note 20 above, para. 29.
 30. There is specific regulation in international law relating to the crime of trafficking. See Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others, 2 December 1949, UN Doc. A/RES/317, 96 UNTS 271; Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, 2000, 2237 UNTS 319; Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, 15 November 2000, GA Res. 55/25, Annex III, UN GAOR 55th Session, 2001, Supp. 49, UN Doc. A/45/49 (Vol. I), p. 65, 40 ILM 384 (2001). These protocols supplement the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2225 UNTS 209, opened for signature on 15 December 2000, entered into force 29 September 2003. This is also addressed in CEDAW, note 19 above, Art. 6; CRC, note 4 above, Arts 4–5; International Labour Organization, Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 17 June 1999, C182. See also Optional Protocol to the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, GA Res. 54/263, Annex II, UN GAOR 54th Session, 2000, Supp. 49, UN Doc. A/54/49, p. 6, which provides detailed requirements for criminalization of these activities.
 31. CEDAW Committee, note 20 above, para. 35. See also UN Security Council, “Resolution 1820 (2008) on women, peace and security”, 19 June 2008, UN Doc. S/RES/1820.
 32. CEDAW Committee, note 20 above, para. 36.
 33. World Health Organization, “Violence against women in situations of armed conflict”, 1997, www.who.int/gender/violence/v7.pdf; UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, “Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective”, 23 January 2001, UN Doc. E/CN.4/2001/73, para. 57. In the context of the conflict in Ukraine, increases in domestic violence have been noted by the HRMMU. See, for example, OHCHR, “Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 16 August to 15 November 2015”, para. 100, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/12thOHCHRreportUkraine.pdf; OHCHR, “Report on the human rights situation in Ukraine, 16 February to 15 May 2015”, para. 100, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/UA/10thOHCHRreportUkraine.pdf; OHCHR, “16 September 2014”, note 26 above, paras 147–149.
 34. For general background on international humanitarian law see Dieter Fleck (ed.), *The Handbook of International Humanitarian Law*, 3rd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press); Yoram Dinstein, *The Conduct of Hostilities under the Law of International Armed Conflict* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2010); Andrew Clapham and Paola Gaeta (eds), *The Oxford Handbook of International Law in Armed Conflict* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2014); ICRC, *ICRC Handbook on Rules Governing Military Operations* (Geneva: ICRC, 2014). For law applicable in peace operations see Terry D. Gill and Dieter Fleck, *The Handbook of the International Law of Military Operations* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2011), pp. 81–162.
 35. See ICJ, “Legal consequences of the construction of a wall in the Occupied Territories (advisory opinion)”, ICJ Reports, 2004, para. 106. See further Derek Jinks, “International human rights law in time of armed conflict”, in Clapham and Gaeta, *ibid.*, pp. 656–674.
 36. See Common Article 1 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV, note 6 above. See also API, note 6 above, Art. 1(1); APII, note 6 above, Art. 1(1). See further ICRC, “Database of customary international humanitarian law”, Rule 139, www.icrc.org/customary-international-humanitarian-law/eng/docs/v1_rul_rule139. For requirements under international humanitarian law during peacetime see, for example, GCI, note 6 above, Arts 45 and 47–49; GCII, note 6 above, Arts 46 and 48–50; GCIII, note 6 above, Arts 127–129; GCIV, note 6 above, Arts 144–146; API, note 6 above, Arts 80 and 83–85.
 37. See, for example, national practice relating to Rule 142 of the ICRC database, *ibid.*, on ensuring instruction on international humanitarian law within armed forces.
 38. ICRC, “Gender perspectives on international humanitarian law: Report summary of international expert meeting held 4–5 October 2007 in Stockholm, Sweden”, 2007, p. 5, www.icrc.org/eng/assets/files/other/international_humanitarian_law_and_gender.pdf.
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 41. See Common Article 2 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV, note 6 above; API, note 6 above, Art. 1(3)–(4).

42. See Hague Convention (IV) Respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land and Annex: Regulations Concerning the Laws and Customs of War on Land, The Hague, 18 October 1907, 36 Stat. 2277, 1 Bevans 631, 205 Consolidated Treaty Series 277, 3 Martens Nouveau Recueil (Ser. 3) 461, Arts 42–43; US Tribunal at Nuremberg, “Hostages trial”, in *Law Reports of Trial of War Criminals*, Vol. III (London: UN War Crimes Commission, 1949), p. 55; ICTY, *Prosecutor v. Mladen Naletilic aka “Tuta”, Vinko Martinovic aka “Stela”*, IT-98-34-T, Trial Chamber Judgment, 31 March 2003, paras 210–223. See further Eyal Benvenisti, *The International Law of Occupation*, 2nd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012), p. 51.
43. GCIII, note 6 above, Art. 16; GCIV, note 6 above, Art. 13; API, note 6 above, Arts 9(1), 69(1), 70(1) and 75(1); APII, note 6 above, Arts 2(1), 4(1) and 18(2). See further H. Durham and K. O’Byrne, “The dialogue of difference: Gender perspectives on international humanitarian law”, *International Review of the Red Cross*, Vol. 92, No. 877 (2010), pp. 31–52.
44. ICRC, note 38 above, p. 5.
45. For example, GCIV, note 6 above, Arts 14, 27, 38(5), 50, 97, 124 and 132; API, note 6 above, Art. 75; APII, note 6 above, Art. 5(2)(a). There is criticism that many of the provisions within the Geneva Conventions addressing the protection needs of women are based on underlying gendered assumptions relating to outdated ideas of family honour and gendered stereotypes on the roles of women within the family. See, for example, GCIV, Art. 27(2), which provides that women shall be especially protected against any attack on their honour, in particular against rape, enforced prostitution or any form of indecent assault. This developed somewhat in the drafting of the additional protocols. See, for example, the wording of API, Art. 76(1), compared with the wording of GCIV, Art. 27(2).
46. GCI, note 6 above, Art. 12; GCII, note 6 above, Art. 12. See also GCIII, note 6 above, Art. 14, setting out the obligation to treat women prisoners of war (POWs) with due regard to their sex; they must also in all cases benefit by treatment as favourable as that granted to men. In the execution of penalties for POWs following disciplinary or judicial measures, GCIII, Art. 88(3) provides that in no case may a woman POW be awarded or sentenced to a punishment more severe, or treated while undergoing punishment more severely, than a male member of the armed forces of the detaining power dealt with for a similar offence. Special protection is also afforded against the exercise of the death penalty for persons under the age of 18 at the time of the offence, pregnant women and mothers of young children under API, note 6 above, Arts. 75(5) and 77(5), and APII, note 6 above, Art. 6(4).
47. In relation to families see also API, note 6 above, Arts 32, 74 and 75(5).
48. GCIII, note 6 above, Arts 25, 97 and 108; GCIV, note 6 above, Arts 76, 85 and 124. GCIV, Art. 82 also provides that interned members of the same family, and in particular parents and children, shall be lodged together in the same place throughout the duration of their internment, except when separation of a temporary nature is necessitated for reasons of employment or health, or for the purposes of enforcement of penal and disciplinary sanction under Chapter IX of the Geneva Conventions.
49. See, for example, European Court of Human Rights, *Valasinas v. Lithuania*, Application No. 44558/98, Judgment, 24 July 2001, para. 117. On conditions in detention see further United Nations, “Standard minimum rules for the treatment of prisoners (Mandela Rules)”, 29 September 2015, UN Doc. A/C.3/70/L.3.
50. See also GCIV, note 6 above, Arts 17–18, 20–21, 23–24, 50, 89, 91, 94 and 132.
51. See, for example, *ibid.*, Arts 20 (wounded and sick, hospital staff) and 21 (wounded and sick, land and sea transport).
52. *Ibid.*, Arts 50 (children), 76 (treatment of detainees), 85 (accommodation, hygiene), 97 (valuables and personal effects) and 124 (premises for disciplinary punishments); API, note 6 above, Arts 75 (fundamental guarantees) and 75(5) and 76 (protection of women).
53. Hague Regulations 1907, note 42 above, Art. 46.
54. Such prohibitions date back to the Lieber Codes of 1863, Art. 44. See also GCIV, note 6 above, Art. 27; API, note 6 above, Art. 76.
55. API, note 6 above, Art. 51(3); APII, note 6 above, Art. 13(3); ICRC, note 36 above, Rules 1 and 6.
56. UN Human Rights Council, “Report of the Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic”, 13 August 2015, UN Doc. A/HRC/30/48, para. 66.
57. API, note 6 above, Art. 57(1)(b). See further ICRC, note 36 above, Rule 15. On precautions see API, Art. 57(1). In relation to non-international armed conflicts see APII, note 6 above, reference to the principle of humanity in the preamble and Art. 13(1) on general protection from attacks; Protocol on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Mines, Booby-Traps and Other Devices as amended, 3 May 1996, annex to Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects, Doc. CCW/CONF.I/16 (Part I), 2048 UNTS 93, Arts 3(8)(c) and 3(10); Second Protocol to the Hague Convention of 1954 for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, 26 March 1999, 38 ILM 769, Art. 7. On proportionality see API, Arts 51(5)(b) and 57(2)(a)(iii); ICRC, note 36 above, Rule 14.
58. ICJ, note 35 above, para. 106. See also United

- Nations, "General Assembly Resolution 2444 (1968) on respect for human rights in armed conflict", 19 December 1968, UN Doc. A/RES/2444 (1968); CEDAW Committee, note 20 above, paras 19–24.
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 61. Common Article 2 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV, note 6 above; Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, adopted 9 December 1948, entered into force 12 January 1951, 78 UNTS 277, Art. 1; Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, UN Doc. A/CONF.183/9 (1998), ILM 1002 (1998), 2187 UNTS 90, Art. 1; UN Human Rights Committee, "General comment No. 6: Right to life", in "Compilation of general comments and general recommendations adopted by human rights treaty bodies", UN Doc. HRI/GEN/1/Rev.1 (1994), p. 6, para. 2; ICRC, note 36 above, Rules 151–153 and 157–158.
 62. See further the ICRC's database on national implementation relating to criminal repression, https://www.icrc.org/applic/ihl/ihl-nat.nsf/vwLawsByCountry.xsp?xp_topicSelected=GVAL-992BU6.
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 64. UN DPKO, "Review of sexual violence elements of the judgments of the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia, the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, and the Special Court for Sierra Leone in the light of Security Council Resolution 1820", United Nations, 2010, www.icty.org/x/file/Outreach/sv_files/DPKO_report_sexual_violence.pdf.
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 66. See UN Security Council, "Resolution 1593 (2005) referring war in Darfur to the International Criminal Court", 31 March 2005, UN Doc. S/RES/1593 (2005).
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 68. Philippe Kirsch, "Introduction to the first edition", in Otto Triffterer (ed.), *Commentary on the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court – Observers' Notes, Article by Article*, 2nd edn (Munich: C. H. Beck), p. XXXIX. For an analysis of the material jurisdiction of the ICC see Antonio Cassese, Paolo Gaeta and John Jones (eds), *The Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court: A Commentary* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002), Ch. 11, Section 3, pp. 335–526.
 69. See also Rome Statute, note 61 above, Art. 6(e) on genocide by forcible transfer of children of one group to another group; Art. 7(h) on crime against humanity of persecution of any identifiable group or collectivity on political, racial, national, ethnic, cultural, religious, gender or other grounds that are universally recognized as impermissible under international law; Art. 8(2)(b)(xxii) (international armed conflict) and 8(2)(e)(vi) (non-international armed conflict) on war crime of committing rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization, or any other form of sexual violence also constituting a grave breach of the Geneva Conventions.
 70. *Ibid.*, Art. 7(1)(c) on crime against humanity of enslavement. See further definition of "enslavement" under Art. 7(2) and definition of gender under Art. 7(3).
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 72. UN Human Rights Council, note 56 above, paras 40–48.
 73. *Ibid.*, para. 50.
 74. *Ibid.*, paras 114–117.
 75. See, for example, ICTY, *Prosecutor v. Kunarac et*

- al.*, IT-96-23-T and IT-96-23/1-T, Trial Judgment, 22 February 2001, paras 766–774; ICTY, *Prosecutor v. Furundžija*, IT-95-17/1-T, Trial Judgment, 10 December 1998; ICTY, *Prosecutor v. Mucić et al.*, IT-96-21, Trial Judgment, 16 November 1998, paras 1060–1066, and Trial Judgment, 9 October 2001; ICTY, *Prosecutor v. Tadić*, note 40 above, Trial Judgment, 7 May 1997, paras 206 and 237; ICTR, *Prosecutor v. Jean-Paul Akayesu*, ICTR-96-4, 2 September 1998, paras 507–508. See also ICTR, *Gacumbitsi v. Prosecutor*, ICTR-01-64-A, Appeal Judgment, 7 July 2006.
76. Durham and Bernard, note 63 above, p. 433.
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 80. UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Women, Peace and Security, “UN strategic results framework on women, peace and security: 2011–2020”, United Nations, July 2011, www.un.org/womenwatch/ianwge/taskforces/wps/Strategic_Framework_2011-2020.pdf.
 81. UN Security Council, “Resolution 1325 (2000) on women, peace and security”, 31 October 2000, UN Doc. S/RES/1325 (2000).
 82. Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, note 2 above, para. 38. See further examples: UN International Human Rights Instruments, “Integrating the gender perspective into the work of United Nations human rights treaty bodies: Report of the Secretary-General”, 3 September 1998, UN Doc. HRI/MC/1998/6; UN Economic and Social Council, “Mainstreaming a gender perspective into all policies and programmes in the United Nations system”, 12 June 1997, UN Doc. E/1997/6. Further ECOSOC resolutions and Secretary-General reports on the topic are available at www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/How%20We%20Work/UNSystemCoordination/UNWomen-GenderMainstreamingReportsAndResolutions-en%20pdf.pdf.
 83. Charter of the United Nations, 24 October 1945, 1 UNTS XVI, Art. 25.
 84. A full overview of the history of this development is given in United Nations (2002), note 2 above, pp. 1–12.
 85. Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, note 2 above, para. 133.
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 87. *Ibid.*, paras 4–5. Para. 8 further called all actors involved in negotiating and implementing peace agreements to adopt a gender perspective.
 88. *Ibid.*, preamble, para. 5, and operative paras 1, 3 and 4.
 89. UNSCR 1820, note 31 above. See further Christine Chinkin, “Gender and armed conflict”, in Clapham and Gaeta, note 34 above, pp. 675–699 at p. 691.
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Gender education and training in the military

Martina Lindberg (Swedish Defence University) and Yvette Foliant (Ministry of Defence, The Netherlands)¹

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1. Introduction

This chapter outlines what gender training in the military can entail for commanders, staff and other personnel working at strategic, operational and tactical levels. It also describes the challenges and provides examples of good practices (see Box 3.1). The chapter derives from experiences of gender implementation in NATO education and training combined with lessons from other, mainly European, actors.

The objective of the chapter is to provide a general overview of education and training on gender in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the European Union (EU) and the United Nations (UN). A secondary objective is to demonstrate what and how to teach on gender and the women, peace and security (WPS) agenda² to commanders, specific gender staff and other personnel working at strategic, operational and tactical levels, and finally to provide examples of best practices and challenges at all levels.

2. Overview of general, pre-deployment and in-theatre education and training in regional and international organizations

2.1 European Union

The EU has a Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP), led by the EU high representative for foreign affairs and security policy/vice-president of the European Commission. To give the CSDP a training and education instrument, the European Security and Defence College (ESDC) was established in 2005 as a network of existing educational institutions offering courses to public officials, diplomats, police and defence personnel. Participation by EU member states is voluntary, but every member state is represented in the network by at least one institution.³ EU training policy in the CSDP is based on the principle of mainstreaming human rights and gender perspectives as part of a European security culture. The EU also supports training efforts carried out by member states, *inter alia* through the development of training modules and minimum-standard training elements. Such modules and standards exist in the fields of human rights, gender and child protection, for example.⁴

Regarding training on the WPS agenda and gender, no compulsory pre-deployment training is conducted for military or civilian personnel by the EU itself, as it is the deploying nation's responsibility to provide gender-awareness training. Knowledge and competence therefore vary greatly between nations, but it is worth mentioning that many personnel have received training on WPS and gender from their home countries or from previous UN or NATO pre-deployment training. (Note that all EU member states are members of either NATO or the Partnership for Peace.) Once personnel are deployed in theatre they do not receive further training. The ESDC has one specific course on gender, entitled "A Comprehensive Approach to Gender in Operations", which runs every six months, alternating between Spain and the Netherlands.⁵ Modules on gender have also been integrated in other courses, such as:

- EU CSDP foundation training for EU operational headquarters/force headquarters key nucleus staff and augmenters (at operational-tactical level);
- CSDP orientation course for young diplomats and newcomers or member state representatives starting work in the EU CSDP arena;
- CSDP high-level course for senior officials and senior leadership course for future mission/operations commanders or heads of mission.

There is also an advanced distributed learning course available online through Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management, but this was mainly created for civilian personnel deployed in international crisis management missions.⁶

Finally, in the "Framework process for managing CSDP military training requirements", which was presented to the EU Military Committee in late 2014, gender is proposed as one of the disciplines that should constitute a training requirement under the CSDP.⁷ This may result in policy changes that place a greater emphasis on gender in EU military training in the near future.

2.2 NATO

NATO's essential purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of its members through political and military means.⁸

NATO has worked actively on the WPS agenda since 2004. NATO allies responded to UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325⁹ by adopting their first policy in 2007, which was then reviewed every two years. An updated overarching policy was adopted in April 2014.¹⁰ At the Lisbon Summit in 2010, NATO leaders adopted an action plan for the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions in NATO-led operations and

missions; this was updated and expanded in June 2014 to match more recent policy on WPS.¹¹ Furthermore, since 2012 there has been a NATO Secretary General's special representative for WPS situated at NATO headquarters. The special representative's role is to advance the WPS agenda at every level in NATO's policies and activities, including through reinforcing and promoting implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions.¹²

At the NATO summits in 2010 and 2012 heads of state and government endorsed progress reports, including ongoing efforts to integrate gender perspectives in NATO activities. To this end, in 2014 Strategic Command Operation and Transformation developed the NATO Education and Training Plan for Gender in Military Operations.¹³ The objective of the plan is to describe and delineate an adaptive and flexible NATO education and training system for gender in the military. This system seeks to standardize and harmonize the education and training activities at all levels of NATO's military structures and facilitate cooperation with partners, including the sharing of information and provision of training opportunities. The desired end state of the NATO Education and Training Plan for Gender in Military Operations is to establish a training mechanism to educate and train personnel on gender in all NATO's military operations in order to protect the human rights, safety and security of men, women, boys and girls.¹⁴

In 2013 the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations (NCGM) in Kungsängen, Sweden, was designated by NATO as the department head for the delivery of all gender education and training. In this capacity, it designs and delivers courses on gender in accordance with NATO's operational requirements, and establishes training standards to which all NATO's gender programme courses must adhere. In addition, its gender field adviser and gender training of trainers courses and its gender key leader seminar have NATO "selected" accreditation and are open to participants from around the world.¹⁵

NATO Allied Command Transformation also has a selection of courses related to gender on its joint advanced distributed learning platform (see Chapter 9).¹⁶ There are both entry-level courses that introduce the concept of gender in the military and more advanced courses aimed at gender advisers (GENADs, sometimes called gender field advisers (GFAs) in certain settings) and gender focal points (GFPs). While these courses are available to all NATO personnel and partners to pursue on an *ad hoc* basis, they can also be given as a prerequisite to classroom-taught courses. One course, "Improving operational effectiveness by integrating a gender perspective", is a mandatory part of Resolute Support NATO pre-deployment training.

2.3 United Nations

The United Nations has been working to support women's rights and gender equality since it established the Section on the Status of Women (later the Division for the Advancement of Women) in 1946.¹⁷ The intensity of its work increased during the UN Decade for Women (1976–1985), during which time the UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) was founded.¹⁸ In 2010 INSTRAW was merged with other UN bodies working on gender into UN Women.¹⁹ Especially since the passing of UNSCR 1325 on women, peace and security in 2000, the paramount importance of the role of women and gender perspectives in security issues has been recognized, and there are now GENADs in eight UN missions as well as GFPs in a further five smaller missions.²⁰ The WPS agenda is now included in the mandatory pre-deployment training developed by the United Nations. The training covers the concept of gender, conduct and discipline, sexual violence in conflict and protection of civilians. Sexual violence is included in the topic of protection of civilians, while gender also has a separate stand-alone component. But while pre-deployment training is mandatory, the time allocated and the training elements that are taught are at the discretion of the deploying nation – therefore gender is not always given the time or attention needed.²¹

3. Gender education and training in practice

3.1 The relevance of gender at the strategic, operational and tactical levels

Box 3.1 The different military planning levels²²

The *strategic level* can be described as the “level at which a nation or group of nations determines national or multinational security objectives and deploys national, including military, resources to achieve them”.

The *operational level* can be described as the “level at which campaigns and major operations are planned, conducted and sustained to accomplish strategic objectives within theatres or areas of operations”.

The *tactical level* can be described as the “level at which activities, battles and engagements are planned and executed to accomplish military objectives assigned to tactical formations and units”.

Chapter 1 highlights the many ways in which gender is relevant to all military personnel, whether they work at the strategic, operational or tactical level (see Box 3.1). A key to success in implementation is for the top leadership to engage fully and actively in the implementation process and make it a priority. This was one of the outcomes of a NATO review of the implementation of UNSCR 1325 in NATO and NATO-led operations.²³

With this in mind, the inclusion of gender perspectives needs, first and foremost, to be integrated in the steering document upon which the education and training are based. This could be an education plan, course plan, curriculum or course programme. In an academic institution it is referred to as an education plan operationalized by a course plan or course curriculum. The process of integrating gender into the curriculum is explored in more detail in Chapter 4.

Ensuring that all military personnel, but especially commanders, are capable of integrating a gender perspective and applying the requirements of the WPS agenda at every level is key to operational success. This task should therefore not be treated differently from other responsibilities. (For example, the commander is responsible for abiding by the obligations imposed by humanitarian law; in this topic the commander can lean on the advice of a specialist, such as a military legal adviser, but it should be underlined that it is the commander who bears the responsibility.²⁴) All subordinate military personnel are responsible for implementing a gender perspective into their different areas of work according to the commander’s orders. For this reason, it is necessary for all personnel to receive education on gender.

For the best possible results, training on gender should be included in basic training, integrated throughout all education, given as early as possible, related to the implementation of the WPS agenda and focused on what is important for the learners’ individual daily tasks. A recognized key to success is not to address gender as a separate issue, but to highlight the gender dimensions in existing topics through the practice of *gender mainstreaming*. Ideally the current lecturers or trainers of these courses (rather than gender experts) should be equipped to gender mainstream their courses by giving them a higher level of knowledge of gender and WPS. This will strengthen their ability to integrate gender across all learning modules. A stand-alone gender and WPS module can be used in education for deeper knowledge on the topic (as part of a longer programme or course) where progression of knowledge in WPS and gender is the focus of the education, but this should not be regarded as the foremost solution when it comes to gender mainstreaming.

3.2 The content of gender education and training for the military

Military education on gender at all levels, regardless of whether it is taught as a stand-alone module or as a cross-cutting theme, should always make reference to several focus areas. This is because militaries are complex in nature, and care needs to be taken to ensure that all personnel contribute to the military's overall gender-related objectives in a coherent and effective way.

Focus area 1: International and national frameworks related to women, peace and security

Under Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, the provisions of UNSCR 1325 and other WPS resolutions apply to all NATO-led missions.²⁵ Many other countries have incorporated them into all their military deployments through, for example, national action plans, and they also apply to any missions undertaken under the terms of a UN mandate (see also Chapter 2). International and national frameworks on WPS should therefore be incorporated in the mandatory education of personnel at all levels.

By and large, this will involve educating personnel on their responsibilities with regard to the implementation of the three pillars of the WPS resolutions: the *prevention* of conflict, the *protection* of the human rights of women and girls (including those pertaining to conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence) and the *participation* of women in all levels of decision-making. Military organizations have often chosen to operationalize UNSCR 1325 through integrating a gender perspective in their interpretation of a mission mandate. In these cases, strategic military documents may provide staff with details of the kinds of activities they are required to undertake.²⁶

As military personnel move up the ranks of the organization, the content of their education on these international and national frameworks will also need to evolve. For example, those working at tactical level will need to be able to *recall* that they are bound by these instruments and *understand* what they mean. Personnel working at the operational level will need to know how to *apply* these policies in their operational planning with the support of GENADs and GFAs. Those working at the strategic level will need to be able to *create* security objectives that incorporate gender perspectives in accordance with the relevant policy and legal frameworks, again with the support of GENADs or other senior advisers with gender-related expertise (see the discussion on Bloom's taxonomy in Chapter 7). Different people could be involved in this process. Commanders have a particular responsibility to apply and promote the principles of gender equality within their organization, team and operation. The contents of focus area 1 therefore apply to courses at many different educational levels, and this is a topic that personnel will need to return to several times over the course of their military education.

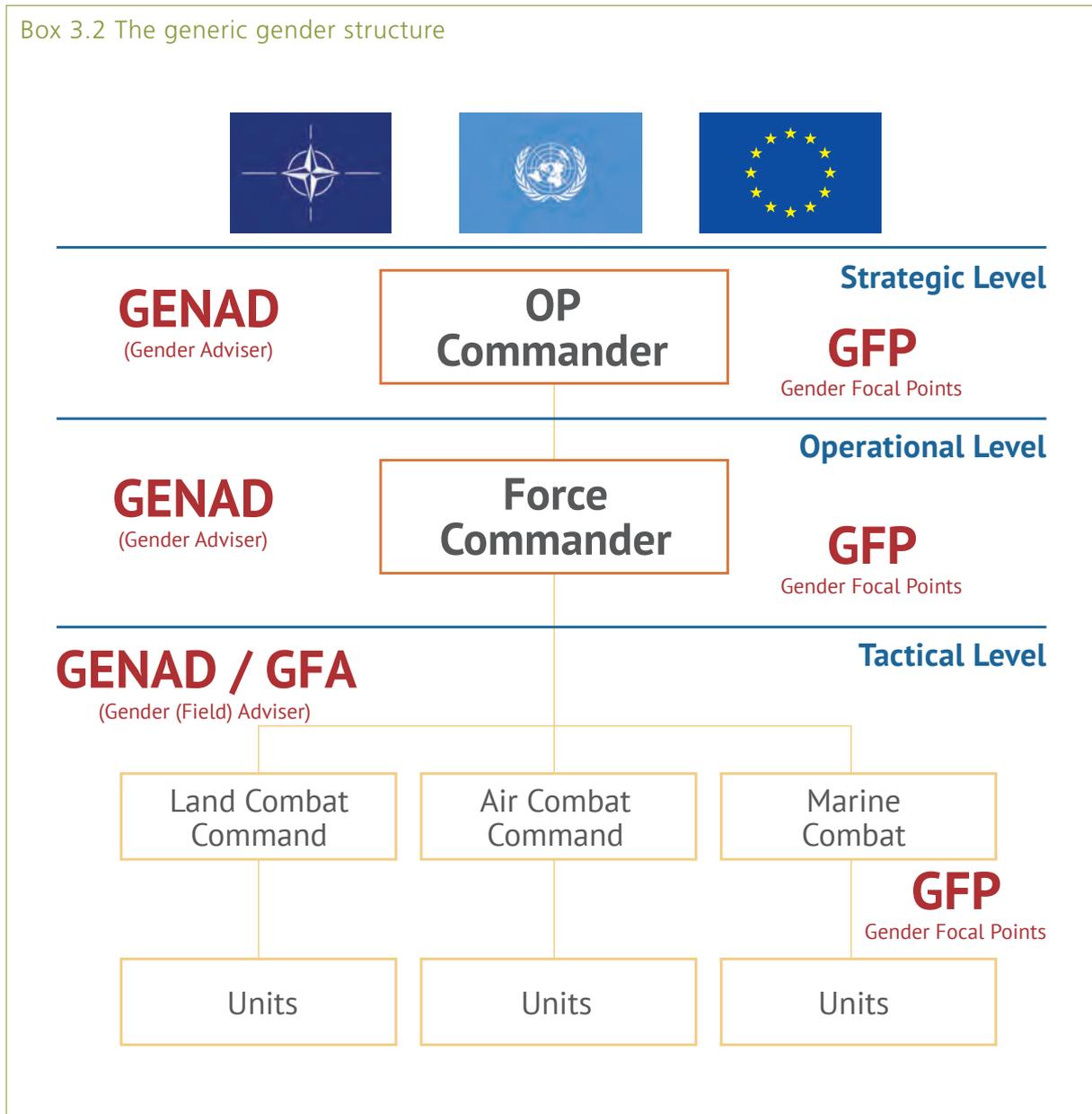
Focus area 2: The gender structure

There are different kinds of gender structures in different countries and organizations, and here the discussion focuses on NATO. One way in which many military institutions have responded to their international and national obligations related to WPS is in the creation of designated staff to advise on and facilitate the implementation of a gender perspective. The most common positions are those of GENAD and GFP. GENADs and GFPs require specific education on their roles, and the necessary time and resources must be allocated for this purpose. It is important, however, that all military personnel understand the roles and functions of the GENADs and GFPs working with their units so that the services offered by those working in these two positions are fully utilized.

The role of the *gender adviser* (sometimes abbreviated to GA) is to support his or her commander in implementing a gender perspective in daily work. The adviser should be able to influence the implementation of the mission's mandate by the integration of gender perspectives into mandated tasks. Gender mainstreaming is the recognized tool for implementation in the planning, execution and evaluation of a military operation. This is the commander's responsibility, and the gender component (e.g. the GENAD) must have access to the correct forums to achieve this effect. According to a report conducted by the Swedish Armed Forces, support from the mission leadership is essential to enable the implementation process.²⁷ The report highlights the responsibility of commanders at the strategic level to shape and plan according to the principles of protection, prevention and participation through implementing a gender perspective and making use of the gender component.

Another component in the gender structure is the *gender focal point*, which is normally a dual-hat function responsible for the implementation of the WPS agenda and gender perspectives in the GFP's specific branch of the staff. The GFP normally receives guidance from the GENAD on how to implement a gender perspective in his/her daily tasks. GFPs should ideally be found in all branches, but if there is a need to prioritize, experience shows that the staff branches of intelligence, short- and long-term planning and civil-military cooperation (CIMIC) are the most vital for achieving change. Box 3.2 shows a generic model of how the gender functions are structured in the staff.

Box 3.2 The generic gender structure



Box 3.3 Study of the successful use of the gender adviser

According to research conducted by Dr Robert Egnell,²⁸ the key to a successful implementation process is a strong, supportive leadership, a rigid organizational framework for implementation, specifically allocated resources and increasing the status of working with gender and the WPS agenda. This means that organizational leaders need to have a certain level of understanding of why and how gender and WPS are relevant to them and their staff. Dr Egnell's research shows that putting the emphasis on the effectiveness of integrating gender in military operations is key to success. By showing the benefits of working with both women and men, the staff can more easily understand the reason for integrating gender perspectives.

Focus area 3: Gender in relevant historical, legal and cultural contexts

Understanding the historical, legal and cultural context of the area in which you are working, as well as having an awareness of the cultural specificities of your own institution, is key to the successful integration of a gender perspective and the full implementation of internal and external aspects of gender equality. External aspects may refer to how an operation affects the security of men, women, boys or girls differently in a specific area, while the internal aspects could refer to the gender balance within one's own organization. It is important to understand how different male and female personnel within a given unit will be perceived by the different women, men, girls and boys in the civilian population, both to prevent unnecessary tensions between the two groups and also to ensure that the military takes full advantage of the diversity of people represented across its ranks.

This has led to the realization that implementing a gender perspective in parts of a military mission can in some cases be more easily achieved when the team is composed of men and women instead of only men. But it should be underlined that an equal number of men and women, or even the mere presence of women, does not automatically equate to a more gender-equal approach. In some areas achieving operational success is easier when a team is composed of both men and women. Especially in more traditional countries, it could be easier to have (military) women liaise with local women. Another example of considering the relationship between internal and external roles is some servicemen being allowed to grow beards in a bid to foster better relations with the civilian population by adapting to local gender norms for men.²⁹

Box 3.4 Women as actors

Women are often assumed to be passive agents in violent extremist organizations, but research has demonstrated many instances where they have played significant roles in a number of groups across the political and ideological spectrum. Female forces have performed a range of activities, including logistics, recruitment, promoting ideology, suicide bombing and combat. However, the 2014–2015 activities of the so-called Islamic State have been marked by an unprecedented rise in the prominence of female recruits in a terrorist organization. The role that women play in these violent networks is frequently misunderstood, and based on misconceptions regarding the radicalization of women. A better understanding of the ways in which terrorist organizations draw on women's support can help us understand the decision-making processes and inner workings of these kinds of organizations.³⁰

It is thus vital for education to highlight the benefits and importance of understanding gender norms of the host country and encourage military personnel to consider how they may be perceived. For example, learning outcomes at the tactical level would include having the learners understand why it is important to engage with the whole population in a society; why reporting on sex-disaggregated data provides a larger situational picture; how speaking to women can help identify different security responses; and how patrolling different areas can provide different kinds of security. Education at the operational level can then build on what has been learnt at the tactical level and deepen the skills and knowledge of military personnel so they are able to integrate a gender

perspective into orders given to the tactical level, but also understand the larger picture of the WPS agenda and their role in its implementation as military actors. This involves ensuring that they have a good understanding of how gender intersects with the cultural practices of the population in the mission area, and can also reflect internally on their own organization regarding the organizational culture and gender norms. The education and training addressing these concerns need to be specially tailored to each target audience. On the strategic level, military personnel need to understand how the gender perspectives applied on the ground improve the security situation for all women, men, boys and girls within the context of a wider military and political strategy. They also need to evaluate whether the gender norms within their own organization can help foster or hinder these strategic objectives, and attempt to make institutional changes accordingly. Each and every level requires an understanding of how to apply the WPS agenda in a given cultural context.

Box 3.5 Good practice at the strategic military level – The NCGM key leader seminars

Every year the NCGM conducts a two-day key leader seminar in which flag officers, key leaders, ambassadors and senior civilian representatives get insights on how to implement gender perspectives in military operations and how these perspectives will contribute to increase the achievement of overall political military, strategic and operational objectives. The seminar promotes a comprehensive approach as a method to establish a successful foundation for organizational development capable of fully integrating gender perspectives into military operations. It incorporates sessions given by high-profile lecturers who share experiences, best practices and lessons learned. These are complemented by panels and round-table discussions where learners can add their own perspectives on how to integrate gender in all aspects of planning, execution and evaluation of military operations.³¹

3.3 Integrating gender into military education and training in practice

It is crucial to integrate gender into military education and training. This section gives several good practice examples of how gender is integrated into existing education and training frameworks.

Box 3.6 Good practice – Officers' programme, Swedish Defence University

Learners at the Swedish Defence University receive gender and WPS education and training starting in their first course focused on operational effectiveness, which is illustrated with examples from international operations. The learners learn why it is important to engage with women, men, boys and girls and assist in achieving security for all society equally. This is subsequently tested as a part of a practical field exercise performed later on in the same semester. In the exercise they need to engage with both men and women to get the full situational picture and make the correct decisions. The exercise is videotaped and evaluated afterwards in a seminar-based forum, where learners can draw their own conclusions and understand the practical implementations of excluding parts of the population.

3.3.1 Gender mainstreaming in general training and education

In general it must be stressed that gender perspectives should be included in existing training modules and not treated as a stand-alone topic. As such, gender should be taught as a cross-cutting topic in all classes, integrated across the spectrum of learning. For example, gender should form a part of classes on leadership, procurement, finance and budgeting, human resources management and operational planning.

Box 3.7 Good practice – NATO's Exercise ARRCAD E FUSION 2013–2014

The ARRC (Allied Rapid Reaction Corps) approach is characterized by its expeditionary “mindset”, multinational design and inclusive (comprehensive) approach in its operational functions, from the tactical to the strategic level. The aim in the last of the ARRC series of exercises (“Crawl, walk, run”) was to achieve full operational capability as joint taskforce HQ. Two gender components were deployed: one placed at the operational level as the GENAD at main headquarters (as part of the command group), and the second as the GENAD in the exercise management (Excon, Grey Cell).

The position and location of the two GENADs stem from NATO Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, which aims to integrate UNSCR 1325 and the use of a gender perspective in the NATO chain of command and operational planning. The tasks of the GENAD in the main HQ included supporting the implementation of the directive and, based on an inclusive approach linked to operational planning, advising the head of ARRC (COMARRC) and staff on matters relating to human rights and gender. This involved participation in operation planning, teaching and mentoring other members of staff and coordinating the GFPs located in HQ departments, especially in staff branches G2 (operational intelligence), G3 (current operations), G5 (deliberate planning) and G9 (CIMIC). Other tasks were education initiatives aimed at the HQ as a whole, preparation of material for COMARRC participation in meetings and conferences related to human rights and gender, and media reporting.

The position as GENAD Excon entailed working closely with staff in the Grey Cell and other parts of Excon, not least at the tactical level, which was represented by two divisions from the G1 (personnel) and G9 (CIMIC) staff branches. By jointly developing injects (additions made to the scenario once it has begun) and coordinating with the scenario developers, situations with a clear gender perspective could be created to affect the operational and even strategic levels. The role of GENAD Excon was also to educate personnel outside the exercise. For example, an information session was conducted for the ARRC GFPs outside the exercise, since the GENAD contribution was in place and staff rotation meant that many newly appointed GFPs had not been briefed. In this way the two GENADs were able to support the ARRC for future exercises and potential tasks. This is not ideal, however, as the personnel are supposed to meet the necessary educational requirements before entering exercises or operations.

The result of having a GENAD deployed at Excon was that gender perspectives were highlighted in the injects produced by Excon, and specifically those produced by Grey Cell members. Members of the target audience (in this case the main HQ) were forced to apply a gender perspective in their analysis of the situation and broaden their understanding of security. Personnel taking part in the exercise were able to observe the consequences for the mission if a gender perspective was ignored, as one inject concerning underaged soldiers within the host-nation ranks put a halt to the whole training component, which was part of the mandate of the mission.

This example highlighted that it is imperative for NATO missions to recognize the role of both women and men in conflict prevention. Women who perform parenting roles are often critical in shaping their children's attitude towards violence given that male members of the household are frequently absent, especially during times of conflict. These women, in addition to family and community-level male role models, can play a critical role in either facilitating or preventing the recruitment of male and female child soldiers.

There are a number of recommendations for GENADs in future related exercises.

- The deployment of GENADs at both the main HQ and Excon Grey Cell for the first time in autumn 2014 resulted in a significant improvement compared to previous years. (Only the main HQ had a GENAD in 2013.) ARRC, however, lacks staff with gender-related expertise (previously there was only one 50 per cent position), so the two GENADs need to have had previous experience in this role in order to fulfil the requirements for independence and have the ability to give relevant advice, prioritize injects according to the situation, and adopt suitable approaches for their target audience.
- For the GENAD Excon the focus should be on creating injects which have a direct impact on the target audience (in this case the operational main HQ) and which continue for a longer part of the exercise. This requires the GENAD to have studied the existing relevant documentation before the start of the exercise, to cooperate with the exercise management and scenario developers to get an overview of upcoming events, and to interact with other staff in Excon on their upcoming injects.

Furthermore, the WPS agenda and gender perspectives should be integrated from the outset in military education for soldiers, non-commissioned officers and officers; career education for non-commissioned officers and officers; collective training for military units and military exercises at all levels; and pre-deployment training. The training is preferably performed by military personnel, ideally by the original trainers/educators (as mentioned in previous subsection). However, these teachers should have received in-depth gender training and education themselves so that they are comfortable when teaching the topic. Support from the leadership is again essential.

3.3.2 Gender in pre-deployment training for military operations

Relevant training and education as well as thorough planning and preparation are essential elements in the pre-deployment stage of any operation. To ensure that a gender perspective is included at all levels of planning from the outset, the GENAD/GFA should be a member of the planning group. Furthermore, gender advisory functions should be integrated in the staffing list. The existing mission documents, like the military operation plan, fragmentation orders, standard operating procedures, tactical techniques and procedures, assessments and reports, should be gender-sensitive and also provide clear guidance when it comes to how to incorporate a gender perspective. In addition, effective monitoring and reporting mechanisms should be in place, making sure that human rights violations such as sexual violence are reported, addressed and handled in accordance with the relevant laws and procedures. To the greatest extent possible, gender aspects should be integrated into standard reporting procedures and lessons learned/best practices mechanisms, as well as in periodic mission reviews. To ensure that gender-related activities are sustainable once the mission has ended, it is necessary to incorporate a gender perspective into activities that take place during the transition to local authorities or a follow-on force.

Once the need to integrate gender has been established in these different areas, it becomes self-evident that gender must be mainstreamed into educational programmes for new personnel at all levels to ensure the sustainability of gender-related activities, maintain operational capacity achieved through the integration of a gender perspective and institutionalize best practices and lessons learned. The military has the responsibility to act as a role model in projecting high standards of gender equality, reducing the negative impact of its operations on women, men, girls and boys by fostering a good understanding of gender roles and supporting the government in adopting mechanisms that promote international standards of gender equality.³² None of these can be achieved without integrating gender perspectives into all aspects of education and training.

Box 3.8 Good practice – Example of mixed engagement team training in Regional Command North ISAF, Afghanistan

Seventeen ISAF (International Security Assistance Force) service members from five different countries participated in mixed engagement team training given by the Regional Command North GENAD. The primary audience was the Swedish mixed engagement team from Task Force Northern Lights. Other learners from the provincial reconstruction team in Kunduz and the Dutch police training group joined the training and shared their experiences and lessons identified in working with Afghan women, including those serving in the Afghan national security forces. The first two days of training consisted of classes in gender differences, the “comprehensive approach”, cultural awareness and Afghan history, culture and religion. The group received lectures by different personnel from Regional Command North and participated actively in the discussions. In other classes, Afghan women taught the group correct body-search techniques, especially for women wearing a traditional *burqa*. The group ended the day by sharing an Afghan dinner. On the second day the group undertook practical exercises on applying a gender perspective in the operational environment. Rather than focusing exclusively on the needs of women, the group was asked to examine the consequences of the different social roles played by both women and men in a given cultural context. Learners were then asked to consider the benefits of a mixed engagement team (as opposed to an all-female team) in these kinds of situations. On the third and final day the group went outside and practised the lessons learned in the previous days in three different scenarios. The training highlighted the benefits to ISAF troops of applying a gender perspective when interacting with Afghan people, as it can enable them to engage the whole population and not just men.³³

3.3.3 Integration of gender into military training exercises³⁴

While the focus of this handbook is on military education, training exercises often have an educational value and provide opportunities for many gender-related teachable moments.³⁵ Furthermore, to normalize the inclusion of the three educational focus areas described in Section 3.2 into all aspects of the military, it is vital that they are reinforced in training exercises. This subsection therefore looks at how the provisions of the WPS agenda, military gender structures and the historical, legal and cultural context of gender relations can be incorporated into training.

When it comes to scenario development, it is essential that any exercise contains the information needed for the training audience (TA) to carry out its roles and respond to injects in a realistic manner. Certain information may be intentionally left out from the scenario and made available by response cells after the TA has identified the need and requested the information. A very common challenge is that scenarios lack information about the role of men, women, girls and boys in society, and how they are affected by and involved in conflict. Without such information the TA GENAD will have little substance on which to base advice, which can be frustrating to both the GENAD and the TA members who requested information. The exercise control will also miss out on the opportunity to train the TA in how a gender perspective can improve operational capacity. If such information is intentionally left out of the scenario, it should be prepared well in advance of the start of the exercise, as it takes time to develop and ensure consistency with the scenario and inject. It is also important that the TA is appraised at the end of the scenario on its ability to incorporate a gender perspective and, if appropriate, to highlight the negative consequences to the mission of underutilizing the TA GENAD.

3.4 Examples of the integration of gender perspectives into scenarios

Integrating a gender perspective into a scenario involves ensuring the inclusion of gender-related information in the narrative, the presence of both male and female non-military characters during the exercise, and the incorporation of military structures related to gender and a gender perspective into events, incidents and injects during the scenario. The remainder of this section provides examples of how this can be done.

3.4.1 Gender analysis of the PMESII model

It is crucial to include a gender perspective in any background analysis that forms part of the scenario, such as mock reports by civil society or think-tanks. When assessing which gender-related information should be available or prepared for the TA, it is important to consider the analysis method used. If, for example, the PMESII (political, military, economic, social, information, infrastructure) model is used during the mission planning process, gender-related information on all analysis categories should be available and/or prepared. As a result, potential caveats worked into the exercise highlighting the need for a gender perspective will become apparent when using the analysis model.

The situation of women is often addressed in terms of vulnerability, which is important but leaves out many other aspects relevant to a gender analysis. Gender-related challenges and opportunities may include female participation in decision-making before, during and after conflict, depending on the scenario. They may also include the participation and vulnerability of men and boys. It may be particularly interesting to include risks, for example young men being forcibly recruited into armed or criminal groups, slave labour, etc., and information on women as combatants in armed forces or rebel groups, and in positions of power.

3.4.2 Sex-disaggregated data

Sex-disaggregated statistical data on mortality, literacy and percentage of women in parliament are easy and useful starting points. Low literacy levels for women and an inject in which women have not received certain information could result in the TA GENAD advising that information be disseminated by radio, images or other

means. High numbers of women in parliament but no women on the key leader engagement plan should signal a need to update the plan. In any developing or post-conflict country such data should be collected by the government³⁶ and are often readily available on UN websites.³⁷

Box 3.9 Good practice – Breaking gender stereotypes

As the military organization focuses on providing security, gender is often taken to be synonymous with the protection of vulnerable groups in a given society. Depending on gender roles, women and men face different risks in different contexts. It is most common to speak only about women and girls in need of protection, leaving out men and assuming that they are either the protectors or the potential perpetrators. By shifting the focus of a class to men's vulnerability and women's empowerment, you can expose the learners to a wider perspective on security. An example would be the events in Srebrenica on 11–13 July 1995, where unarmed Muslim men were targeted due to the fact that they were men of recruitment age.³⁸ A similar and very recent example is the case of French peacekeepers in the Central African Republic who raped and sodomized homeless and starving boys. The troops who were supposed to protect children at a centre for internally displaced people in Bangui abused young boys between December 2013 and June 2014. The report on this was leaked at the beginning of 2015.³⁹ A further example is the abuse of young boys in Haiti: a particularly shocking case was the year-long sexual abuse of a 14-year-old Haitian boy by three UN peacekeepers who were serving with the UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti. They were convicted in 2012.⁴⁰ The same goes for women as actors for peace, keeping in mind the demonstrations held by Liberian women to stop the civil war in 2003 as an example.⁴¹

3.4.3 Key leader engagement

To ensure that gender perspectives in exercises come alive, it is vital that the scenario and role players include women (as well as men) not just as victims but also in positions of power, for example as police chiefs, parliamentarians or mayors. Women's organizations are important actors that can provide information and support local protection strategies, and are therefore critical to the scenario. It might be interesting to include strong rights-based organizations which may be more vocal, as well as those focusing on basic needs and welfare. Many women's organizations form at the grassroots level, others as women's wings of political parties, and some may be spearheaded by individual women who have access to power and education. To trigger the need to verify information, it might be useful to supply contradictory information from civil society, international organizations and government on issues such as threats to women.

3.4.4 Staffing list⁴²

NATO missions are required to have military GENADs, GFAs and GFPs.⁴³ UN peacekeeping operations may have a gender unit or a senior gender adviser for multidimensional missions, and there are also functions of military GENADs and GFPs.⁴⁴ Furthermore, there may be UN women protection advisers and/or a protection unit.

The gender functions should have the support of a mentor with particular skills in this area of work, including not only gender-related subject-matter expertise but also staff procedures and operational planning, for example. Close cooperation between the gender mentor and the GFP in gaming and role plays has shown positive results, as the TA's response can be assessed and injects can be repeated, revised or reward the inclusion of a gender perspective in the TA's activities. This is particularly important when gender does not form part of the exercise objectives and tracking progress in this area may not be the focus of evaluation.

3.4.5 Events, incidents and injects

In terms of creating events, incidents or other injects with a clear gender perspective, different methods have been observed. One method is to create a free-standing "gender incident", for example a visit by the executive director of UN Women or the special representative of the Secretary-General on sexual violence in conflict,

the government calling for a gender working group or a specific situation relating to women. It is common to see one case of sexual violence and/or trafficking in persons affecting women and for this to be considered the “gender incident”, as most other incidents are assumed to relate to male actors. While such incidents are relevant, relying on only one case relating to women is both unrealistic and an oversimplification. It may be equally relevant to consider incidents where women show political agency (such as in violent protests), female human rights defenders are detained or female combatants are present among enemy troops. It is also interesting to use traditionally underreported incidents as eye-openers exposing gender stereotypes, such as terrorist attacks carried out by women or sexual violence against men. It is important to remember that gender perspectives involve both men and women, and see how operations affect them differently.

Another method is to incorporate gender perspectives into several mainstream events. This requires a bit more work from the subject-matter expert (SME) in supporting other units and following up on the results, but has the benefit of mainstreaming gender and showing its relevance in different thematic areas. For example, gender perspectives could be included in mine action incidents created by logisticians, whereby mine awareness has targeted men but suddenly women report injuries after coming across mines where there is no reported minefield. An inject on children associated with armed conflict could include both boys and girls as combatants staffing an illegal checkpoint, and the patrol unit which needs to contain the threat and detain the children having only male members. This would bring concerns of protection of children as well as special consideration for girls in detention. A medical incident may require emergency medical care to be provided to survivors of sexual violence. Injects requiring consultations with civilian women at risk could highlight the need for female soldiers in the patrol unit, for example.

As the exercise comes to life, a mainstreamed approach will result in the gender SME having to coordinate well with other SMEs and ensure that their colleagues in gaming are well supported to know what results to expect and can adapt the scenario accordingly. It is also good to plan for how the TA may respond, and prepare alternatives for the next steps. If the TA does not pick up on the lack of engagement with women, for example, perhaps the next incident should aggravate the situation. A system of rewards may also be useful, for example positive media reports after correct action has been taken to apprehend child soldiers with special consideration of protection for girls. Or if the TA recognizes the need to revise a mine awareness campaign to address women, it might be rewarded with access to relevant information, such as the location of a previously unknown minefield.⁴⁵

4. Challenges of integrating gender in training and education

Aside from the challenges of integrating gender into the curriculum (which are covered in Chapter 4), the main challenges to integrating gender in training and education can broadly be divided into three categories.

The lack of recognition that gender is relevant to the work of the military

Even where the organization itself has declared its commitment and provided the required framework for teaching gender in the military, many personnel do not see its importance. One reason may be that despite most institutions being male-dominated, currently there are more women than men focusing on implementing the WPS agenda and gender in training and education. It would be beneficial to include more men in the development and delivery of gender training in order to bring gender into the mainstream and break down misconceptions that it is solely a women’s issue, and is neither important nor “career worthy”. If the organization succeeds in bringing a higher status to working with gender and the WPS agenda, there will be strengthened engagement and more interest among personnel, in particular men.⁴⁶

The audience lacks an understanding of the basic gender concepts⁴⁷

Although gender mainstreaming is generally favoured over stand-alone gender courses, it is greatly facilitated if the audience has an understanding of basic gender concepts. However, this is rarely the case and, as a result,

many personnel still equate gender mainstreaming with reaching out to women. It is only by understanding gender as a relational concept that involves different groups of women, men, girls and boys, and by seeing themselves as gendered beings, that learners can truly begin to appreciate gender perspectives when applied across the curriculum.

Few educators have a good understanding of both gender and the military

Gender is often taught by external SMEs who lack an operational background. To demonstrate the relevance of gender to the military, the trainer or educator needs to have a deep understanding of the target audiences' tasks, procedures and culture. For example, tactical techniques and procedures and standard operating procedures at the tactical level can be hard to understand for an educator without an operational background, yet these documents are key to explaining the integration and relevance of gender perspectives in the military. At the same time, educators with a good understanding of the military often joined the institution at a time when gender was not taught at all, and hence lack the ability to integrate it into their teaching. Consequently, better partnerships between educators with different levels of expertise or faculty development courses to address these gaps in educators' knowledge may be necessary.

5. Conclusion

While many challenges remain in integrating gender into military education and training, this chapter has highlighted some of the many advances that institutions have made since the passing of UNSCR 1325 in 2000. Good practices from the last decade are beginning to emerge and slowly becoming institutionalized at both national levels and within the context of international cooperation in organizations such as NATO. This sharing of practices is important, because the nature of modern warfare has brought an increasing need for interdisciplinary personnel. For educators, this means having a basic understanding of knowledge outside their specialism in order to connect it to other cross-cutting issues that their audience will have to deal with. By providing an overview of gender-related education and training, this chapter hopefully helps educators from outside the gender discipline to see how their own courses relate to existing courses on gender as well as the emerging policy framework on integrating gender in all levels of education.

6. Annotated bibliography

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This 13-tool toolkit contains accessible information on how gender relates to security sector reform processes in different sectors, including defence reform. It contains a specific tool on gender training and another on implementing the WPS agenda. The toolkit provides a basic introduction to gender concepts within the security context and gives some concrete descriptions of what integrating a gender perspective entails in different kinds of security institutions.

Bastick, Megan and Kristin Valasek (eds), *Gender and Security Sector Reform Training Resource Package* (Geneva: DCAF, 2009), www.gssrtraining.ch/.

This 11-module training package was designed to complement DCAF's *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit* with practical training materials. Each module comprises a variety of stand-alone exercises specifically targeted at different parts of the security sector. The module on defence reform may be of particular interest to those working in military education.

Egnell, Robert, Petter Hojem and Hannes Berts, "Implementing a gender perspective in military organisations and operations: The Swedish Armed Forces model", Department of Peace and Conflict Research Report 98, Uppsala University, 2012, <http://jamda.uu.se/bitstream/1/733/1/egnell.pdf>.

The document outlines Sweden's experience of implementing UNSCR 1325 since 2000 in its armed forces. It outlines the different projects that have been undertaken and looks at the organizational changes that have taken place to implement a gender perspective better. It contains both an evaluation of the successes and challenges faced by the Swedish Armed Forces and a list of lessons learned that are relevant to other armed forces around the world.

Groothedde, Stephanie, *Gender Makes Sense: A Way to Improve Your Mission*, 2nd edn (The Hague: Civil-Military Cooperation Centre of Excellence, 2013), www.cimic-coe.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/Gender-Makes-Sense.pdf.

This book outlines what gender and gender perspectives are to a military audience, and demonstrates how integrating a gender perspective contributes to the success of military operations. It provides detailed information on how to integrate a gender perspective at the tactical and operational levels and also includes a wide variety of case studies.

NATO Supreme Allied Commander, Europe and Supreme Allied Commander, Transformation, "Integrating UNSCR 1325 and gender perspective into the NATO command structure", Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, Rev. 1, August 2012, www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2015_04/20150414_20120808_NU_Bi-SCD_40-11.pdf.

This document provides definitions of gender-related terminology used by NATO and details on the gender structure used in NATO operations. It also provides guidance on how gender should be integrated into education and training within NATO, as well as information on the policy framework of NATO's implementation of gender in both its educational programmes and its operations.

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This document was produced in Bosnia and Herzegovina by the Peace Support Operations Training Centre, an accredited NATO partnership training centre and regional training centre for peace support operations. This generic curriculum on the prevention of sexual violence in conflict outlines 12 proposed sessions that can be combined into one of five suggested educational modules, depending on the target audience.

Information on institutional approaches to teaching gender

For information on NATO courses on gender and WPS see www.act.nato.int/gender-training. See also the website of the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations, NATO's department head on gender education and training: www.forsvarsmakten.se/en/swedint/nordic-centre-for-gender-in-military-operations/.

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Notes

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How to integrate gender into military curricula

Aiko Holvikivi (DCAF) with Kristin Valasek (DCAF)¹

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1. Introduction

Gender is often described as a “cross-cutting” issue. This means that all aspects of military operations and all topics in military education and training have a gender dimension to them. The significance and explanatory power of these gender dimensions vary, but they are always present. Gender perspectives should be taken into account in operational planning and military forces’ obligations under international humanitarian law; gender awareness is necessary to foster leadership skills and make appropriate logistical decisions. These are just a few examples of the extensive variety of issue areas where gender perspectives need to be taken into account. Because gender is cross-cutting, education and training on the topic should not be isolated in a “special interests” silo. While considering gender in a dedicated module or session helps gain basic understanding of the concepts at work, to achieve meaningful education and training on gender, gender perspectives must also be integrated throughout an educational curriculum. This chapter deals with the question of how to do so.

The next section offers a brief discussion of definitions – namely what is understood as “the curriculum” for the purposes of this chapter. Section 3 then considers why it is necessary to integrate gender in military curricula, highlighting three key rationales. Section 4 is process oriented: it outlines how curricula are typically developed and reviewed, and how to integrate gender through the process. The process is described in broad brushstrokes, as actual processes vary from institution to institution. Section 5 forms the main body of the chapter, focusing

on practical measures and specific considerations for integrating gender in curricula. It draws on a curriculum review checklist developed by members of the Security Sector Reform and Education Development Working Groups of the Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC) of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes in a 2012 workshop on “Teaching Gender to the Military”. The section is divided into three subsections which discuss building faculty and trainers’ gender expertise; mainstreaming gender learning across the curriculum; and practising gender-sensitive assessment and evaluation. Section 6 engages, by way of a conclusion, in a discussion of common challenges to integrating gender in the curriculum and some useful responses. An annotated bibliography is annexed to this chapter, describing further useful resources

2. What is the curriculum?

The term *curriculum* refers to “a specific learning programme, a range of courses that collectively describes the teaching, learning and assessment materials available for a given course of study”.² More broadly, the curriculum refers to the planned educational experiences of a learner throughout the course of instruction. This course of study may be broad, such as the professional military education of officers for a certain rank or level, or it may be narrow, such as a one-week course on a given topic like gender in operations.

Curricula typically provide the instructor with learning outcomes, issues for consideration, a learning methodology, assessment modalities, an institutional mission and vision, and reference reading. Accordingly, a curriculum goes beyond listing topics or concepts to be taught in a particular class, which is contained in a syllabus. David White explains the difference between the two as “the syllabus is planned within the social and moral context of the curriculum; ‘curriculum’ contrasts with ‘syllabus’ in the way *Why* contrasts with *How*”.³

This chapter deals with both the process and the substance of integrating gender in the curriculum. The process may happen either when a new curriculum is developed or when an existing curriculum is being reviewed. The substance covers several aspects of the curriculum, ranging from available subject-matter expertise to learning outcomes, content, assessment and evaluation.

3. Why is it important to integrate gender into military curricula?

3.1 Military operations and mandates require gender learning in the curriculum

Incorporating a gender perspective in defence institutions and military operations is a vital and necessary step in meeting three broad and intimately connected goals: successful conduct of military operations; protection of the human rights of women and men; and respect for the international legal and policy framework. These themes are explored in greater detail throughout Part I of this handbook, so this subsection is limited to a brief summary.

First, military operations that do not incorporate a gender perspective jeopardize the success of their missions. Tasks ranging from information gathering and dissemination to decision-making regarding the use of force all require a gender analysis – skills, knowledge and attitudes that must be developed through education and training.⁵ Second, military institutions have a duty to uphold human rights – both through the protection of the civilian population during the conduct of operations, and by upholding the rights of their own staff.⁶ This duty cannot be considered fulfilled unless military institutions uphold the rights of men and women, and these rights cannot be upheld without education on what doing so entails. Finally, the international legal and policy frameworks – including the laws of armed conflict and UN, EU and NATO frameworks – all require the integration of gender perspectives in military institutions and operations and the inclusion of the topic in education and training.⁷

3.2 The curriculum is already gendered

In some ways, speaking of “integrating gender” in military curricula is a misnomer. It seems to imply that, in the absence of a proactive effort to integrate gender perspectives in the curriculum, the curriculum is neutral when it comes to gender, and that a curriculum which does not integrate gender perspectives is ungendered from the outset. This is an untenable suggestion. Any curriculum reflects the social and institutional context from which it is born. Accordingly it reflects, often implicitly and invisibly, the norms and stereotypes governing masculinity and femininity at work in that particular institution or social context.⁸ This is often referred to as the “hidden curriculum”⁹, described by Alan Skelton as “that set of implicit messages relating to knowledge, values, norms of behaviour and attitudes that learners experience in and through educational processes. These messages may be contradictory, non-linear and punctational and each learner mediates the message in her/his own way.”¹⁰ This hidden curriculum, when left unexamined, risks perpetuating existing (gender) inequalities.¹¹

If we accept that the curriculum may have a hidden gendered aspect to it, then we begin to see that “integrating gender” into the curriculum is not merely an exercise in including a gender module or gender-related reading in the suggested resources. It is an exercise in beginning to uncover and make visible the ways in which the curriculum *already* teaches gender. For example, Katherine E. Brown and Victoria Syme-Taylor examine a given site of professional military education and note:

The study of “great white men” (as exemplary or toxic leaders) dominates the teaching about the military as an institution and no female leaders are used as examples. Gender emerges in teaching only in the exceptional cases of “women”, such as “female-combatants” or as “women and children” caught in male wars but not as constitutive of security and defence. But by not teaching gender these male norms are left unchallenged. To that extent [the institution] affirms a male hegemony and confirms existing military and academic gendering practices.¹²

Integrating gender is therefore about analysing whether and how the curriculum implicitly creates or reinforces a normative structure that ascribes stereotypical and traditional roles and abilities to men and women. Integrating gender in curricula must thus involve first noting whether the curriculum portrays women and men only in stereotypical roles (women as victims/civilians and men as warriors), and, second, seeking to challenge these stereotypical portrayals.

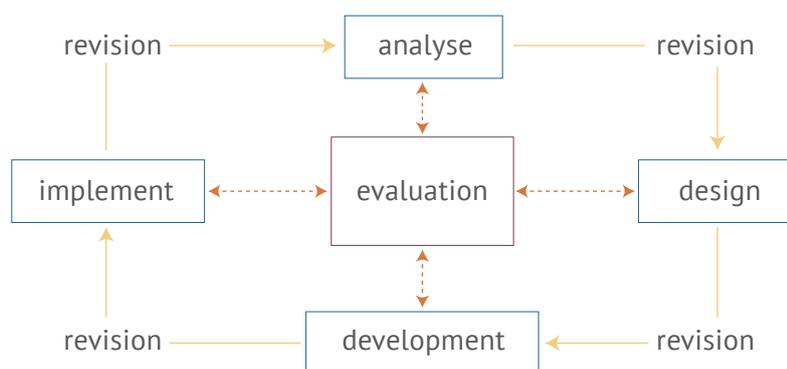
3.3 The benefits of integration and the risks of ignorance

Integrating a gender perspective in military curricula can make the topic standardized and mandatory. This standardization has the benefit of helping to ensure the quality of education and training on the topic of gender. Empirical observations from NATO operations point to this as a gap to be filled. For example, a recent review of the practical implications of UN Security Council Resolution 1325¹³ for NATO operations carried out by the Swedish Defence Research Agency pointed to “the general absence of pre-deployment training as a major detriment to gender mainstreaming”.¹⁴ This observation reveals a more general tendency for gender training and education to take the form of *ad hoc* seminars centred around a particular event, such as International Women’s Day. Limiting gender training and education to specific events standing alone denotes the topic as a “special interest issue”, pigeonholing it and implicitly denoting it as a topic of marginal interest.¹⁵ Not integrating a gender perspective throughout the curriculum bears the risk of undermining the stated values and priorities of the organization – including those of gender equality and promoting the meaningful participation of women. When gender is treated only as a stand-alone topic, it will be viewed as an exercise in “ticking boxes” or “paying lip-service”. This ambivalence will demonstrate to learners and future leaders that the organization does not, in fact, mean what it says when it vocalizes a commitment to gender equality.¹⁶ In contrast, the meaningful integration of gender learning throughout the curriculum demonstrates the relevance of the topic to core areas of military education, and the commitment of the institution to the values it publicly communicates.

Finally, it is useful to note that improving the quality of instruction on the topic of gender in an educational institution serves several goals, not all of which are related to gender in an obvious way. Education on gender is of course crucial to meet the multilateral and national mandates outlined in Section 3.1. Gender learning is important not only to follow the law, but to contribute to ensuring effectiveness of operations and promoting equality and democratic values. Integrating gender in the curriculum has an added benefit: it helps meet the requirements of modern professional military education (PME). As Katherine E. Brown and Victoria Syme-Taylor note, “changes in military activities have led to requests that PME should encourage a more ‘enquiring’, ‘empathetic’ and ‘flexible’ officer mind”.¹⁷ This view stems from statements like that of US General David H. Petraeus, noting the need to take “military officers out of their intellectual comfort zones” and for “the development of the flexible, adaptable, creative thinkers who are so important to operations”.¹⁸ Arguably, an education that examines and challenges traditional gender norms, both within the institution itself and in operations, contributes to the goal of developing this “enquiring”, “empathetic” and “flexible” mind.

4. The process: Integrating gender into military curriculum development or review

Box 4.1 ADDIE model for curriculum design⁴



The curriculum design process is generally based on the ADDIE model of instructional design. The concept of instructional design can be traced back to as early as the 1950s, but it was only in 1975 that ADDIE was designed and developed for the US Army, and later implemented across all US armed forces.

“ADDIE” stands for “analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation”. This sequence, however, does not impose a strict linear progression between the steps; rather, each step is a clear stage on its own.

The *analysis* phase can be considered as the “goal-setting stage”.

The *design* stage determines all goals, tools to be used to gauge performance, various tests, content, subject matter analysis, planning and resources.

The *development* stage starts the production and testing of the methodology being used in the learning process.

The *implementation* stage reflects the continuous modification of the learning process to make sure maximum efficiency and positive results are obtained.

The *evaluation* stage’s main goal is to determine if the learning outcomes have been met and what will be required moving forward in order to further the efficiency and success rate of the learning process.

4.1 The process

Integrating gender in the curriculum is most usefully thought of as a process, rather than a technical exercise of adding the words “women” and “gender” to a static text. It can even be argued that the curriculum itself is a process – it is under constant development and review through the interactions of learners and educators with the curriculum.¹⁹ Nonetheless, in many educational institutions the curriculum is defined and documented. Such curricula are born out of a formal development process, and are subject to periodic revisions.

The actors involved in the curriculum development and review process vary according to institution, and thus the examples provided here should be considered strictly illustrative. The primary focus is on actors within the institution who are responsible for the curriculum: in academic terms, these are the chief academic officer or provost, deans of colleges, chairs of departments, programme directors and faculty members. Depending on the institution, responsible actors may also include a centre for instructional design or for faculty development. In military terms, curriculum development and review involve, either formally or implicitly, various stakeholders in the military command or government authorities, such as ministries of defence or education. Outside the hierarchy, stakeholders may include learners or interested civil society. These actors are typically involved, to varying extents, in both the process of developing curricula and their periodic (every one to three years) review.²⁰

Box 4.2 Introducing new learning outcomes in curricula²¹

In PME in the United States, in order for a new topic such as gender awareness to be included in joint professional military education (JPME) as a learning objective, it must be proposed as a “special area emphasis” (SAE) and follow a defined process for acceptance. The SAEs are introduced into the curriculum to help ensure the currency and relevance of JPME curricula.

SAEs are usually proposed by the Office of the Secretary of Defense, the services, combatant commands, defence agencies or the Joint Staff. The process is initiated by the sponsoring organization and the SAE is presented to the annual Joint Faculty Education Council, where it is voted upon for further assessment. If the review is successful, the SAE is presented to the Military Education Council Working Group. Based on this group’s review, the proposed list of new SAEs goes to the director of the Joint Staff for approval.

Upon approval, the SAE list is distributed to the joint and service colleges and schools during January for inclusion in the following year’s curriculum. Though the schools are highly encouraged to include these new SAEs, they do not change the official learning areas and therefore are not mandatory and will not be verified during any curriculum review process.

When the curriculum development and review process is formalized, there may be little room for manoeuvre in who is involved. The range of people involved may be defined by position or rank. However, to ensure the meaningful integration of gender in the curriculum, these people should have at least some semblance of gender balance, as well as gender expertise. In other words, both men and women should be involved in curriculum design and review processes. Furthermore, we should bear in mind that simply being a woman (or a man) does not make someone a gender expert. Being associated with a gender does not mean one is (fully) aware of the social circumstances related to that gender. It is therefore crucial to ensure that specific gender expertise is included or consulted.²²

4.2 Getting into the process

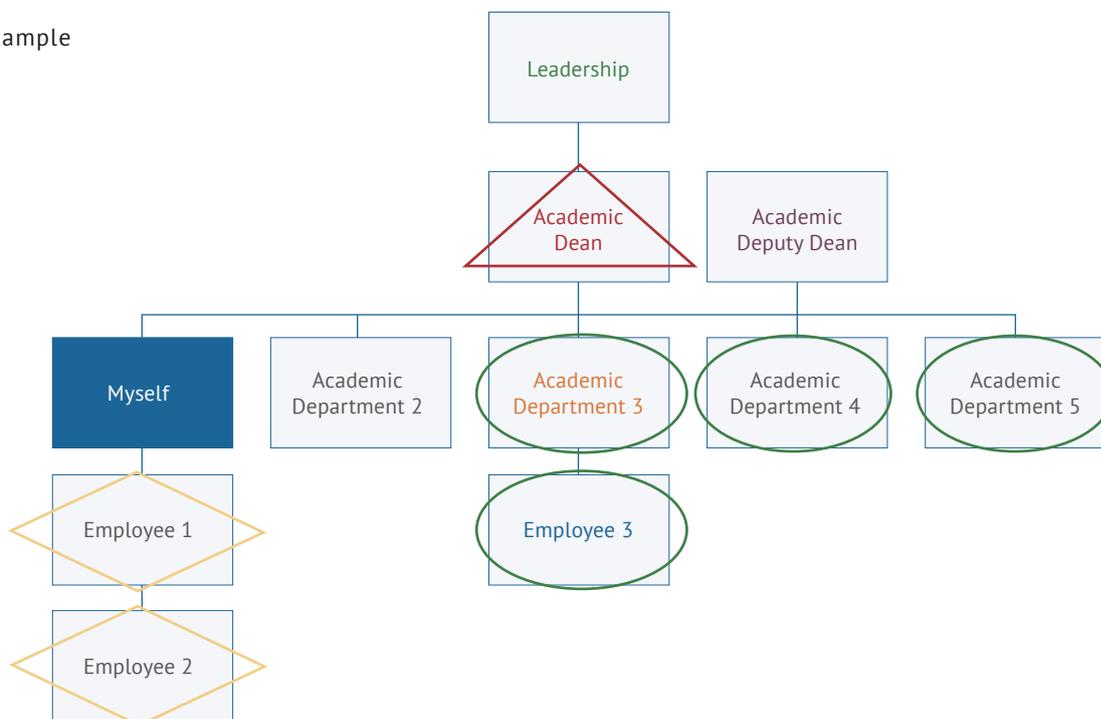
It will come as no surprise to those working for gender equality that integrating gender perspectives in a curriculum can be an intensely political and potentially contentious undertaking. If the integration of gender perspectives is to uncover and address any hidden curriculum, and make visible and subject to revision any existing gender-biased norm systems and paradigms of thinking, this can prove to be an unsettling process, even for those who fundamentally agree that gender should be integrated into the curriculum. As bell hooks notes, such a paradigm shift “must take into account the fears instructors have when asked to shift their paradigms. There must be training sites where instructors have the opportunity to express those concerns while also learning to create ways to approach the multicultural class and curriculum.”²³ The question of engaging faculty and decision-makers is explored at greater length in the final chapter of this handbook.

The key concern for the purposes of this chapter is to acknowledge that the integration of gender in the curriculum is a process that will most likely require negotiation and education, aided by supportive persons or allies within the institution. Mapping the curriculum review process, and identifying allies and entry points as well as potential challenges and ways of overcoming them, provides a useful starting point. Box 4.3 provides an example of curriculum review/development mapping.

Box 4.3 Mapping the curriculum process for integrating gender²⁴

1. Begin by sketching the overarching organizational structure of your educational institution.
2. Identify the following positions on the horizontal and vertical axes of your organization.
 - a. The primary person responsible for assuring the continuance of **the mission and vision** of the institution.
 - b. The primary person responsible for the **curriculum** (e.g. chief academic officer).
 - c. Other leaders responsible for the curriculum (e.g. deans).
 - d. Person or group responsible for the **quality** of the curriculum.
 - e. Faculty members related to **curriculum review and development**.
 - f. Person or group responsible for **faculty development**.
3. Next, identify yourself and your peers. How supportive are your **peers** of gender concerns? Circle the ones who are supportive.
4. Identify your superiors. How supportive are your **superiors** of gender concerns? Draw a triangle around those who are supportive.
5. Identify your **subordinates**. How supportive are your subordinates of gender concerns? Draw a diamond around those who are supportive.
6. Describe the curriculum development and review processes at your institution.
7. Identify the following:
 - a. entry points for integrating gender;
 - b. allies and supporters;
 - c. key external influencers on integrating gender into the curriculum;
 - d. challenges you may encounter from colleagues or learners;
 - e. ways of addressing challenges.

Example



5. Integrating gender: Practical measures and specific considerations

The discussion on what the curriculum is, and why gender considerations should be integrated in it, aims to establish that integrating gender goes far beyond adding a mention of it in specific curriculum content elements. Integration of gender in a curriculum is most usefully seen as a transformative process rather than an additive one. Accordingly, it should happen at multiple levels of the curriculum. This section presents three dimensions: faculty, gender learning, and assessment and evaluation. Drawing on a checklist on gender curriculum review developed at a workshop on teaching gender to the military hosted by the PfPC, this section considers the practical measures required to integrate gender across each of these dimensions.²⁵

5.1 Build faculty's and trainers' gender expertise

Arguably the first component of integrating gender into the curriculum is the availability of the requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes among educators to deliver gender-responsive content. In practice, acquiring these skills may entail a mix of three different approaches. First, it is important to provide faculty with the resources to integrate gender perspectives in their subject areas. Second, faculty should receive opportunities and incentives to develop their own competence in the area of gender. Third, steps to improve gender balance among faculty members can help erode gender stereotypes and signal that the institution aims to be inclusive.

As a first step, faculty must have access to resources that enable them to integrate gender perspectives into the subject areas for which they are responsible. These resources may take the form of subject-matter experts. Gender advisers or gender experts can help in this by mapping available and appropriate subject-matter experts, who faculty can call upon as guest speakers or external facilitators. Gender experts can also assist faculty with other resources, such as suggesting relevant course reading materials that introduce a gender perspective, or providing or reviewing classroom exercises or materials to address gender perspectives.

Faculty may wish to develop their own competence on gender, or the leadership of an educational institution may wish to incentivize faculty development on gender through assessment, professional development plans or inclusion of gender awareness in promotion criteria. The types of gender expertise required by faculty will of course depend on the area of instruction, so the examples provided here are rather generic. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that faculty gender expertise should cover three broad areas: ensuring that learning methods are appropriate to facilitate learning on the topic of gender; knowledge of gender-relevant aspects of instructional content; and awareness of gender dynamics in the classroom and the ability to foster a respectful, non-discriminatory and participatory learning environment. Learning methods are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 7 of this handbook, instructional content in the three other chapters comprising Part I, and gender dynamics in the classroom in Chapter 6.

Aiming to achieve some kind of gender balance among faculty members is another important component of integrating gender in the curriculum. Establishing more female faculty members in typically male-dominated institutions begins to address aspects of any "hidden curriculum", insofar as it demonstrates that the institution is composed of a diverse group of people in terms of gender (and otherwise). Ideally, improving the gender balance would also involve placing male and female faculty members in counter-stereotypical roles. This could include actively seeking male faculty members to teach languages and female faculty members to teach leadership courses. In addition to providing a role-modelling effect, improving diversity among faculty members has several benefits, including increasing the amount of available talent by expanding the recruitment pool, and increasing the likelihood of innovations in ideas, policies, research, education and scholarship.²⁶

Box 4.4 Checklist for building faculty's and trainers' gender expertise

- Ensure faculty have access to resources needed to integrate gender perspectives in their subject areas. This may include providing:
 - a roster of available and appropriate subject-matter experts to invite as external speakers;
 - suggestions for course reading material;
 - support in revising instructional materials;
 - examples of classroom exercises that introduce gender perspectives.
- Support faculty and trainers who wish to build their competence on gender. Relevant competence areas include:
 - use of appropriate learning methods;
 - knowledge of gender-relevant content relating to the area of instruction;
 - ability to foster a respectful, non-discriminatory and participatory learning environment.
- Implement an individualized faculty development plan to build gender expertise.
- Analyse sex-disaggregated data on staff, and where appropriate take measures to improve gender balance.

5.2 Mainstream gender learning across the curriculum

Mainstreaming gender learning across the curriculum is perhaps the most obvious method of integrating gender perspectives. This endeavour covers three main issue areas: the integration of gender concepts and perspectives into content and materials; the use of learner-centred educational methods that result in transformative learning; and the use of gender-sensitive language and images in the curriculum and learning materials.

The integration of gender concepts and perspectives into content can be achieved both by instituting learning units specifically dedicated to gender and by mainstreaming gender into existing content. Doing both is the most effective strategy: devoting a space specifically to addressing gender concepts helps establish the basis for applying a gender perspective to other topics. Overall, gender-related content should be aligned with institutional policies, national laws and international standards relating to the institution. International standards are discussed in Chapter 2 of this handbook, but most often will include the UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security; relevant provisions of the laws of armed conflict; relevant human rights laws (such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women); and the NATO policy on implementing UN Security Council Resolution 1325. The provisions of these normative frameworks should be introduced in relevant parts of the curriculum, through dedicated blocks, learning outcomes, or materials. What the gender-relevant aspects will be depends on the topic to be covered, though some illustrative, non-exhaustive examples of integration of gender in the curriculum are provided in Box 4.5.

In addition to integrating gender in content, the curriculum should provide for learning experiences that are supportive of gender-sensitive perspectives, attitudes and competencies. It is crucial to bear in mind that the integration of gender perspectives in the curriculum will usually signal a shift in an institutional culture that will likely be both male-dominated and gender-blind at the outset. As David White notes, "cultural change is produced in the interaction between an institutional context and individuals' efforts to make sense of it. This implies an active role for individuals rather than a passive absorbance of others' values."²⁸ Accordingly, educational methods should encourage the active participation of learners, using educational methods such as case studies, group discussions and scenario-based tasks, and allowing the collaborative constitution of knowledge. Furthermore, such methods should enable transformative learning by encouraging learner self-reflection through an examination of the learners' personal values and reactions to or interaction with the learning material. In other words, gender education should prioritize principles of transformative learning and thereby employ active learning methods, such as those described at greater length in Chapter 5 of this handbook.

Box 4.5 Examples of integration of gender content in learning objectives in the NATO PfPC Reference Curriculum for the Professional Military Education of Officers (Junior Officer Phase)²⁷

Theme	Gender-related learning objective (LO)
1. Profession of arms <i>The requirements of the Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security and how to meet them in operations</i>	Block 1.2 Military operations LO 18 – Explain the place of gender analysis (the different needs and roles of men and women) in operations. Block 1.3 Staff planning process/Tactics and planning LO 6 – Demonstrate gender analysis in the area of operations. LO 12 – Recognize the influences of gender in operations.
2. Command, leadership and ethics	Block 2.1 Ethics of the military profession LO 6 – Discuss how questions of human rights and inequality (e.g. gender, racial) influence ethical decision-making. Block 2.2 Organizational culture LO 2 – Identify problems with organizational culture within the military as regards gender, diversity and equality issues. Block 2.4 Law of armed conflict LO 13 – Describe the laws protecting women and girls (and men and boys) in armed conflict. LO 14 – Explain the scope of the legal prohibition of sexual violence in armed conflict.
3. Defence and security studies <i>Describe the concepts of gender, gender differences, gender roles and gender equality.</i>	Block 3.2 Communications and media LO 9 – Develop communications to reach men and women; literate and illiterate audiences; and displaced persons and marginalized groups. Block 3.6 Cultural awareness LO 3 – Demonstrate gender-sensitive cultural analysis, and its link to the security of the unit and local population.

Finally, the existing curriculum and materials should be reviewed with a view to making their language and imagery gender-sensitive and gender-inclusive. Such a review goes a long way towards addressing the “hidden curriculum” mentioned earlier. Using gender-inclusive language and imagery, such as he/she in English or showing both men and women in uniform, signals inclusiveness and welcomes both male and female learners. In contrast, using stereotypical language or imagery, such as referring to soldiers as men or showing pictures of only men in uniform and women as civilians, can signal a message of exclusion and reinforce cognitive gender biases. Furthermore, depicting men and women in counter-stereotypical roles – for example, as a female platoon leader and a male nurse – can help nurture self-reflection and challenge learners’ thinking by prompting them to recognize their own surprise at a counter-stereotypical portrayal. Any exercises or scenarios used should pay attention to making the voices and experiences of both women and men heard. Women’s experiences and voices as women are often ignored; an issue that the curriculum can address by, for example, providing insights into the specific challenges a military woman might face in a leadership course. While men’s voices and experiences have tended to dominate discussions, they are not usually treated as their experiences as men so much as experiences of “default humans”.²⁹ The curriculum can address this by, for example, examining the specific vulnerabilities of civilian men, whose rights to protection as civilians are often compromised due to the fact that their status as men means they are almost always seen as potential combatants.³⁰

Box 4.6 Checklist for mainstreaming gender learning across the curriculum

- Introduce content on gender concepts and frameworks into the curriculum. Some examples may include:
 - concepts such as gender, gender equality and gender roles;
 - normative frameworks such as the UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security.
- Ensure that gender perspectives are considered in content areas where gender is not the main topic. Examples of relevant areas may include, but are not limited to, the following.
 - Military operations: include gender analysis, information gathering and dissemination, protection needs, response to sexual violence, etc.
 - Ethics and international humanitarian law: include codes of conduct, human rights and provisions of international humanitarian law protecting women.
 - Leadership skills: include inclusive leadership, diversity management, personnel development and command responsibility for preventing sexual harassment and abuse.
 - Communication skills: include effective communication to men and women.
 - Cultural awareness: include awareness of gender norms and customs.
 - All topics: use reading materials by both male and female authors, including gender perspectives.
- Provide for learning experiences that are supportive of gender-sensitive perspectives, attitudes and competencies. Examples of such learning methods may include:
 - a mix of both group and individual work;
 - case studies and scenario-based exercises;
 - a mix of oral and written assignments;
 - personal reflection through learning logs or group discussions based on personal experience and perceptions.
- Review exercises, language and images used to ensure they are gender-sensitive. This may include:
 - use of gender-inclusive pronouns (he/she, him or her);
 - using pictures and images of both men and women;
 - using exercises that depict women and men in counter-stereotypical roles;
 - ensuring that exercises or examples make the voices and experiences of both women and men heard and treated as relevant.

5.3 Perform gender-sensitive assessment and evaluation

Integrating gender-sensitive assessment and evaluation into the curriculum comprises two sets of efforts. On the one hand, it is important to ensure that assessment of learners' ability and instructors' competence is not gender-biased. On the other hand, it is crucial to assess and evaluate whether the required gender learning has happened.

A significant and growing body of research points to the fact that unconsciously held gender biases are widespread in society and most professional working environments, and have an important impact on how we assess the suitability and competence of learners, educators and professionals. Box 4.7 describes a selection of such research projects, with a view to demonstrating how gender bias manifests itself in how both learners' ability and educators' competence are assessed. The available research points clearly to the need to be vigilant for gender bias in assessment. It also gives recommendations as to what can be done at the institutional level to mitigate this effect. The most obvious measure is to ensure that assessment criteria are clearly articulated, transparent and communicated to both learners and faculty. In some cases institutional intervention mechanisms, such as targeted mentoring for faculty or learners, or educating faculty on how to mentor diverse learners, may be appropriate. Raising awareness of gender bias among both learners and faculty can help them recognize and address their own unconsciously held biases. Finally, it is important that faculty, and especially leadership, lend their legitimacy to their colleagues through respectful introductions that reference their expertise in front of both peers and learners.³¹

Box 4.7 Gender bias and assessment of ability and competence

Educators' assessment of learner ability	Learners' assessment of educator competence
<p><i>Example 1: Assessing the ability of science learners</i></p> <p>In a study published in 2012, a group of Princeton researchers sought to evaluate whether faculty in science departments across universities exhibit a bias against female learners that could contribute to the gender disparity in sciences. They summarize their findings as follows.</p> <p>"In a randomized double-blind study, science faculty... rated the application materials of a learner – who was randomly assigned either a male or female name – for a laboratory manager position. Faculty participants rated the male applicant as significantly more competent and hireable than the (identical) female applicant. The participants also selected a higher starting salary and offered more career mentoring to the male applicant."³²</p>	<p><i>Example 3: Gender bias in learner ratings of teaching</i></p> <p>In a collaborative research project, the findings of which were published in 2014, a group of sociologists examined gender bias in learner ratings of teaching on an experimental online course. They summarize their research and findings as follows.</p> <p>"While difficult to separate gender from teaching practices in person, it is possible to disguise an instructor's gender identity online. In our experiment, assistant instructors in an online class each operated under two different gender identities. Learners rated the male identity significantly higher than the female identity, regardless of the instructor's actual gender, demonstrating gender bias."³³</p>
<p><i>Example 2: Identifying the causes of unsatisfactory performance</i></p> <p>In a 1994 experiment conducted by researchers at the University of Utah, participants learned a number of facts about four fictitious learners who had passed or failed a welding course. The relevant fact was that learners who had failed the welding course all had a heavy course load, whereas those who had passed had a lighter course load. However, when the participants were given irrelevant information, such as the gender of the fictitious learners, they were more likely to attribute failure of female learners to their sex/gender rather than to their course load.³⁴</p>	<p><i>Example 4: Gendered language in instructor reviews</i></p> <p>An online interactive chart compiled by a history professor at Northeastern University allows users to explore the number of times a word is used to describe an instructor from 14 million reviews on the website RateMyProfessor.com, disaggregated by gender. These data can be used to illustrate the gender schemas used by learners in evaluating their professors. For example, male professors are described as "genius" or "funny" more often than female professors; and female professors are more often described as "bossy" or "mean" than male professors.³⁵</p>

Section 4.2 described measures to be taken to integrate gender content in the curriculum. It bears remembering that for gender content to be taken seriously, gender learning should be assessed and evaluated. The evaluation of gender learning is explored in more depth in Chapter 8 of this handbook, so this section is limited to a few more general observations. As with any topic, assessment of learner performance should be both formative (ongoing throughout the course of instruction) and summative (summarizing what was learned at the end of the instruction). Furthermore, it should be clear from the learning outcomes that gender learning has taken place in both cognitive and affective domains of learning. In other words, when it comes to evaluation, it is important to assess not only what the learners know and are able to do, but also the values they have internalized and how these are demonstrated in practice. Finally, the real test for gender learning in a military context will be the extent to which it modifies behaviour and delivers results. Examples of how this could be measured include through evaluation of whether the institution has become more gender-equitable internally – as determined by job satisfaction surveys or incidents of (sexual) harassment and abuse – and the extent to which gender perspectives are integrated in operations.³⁶

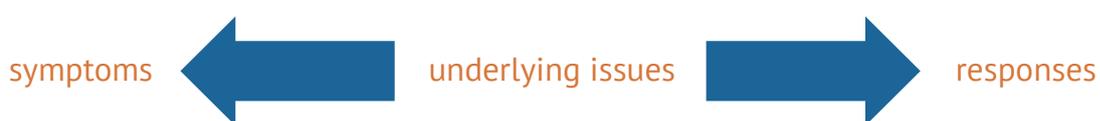
Box 4.8 Checklist for assessment and evaluation

- Ensure that exams or other assessment methods throughout the course or learning programme are not gender-biased in their assessment of learners' ability or educators' competence. This may include efforts to:
 - establish and communicate transparent and verifiable assessment and evaluation criteria;
 - develop specific institutional intervention mechanisms, such as mentoring;
 - educate learners and faculty about the existence and impact of subconsciously held gender bias;
 - ensure leadership support for faculty.
- Assess and evaluate gender learning:
 - using formative and summative assessment strategies;
 - in both cognitive and affective domains;
 - including modifications to behaviour and institutional results.

6. Common challenges and useful responses

So far, this chapter has presented an understanding of what the curriculum is and why gender should be integrated in it. It has provided a generic outline of curriculum development and review processes, and offered some considerations of how the topic of gender might be introduced into these. The main body of the chapter focused on outlining specific considerations and practical measures to integrate gender into the curriculum. This final section concludes by considering some common challenges to integrating gender, the reasons underlying them and some useful responses. It seeks both to highlight some warning signals and to offer some suggestions for overcoming them. The discussion points are highlighted in Box 4.9.

Box 4.9 Common challenges and useful responses



Pigeonholing

- Gender restricted to specific topics (e.g. sexual violence)

Genderwashing

- Superficial or tokenistic inclusion of gender

Resistance

- Claims that the curriculum is neutral as regards gender
- Claims that gender is not relevant to the topic
- Invokes a lack of funds or time to address gender

underlying issues

Lack of knowledge

Underprioritization of gender

Discomfort

responses

Gender experts

- Raise awareness
- Educate on the topic

Curriculum designers

- Make integration of gender everyone's responsibility

Leaders

- Incentivize development of gender expertise and integration of the topic
- Lead by example

6.1 The symptoms

This subsection outlines ways in which challenges to integrating gender in the curriculum manifest themselves. It is not an exhaustive list of challenges, but rather is intended to offer some indication as to warning signs, and why they are problematic.

Pigeonholing is a practice closely related to genderwashing (see below). It refers to situations in which gender is only considered in relation to specific topics (e.g. sexual violence in conflict or protection of civilians) and/or education on gender or dealing with these specific issue areas is designated the responsibility of female faculty or female soldiers. Both phenomena result in “slippage”: in other words they shift the responsibility for investigating and addressing gender-related issues to the shoulders of women.

Genderwashing is an approach that refers to the superficial inclusion of gender perspectives – the mention of the term, but lacking any meaningful engagement with what it signifies. An example of this would be “gender training” that consists of giving the gender adviser a ten-minute briefing slot, with no time for questions, to explain UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and its meaning for military operations. Addressing gender in such a limited manner is an exercise in ticking a box and does not fulfil the outcomes of integrating gender in the curriculum.

Resistance from educators, learners or leadership is the most obvious challenge to integrating gender in the curriculum. Resistance may take several forms. An overt form is the simple claim that gender is not relevant to the topic at hand. In other instances resistance is subtler, such as claims that the curriculum is gender-neutral (refer to Section 4.2 on the hidden curriculum) or already includes gender (see genderwashing above), that the topic is too broad for inclusion, or that there is a lack of funds or space in the curriculum for gender.³⁷ Resistance to integrating gender obviously undermines the reasons for the need to integrate gender outlined in Section 4.3.

6.2 Underlying issues

The challenges outlined above are often symptomatic of underlying issues, which represent the real “challenges”. These underlying issues vary from person to person and institution to institution. This subsection suggests some underlying causes. The list is, again, not exhaustive, but illustrates the point that to address the way challenges are vocalized, we must consider the reasons why they exist.³⁸

Lack of knowledge or awareness is perhaps the most obvious underlying cause.³⁹ If an educator does not understand how gender dynamics relate to the topic s/he is teaching, he or she will of course not consider gender relevant. A curriculum developer who does not have the skills and knowledge to recognize how gender operates in the content and assessment will understandably be blind to how the curriculum may already enforce gender norms and stereotypes. Faculty members who are required to integrate gender without the requisite knowledge and understanding have little recourse but to resort to genderwashing. A leader who lacks sufficient understanding to realize that gender is not a “women’s issue” will likely designate the closest woman in his/her proximity as the person in charge for this “special interest question”.

The **underprioritization of gender** happens, broadly speaking, for one of two reasons. In some cases it is related to a lack of knowledge. While an educator may be supportive of gender equality in principle, he or she may not see the relevance of gender to the topic at hand. For example, there may be an assumption that if no women were present in a recent or historical mission, then there can be no gender perspective. A more informed instructor would realize that this is in fact a situation with a strong gender dimension because women were completely excluded (or their presence was not documented). Another reason for the underprioritization of gender occurs because learners and/or instructors are not assessed on their gender perspectives in the course content. In some cases the content of add-on gender sessions given by external speakers is not included in learner assessments; in others, instructors are not assessed on whether they have included gender perspectives. Logically, they therefore prioritize those aspects against which they are assessed in their teaching.⁴⁰

Discomfort with the idea of integrating gender may stem not only from a lack of knowledge but also from a lack of skills, or from a feeling that one's identity and beliefs are being challenged.⁴¹ Faculty members may worry that addressing gender topics will trigger personal disclosure from learners, for example recounting stories of discrimination or abuse: faculty may feel they are poorly equipped to deal with this type of disclosure and seek to avoid the topic. A request to make use of transformative learning methods may make more traditionally oriented educators uncomfortable for fear that they will lose control of their classrooms.

6.3 Useful responses

The identification of underlying issues suggests that responses to challenges must be multifaceted, and tailored to address the issues at work. Responses should include, as appropriate in a given situation, a mix of incentives and the tools (awareness, knowledge and skills) to respond. This subsection outlines some of the responses different actors may employ.

Gender experts (or advocates) play an important role in raising awareness and providing the requisite knowledge and skills to address the underlying issues. They can conduct gender analysis to determine whether the curriculum is gender-blind, and demonstrate that gender-blind is not, in fact, "gender-neutral". Their analysis can show how gender blindness may reinforce existing structures of privilege and discrimination. They can provide subject-matter expertise or coaching to faculty members to help them build their knowledge and integrate gender in their teaching. They can organize staff discussion groups to address some individual educators' sources of discomfort around the topic. Gender experts can also help close any knowledge and skills gaps, and thereby enable faculty and curriculum developers to integrate gender.

Those responsible for **curriculum development and review** are also responsible for translating the requirements of national and international policies and directives into the curriculum, and ensuring that sufficient resources are allocated to the integration of gender. They hold the proverbial stick to ensure that the integration of gender is the responsibility of everyone, not only of women and/or gender experts. As has been discussed throughout the chapter, the integration of gender in the curriculum helps ensure that the topic is treated as a cross-cutting issue, and that the responsibility for doing so is shared.

Finally, **leaders** in the institution can help incentivize the integration of gender in the curriculum through both formal and informal means. On the formal side, leaders can ensure that competence in integrating gender becomes a criterion for recruitment and promotion. On the informal side, leaders can be role models and demonstrate institutional commitment through their own statements and actions. For example, they may share anecdotes of their own exposure to the topic, signal their commitment to integrating gender perspectives and convey appreciation for efforts to do this.

7. Annotated bibliography

7.1 Reference curricula

Canadian Defence Academy, *Generic Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum* (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO PfPC, 2011).

www.nato.int/nato_static/assets/pdf/pdf_topics/20111202_Generic-Officer-PME-RC.pdf

This generic reference curriculum for the professional military education of officers was developed by a multinational team of academics under the auspices of the Canadian Defence Academy on behalf of NATO and the PfPC. The curriculum consists of three phases (pre-commissioning, junior officer and intermediate officer) and three themes (profession of arms; command, leadership and ethics; and defence and security studies). It provides in-depth learning outcomes, and seeks to serve as a resource to partners looking to reform or enhance

the professional military education of their officers. The curriculum integrates gender perspectives across the themes.

Canadian Defence Academy and Swiss Armed Forces College, *Non-Commissioned Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum* (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO PfPC, 2013).

www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_topics/20131209_131209-nco-defence-curriculum.pdf

This reference curriculum for the professional military education of non-commissioned officers was developed on behalf of NATO and the PfPC by a multinational team co-led by the Canadian Defence Academy and the Swiss Armed Forces College. The curriculum consists of four levels (primary, intermediate, advanced and command senior enlisted leader) and three themes (profession of arms; leadership and ethics; and non-commissioned officer core competencies). It provides in-depth learning outcomes, and seeks to serve as a resource to partners looking to reform or enhance the professional military education of their officers. The curriculum integrates gender perspectives across the themes.

NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives, *Template for Pre-Deployment Gender Training: Topics and Learning Objectives* (Brussels: NCGP, 2010).

www.nato.int/issues/women_nato/2010/template_for_predeployment.pdf

This template for pre-deployment gender training was drafted during the 2010 annual meeting of the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP). The NCGP is an advisory committee to the NATO Military Committee – the senior military authority in NATO. The template lists topics to learn and learning objectives relevant to pre-deployment training on gender. It also specifies whether the topics or learning objectives are relevant to soldiers, non-commissioned officers and/or officers.

7.2 Guidance on integrating gender perspectives into training and education

Valasek, Kristin, and Agneta M. Johannsen, “Guide to integrating gender in SSR training”, in Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek (eds), *Gender and Security Sector Reform Training Resource Package* (Geneva: DCAF, 2009).

www.gssrtraining.ch/

This guide forms a part of DCAF’s *Gender and SSR Training Resource Package*. Aimed at trainers and educators, it provides guidance on how to integrate gender in training needs assessments, learning objectives, design and development of training, implementation of training, and monitoring and evaluation of training. While the resource package concentrates on security sector reform, many trainers and educators interested in introducing gender perspectives will find the methodologies and considerations introduced useful. The training exercises available on the website provide practical ideas and methodologies for integrating gender learning into the curriculum.

“Checklist for gender curriculum review”, in PfPC SSR and Education Development Working Groups, *After Action Report: Teaching Gender to the Military – In the Classroom and Through Advanced Distributed Learning* (Geneva: DCAF, 2012).

www.dcaf.ch/Event/PFPC-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military

This curriculum review checklist formed the initial thinking behind this chapter. It was elaborated in a working session involving gender and education experts present at the first workshop on teaching gender to the military, jointly organized by the Security Sector Reform and Education Development Working Groups of the PfPC, in collaboration with NATO School Oberammergau.

7.3 Other useful resources

Gender Equity Project, Hunter College, City University of New York

www.hunter.cuny.edu/genderequity/resources/equitymaterials

The Gender Equity Project aims to promote women's equal participation in the sciences and eliminate gender disparities. The project website offers several practical resources which can be downloaded. The resources include hints and tips for improving institutional gender equity and recommended reading lists compiled by the project's co-director, Virginia Valian.

Notes

1. The authors would like to thank Neyla Arnas and Pamela Ball for providing written comments on this chapter.
2. Canadian Defence Academy, *Generic Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum* (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO PfPC, 2011), p. 5.
3. David White, "A conceptual analysis of the hidden curriculum of police training in England and Wales", *Policing and Society*, Vol. 16, No. 4 (2006), pp. 386–404.
4. Ed Forest, "The ADDIE model: Instructional design", <http://educationaltechnology.net/the-addie-model-instructional-design/>.
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6. See, for example, Office of the Military Advisor, UN Department for Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), "DPKO/DFS guidelines: Integrating a gender perspective in peacekeeping operations", UN DPKO/DFS, 2010, www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/dpko_dfs_gender_military_perspective.pdf; Ian Leigh and Hans Born, with Cecilia Lazzarini and Ian Clements, *Handbook on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of Armed Forces Personnel* (Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR, 2008); Megan Bastick, *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Internal Oversight within the Armed Forces* (Geneva: DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR, 2014).
7. See, for example, Chapter 2 of this handbook; Megan Bastick and Daniel de Torres, "Implementing the women, peace and security resolutions in security sector reform", in Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek (eds), *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit* (Geneva: DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW, 2008), www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Security-Sector-Reform-Toolkit; Aiko Holvikivi, "What role for the security sector? An SSR approach to implementing the women, peace and security agenda", *Connections*, Vol. 14, No. 3 (2015), pp. 31–44.
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9. The term "hidden" should not be taken as a negative value judgement. All curricula have a hidden element that may contain both positive and negative attributes.
10. Alan Skelton, "Studying hidden curricula: Developing a perspective in the light of postmodern insights", *Curriculum Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 2 (2006), pp. 177–193 at p. 188, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14681369700200007>.
11. Barbara Hey, *Guidelines on Gender Fair Curriculum Development* (Graz: WUS Austria, 2010), p. 8.
12. Katherine E. Brown and Victoria Syme-Taylor, "Women academics and feminism in professional military education", *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion*, Vol. 31, Nos 5/6 (2012), pp. 452–466 at p. 458, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02610151211235460>.
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17. Brown and Syme-Taylor, note 12 above, p. 453.
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- mapping”, presentation at Integrating Gender in Military Curricula: Third Workshop on Teaching Gender to the Military, hosted by DCAF and the PfPC, Geneva, 9–13 December 2013.
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 23. bell hooks, *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom* (New York/London: Routledge, 1994), p. 35.
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 27. Canadian Defence Academy, *Generic Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum* (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO PfPC, 2011), p. 5. See also Canadian Defence Academy and Swiss Armed Forces College, *Non-Commissioned Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum* (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO PfPC, 2013).
 28. White, note 3 above.
 29. Henri Myrntinen, Jana Naujoks and Judy El-Bushra, “Re-thinking gender in peacebuilding”, *International Alert*, 2014, p. 13, http://international-alert.org/sites/default/files/Gender_RethinkingGenderPeacebuilding_EN_2014.pdf.
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 37. Mergaert and Lombardo, note 8 above, p. 7.
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How to Teach

FIVE

SIX

SEVEN

EIGHT

NINE

TEN

Adult learning principles and transformative learning in teaching gender

Iryna Lysychkina (Ukraine), Andreas Hildenbrand (Germany) and Kathaleen Reid-Martinez (Oral Roberts University, United States)¹

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1. Introduction

Educating the military on gender perspectives has emerged over the last seven years as a new and important priority for NATO states and partners. In both educational and training frames, teaching gender to the military is done in the adult learning context, and aims not only at acquiring knowledge on gender equality and corresponding UN Security Council resolutions, but, above all, at enhancing or sometimes changing the learner's attitude and behaviour in gender-related working situations.

In view of numerous theoretical publications on adult learning and transformative learning, this chapter gives an overview of principles of adult learning, their application in teaching gender to the military and transformative learning theory assumptions relevant to such teaching.

2. Principles of adult learning

The end of the twentieth century witnessed active development of adult learning theories. Malcolm Knowles et al. separated adult learning from pedagogy, and used the term "andragogy" for this purpose.² Nowadays, andragogy is used synonymously with adult learning, and even with higher education pedagogy (see Box 5.1.).

According to Henschke, the early assumptions about adult learners were that they are self-directed, their experience is a learning resource, their learning needs are focused on their social roles and their time perspective is one of immediate application. Moreover, adult learners are best motivated to succeed when they are appreciated for their individual contribution to the class. These assumptions make sense in adult learning nowadays.³

Box 5.1 Andragogy or adult education

Andr + agogy (Greek origin) means adult leading, while ped + agogy means child leading.

Andragogy was first introduced by German educator Alexander Kapp in 1833. After the First World War another German educator, Eugen Rosenstock-Huessy, developed andragogy into a method of teaching adults that combined reflection and historical thinking.

The term “andragogy” as a synonym for “adult education” was popularized by American educator Malcolm Shepherd Knowles. Nowadays “andragogy” is a method of teaching adults, the science of adult learning, and refers to any form of adult learning.

The general adult learning (andragogical) principles, set by Knowles, could be compared with pedagogical principles in five domains: the learner’s attitude to learning, role of the learner’s experience, learner’s readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation for learning.⁴

The adult learner is self-directed, responsible for his/her own learning and the learning of peers. Self-evaluation becomes significant in this respect. The learner should not be dependent upon the instructor for all learning – the instructor’s first responsibility is to facilitate and evaluate learning.

The adult’s experience must be used in learning, as adults are a rich resource for one another. The instructor’s experience is no longer more influential. Moreover, the adult learners’ different experiences assure diversity in groups, and become an important source of self-identity.

The adult learner usually does not need to be told what he/she has to learn in order to advance to the next level of mastery: the need to know so as to perform more effectively in some aspect of one’s life is more important. The instructor can rely on the adult learner’s ability to assess gaps between where he/she is now and where he/she wants and needs to be.

The adult learner’s orientation to learning is different, and learning is no longer a process of acquiring prescribed knowledge, with content units sequenced according to the logic of the subject matter. Learning must be relevant to real-life tasks, because the learner wants to know how to perform a task, solve a problem or live in a more satisfying way. Based on this, learning should be organized around life and/or work situations rather than subject-matter units.

Motivation is a key factor for efficiency of learning: it energizes, directs and sustains behaviour. The adult learner is not motivated primarily by external pressures, competition for grades or the consequences of failure. Rather, internal motivators become more important: self-esteem, recognition, better quality of life, promotion, self-confidence and self-actualization.

Thus adult learners should be actively and interactively engaged in setting a learning atmosphere in the classroom, the learning planning process, diagnosing their needs, defining learning outcomes, designing and conducting activities, and evaluating their learning progress.

3. Application of adult learning principles in teaching gender

Knowles⁵ put forward four principles of adult learning that are now widely used as the basis for instructional design: adult learners need to know why they need to learn something; adult learners learn experientially, and are interested more in learning something that has immediate relevance to their job and/or life; adult learners prefer problem-based learning rather than content-oriented; and adult learners need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their learning. These four principles were subsequently expanded to six:

- adults are internally motivated and self-directed;
- adults bring life experiences and knowledge to learning experiences;
- adults are goal-oriented;
- adults are relevancy-oriented;
- adults are practical;
- adults like to be respected.

In practical terms, adult learning instruction needs to focus more on the process and less on content, and the instructor’s role is that of a facilitator. Based on the assumptions listed above, some recommendations can be given to the instructor concerning the application of adult learning principles in teaching gender to the military (Box 5.2).

Box 5.2 Application of adult learning principles in teaching gender

Adult learning principles	Adult learning principles in teaching gender to the military
Adult learners need to know why they need to learn something	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Analyse and break stereotypes about gender with real-life examples ✓ Underline relevance of gender for operational effectiveness ✓ Create a cooperative climate in the classroom
Adult learners learn experientially, and are interested more in learning something that has immediate relevance to their job and/or life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Underline relevance of gender for operational effectiveness and achieving combat-related objectives ✓ Use games, role playing, simulations, case studies and scenarios in the classroom ✓ Update learning materials regularly and apply a gender perspective to recent case studies ✓ Take into account the different backgrounds of the learners
Adult learners prefer problem-based learning rather than content-oriented learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Use pre-readings and online courses as sources for background knowledge on gender ✓ Choose motivational tools and learning strategies before deciding on content ✓ Avoid lecturing even if it is less time-consuming compared to discussion or experiential learning ✓ Avoid memorization and aim at higher-order thinking skills ✓ Instruction should allow learners to discover things and knowledge for themselves ✓ Provide guidance and help when mistakes are made
Adult learners need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Do diagnostic assessment and feedback sessions regularly ✓ Develop learning outcomes based on the learners’ needs and interests, and what is of professional relevance to them ✓ Show that the learners’ ideas, comments and concerns are reflected in the course ✓ Learning materials and activities should take into account differences in the learners’ previous experiences ✓ Allow learners to participate in the selection of methods, materials and resources for gender-related courses

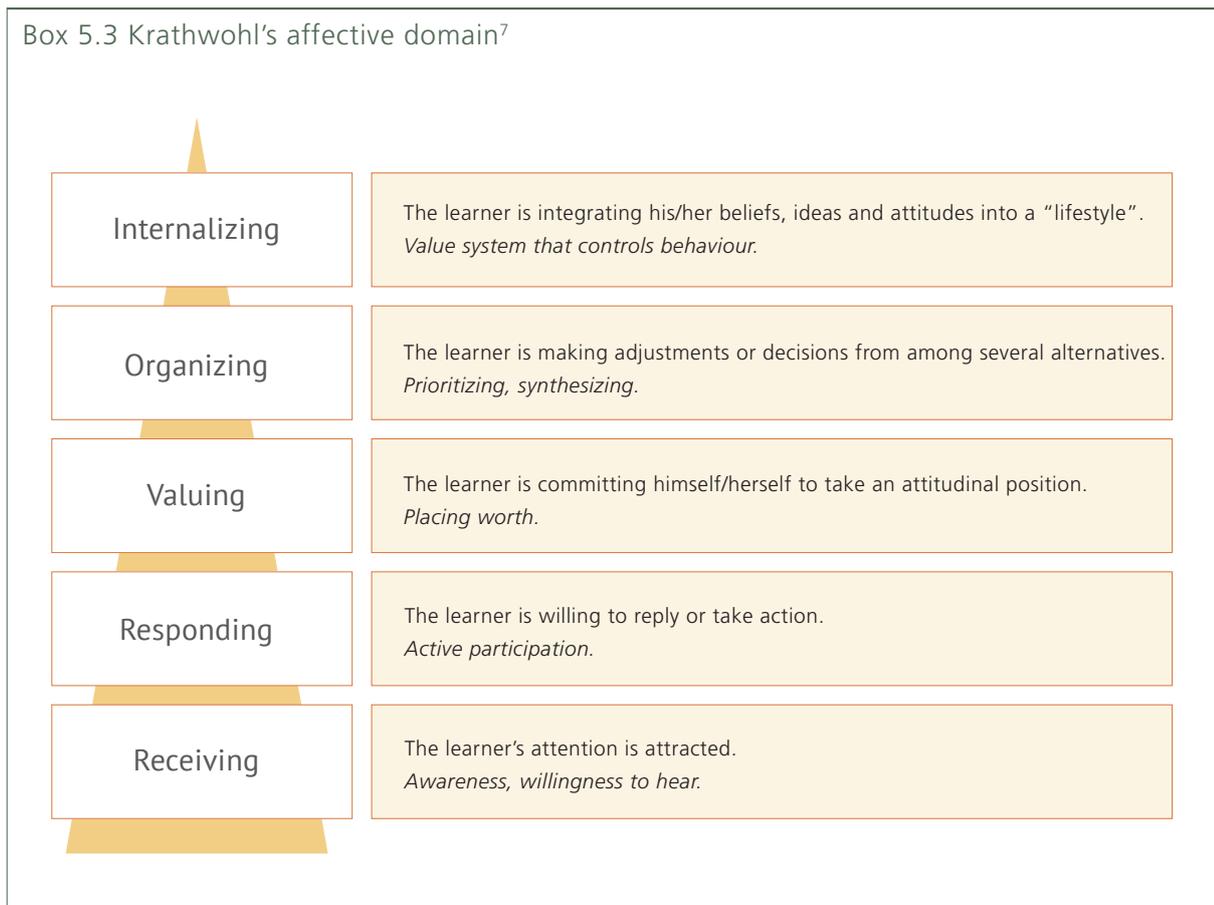
From the adult learning perspective, teaching gender to the military should be based on the principles that learners know why they need to learn about gender perspectives; they participate in decision-making concerning learning outcomes, assessment and activities; the content learners are given has immediate relevance to their jobs and/or lives; the activities suggested are of an active/interactive, experiential and transformative nature; and a collaborative classroom climate allows non-attribution and equal opportunity to all, and prevents or helps to overcome resistance.

4. Changing learners' attitudes in teaching gender to the military

Teaching gender to the military may require changing learners' attitudes to the problem, challenging gender stereotypes and enhancing critical thinking.

According to Benjamin Bloom there are three educational domains: cognitive (knowledge/thinking), affective (emotions/feelings/attitudes) and psycho-motor (physical/kinesthetic).⁶ The cognitive domain of Bloom's taxonomy is introduced in Chapter 7 of this handbook. Feelings and emotions are referred to as the affective domain, and this was developed into a taxonomy by David Krathwohl, one of Bloom's students and eventual research partners (Box 5.3).

Box 5.3 Krathwohl's affective domain⁷



Teaching gender is not about transmitting knowledge. It aims higher – to enhance or change learners' attitudes and behaviour. When teaching gender in the military, it is essential that the learner goes from gender awareness to internalizing gender equality in his/her value system.

Motivation is the best tool to make learners willing to hear about gender perspectives. Adults learn best when they are convinced of the need for knowing the information. Motivation to learn can be stimulated by a life experience or situation. Use of experiential learning (role plays, simulations, scenarios, etc.) will help to ensure the learners' active participation and subsequent mastery of the content. Further discussions and case studies along with problem-based learning will highlight the value of gender perspectives to operational contexts. Critical thinking will help to promote gender equality further within the learner's system of values, which, in turn, will influence his/her behaviour, attitudes and priorities.

5. Transformative learning in teaching gender to the military

Transformative learning is described as learning that changes the way learners think about themselves and their world, and which involves a shift of consciousness.⁸

Initially, transformative learning was introduced as an attempt to link education with democracy and the moral dimension of individuals and societies.¹⁰ It was later developed over several decades from the 1970s to the 2000s by Mezirow, who identified two main elements of transformative learning: critical reflection (self-reflection) and critical discourse, where the learner validates a best judgement.¹¹

Transformational (transformative) learning induces more far-reaching change in the learner than other kinds of learning, especially learning experiences which shape the learner and produce a significant impact, or paradigm shift, which affects the learner's subsequent experiences.⁹

Transformative learning assumes that the learner is prepared to develop high-level critical thinking skills, to show the ability to apprehend different views and interpretations, to be open-minded and to demonstrate democratic values such as accountability, pluralism, tolerance, transparency, responsibility, respect, integrity and curiosity.

Mezirow emphasizes that the learner is able to make shifts in his/her world view through a combination of reflection and discourse.¹² Through critical reflection, learning becomes "transformative", and, through dialogue with others, is translated into the practice of self-awareness, personal development and empowerment.¹³ To be effective, transformative learning should be active and interactive by its nature, thus applying a number of active learning strategies and tools: self-reflection, journaling, simulation, role play, problem-based learning, practical application, etc.

To be transformative, learning must provoke self-awareness, application of acquired knowledge to create new meanings, capacity development of critical vigilance, cultivation of creativity, development of interactive learning relationships, changing strategic perceptions of knowledge and the world, and strengthening a sense of interdependence and social solidarity.¹⁴

Transformative learning is an effective strategy for gender education. The approach involves encouraging learners to re-examine how they gain knowledge. Instead of assuming that knowledge is simply made up of facts learnt from the outside, this theory encourages learners to examine how their own personal frames of reference – which have developed over time based on assumptions and expectations – influence their thinking, beliefs and actions. This can emancipate learners, because it means that they are not dependent on others for knowledge. Instead, they are able to develop their skills in critical self-reflection, meaning that they learn from their experiences and interactions with others.

Importantly, transformative learning encourages adult learners to challenge their own basic assumptions, values and beliefs and develop new frames of reference based on critical reflection. To bring about transformative learning, instructors need to move beyond the "transmission" model where knowledge is sent in one direction from the curriculum to learners. Instead, the "transaction" model focuses on creating a dialogue between learners and the curriculum whereby learners create knowledge through problem solving.

This ultimately leads to "transformation", where the inner nature of learners changes continuously as they interact with their environment. To bring this situation about, learners must be free from coercion, have an equal opportunity to participate in activities and feel powerful enough to challenge the basic assumptions behind the knowledge that is being presented to them. This usually involves reducing the power of the instructor and encouraging learners to cooperate as a group instead of competing with each other.

As transformative learning appeals to learners' emotional spheres, it is important to set a corresponding activating event to trigger learners to examine their thinking and understanding of gender perspectives. It would be effective to create a disorienting dilemma, or to list gender stereotypes and ask the learners to contradict

or illustrate them. An emotional start with a shocking video fragment might take learners out of their comfort zone and trigger their critical thinking. Conflicting perspectives can also motivate learners to review their own standpoints. Failure-driven approaches to teaching recognize that learners are motivated to learn when their knowledge is not enough to solve a problem.

Box 5.4 Example of transformative learning – Narrative

King and queen exercise

Participants: Any

Time: 30 minutes

Supplies: None

Learning objectives: To introduce and explore socialization, beliefs and prejudices regarding gender

Exercise instructions: Tell the trainees the story of a queen and king who live in a castle on an island surrounded by water. One day the king goes on a business trip. Before he leaves he orders the queen not to go out of the castle until he returns. Nevertheless, the moment he leaves, the queen flees to a nearby village to see her lover. After spending several hours with him, she returns to the castle. However, the castle guard does not want to let her in because the king ordered him not to allow her to return if she left. At this point the queen goes back to her lover to ask for his assistance. He tells her that he does not think they have a serious relationship and he does not want to help her. Then the queen goes to see a friend in the village and asks for assistance. The response is that, unfortunately, the friend cannot help her because he/she is also friends with the king and does not want to destroy this relationship. The queen becomes desperate and again returns to the castle guard to ask him one more time to let her in, but the answer is still solidly “no”. As a last resort the queen remembers there is a man with a boat in the village: she asks him to sneak her behind the castle so she can at least take her belongings and then leave again. The boatman agrees to this, but charges the queen €500 and insists that the money is paid up front. This is not possible for the queen, as her money is in the castle. At the end of her tether, the queen decides she should just run into the castle, take her belongings and then run out. She does this, and the guard kills her. The end.

At this point the trainer asks the trainees to think about/discuss this story among themselves for few minutes. After discussion, learners are expected, individually or in small groups, to rank the characters in terms of responsibility for what happened to the queen, starting with the most responsible in their opinion. The trainer lists the characters on a flipchart, asks the ranking from the trainees and adds the number ranks next to each character.

For example: King 2, 1, 5, 6, 1

Queen 1, 4, 3, 2, 1

Lover ...

Friend ...

Guard ...

Man with boat ...

Trainees are requested to explain why they ranked the characters the way they did. This part of the exercise usually develops into a very interesting discussion. Subsequently, the trainer asks the students if they would answer in the same way if the queen left the castle because she was hungry and there was no food in the castle; or if the king wasn't really leaving on a business trip but going to see his mistress. Additionally, they should be asked to put the story into a human rights context and look at it from this perspective.

There are some interesting questions to ask.

- What triggered the sequence of events?
- How influential is our understanding of morals?
- What do we know about the queen and her marriage?
- Does the king have a lover in the destination where he went on business?

- Was the king maltreating the queen?
- Can she get a divorce?

Eventually, remind the students of the resemblance between the lover, friend and man with a boat on the one hand, and the institutions that are supposed to take care of victims on the other, i.e. they can often be more concerned with money, power and relationships than with supporting victims in need.

Adapted by Nikolina Marčeta, EUFOR, from “The Drawbridge Exercise” by Sgt Charles Howard, Fort Lee, VA, USA.¹⁵

A transformative learning approach involves providing learners with opportunities to identify the underlying assumptions in their knowledge. Further critical self-reflection will allow learners to realize where these assumptions come from and how they influence or limit their understanding.

Box 5.5 Example of transformative learning – Journaling

Participants: Any

Time: Daily reflection in writing (15–20 minutes)

Supplies: None

Learning objectives: To observe gender (dis)balance, (in)equality, etc. in everyday life

Exercise instruction: Ask learners to keep a journal. Learners should make daily observations concerning gender in their everyday life, study, books they read, TV, etc. and take notes of these observations – moments when they understood a new concept or viewpoint, a conflict or confusion. It will help them understand the role and importance of gender in their lives and in society.

Dialogue and discussion with other learners and the facilitator as the most important social aspect of transformative learning allow learners to analyse alternative ideas and approaches. All learners need to have their assumptions respectfully challenged. Moreover, if learners have to defend a viewpoint they disagree with, this challenges their thinking and brings to the discussion points that might not otherwise have been raised. Online discussions and e-mail exchanges can help to keep conversations going outside the classroom. Group projects on a particular gender-related topic or case are another effective activity to ensure learners’ discussion and critical thinking.

For transformative learning to move from thought to action, learners need opportunities to apply new knowledge. If possible, learners should be asked to share experiences where gender perspectives affected operational capability. In the classroom learners could be asked to solve a particular problem or assignment with multiple perspectives or problem-solving approaches. Case studies and role plays will allow learners to try out new perspectives.

In implementing transformative learning, the facilitator must ensure a careful balance between support and challenge, the latter being the main component of transformative learning. Push too hard and learners resist; push too little and the opportunity for learning quickly fades. To be an agent of change, the facilitator must understand the process of change and provide both the catalyst and the support necessary for transformative learning.¹⁶

Box 5.6 Example of transformative learning – Recommended reading and discussion

Recommend literature to your learners that makes them reflect on gender perspectives, e.g. memoirs and/or biographies of prominent female politicians, scientists and businesswomen. Readings on gender (im)balance and (in)equality from a historical perspective can also be recommended. Organize a discussion afterwards, or ask your learners to sum up the main ideas in the form of an essay.

The following are some examples of thought-provoking reading on the topic.

Kelly Cutrone and Meredith Bryan, *If You Have to Cry, Go Outside: And Other Things Your Mother Never Told You*, 2nd edn (New York: HarperOne, 2010).

Melissa T. Brown, *Enlisting Masculinity: The Construction of Gender in U.S. Military Recruiting Advertising During the All-Volunteer Force* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012).

Farida Jalalzai, *Shattered, Cracked or Firmly Intact? Women and the Executive Glass Ceiling Worldwide* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2013).

6. Conclusion

Teaching gender effectively involves incorporating transformative learning techniques, as the learning outcomes cannot be reached solely by “transmitting” knowledge on gender perspectives. Shaping learners’ attitudes towards gender equality, enhancing their understanding of the impact gender has on operational effectiveness and fostering changes in their behaviour should be at the heart of teaching gender to the military. Special attention should be given to learner motivation in order to take them along the path from gender awareness to internalizing gender equality within their value systems.

7. Annotated bibliography

Baumgartner, L. M., “An update on transformational learning”, *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, special issue, No. 89 (2001), pp. 15–24.

This article gives an overview of the theories, contributions of significant authors and unresolved issues in transformational learning, as well as an update on transformational learning, as andragogy and self-directed learning continue to be important to the present-day understanding of adult learning.

Bloom, B. S., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon, 1956).

This book outlines a classification of learning objectives that has come to be known as Bloom’s taxonomy, and remains a foundational and essential element within the educational community.

Brown, K. E. and V. Syme-Taylor, “Women academics and feminism in professional military education”, *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion*, Vol. 31, Nos 5/6 (2012) pp. 452–466, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02610151211235460>.

The authors identify a number of key areas around which resistance and accommodation to gender norms are produced: the visual, the vocal and collective action. Analysis of these reveals the everyday practices of academic identities, the gendering of knowledge and feminist interventions. The authors found that the practices and debates of academic women in professional military education reflect the wider debates in academia.

Clark, M. C., “Transformational learning”, *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 57 (1993), pp. 47–56.

This paper explores the work in transformational learning of Mezirow, Freire and Daloz to identify the underlying humanistic assumptions of this type of learning and assess its contribution to the field.

Cranton, P., *Understanding and Promoting Transformative Learning*, 2nd edn (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 2006).

This work summarizes the existing theories of transformative learning and corresponding assumptions.

Deakin Crick, R. and K. Wilson, "Being a learner: Virtue for the 21st century", *British Journal of Educational Studies*, Vol. 53, No. 3 (2005), pp. 359–374.

This article develops learners' role assumptions related to transformative learning.

Dewey, J., *Democracy and Education. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education* (New York: Free Press, [1916] 1966).

Classic discussion of education for democracy ("sharing in a common life") that includes an important reconceptualization of vocational learning.

Henschke, J. A., "Beginnings of the history and philosophy of andragogy 1833–2000", in V. Wang (ed.) *Integrating Adult Learning and Technology for Effective Education: Strategic Approaches* (Hershey, PA: IGI Global, 2009).

This work gives an outline of adult learning development from Alexander Kapp's theory to the present time. It contains an exhaustive list of published resources on andragogy and adult learning.

Ignelzi, M., "Meaning-making in the learning and teaching process", in M. B. B. Magolda (ed.), *Teaching to Promote Intellectual and Personal Maturity: Incorporating Students' Worldviews and Identities into the Learning Process* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 2000).

This chapter describes Robert Kegan's theory of meaning-making to explore how learners' understanding of their experiences, themselves and their relationships with others mediates learning.

Kitchenham, A., "The evolution of John Mezirow's transformative learning theory", *Journal of Transformative Education*, No. 6 (2008), p. 104, <http://jtd.sagepub.com/content/6/2/104>.

This article is a review of Mezirow's transformative learning from its inception to the latest definition. The review builds on Taylor's earlier discussions, but unlike his review this history of transformative learning relies predominantly on Mezirow's publications to authenticate the discussion, with support from the extant literature. The article begins with Mezirow's explanation of the stages of transformative learning, continues with the influences on the theory, transitions into the criticisms and concludes with a discussion of its evolution and development.

Knowles, M. S., E. F. Holton III and R. A. Swanson, *The Adult Learner: The Definitive Classic in Adult Education and Human Resource Development*, 6th edn (Kidlington: Elsevier, 2005).

This much-acclaimed text provides a theoretical framework for understanding adult learning issues in both teaching and workplace environments, and has been fully updated to incorporate the latest advances in the field. Keeping to the practical format of the previous edition, the book is divided into three parts. The first part contains the classic chapters that describe the roots and principles of andragogy, including a new chapter presenting Knowles's programme planning model. The second part focuses on the advancements in adult learning, with each chapter fully revised and updated, and incorporating a major expansion of andragogy in practice. The last part of the book contains an updated selection of topical readings that advance the theory and includes the HRD-style inventory developed by Dr Knowles.

Krathwohl, D. R., B. S. Bloom and B. B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Book II: Affective Domain* (New York: David McKay, 1964).

This book is the original publication on affective taxonomy. Affective learning is demonstrated by behaviours indicating attitudes of awareness, interest, attention, concern and responsibility, the ability to listen and respond in interactions with others, and the ability to demonstrate those attitudinal characteristics or values which are appropriate to the test situation and the field of study.

McGonigal, K., "Teaching for transformation: From learning theory to teaching strategies", *Speaking of Teaching: The Center for Teaching and Learning*, Vol. 14, No. 2 (2005), www.stanford.edu/dept/CTL/cgi-bin/docs/newsletter/transformation.pdf.

The author describes transformative learning from the view of Jack Mezirow, and outlines the purpose of transformative learning in many different disciplines. McGonigal offers examples of the importance of transformative learning in the areas of science, mathematics, humanities and social sciences, explaining in each area how educators may be expected to change learners' perspectives. In addition, McGonigal outlines several strategies currently being utilized by Stanford faculty members to enhance transformative learning in the classroom. This article is a useful resource for faculty members in any discipline who wish to develop transformative thinking in their courses; however, content-specific examples in science-related courses may make it more appealing to faculty in the hard sciences.

Mezirow, J., "Transformative learning: Theory to practice", *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 74 (1997), pp. 5–12.

This article summarizes the transformation theory of adult learning, explains the relationship of transformative learning to autonomous, responsible thinking, viewed as the central goal of adult education, and discusses practical implications for educators. It emphasizes that critical and autonomous thinking must take precedence over the uncritical assimilation of knowledge, and that transformative learning is a route to the development of critical thinking.

Plantenga, D., "Gender, identity, and diversity: Learning from insights gained in transformative gender training", *Gender & Development*, Vol. 12, No. 1 (2004), pp. 40–46, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552070410001726506>.

This article aims to stimulate critical thinking around gender, identity, and power in development organizations. It focuses on two insights from gender and development training: first, an individual's identities are always multiple and interconnected, so that one cannot talk about gender in isolation; and second, all identities are gendered. There are power dynamics between different identities, and these give privileges to some and make others vulnerable. The aim of transformative gender and diversity training is to acknowledge these power dynamics, to demystify them, and to find strategies that will promote equality for all involved. It discusses four insights from training that have important implications for organizational transformation in relation to gender and diversity.

Notes

1. The authors would like to thank Miriam Fugfugosh for providing written comments on this chapter.
2. Malcolm S. Knowles, Elwood F. Holton III and Richard A. Swanson, *The Adult Learner: The Definitive Classic in Adult Education and Human Resource Development*, 6th edn (Kidlington: Elsevier, 2005).
3. John A. Henschke, "Beginnings of the history and philosophy of andragogy 1833–2000", in Victor C. A. Wang (ed.), *Integrating Adult Learning and Technology for Effective Education: Strategic Approaches* (Hershey, PA: IGI Global, 2009), pp. 1–30.
4. Knowles et al., note 2 above.
5. Ibid.
6. Benjamin S. Bloom, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1956).
7. David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom and Bertram B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Book II. Affective Domain* (New York: David McKay, 1964).
8. TEAL Center Staff, "Adult learning theories", Teal Center Fact Sheet No. 11, Washington, DC, 2011, https://teal.ed.gov/sites/default/files/Fact-Sheets/11_%20TEAL_Adult_Learning_Theory.pdf.
9. M. Carolyn Clark, "Transformational learning", *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 57 (1993), pp. 47–56 at p. 47.
10. John Dewey, *Democracy and Education. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education* (New York: Free Press, [1916] 1966).
11. See, for example, Jack Mezirow, "An overview of transformative learning", in P. Sutherland and J. Crowther (eds), *Lifelong Learning: Concepts and Contexts* (New York: Routledge, 2006), pp. 24–38.
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13. Sharan B. Merriam and Barbara Heuer, "Meaning-making, adult learning and development: A model with implications for practice", *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, Vol. 15, No. 4 (1996), pp. 243–255.
14. Ruth Deakin Crick and Kenneth Wilson, "Being a learner: Virtue for the 21st century", *British Journal of Educational Studies*, Vol. 53, No. 3 (2005), pp. 359–374.
15. Analee Pepper, *Gender Training for the Security Sector: Lessons Identified and Practical Resources* (Geneva: DCAF, 2012), pp. 44–45, www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Training-for-the-Security-Sector-Lessons-identified-and-practical-resources.
16. Kelly McGonigal, "Teaching for transformation: From learning theory to teaching strategies", *Speaking of Teaching: The Center for Teaching and Learning*, Vol. 14, No. 2 (2005), pp. 1–5.

Optimizing the learning environment: Addressing gender dynamics in the classroom

Callum Watson (DCAF)¹

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1. Introduction²

Part I of this handbook identified how introducing a gender perspective in the military can improve operational capacity and the implementation of many national and international legal obligations. It highlighted the importance of gaining an understanding of the gender dynamics in both the civilian population and, especially when it comes to necessary improvements in recruitment, retention and promotion of women, within the armed forces. Having established both the gender-related content that is required in military education and good practices in its delivery, the next logical step for those undertaking educational roles in the military is to examine the gender dynamics of their own working environments.

This chapter therefore seeks to show how instructors can lead by example in applying a gender perspective in their daily work in order to highlight the demonstrable benefits this has in creating learning environments where women, men and people from gender minorities can all thrive. Furthermore, considering gender dynamics in the classroom is fundamental to implementing the “transaction” models of teaching that bring about transformative learning (Chapter 5). Instructors, like their learners, have a responsibility to improve gender relations within their

institution, but they also have an opportunity to shape how their learners think about gender for the rest of their careers. While training is not the specific focus of this chapter (or of this handbook overall), it often provides *ad hoc* educational opportunities for instructors, and hence parts of the chapter will also be relevant to training environments.

The chapter's objectives are to equip instructors with practical tools to assess and improve the gender dynamics within their classrooms by:

- highlighting ways in which gender dynamics affect classroom environments;
- explaining how these dynamics advantage and disadvantage different learners in the classroom according to their gender;
- presenting concrete strategies for providing all learners with equal opportunities to reach the learning objectives.

The chapter begins with a discussion on the importance and benefits of considering gender dynamics in the classroom. The following section then describes the gender dynamics in four aspects of the classroom environment, namely teaching content, learner participation, appraisal and access to faculty and educational resources. Good practices for promoting a gender-equal learning environment are outlined under each of these four aspects.

2. Why do we need to consider gender dynamics in the classroom?

Analysing the gender dynamics of a classroom involves studying how the learning experience differs for female and male learners based on how they interact with the content, the course design or methodology, their instructors and the other learners in the class. Dynamics are also influenced by the different levels of access that women and men have to resources and faculty outside the classroom. In addition, each individual's learning experience will be affected by his or her age, rank, service history, race, religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity (i.e. the degree to which learners conform to male or female gender roles).

Instructors working in the field of military education need to consider the gender dynamics of their classroom because, to some extent, they are gatekeepers with a heavy influence on who reaches the different ranks and roles in the military. They are thus able to influence their institution's level of operational capacity, national ownership and proper functioning within the framework of human rights – for better or for worse. For this reason, instructors have an obligation to evaluate learners based on their ability to perform military functions and not in a way that is distorted by their personal gender biases. Broadly speaking, instructors have the power to improve the functioning of their institution in the following five ways.

1. Ensuring fair access to roles and ranks in the military that require specific qualifications³

An instructor's choice of educational content, teaching methods and learner appraisal modalities will go some way to determining who passes their course and with what grade. This will then have an impact on each learner's military career by determining where they are able to serve and at what rank. Thus to ensure that military roles are staffed by those who have the best command of the skills required, learner assessment needs to reflect ability and must not be influenced (consciously or unconsciously) by instructor bias based on gender or other social attributes.

2. Challenging gender-related perceptions of different roles in the military

The way in which an instructor portrays the women and men serving in a given role in the military will influence whether or not different learners can also see themselves performing that same role in the future. Simply put, an instructor can subconsciously influence what is seen as "men's work" and "women's work" within the institution. This can affect both the roles women and men apply for and also how well they are accepted by their peers in these roles.

3. Preventing the reproduction of social orders characterized by gender inequality⁴

The way in which women and men engage and are engaged in the classroom as well as the roles they are asked or allowed to perform will play a part in shaping the relationship between women and men in the institution as a whole. For example, if women never have leadership roles (over men) during group work activities, this can reinforce implicit assumptions in the institution that men make more natural leaders.

4. Facilitating learner self-reflection and building awareness of inequality⁵

By openly discussing gender and challenging gender inequality, instructors can help learners to recognize situations in which privilege based on their identity gives them more power than others. Instructors can highlight how, in different situations, specific groups of women and men are placed at a disadvantage. By showing their learners that they have the power to change this, and that this is a leadership skill (e.g. on the grounds of both non-discrimination and mission effectiveness), instructors can shape a learner's behaviour for the rest of his or her career. Conversely, reinforcing stereotypes that some women or men are biologically less able to perform certain tasks (when the reasons are, in fact, social) can have the opposite effect on the learners.



All of these men experience the pressure to be masculine, and all of them feel that, at least at times, they want to step outside of the role. One significant aspect of our work is to help them name the cultural pressure that is masculinity – to give them a language for symbolizing their experience. It is tremendously difficult to resist a pressure that one cannot name. When we give men the gift of gender-aware language, we change masculine conformity from the status of default option to that of informed choice.⁶

Dr Christopher Kilmartin

5. Encouraging openness to hearing the different perspectives of women, men, girls and boys⁷

Instructors can influence how the learners perceive the subjects they teach. For example, a class on addressing a civilian population's security needs could exclusively draw on the perspective of military commanders, and hence the learners would get the impression that the subject was only about keeping enemy troops out of urban areas. But if the views of women and men living as civilians through wartime sieges were also incorporated, the subject might be seen as including factors such as sexual violence, violent crime, food insecurity and health epidemics. In other words, instructors can ensure that both male and female voices are heard in the classroom – including those of their own learners – and can demonstrate to others why they should do the same.

Being aware of classroom gender dynamics can therefore act as a tool for instructors to realize the power they have in shaping gender norms in the institution for the better. If instructors make small changes to promote gender equality in their immediate classroom environment, this can potentially have an amplifying effect on the rest of the institution. With this in mind, the remainder of this chapter highlights four aspects of gender dynamics in the classroom and presents some concrete suggestions for how instructors can make their classrooms more “democratic” or inclusive and provide a level playing field and a positive classroom environment for all learners.



For Afghan men “safety” usually means “no more fighting”; for Afghan women it often means more Freedom of Movement (FoM), no harassment, no rape and more personal protection. In addition to this, “safety” for women, often left with responsibilities for homemaking and childcare, means better access to water resources, to the fields, to the market place and to health clinics but also the opportunity for their children to go to school.⁸

Captain Steffie Groothedde, Dutch gender adviser for the International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan

3. What aspects of the classroom environment have gender dynamics and what can educators do to account for them?

3.1 Gender dimensions of educational content

The content of any course has a gender dimension because it presents the subject matter from the standpoint of the instructor and those who shaped the curriculum, design/methodology and teaching resources. As it is inevitably grounded in the instructor's prior knowledge and assumptions, he or she should reflect on this and consider how the course content may be perceived by the different learners in the class in order to provide them with an equal opportunity to succeed.

A shared culture and collective memory of formative events in its history is what makes each armed force an *institution* as opposed to just a collection of people.⁹ This culture plays an important role by providing an institutional logic for why the institution functions in the way that it does, as well as giving each individual member an understanding of how his or her role fits within the larger context.

In practice, however, this shared culture is usually based on the perspectives of the more influential members of the military. For example, front-line combat operations tend to feature more prominently in the collective memory of conflicts than the experience of those performing supporting roles; similarly, the experience of men tends to feature more strongly than that of women. This carries the danger of excluding the experience of certain members from the collective memory, thus devaluing their contribution. It is therefore important that instructors actively seek to present a variety of perspectives from diverse groups of women and men in their course content, especially those to which their learners may not have previously been exposed.

In addition to providing a one-sided perspective on a given topic, a failure to include diverse narratives in educational content can have several negative consequences. Firstly, it gives an unfair advantage during assessments to those learners whose experiences (and that of their peers and families) are closest to the dominant narrative. Secondly, those who cannot identify with historical figures, experts or characters mentioned in case study examples presented in a course may not see a future for themselves in the armed forces. Thirdly, there is a risk of reinforcing the generalizations and stereotypes leading to ignorance, which undermines operational capacity, and discrimination, which contributes negatively to the working environment.

Box 6.1 Women in the Canadian military¹⁰



Portraying women in combat roles (see modern poster, right) can plant the idea of serving in this function in the minds of recruits, and also normalize the notion of female armed combatants for men in the army in general. Previously (see poster from 1940s–1960s, left), the armed forces sought to promote the acceptance of women in the military for a different logic, and hence few women or men would have imagined a combat role for women at the time.



Aside from written text, pictures and video clips can also leave a strong impression on learners, either by reinforcing what they see as “normal” or by challenging assumptions (see Box 6.1). For example, it is often the case that pictures of military personnel portray predominantly or exclusively men, and the civilians depicted are all women or children. This can hide the long history women have as combatants in conflict settings,¹⁰ and that many civilian men in conflict zones who are unable or choose not to take on a military role are wrongly assumed to be combatants.

Box 6.2 Women in the engineering classroom¹²

A study on female engineering learners found that most male learners had come to the subject through a love of playing with equipment as a child, whereas most female learners had chosen it because of their good grades in mathematics and science. In this extract, a female learner describes the challenges she faced in a practical session due to not having been taught the necessary vocabulary.

“It says ‘Open the valve’ and I thought ‘What does a valve look like?’ I thought a valve was inside the pipe so how do you open the valve? They said ‘there’s a little handle here’. And they could have just said that! Some of them are like those taps that doctors have so you don’t have to touch them, and some of them are like big wheels – it does help if you know what a valve looks like so you can go looking for the right thing.”

Another way in which educational content can exclude learners based on their gender is in the kinds of assumed knowledge learners are supposed to have (see, for example, Box 6.2). Instructors will exclude some of their learners from engaging in the subject matter if they build on knowledge outside that of prerequisite courses. Gender dynamics in society mean that, for example, a man is much more likely to have been shown how to repair a car whereas a woman is more likely to have had experience in food hygiene and preparation. In addition, the local geographical knowledge of women and men will vary because they do not necessarily spend time in the same places.¹³ When it comes to courses on gender, women tend to be more aware of discrimination and are more likely to have read up on the topic. This is a reason why men are sometimes quiet in gender courses, and it should not be taken as a lack of interest. Instructors should therefore only assume their participants know what is in prerequisite courses. Transactional learning approaches (see Chapter 5) and formative evaluation techniques (see Chapter 8) can be used to ensure that the whole class has reached a required level of understanding before introducing new content.

Practical tips for making content more gender-equal

- ✓ Instructors consult a diverse group of individuals when designing the course to enhance the inclusion of a variety of perspectives and learning methodology and better reach all learners in the course.
- ✓ Men and women from diverse backgrounds are portrayed in course materials in non-stereotypical roles.
- ✓ Gender bias in materials is highlighted and balanced by supplementary information.
- ✓ Instructors use diagnostic assessments to determine prior knowledge instead of making assumptions.
- ✓ Transformative learning approaches encourage the presentation of different perspectives – including those of the learners themselves – during the class.
- ✓ Instructors actively highlight historically excluded viewpoints during their classes, including the contribution of different women and men from diverse backgrounds to academic disciplines.
- ✓ Instructors show examples of women and men from different backgrounds working in the military roles towards which the class is geared.¹⁴
- ✓ Instructors educate themselves about their learners’ different cultural backgrounds.
- ✓ Transactional learning approaches and formative assessments encourage knowledge sharing between the learners and ensure that the whole class has reached the learning outcomes.

3.2 Gender dimensions of language used in course delivery

Box 6.3 provides some concrete examples of the gender dynamics of language. Broadly speaking, the language used in course delivery can exclude some learners from the learning environment based on their gender in two ways: it can antagonize them or it can be unnecessarily incomprehensible.

Box 6.3 The gender dimensions of language

The following three sentences could be used to describe the same situation but can bring very different images to the mind of the reader.

	Gender-biased	Gender-neutral/blind	Gender-inclusive
Example	<i>When a soldier goes into battle, his primary concern is to protect women and children.</i>	<i>When soldiers go into battle, their primary concern is to protect civilians.</i>	<i>When a soldier goes into battle, his or her primary concern is to protect civilian women, men, girls and boys.</i>
Observations	<i>Generalizations:</i> Even if most soldiers are men and most civilians are women and children in this context, the sentence excludes exceptions to the rule. In addition, it is almost certainly based on unverified assumptions.	<i>Reinforcing learner stereotypes:</i> Some instructors attempt to use neutral wording in an attempt to be gender-equal. However, most learners will probably assume that the soldiers are men and the civilians are women.	<i>Challenging stereotypes:</i> This wording can challenge the assumptions of the learners and present a fuller picture of the situation. All learners should be able to see themselves in this more accurate description.

Antagonistic language

Intentionally discriminatory language should clearly be avoided, but instructors also need to take care to avoid using sexist language unintentionally. Common examples include the generic use of masculine words such as “he” as the third-person pronoun, or “policemen” to refer to all police officers. Studies suggest that men rarely detect such gender-biased language, but tend to be strongly opposed to using female language as a generic form.¹⁵ Similar dynamics occur when groups of learners are referred to using terms like “men” (when both men and women are represented) or groups of women are referred to as “girls” (female children). More ambiguous terms like “guys” warrant discussion to determine whether women in the particular context feel included.

Stereotypes are another way in which language excludes learners based on their gender. Not only are they factually inaccurate, but they can also make learners who do not conform to social norms feel excluded and reinforce biased notions about which roles and professions are appropriate for men or for women. Statements made by influential individuals that carrying heavy equipment is “men’s work” cause women performing these roles to feel less accepted; indeed, men may even feel social pressure to prevent women from undertaking such tasks under the guise of “gentlemanly conduct” – a form of “benevolent” sexism (see Box 6.4). Furthermore, such stereotypes can be seen as valuing servicemen’s contribution to the armed forces in relation to their physical attributes while overlooking the diverse range of different skills that men bring to the institution. Box 6.4 explores the more nuanced dangers of seemingly positive stereotypes.

Box 6.4 “Benevolent” sexism¹⁶

“Benevolent” sexism, or the “women-are-wonderful effect” refers to a culture where those at the top of a gendered hierarchy reward others who conform to their inferior status. An example would be giving female personnel the day before a national holiday off so that they can prepare food for their families. Levels of “benevolent” sexism in a given society correlate with those of hostile sexism; in other words it forms part of a carrot-and-stick system. In our example, a woman who prioritizes her career over her family and refuses to take the day off (or a man who requests leave to cook for his family, for that matter) is likely to be confronted with a hostile reaction. This also explains why high levels of violence against women can be found in societies where men see themselves as protectors. Benevolent sexism should therefore be avoided, despite objections from those who benefit from it at times.

Incomprehensible language

A more subtle way in which learners are excluded is through the instructor’s use of analogies and metaphors which often have nothing to do with the subject matter. For example, an instructor might use the expression “it was bottom of the ninth and the bases were loaded”¹⁷ when recounting a story to explain that it was the last opportunity in a high-stress situation. This baseball analogy will not be understood by learners unfamiliar with the sport, which is both male-dominated and also followed more closely by groups of men from particular racial, class and geographical backgrounds. These learners will not feel included in the class itself nor understand the point being made.

Practical tips for inclusive and non-discriminatory course delivery

- ✓ Instructors avoid sexist and other discriminatory language.
- ✓ Instructors use gender-inclusive language during instruction (e.g. ideally both male/female pronouns, but “they” is better than only “he” or only “she”).
- ✓ Instructors use equivalent wording when referring to men and women, e.g. servicewomen and servicemen, ladies and gentlemen, female and male *but not* men and girls (male adult, female child).
- ✓ Instructors are wary of benevolent sexism and, if it occurs, use it as a teaching/learning moment.
- ✓ Instructors avoid generalizations and stereotypes, and discourage learners from using them.
- ✓ Instructors and other learners use analogies and examples to which everyone can relate.

3.3 Gender dynamics of class participation

If left unchecked, the classroom environment will reflect the social relations of its learners in wider society. Those who dominate in society based on factors such as gender, class, educational level, ethnic origin, physical ability and age will also tend to dominate in the classroom; those from less privileged backgrounds will be silenced.¹⁸ Where gender is concerned, this tends to turn male learners into “knowers” and their female counterparts into “listeners” irrespective of their relative level of knowledge or academic performance.¹⁹ Instructors, however, have the power to disrupt this and set the tone in the classroom. Studies suggest that this is most successfully done from the outset.²⁰ Women have cited competitive, hierarchical and isolating learning environments as a major reason for avoiding STEM subjects (science, technology, engineering and mathematics), while young men who dropped out of education to enter the workforce mentioned feeling out of place in the classroom.²¹ In the military context, it is vitally important to promote diversity and facilitate gender equality in the classroom in order to open up those roles with particular educational requirements to traditionally underrepresented groups.

Group work

In large class discussions, studies repeatedly show that male learners tend to dominate by calling out answers, raising their hands more often and making lengthier interventions than women. Instructors play a role in this by calling on male learners more frequently (who they are more likely to know by name), asking them more abstract questions and then referring more to points made by men than by women later on in the lecture. Male learners are also more likely to be asked follow-up questions and given more specific feedback in the form of praise, criticism or correction.²² Women, on the other hand, tend to be asked questions that require short answers and receive non-verbal or one-word feedback, e.g. a nod or a “good”. Similarly, when they ask questions they are often told the answer directly, whereas instructors more frequently guide men through a problem-solving process.²³ Moreover, female learners tend to make shorter statements that are often prefaced in a more hesitant way (e.g. by using words like “perhaps”, phrases like “I may be wrong, but...” or using rising intonation to turn their statement into a question). They also tend to be interrupted more frequently, and both other learners and the instructor are less likely to refer back to their comments later in the class.²⁴

When divided into small groups and given a set task, female learners take on more leadership roles (as long as the group is relatively gender-balanced or a majority are female). While such learning environments can be positive for both genders, it was found that in female-dominated groups the male minority often demand attention and additional support from the rest of the group in order to complete their individual contributions to the group task. Where males are in the majority, female learners are often ignored, although some instructors seem to place academically stronger female learners in groups to “tutor” weaker male learners.²⁵ Small groups can therefore be seen as an opportunity to promote more gender-equal classroom dynamics as long as female learners are not burdened by these additional support roles.

Gendered allocation of tasks

A final aspect to consider is the division of classroom tasks. In both full-class and group work settings, more male learners end up doing demonstrations that involve equipment while the female learners are pushed into more “secretarial” roles.²⁶ The result is a self-fulfilling prophecy where male and female learners become more competent at performing stereotypical tasks associated with their gender because they rarely have the opportunity to switch roles. As this division of roles becomes institutionalized, performing a task not typically associated with one’s gender might provoke a negative reaction from the learner’s peers.

Practical tips: What methods facilitate the participation of often excluded/non-participative learners?

- ✓ Ground rules are established with learner input during the first class, and shape the response etiquette.²⁷
- ✓ The ground rules are reviewed periodically, discussed by the class and modified if necessary.²⁸
- ✓ Instructors explicitly acknowledge that sexism and other forms of discrimination exist in the classroom, and that this makes it easier for some learners to participate compared to others. No one is blamed for the misinformation they have been told about other groups (e.g. “women cannot lead”), but everyone endeavours not to repeat untruths.²⁹
- ✓ Instructors are aware that their own identity (gender, age, rank, combat experience, ethnicity, level of education, etc.) will make certain learners feel more able to participate than others. They take active steps to overcome the obstacles to participation experienced by some learners.
- ✓ Instructors are clear that class discussion is not purely a debate but rather an opportunity to gather all the information that the class has on a given topic. Learners are therefore encouraged to listen to others in the class, build on their comments and ask them further questions.³⁰
- ✓ Learners represent their own opinions; one woman is not permitted/expected to represent the views of all women.
- ✓ Instructors keep track of which learners they call upon. One way to do this is to divide the room mentally into quadrants and ensure that women and men in each quadrant participate.³¹ Another way is to record the names of the learners who were called on, or who spoke, during or after each session.

- ✓ Instructors wait three to five seconds before taking a response to a question, and do not necessarily ask those who raise their hands the fastest.³²
- ✓ Instructors refer back to (especially quieter) learners' written or spoken comments later on.³³
- ✓ Instructors give less confident learners encouragement and sufficient time to express their ideas. This includes giving the floor to learners who react to comments non-verbally, and drawing them out if necessary.³⁴
- ✓ Instructors offer a wide range of participation methods, including opinion polling, inviting non-hand-raisers to speak, small group activities, working in pairs, presentations and written work (e.g. journaling can be especially useful in gender courses).³⁵
- ✓ Instructors prevent learners from being interrupted when they are speaking; failing this, learners are given the opportunity to finish making their point.³⁶
- ✓ In group work activities, instructors require that roles – especially leadership ones – are rotated among learners, and that groups are mixed in terms of gender and other attributes.³⁷
- ✓ Both female and male learners learn how to use equipment in practical exercises as well as in everyday tasks such as classroom set-up and cleaning (e.g. computers, DVD players, vacuum cleaners).³⁸
- ✓ Gender-biased statements and/or behaviour are used as learning/teaching moments whenever possible. If it is too much of a distraction from the learning objectives for the session, the statement/behaviour is flagged for future discussion.

3.4 Gender dynamics of learner appraisal

The gender dynamics of learner appraisal appear to be somewhat paradoxical at first sight. On the one hand, female learners outperform male learners in most subjects in the vast majority of countries irrespective of levels of gender inequality (see Box 6.7).³⁹ On the other hand, research suggests that assessment is nonetheless biased in favour of male learners, who on average are able to win educational scholarships with lower grades than women.⁴⁰ Learner appraisal can therefore have profound effects on the gender balance of military institutions at the higher levels for years to come. These are factors that instructors in military educational facilities need to keep in mind when fulfilling their responsibility to ensure that assessment accurately reflects each learner's performance in their subject area.

Learner appraisal in the form of continuous formative assessment during the class (such as classroom discussions and questions posed by instructors to their learners) as well as in small written assignments can have a significant impact on learners' perception of how they are performing in the class and whether they persist with the subject. Several studies have documented gender bias in this kind of appraisal. For example, women tend to be complimented for the presentation of their written work, whereas men are assessed more on the intellectual quality of their assignments.⁴¹

There is also evidence of gender bias in formal assessment. If there is gender bias in the educational content (see Section 3.2), then there is a risk of examinations assessing untaught information, terminology and skills. An overreliance on assumed knowledge and skills related to pastimes typically dominated by men and boys (such as sports and cars) is one of the reasons many women and non-stereotypical men have given for dropping out of traditionally male-dominated STEM subjects.⁴² Interestingly, despite these challenges there are many incidents where men perceive a grading bias in favour of women, which is often attributed to the way they dress or some other feminine attribute such as working cooperatively rather than competing alone.⁴³ These excuses may in fact hide some commonly found challenges of the peer pressure experienced by male learners, namely their reluctance to ask for help from the instructor and also a tendency to present good academic performance as a consequence of innate ability rather than hard work, which can be seen as a sign of weakness and hence is either done covertly or not at all.⁴⁴

Gender dynamics of instructor appraisal

Studies examining instructor appraisal have noted that female and male instructors are often evaluated differently by their learners (see Box 6.5). Adult learners come to the classroom with particular ideas regarding who has the right to be an instructor and how an instructor should conduct herself or himself. This may involve gender bias. For example, learners may expect male instructors to demonstrate authority and technical expertise, whereas they expect female instructors to be more caring, nurturing and understanding of personal issues that affect learners' participation or attendance. Where instructors do not conform to these expectations, learners have been shown to criticize them on appraisal forms. In the same way that female learners are often evaluated disproportionately on the way they present themselves and their work, female instructors have reported receiving learner comments on their choice of clothing, with some even suggesting alternatives. Conversely, if male instructors dress untidily this can actually earn them respect, as it fits learner perceptions of what an intellectual looks like.⁴⁵

Box 6.5 The different appraisals received by male and female instructors⁴⁶

Michael Messner, then an entry-level assistant professor, describes his surprise at the difference between the learner evaluations he received for an introductory gender studies course and those of his female co-instructor, a much more established and well-respected academic.

"When the student evaluations for the course came back several weeks after the semester had ended, a curious asymmetry emerged. Although both of us were "graded" as good teachers in the numerical evaluations, several students took it upon themselves to criticize my co-teacher's attire in the classroom. Her clothing, she was told, lacked style. She could do better. Some of them recommended particular items to spiff up her look, like certain name-brand shoes, that she might consider wearing in future semesters. By contrast, not one student evaluation mentioned my clothing choices, which at the time consisted of corduroy pants, cheap button-down shirts from Sears, and K-Mart shoes."

Another factor is that learners may perceive women and people from minority backgrounds as lacking authority in the classroom, as their appearance is different to that of the standard model of an instructor. These instructors are put in a difficult position: should they take a more informal approach in order to build a rapport with their learners by, for example, referring to themselves by their first name, at the expense of undermining their authority? Or, on the other hand, should they maintain authority by demanding that learners address them formally and with respect, and risk antagonizing their learners? Unable to command equivalent levels of respect, instructors in this category are more likely to be told in learner evaluations that they are biased, rigid, politically correct and have an agenda, whereas men who conform to traditional notions of what an instructor looks like are credited for being objective, relaxed and good-humoured.

The impact of gender bias in scoring of instructors can be negative not only for the individual instructor, but for the institution as a whole. If learner appraisals prevent instructors from underrepresented groups from advancing in their careers regardless of their teaching quality, the institution will miss out on the benefits a diverse team of staff can bring to educational content and learner participation.

The most effective strategies for addressing the challenge of gender (and other) bias in appraisals by learners begin with instructors raising this problem with their learners in classroom discussions. Arguably, this will have the biggest impact coming from instructors who best fit the standard model (i.e. older men from dominant ethnic groups), as this reduces the likelihood of the problem being seen as a "women's" or "minority" issue.⁴⁷ Also, more attention should be given to qualitative feedback (written commentary) than quantitative (numerical scoring), as the latter more often reflects "gut feeling" and does not require learners to justify their scores.

Practical tips: How can educators conduct appraisals in a way that measures the learner's ability to learn, understand and apply the content to the greatest extent possible?

- ✓ Instructors take steps to ensure that male and female learners are appraised according to the same criteria.
- ✓ Assessment criteria accurately reflect each learner's knowledge of the subject and his or her ability to apply it in military contexts.
- ✓ Instructors give all learners equally difficult tasks irrespective of their gender.
- ✓ Instructors have equal expectations of all the learners in the class.
- ✓ Instructors appraise both the intellectual quality and the presentation of all work.
- ✓ Instructors present learners with different opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge (e.g. in writing, speaking, group work, etc.).
- ✓ Instructors actively encourage all learners to seek additional support.
- ✓ Instructors grade learners only on information presented in the class and prerequisite classes, not on their level of general knowledge.
- ✓ Instructors base assessments on the ability of learners to apply their knowledge to the real-life situations of graduates of the course.⁴⁸
- ✓ Instructors consider how appraisals can be used to boost self-esteem and encourage positive learning behaviours among their learners by rewarding hard work and disproving notions that attainment is determined by innate ability (especially of men), luck or physical appearance (especially of women).⁴⁹



The process of critical thinking begins by recognizing that as the teacher in the classroom I am a key actor in the classroom dynamics that evolve. I must recognize who I am, where I teach, and whom I teach.⁵⁰

Professor Lynn Weber Cannon

3.5 Gender dynamics of access to faculty and educational resources

Unequal access to faculty

The access an individual learner has to teaching staff as well as to mentors will have an impact on his/her academic performance and also the subject areas, specialisms and careers that he or she ultimately pursues. Not only are the opinions of quieter learners ignored in class discussions, negatively affecting their self-esteem, but they also tend to receive less encouragement from faculty to pursue high-level careers and positions.⁵¹ One common way in which some instructors show a greater affinity to certain learners in the class is in the name they use to refer to them (or, indeed, the fact that they know the names of some learners and not others). While the instructor may refer to learners s/he knows less well by their surnames as a sign of respect, referring to learners s/he knows well by first names or nicknames can be an indicator of favouritism. Equal treatment in this area – whether by adopting a first-name or a last-name policy – will send a signal that the instructor is equally willing to help all learners.

Those learners who are more able to create a rapport with their instructors during class are also better placed to contact faculty outside the classroom for help in roles such as identifying subject-matter specialists in educational assignments, finding mentors and perhaps even facilitating access to certain professional jobs. Clearly the different personalities of the learners and instructors play a part in these situations, but it is inevitably the case that learners with more in common with the instructor are best placed to develop a closer relationship.⁵² The downside of this is that learners whose backgrounds are radically different to that of the instructor are less

likely to interact with the instructor either during the class and afterwards. This could be one reason why certain professions, such as aeroplane pilots or nursing, are still largely dominated by one gender despite significant advances being made in gender balance in other sectors.

Extracurricular activities involving both instructors and learners can provide valuable alternative settings for learners and faculty to interact. It is often the case, however, that learners from non-traditional backgrounds do not have equal access to faculty in these settings. This could be because the activities (e.g. sports) are gender-segregated or require skills more commonly taught to one gender (e.g. hunting), or because the learners feel socially out of place as a minority (e.g. not being able to contribute to any of the conversation topics). Alternatively, it could be that learners have caring roles that prevent them from spending time on social activities.

While extracurricular interaction is not inherently bad, attention needs to be paid to ensure that learners from non-traditional backgrounds are not put at a disadvantage educationally and professionally because they have a smaller network of staff supporting them. Extracurricular activities are often labelled as “non-essential”, yet in many cases they are of fundamental importance for educational achievement and subsequent career progression.⁵³

Unequal distribution of educational resources

The unequal access to faculty is similarly reflected in the unequal distribution of educational resources and facilities, which can also reinforce gender differences. One of the most prevalent and visible examples is where educational institutions spend more on sport for men than for women, be it by providing better facilities or by privileging men’s access to unisex facilities (see Box 6.6).⁵⁴ In some cases this may be formalized, but in many situations socialization means that dominant social groups (which tend to be male-dominated) feel a greater sense of entitlement to use shared facilities. Historically it was also the case that most military installations lacked bathrooms and residential facilities for women.

Box 6.6 Gender inequality in educational sport spending: The case of higher education in the United States⁵⁵

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments requires schools and colleges that receive federal funds to prohibit sex discrimination in all their educational programmes and activities. This should also apply to sporting activities. Despite significant improvements since then, by 2011 the number of participation opportunities available for women had still not reached the level men were at in 1972, and inequalities persist (figures from 2011):

- women make up 57 per cent of US college students, but only 43 per cent of sport participation opportunities are open to them;
- men received 55 per cent of athletic scholarship funds, leaving women with 45 per cent;
- women’s teams received 38 per cent on average of the sport operating budget and 33 per cent of the sport recruitment budget;
- head coaches for women’s teams in the highest level of competition (National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I-A) were paid approximately half of what head coaches for men’s teams received.

Another consideration is that some learners may have greater access to private resources (such as personal laptops and sufficient finances to pay for private tutoring or purchase books rather than borrowing from a library) than others, thus creating an unequal learning environment. Those learners (disproportionately men) without care responsibilities will also be able to devote more of their own time to study. If steps are not taken to mitigate these factors, educational assessments will be skewed, as it will be difficult to determine the degree to which they measure a learner’s command of the course content versus the same learner’s access to educational resources.

In addition to gender differences between women and men, an antagonistic relationship can develop between male instructors and male learners, especially learners who come from different social backgrounds to the vast majority of their teaching faculty. This appears to happen when male learners lack the necessary connections and educational resources to perform well academically and rise into respected roles within the institution. The effects of discrimination, such as racism, may also be at play. This antagonism has been given as one of the major reasons why young women outperform young men in academic achievement in many countries around the world⁵⁶ (see Box 6.7). In response, these young men develop an alternative value system whereby they are able to earn the respect of their peers through other means (such as acting up in the classroom or owning status symbols). While this provides a temporary solution in terms of self-esteem, they are no longer interested in academic achievement and hence lose future opportunities of career promotion.⁵⁷ Instructors can lose their moral authority in these situations, and institutions lose the possibility of having a more diverse workforce at the higher ranks.

The most effective way of addressing unequal access to faculty and educational resources, albeit not the easiest one, is to acquaint both learners and instructors with the concept of privilege as a system of overarching inequality. Privilege determines a learner's access to faculty and education resources, and hence plays a much greater role in determining educational attainment and subsequent career and financial benefits than innate intelligence. This, however, is difficult for privileged groups to accept because it is seen as downplaying the hard work they have put into their achievements and, in the words of Bethany Coston and Michael Kimmel, "privilege is invisible to those who have it".⁵⁸ For example, those with privilege tend to have "unmarked" identities ("pilot"), whereas those who lack it have marked identities ("black female pilot").⁵⁹ This is often misconstrued as presenting privilege as an all-or-nothing game; on the contrary, every individual will have different levels of privilege and will be more aware of those who have more privilege than those who have less. Introducing privilege as a topic requires tact, timing and dosage. It is usually better received by those who have received education on gender-related topics, and care needs to be taken not to let it distract from the learning outcomes.⁶⁰

Practical tips: How can educators take these gender dynamics into consideration and remove barriers to those learners who have less access to faculty and educational resources?

- ✓ Instructors address all learners in the same way, with the same tone of voice, and make eye contact with all of them.
- ✓ Instructors provide formal avenues to learners who require extra support, such as designated office hours.
- ✓ Formal and social barriers to different learners participating in extracurricular activities are removed in order to encourage underrepresented groups to participate.
- ✓ Instructors are careful about socializing with learners and excluding those who, e.g., do not drink, do not like sports or are introverted.
- ✓ Provisions are made to enable those with caring responsibilities to take part in extracurricular activities.
- ✓ Mentors are made available to all learners (either formally or informally), especially to those who may not have a pre-existing network of contacts in the particular field of study.
- ✓ Educational resources and the use of facilities are distributed fairly to learners from different genders and backgrounds (e.g. according to need, randomly or on a first-come, first-served basis).
- ✓ Course administrators take steps to ensure that every learner is able to obtain all the necessary course materials and equipment easily.
- ✓ Provisions are made to support those learners whose limited access to private resources may hinder the ability to achieve the learning outcomes.
- ✓ Instructors take the opportunity to examine notions of privilege when possible.

Box 6.7 Why do women and girls outperform men and boys academically?

More women have university degrees than men in 29 out of 32 member states of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and in 2009 59 per cent of all those who completed undergraduate degrees were women. Boys in secondary school still outperform girls in mathematics by the equivalent of around three months of education, but girls have a reading age about one year older than that of boys.⁶¹ While girls outperform boys overall, the gap is largest among lower-achieving children. Boys from poorer financial backgrounds and ethnic minorities are particularly well represented among low achievers. Of the highest-achieving learners (85th percentile and above), however, boys outperform girls.⁶²

At first sight this gap may be taken as a sign of increasing levels of gender equality or even of women dominating men, but this hypothesis is not supported by the research: there appears to be no correlation between the gender gap in academic achievement and levels of gender equality in a given society.⁶³

Alternative explanations have pointed to a historical legacy that men have traditionally had a workplace advantage in unskilled or vocational professions irrespective of their level of education, whereas the majority of new employment opportunities easily accessible to women require a bachelor's degree.⁶⁴ Others suggest that women and girls dedicate more time to studying than men and boys. This is partly because boys face peer pressure to demonstrate that they can rely on their innate intelligence without having to spend time on study, and also because boys are expected by their parents, instructors and peers to spend more time on physical activities.⁶⁵

If these hypotheses are true, it would have significant implications for military academies. The evolving nature of modern warfare requires defence staff to have increasingly large skill sets involving both physical skills and knowledge learnt in the classroom. Defence academies and security institutes therefore need to ensure they have created environments that give equal value to the time their male and female learners spend developing their skills, whether it be spent in the classroom or on the training ground.

4. Conclusion

One of the attractions of studying gender is that it can be applied to any situation where human activity is involved. By considering the gender dynamics of their classroom, instructors can actively demonstrate the relevance and effectiveness of applying a gender perspective to any situation. In addition, by keeping these dynamics in mind, an instructor will be able to seize upon gender-related learning or teaching moments, even if they arise during classes that are not specifically on gender. This is an effective form of gender-mainstreaming and a highly transformative way to teach. If combined with transactional learning approaches (see chapter 5), learners can even contribute to furthering their instructors' own knowledge of gender. When it comes to creating a gender-equal learning environment, no instructor will get it right every time. A good instructor, however, will endeavour to learn from his or her mistakes and take these opportunities to contribute to a more gender-equal working environment in their institution, both now and in the future.

5. Annotated bibliography

5.1 Academic publications related to the gender dynamics of the classroom

Glick, Peter and Susan T. Fisk, "An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 56, No. 2 (2001), pp. 109–118, www.sanchezlab.com/pdfs/GlickFiske1.pdf.

This paper examines the nature of sexism in its hostile and benevolent forms, and how these two forms are related in different national contexts. While not specific to the classroom context, it is still useful to understand the gendered classroom dynamics.

Jung, Kyungah and Haesook Chung, *Gender Equality in Classroom Instruction: Introducing Gender Training for Teachers in the Republic of Korea* (Bangkok: UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education, 2006), <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145992e.pdf>.

This study was conducted by the Korean Women's Development Institute and published by UNESCO. Although the research was all undertaken in elementary and junior high schools in the Republic of Korea, it constitutes one of the most comprehensive analyses of gender dynamics in the classroom currently available. The document includes both findings from the research and details on the methodology used for undertaking the gender analysis.

Kilmartin, Christopher and Andrew P. Smiler, *The Masculine Self*, 5th edn (Cornwall on Hudson, NY: Sloan Publishing, 2015).

This textbook provides an introduction to theories of men and masculinity as well as an overview of the scholarship in this area. While it does not look specifically at the gender dynamics in classroom settings, it provides a good background on men as gendered beings and discusses many social phenomena that men bring to the classroom, including how they relate to women and other men.

5.2 Checklists for improving the gender dynamics of the classroom

Columbia University, "Gender issues in the college classroom", www.columbia.edu/cu/tat/pdfs/gender.pdf.

This four-page document briefly details some of the major conclusions regarding gender inequalities and gender dynamics in the college classroom, as well as some basic principles of feminist pedagogical practices. It concludes with some suggestions on creating an inclusive classroom environment.

Equitable Classroom Practices Institute, "Best practices for achieving gender equity in the classroom", www.bioc.rice.edu/precollege/ei/best_practices.html.

This article published by Rice University was created by a summer institute where teachers in 11 Houston area schools came together to participate in activities to promote positive socialization of learners. It details good classroom practices for promoting gender equity through learner/instructor interaction, lesson planning/classroom management and curriculum content.

PfPC SSRWG, "Gender-responsive course evaluations: Reference sheet", in "Gender-responsive evaluation in military education – 4th workshop on teaching gender to the military, Geneva, 21–24 July 2014, after action report", www.dcaf.ch/Event/Gender-Responsive-Evaluation-in-Military-Education-4th-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military.

This two-page reference sheet was developed by DCAF and improved based on the comments of military, gender and education experts of the PfPC Security Sector Reform and Education Development Working Groups. It consists of a brief introduction followed by a checklist to the different aspects presented in Section 3 of this chapter.

Notes

1. The author would like to thank Miriam Fugfugosh and Christopher Kilmartin for providing written comments on this chapter.
2. This chapter draws upon "Gender-responsive course evaluations: Reference sheet", which was developed by the NATO PfPC Security Sector Reform Working Group at its "Gender-responsive evaluation in military education – 4th workshop on teaching gender to the military", Geneva, 21–24 July 2014. The reference sheet is contained in an annex of the after-action report, www.dcaf.ch/Event/Gender-Responsive-Evaluation-in-Military-Education-4th-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military.
3. Chris Haywood and Mairtin Mac an Ghaill, *Education and Masculinities: Social, Cultural and Global Transformations* (Abingdon: Routledge, 2013), pp. 17–19.
4. Gunilla Burrowes, "Gender dynamics in an engineering classroom: Engineering students' perspectives", MPhil thesis, University of Newcastle, NSW, 2001, p. 31.
5. Lynn Weber Cannon, "Fostering positive race, class, and gender dynamics in the classroom", *Women's Studies Quarterly*, Vol. 18, Nos 1/2 (1990), p. 128.
6. Christopher Kilmartin, "Explorations in phenomenology", *Society for the Psychological Study of Men and Masculinity Bulletin*, Spring 2005, www.apa.org/divisions/div51/Newsletter/Spring05bulletin.html.
7. Kyungah Jung and Haesook Chung, *Gender Equality in Classroom Instruction: Introducing Gender Training for Teachers in the Republic of Korea* (Bangkok: UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education, 2006), p. 5.
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Lesson plans: Backward design and active learning in teaching gender

Virpi Levomaa (Finland), Iryna Lysyckina (Ukraine) and Andreas Hildenbrand (Germany)¹

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1. Introduction

Planning is an essential part of teaching and learning. Experience shows that a planned lesson makes for more effective learning, so every instructor needs to plan her/his lessons. A backward design approach for lesson planning has proved to be effective. It starts with setting the learning outcomes, and pairs those with assessment tools and appropriate learning activities.

Planning is especially important in the context of teaching gender, given that the topic is often faced with resistance and limited in timeframe. Additionally, a gender perspective should be used in a wide variety of tasks. Thus when planning education and training for gender, one should keep in mind that the training must be interactive while using the expertise the learners already have and encouraging them to use a gender perspective in that expertise.

Lesson plans help to maintain focus and follow a logical lesson structure, and support keeping track of the work. Moreover, a lesson plan is an indispensable tool for self-reflection and evaluation, allowing analysis of the learning process and improvement of the curriculum. The greatest effect is gained if a gender perspective is included into curricula in the earliest forms of training and education, and mainstreamed throughout courses and different lessons at all levels to achieve lifelong learning.

This chapter aims to show the positive impact of backward design on educational planning. It outlines backward design's principles, stages and steps, and gives practical examples of how to compose a lesson plan using the

revised Bloom's taxonomy and active learning methods. The chapter is organized in the form of answering eight questions that may occur in the process of preparing a lesson.

2. What is backward design? Why is it useful?

The most effective approach for lesson planning is "backward design". Backward design starts with the outcome, what the learner should know and be able to do, and then produces the lesson. It works "backwards" to select the right assessment tools, to ensure that learners have actually reached the required learning outcomes and have an opportunity to demonstrate this. Only after that does backward design move to choosing the learning activities and materials that will be applied to make the lesson the most appropriate for the learner. The process is thus very different to more traditional planning, which normally starts with the materials.

Backward design enhances the direct route to learning outcomes, and ensures that learners are learning what they are expected to learn. Backward design ensures that the lesson is focused on the learning outcome rather than the process.

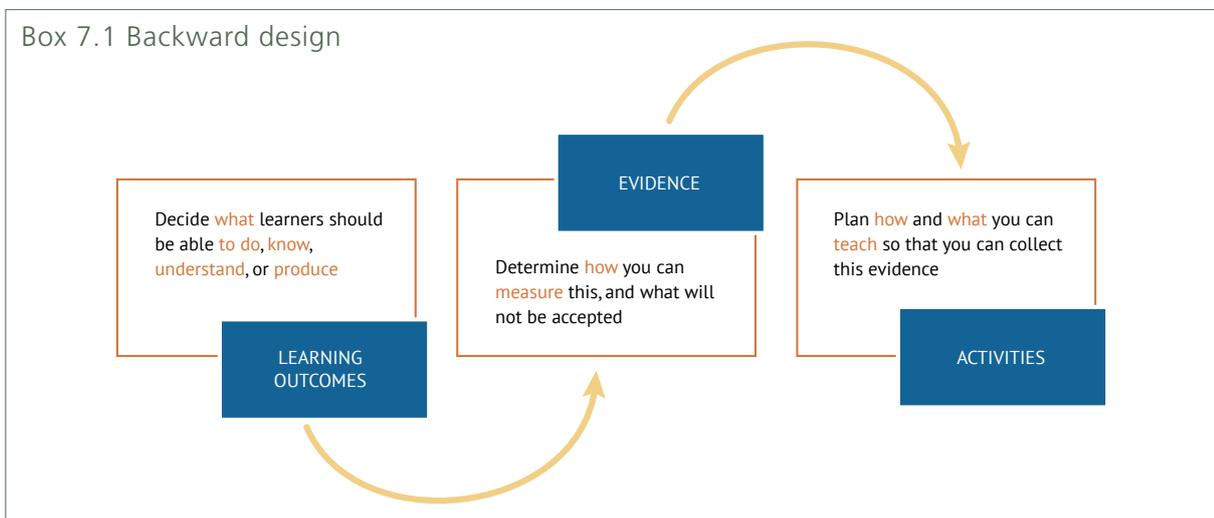
Backward design meets the requirements of adult learning, because it ensures that learners have a clear understanding of what they are doing and why they are doing it, as well as what they are supposed to learn by the end of the lesson. Learners and the instructor get a sense of purpose, which is a motivating factor for many. Backward design helps to make lessons more cohesive and activities more interconnected.

While backward design strategies have a long history in education – going back at least as far as the seminal work of Tyler² in the 1940s – the educators and authors Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe are widely considered to have popularized "backward design" for the modern era in their book *Understanding by Design*.³ Since its publication in the 1990s, *Understanding by Design* has evolved into a series of popular books, videos and other resources.

It is important to point out that in most cases an instructor starts her/his planning with set learning outcomes that can be found in curriculum or course control documents, and the instructor's task is only to break those outcomes into smaller and more detailed steps towards the final learning outcomes. Training requirement and training needs analyses are important steps in setting learning outcomes for gender curricula and course control documents. In NATO these processes are led by the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations as department head for all gender-related curricula.

3. What are the stages of backward design?

These are three main stages of backward design (Box 7.1).



Stage 1: Learning outcomes. The instructor begins by reviewing the learning outcomes based on the curriculum or course control documents, and breaks those final learning outcomes into smaller outcomes. In gender-related curriculum and course control documents, knowledge, skills and competence that the learners need to learn are mapped in accordance with the revised Bloom's taxonomy (discussed later). In some cases these required learning outcomes do not yet exist, and therefore some basic principles of setting learning outcomes are addressed at the end of this chapter.

For example, in a lesson on "gender perspectives in military operations", the set learning outcome could be: "By the end of the lesson learners will be able to explain what it means to integrate a gender perspective in their day-to-day work."

Stage 2: Evidence of learning. The second stage of backward design is when the instructor determines how to measure the accomplishment of the learning outcomes. The instructor chooses assessment tools that match the learning outcomes (see Chapter 8 on assessment) and measures whether and to what degree learners have achieved those required outcomes. Appropriate assessment tools and required standards are linked to the earlier mapping of knowledge, skills and competence that the learners need to learn, and can be found in gender-related curriculum documents.

For the previous example, where the learning outcome was "learners will be able to explain what it means to integrate a gender perspective in their day-to-day work", the appropriate assessment strategy could be to get evidence of the outcome being achieved by discussion: "Why do we need to integrate a gender perspective into our day-to-day work...?" The instructor facilitates the discussion and observes how learners are responding to the question and debate.

Stage 3: Learning activities. In the final stage the instructor decides what activities are needed for learners to achieve the required learning outcome. S/he also plans what and how to teach to be able to collect the necessary evidence. This is when the instructor identifies appropriate learning methods and chooses or develops activities to be used in the classroom.

In our example debate on "Why do we need to integrate a gender perspective into our day-to-day work?", discussion is both an assessment tool and the learning method, because the instructor will be observing the learners' discussion flow, interaction, etc., while the learners will learn more on the topic and develop their knowledge and skills.

4. How does one set good learning outcomes?

A learning outcome is a statement in specific and measurable terms that describes what the learner should know or be able to do as a result of engaging in a learning activity.

Good learning outcomes are:

- focused on the learner – they do not explain what the instructor will do in the lesson/course, but describe knowledge or skills that the learners will acquire;
- designed to help learners to understand why that knowledge and those skills are useful and valuable to their personal and professional future;
- specific and realistic, as they set the standard all passing learners should be able to demonstrate by the end of the lesson;
- measurable and linked with useful modes of assessment – they indicate the specific elements to be assessed;
- designed with a timeline for their completion.

The number of learning outcomes set for a lesson differs and depends on a number of factors like time and audience, but normally two or three outcomes are optimum.

By reviewing learning outcomes set in the curriculum, instructors can better align lesson learning outcomes with the curriculum, intended course learning outcomes and overall requirements for gender education/training.

Box 7.2 Learning outcomes should be SMART (TT)⁴

Speak to the learner. Learning outcomes should address what the learner will know or be able to do at the completion of the course.

Measurable. Learning outcomes must indicate how learning will be assessed.

Applicable. Learning outcomes should emphasize the ways in which the learner is likely to use the knowledge or skills gained.

Realistic. All learners who complete the activity or course satisfactorily should be able to demonstrate the knowledge or skills addressed in the outcome.

Time-bound. The learning outcome should set a deadline by which the knowledge or skills should be acquired.

Transparent. Learning outcomes should be easily understood by the learner.

Transferable. Learning outcomes should address knowledge and skills that will be used by the learner in a wide variety of contexts.

In our example the learning outcome was “learners will be able to explain what it means to integrate a gender perspective into their day-to-day work”. That outcome could be divided into more detailed ones, like “learners will be able to explain what a gender perspective means”; “learners will be able to list situations in their day-to-day work where a gender perspective should be used”; and “learners will be able to explain how to apply a gender perspective in realistic situations of patrolling and engagement with the local population”.

5. How does one get evidence of learning?

Good learning outcomes give direct guidance on how to get evidence of learning. For example, if the outcome states that learners should be able to give gender definitions, the assessment could be as simple as an instructor asking the learners to give those definitions. On the other hand, if the learning outcome states that learners should be able to use a gender perspective in engagement with the local population in a culturally sensitive manner, the evidence could be collected during a scenario-based practical role-play exercise where learners need to use gender perspectives in different engagement situations in order to be able to undertake their tasks successfully.

The instructor collects evidence of learning using assessment tools. S/he selects suitable assessment strategies and tools by deciding what is the best way of measuring the learners’ accomplishment of the learning outcomes. Every learning outcome must be assessed, giving learners the opportunity to demonstrate what they are required to know and do. Chapter 8 of this handbook gives a description of assessment strategies and tools.

Box 7.3 Example of assessment of learning outcomes

Extract from gender analysis session (5 x 45 minutes) in “Gender Field Adviser” course conducted by the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations.

Session learning outcomes

By the end of the lesson the learners will be able to:

- conduct a gender analysis;
- use sex-disaggregated data;
- adapt gender analysis to fit the task at hand.

Assessment – Case study in syndicates

Using a matrix with factors to conduct gender analysis and gather information based on the Atlantica scenario⁵.

Tasks

- Study the Atlantica scenario and fill in the “Men/boys” and “Women/girls” columns in the gender analysis matrix.
- Conduct gender analysis and fill in factor/deduction/conclusion/request for information (RFI).

Each syndicate will get a set of factors to analyse in a matrix in a Word document. The outcome of the case study will be filled into the matrix.

The aim of the case study is to provide learners with the opportunity to do the following:

- Make practical use of the gender analysis tool;
- Use and analyse information and data with a gender perspective;
- Consider and analyse (process) different factors relevant to the gender analysis and a particular aim;
- Elaborate factors suitable to fit their aim and their way of thinking;
- Explore gender dimensions in society and analyse beyond the information given to them;
- Consider and formulate the different outputs possible from a gender analysis: RFI, conclusion and recommendation;
- Figure out how to fit the gender analysis to the needs of that particular level and point in the planning process;
- Prepare to present the gender analysis to a certain target audience depending on the situation;
- Present a gender analysis according to a given format;
- Discuss gender analysis in a group setting;
- Learn and understand how their colleagues in other syndicates have thought;
- Reassess and remain critical of their own gender analysis;
- Understand how their use of a common tool will benefit their interactions with each other and other gender advisers.

The minimum standards for the gender analysis each syndicate needs to produce are as follows.

- Extract correct information segregated into men/boys and women/girls from scenario material (minimum one fact per syndicate);
- Extract correct information guided by specific factors (minimum one factor per syndicate);
- Draw right conclusions from the extracted information that would be relevant to a military mission (minimum one conclusion per syndicate);
- Detect if there is any missing information that is needed for the gender analysis.

6. What active learning methods can be used in teaching gender in the military?

The choice of learning methods and instructional strategies is significant for the success of the lesson. Learning methods are aligned with the learning outcomes and assessment tools. For instance, if the learning outcome is that “learners should be able to explain what it means to integrate a gender perspective in their day-to-day work within a taskforce”, the learning methods should be those that provide learners with opportunities to practise how to use gender perspectives in their actual taskforce activities. The learning methods’ choice is defined not only by the learning outcomes but also the audience’s size, level and motivation, as well as the timeframe, room setting and technologies available.

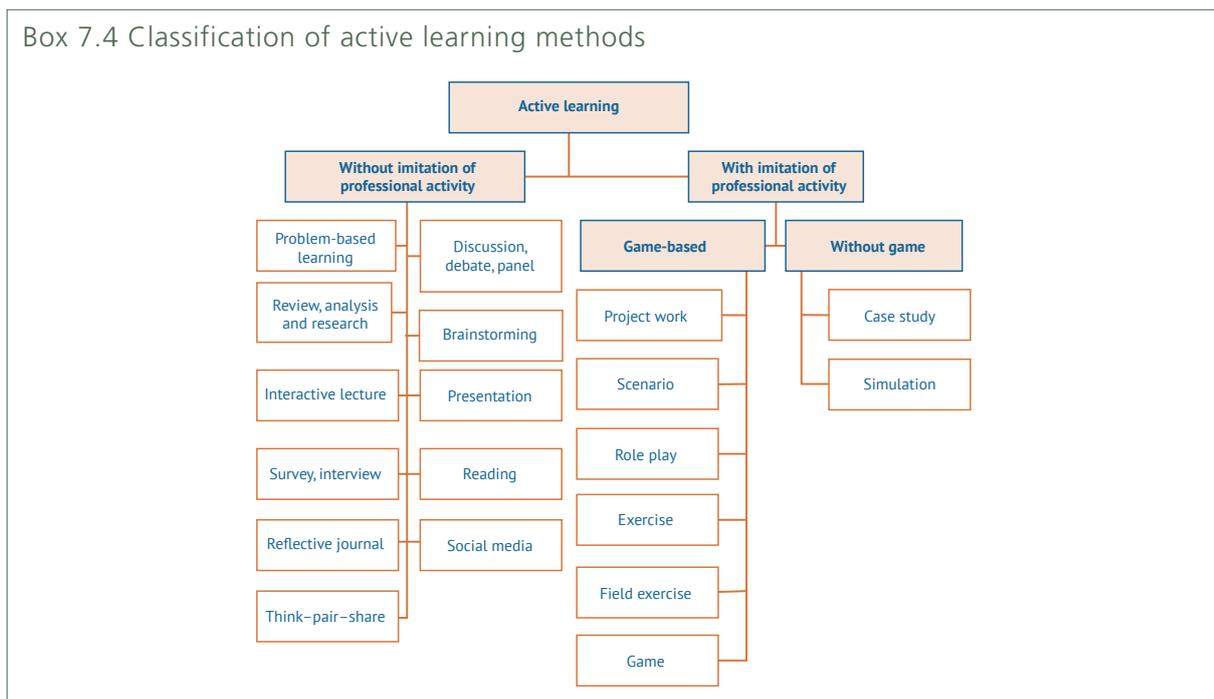
The direct instruction strategy is highly instructor-controlled and is among the most commonly used. This strategy is effective for providing information or developing step-by-step skills. It also works well for introducing other learning methods, or actively involving learners in knowledge construction. Examples include:

- lectures;
- compare and contrast exercises;
- demonstrations;
- guided and shared reading, listening, viewing and thinking.

Interactive instruction relies heavily on discussion and sharing among learners. It corresponds to active learning and transformative learning approaches, and is believed to be more efficient in adult learning. Learners can learn from peers and instructors to develop social skills and abilities, to organize their thoughts and to develop rational arguments. The success of the interactive instruction strategy and its many methods are heavily dependent upon the expertise of the instructor in structuring and developing the dynamics of the group. Examples include:

- debates and discussions;
- brainstorming;
- think-pair-share exercises;
- problem solving.

The numerous active learning methods and strategies can be grouped in different ways, for example as shown in Box 7.4.



In this section we discuss a few active learning methods that could be used in teaching gender in the military. DCAF's gender and security sector reform (SSR) training website is a very valuable source of interesting active learning methods and activities successfully used in a number of countries for different target audiences.⁶

Debate. Holding structured debates in the lesson can be a great way not only to explore the topic, but also to foster cooperation and team building among the learners.

There are five steps to holding a debate.

1. Introduce the topic clearly and concisely so the learners understand the issue and the conflict.
2. Assign each learner to take either the pro or the contra position (or allow them to self-select their positions).
3. Allow time for outside research.
4. When holding the debate, managing the clock is crucial. Do not allow a few voices to dominate the debate.
5. Make a judgement (either unilaterally as the instructor, or as a whole class).

If you want to make the debate very formal, it is important to ensure that the learners understand the rules. Passing out the rules typed in advance will hold everyone accountable, including instructors.

Box 7.5 Example of debate topics

Gender: operational effect or political soft talk?

Women make better military officers; men make better soldiers.

Should women be allowed to serve in frontline combat positions?

We need quotas to increase the number of women in certain positions.

Corners. Place a flipchart in each corner of the room. On each flipchart, write a question to ponder or a provocative statement challenging conventional wisdom. Groups of three to six people move from corner to corner and discuss the answer(s) to each question. The groups develop a consensus and write their answers directly on each flipchart. When a flipchart has an answer already written by a previous group, the next group revises/expands/illustrates that response with additional information, if possible. Different-coloured markers can be used to see what each group wrote. Close the session by discussing each flipchart in turn as a class.

Remember that questions are not ends in themselves. The ultimate purpose of asking your learners questions is for them to develop better answers. Though all thoughtful learner responses are valued, not all are created equal and some will clearly be better than others. The instructor has a responsibility to make these distinctions clear during the course of instruction.

Box 7.6 Example of corners statements

Statements and brainteasers used in sessions on gender and SSR given by DCAF.

- Women live an average of 4.5 years longer than men. Why?
- In 2012, of the landmine/unexploded ordinance casualties whose sex is known, 13 per cent were female and 87 per cent were male. Why are so many of the victims men and boys?
- In the UK, women are more likely to be killed by a member of their family or someone they know than by a stranger. Why?

These statements will provoke discussion and highlight that gender dynamics are manifested in surprising ways: gender roles have a significant impact on the security needs of men, women, girls and boys; and analysing gender roles and dynamics is key to developing a full understanding of the situation and designing interventions.

KWL chart. When presenting new content, it is important to get your learners primed for the lesson. The KWL chart is a great tool to help you prepare the class for new material, but it can also be useful in documenting any gaps still remaining. KWL stands for what do you *know*, what do you *want* to know, and what did you *learn*. The technique is simple. At the start of a new topic, create a chart (right) on the board.

K	W	L

Next, ask your learners to tell you what they already know about the upcoming topic and what they want to know. You, or a helper, will act as a scribe and fill in the chart. At the end of the session, revisit the chart and fill out the last column. Did you cover all that you wanted, and did the learners learn what they wanted to know?

Box 7.7 Example of a KWL for a gender lesson for military planners

What do you already *know* = what a gender perspective means. A gender perspective is the ability to detect when men, women, boys and girls might be differently affected by a military activity due to their gender.

What do you *want* to know = how to use a gender perspective in my work as an operation planner.

What did you *learn* = a gender perspective needs to be included and implemented from the very start of the planning process; using a gender analysis will improve our situational awareness and therefore our ability to conduct more effective operations.

The KWL chart can be especially helpful if used before a plenary session. With the quick pace of courses, giving the learners a moment to reflect on a topic beforehand and think about what they want to come away with is vital.

Think-pair-share. Another useful technique to stimulate discussion and critical thinking is the “think-pair-share” approach. Learners are asked to take a moment and think about the question suggested. Then each learner turns to his/her neighbour to discuss how and why their answers are similar or different.

After giving the learners a few minutes for discussion, you reconvene the lesson and compare the results among the group as a whole. For this technique to work smoothly, you may need to make some temporary tweaks to your classroom seating so that language difficulties do not complicate matters. The technique can be particularly effective early in a course since it can also function as an icebreaker.

Box 7.8 Example of questions to use for think–pair–share

Target audience: military planners at strategic or operational level.

Learning outcome: learners will know the key areas for integration of a gender perspective in the operational planning process.

Ask learners to take a moment and think about “Why do we need to integrate a gender perspective into our military operations planning?” After a short while ask learners to turn to their neighbour and discuss how and why their reasons were similar or different. Then compare the results with the whole class.

You can continue with the same think–pair–share exercise with the question “What information and data are required in order to use a gender perspective in our planning?”

After these think–pair–share discussions, explain what are the key areas for integration of a gender perspective in all branches and special staff, and give practical examples on why a gender perspective needs to be included and implemented from the very start of the planning process.

Advance distributed learning. When teaching gender to different target audiences, it can help to use pre-existing advanced distributed learning (ADL) courses as a start. It is a great way to ensure that all the learners have at least the same minimum level of knowledge to start with. Chapter 9 in this handbook gives more ideas and tips on how to use modern technologies in teaching gender in the military.

Box 7.9 ADL and discussion example from NATO gender education and training package⁷

After learners have completed the ADL 169 course, you can start the discussion by asking the class what they associate with “Men, war and conflict” and “Women, war and conflict”. Present slides displaying these two phrases, and ask for their thoughts. Encourage learners to “shout out” the first thing that comes to mind when they see the slide. You might want to have a marker/paper or chalkboard ready to write down some of the audience’s responses. You might also consider breaking them up into groups to discuss the two slides and then report back to the plenary.

You will most likely find that many of the responses you receive from the audience generalize women as victims. This highlights our own biased point of view of women’s roles in conflict. These stereotypes have a real possibility of hampering an operation or mission should they persist. Men and women experience conflict and post-conflict in different ways and can face different kinds of security threats, possibly in different contexts. This can affect their needs for security provided by the international community/military. It should also be noted that during times of conflict, social structures are generally torn apart and thrown into confusion. The community is in crisis and basic survival is the prerequisite. Gender roles most likely change, and women may take on new responsibilities. Often we unintentionally stereotype the roles of men and women in a society. We often think that women are only victims in war and conflict. Unfortunately women and children are among the most vulnerable in war and conflict, but they are not only victims: they are also important actors and can be powerful agents. It can be useful to include pictures or examples of your specific mission area or area of interest.

The main purpose of this question is make the audience start thinking about how they view gender roles, and confront them with the stereotypes they may have. It will make them aware of possible misperceptions about gender, and how these might affect their actions in a military operation.

Teaching gender requires you to use learner-centred active learning methods. Only active learning leads to gender transformative education. Possible active learning methods include group work, discussions, case studies, scenarios, etc., and should encourage the equal participation of women and men. Learning methods should address both cognitive and affective domains, as defined in the revised Bloom's taxonomy.

Box 7.10 Line exercise – What is gender?⁸

This activity provides a good start to a training session by serving as an energizer as well as a non-threatening and engaging introduction to the concept of gender.

After completing this exercise, learners will be able to understand the meaning of gender and how it relates to security issues and Security Sector Reform (SSR).

Before the training starts, place a very long straight line of masking tape on the floor. In the introduction to the training, warn trainees that this will be a highly interactive session. Then explain the exercise, stating that they may have noticed the masking tape on the floor and you are going to ask them all to stand up and position themselves somewhere on the line according to how much they know about gender. It often helps to model. For example, stand on one end and say something like, "if you work on gender-related topics on a daily basis stand at this end"; then move to the middle and say, "if you can use gender in a sentence stand in the middle"; and finally to the other end and say, "if you are not even sure how to spell gender stand here". Then invite people to position themselves on the line. Once they have settled, ask if they are comfortable with where they are standing on the line. Perhaps comment on the distribution of people along the line. Then facilitate a discussion on gender. It can be useful to direct different questions to the different groups (gender experts, middle, gender non-experts). For instance, start in the centre and, showing the middle group with your hands, ask them, "Who can tell me what gender means?" Then ask the "experts" if they have anything to add to the definition. Then move to the "non-experts" and ask them if they think the definitions given were clear or if they have any additional questions.

Questions to ask include the following.

- What is gender?
- What is the difference between gender and sex?
- Is gender only about women?
- Why is gender important to SSR?
- Are gender and SSR only about female recruitment?
- What are the specific security needs that men might have?
- What are the specific security needs that women might have?
- Do women and men have equal access to justice?

Key issues to emphasize/ensure they come up in the discussion:

- gender is about men, women, girls and boys;
- gender roles are culturally/socially constructed;
- gender roles change – especially over time and within different cultures;
- women and men have different security needs (have examples on hand).

Box 7.11 Tips for using effective learning methods and strategies in teaching gender⁹

- ✓ While the message that is being taught should always be consistent, the learning methods have to be adapted according to the audience and context.
- ✓ Use a good mix of learning methods to create an engaging learning environment.
- ✓ Use active learning methods and interactive sessions to draw from the different experiences and perspectives in the room in order to overcome resistance to the integration of a gender perspective.
- ✓ Tailor all gender training to the relevant context and use context-specific scenarios.
- ✓ Highlight the benefits of integrating a gender perspective and make teaching practical: let the learners know how they can put what they have learned into practice.
- ✓ Use argument development exercises to articulate and counteract stereotypes.
- ✓ Use role plays so that learners may experience differences in views and perceptions.

7. What is a lesson plan?

A lesson plan is a document that reflects a clear vision and structure of the lesson, and is a tool used for conducting a lesson and revising it afterwards to improve the learning process. It documents both planning and conduct of the lesson. A lesson plan is the most important planning tool for an instructor: a detailed work plan of how one lesson will be carried out, forming the instructor's guide for running a particular lesson. A lesson plan can also be described as a roadmap, because it tells the instructor what learners need to learn and how it can be conveyed most effectively.

A well-written lesson plan is a great quality assurance tool for an educational facility, because it standardizes and describes activities and creates common knowledge of best practices. With a topic like gender it is very common to share materials, and a well-implemented lesson plan will make this sharing easier. A lesson plan within a set format with appropriate educational materials can not only guide the instructor/course developer but also benefit a colleague training the same or a similar topic.

A lesson plan in backward design documents how learning outcomes will be reached, and how the achievement will be measured and assessed. But it also explains what learning activities can be used to help learners to achieve the required learning outcomes.

Box 7.12 Information in the lesson plan

The lesson plan includes the following information.

- Background information
 - Title of the lesson
 - Target audience and/or training audience
 - Time/duration
 - Lesson scope
- Learning outcomes and standards
- Evidence
 - Assessment (including assessment tools, assessment and evaluation plan)
- Activities
 - Instructional strategy and methods
 - Lesson schedule
 - timings
 - topics
 - strategy/method
 - outcomes/standards
 - assessments
 - content guidance
 - resources
 - faculty

8. How does one compose and use a lesson plan?

Step 1. Start by reviewing the course learning outcomes given in the curriculum, and align the lesson learning outcomes with them. Remember that good learning outcomes are measurable and specific, focused on the learner, realistic and linked to assessment.

You can ask questions like “What will a learner be able to know and do after this lesson?”

Example: By the end of the lesson the learners will be able to apply terms and definitions related to gender in professional discourse, and use them in the right context and situation.

Step 2. (optional). Set performance standards based on the learning outcomes. These standards can normally be found in NATO’s gender curricula. Standards specify requirements concerning how well and under what conditions learners need to be able to do the tasks, and describe the minimum level of performance. The revised Bloom’s taxonomy can be used as a tool when writing learning outcomes and standards.

You can ask questions like “How well is s/he supposed to be able to do it? What is the required standard? What is the minimum acceptable performance level?”

Example: With given references, learners will be able to apply terms and definitions related to gender (sex versus gender, gender perspective, gender mainstreaming) and use these in the right context and situation. Learners will be able to quote and give definitions of the terminology.

Step 3. Suggest assessment tools and define the type and timing of the assessment. Decide what kind of evidence you need and how you are going to collect it. Decide also what kind of assessment tools you are going to use and when you will use them. Make an overall assessment plan.

You can ask questions like “How and when will learners be able to demonstrate that they know and can do what they are supposed to be able to know and do? How is the instructor going to make sure that learners have reached the required standards? What assessment tools should the instructor use? What check-up questions will the instructor ask, and when? Is the instructor using diagnostic, formative and/or summative assessment? How will this lesson be evaluated? How does the instructor collect feedback?”

Example: Ask questions and observe. Start the lesson by asking the class “What is gender? What is it not?”

Step 4. Decide what learning methods will support the learning process in the best possible way. Decide what learning strategies the instructor is going to use, and when s/he will use them.

Step 5. Document your backward design process by linking learning outcomes to assessment tools and learning strategies and methods (see Box 7.13).

Box 7.13 Documentation of backward process and an assessment plan

Learning outcomes	Evidence of learning		Learning activities
Learning outcomes and required standards	Assessment tools	Type and timing of assessments	Strategies and methods
<p>Write down learning outcomes.</p> <p>Write down standards: how well/under what conditions learners need to be able to do required outcome.</p> <p>This should have a direct link to the curriculum as well as to the needs analysis.</p>	<p>How are you going to assess that the required learning outcome and standard have been met?</p> <p>What kind of assessment tools are you going to use?</p>	<p>Write here all the "assessments" you are going to use (for example, write down the exact question you are going to ask).</p> <p>Write down when you are going to ask this question.</p>	<p>Write down what learning strategies you as an instructor are using to help learners to achieve required learning outcomes and standards.</p>
<p>By the end of the lesson the learners should be able to define and explain the meaning of the terms gender and sex with support from reference material.</p>	<p>Diagnostic assessment to begin the lesson – to check the starting level of knowledge.</p> <p>Formative assessment during the lesson using questioning techniques (asking questions and observing).</p> <p>Summative assessment at the end of the course, when learners' capability to use definitions in the right way in the right context with the support of reference materials will be tested.</p>	<p>Start the lesson by asking the difference between sex and gender. Instruct learners on think–pair–share: to use one minute to think about the question themselves, then use two to five minutes to talk with their neighbour. After that ask pairs to share their definitions with the rest of the class.</p> <p>At the end of the lesson ask learners to explain in their own words what is the key essence of the gender definitions used by the UN and NATO.</p>	<p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • think–pair–share • discussion.

Step 6. Plan learning experiences and instruction, and write a detailed schedule for the lesson. Decide how much time is needed for each subtopic and learning outcome using the chosen learning strategy and method. Under the column "Related assessment" (see Box 7.14) you can write how you are going to assess learning outcomes, and what assessment tools, questions and tasks you are using to collect evidence of learning. Under "Content guidance" document the most important key message that needs to be learned during that part of the lesson. "Content resources" is for documenting useful materials (or ideas for materials) to use during the lesson. The last column notes who has the main responsibility for the activities: it could be the instructor, facilitator, syndicate leader, or even learners themselves.

Box 7.14 Example of one topic as a part of a lesson schedule

Time	Topic	Strategy/ method	Related outcome(s) and standards	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content resources	Faculty
15 mins	NATO Bi-SC Directive 40-1. ¹⁰	Discussion (interactive instruction). Presentation (direct instruction).	By the end of the lesson the learners should be able to explain the content of NATO Bi-SC Directive 40-1 with reference material.	Ask the class: “Can you identify which directives guide national armed forces in deployment readiness on a gender perspective?” Ask in which directive can one find direction and guidance on integrating a gender perspective in NATO operations and missions. Explain NATO Bi- SC Directive 40-1. Give practical examples.	Bi-SC Directive 40-1 provides a strategy for recognizing the need to protect the entire society with specific concern for the security risks and experiences of men, women, boys and girls. UNSCR 1325 ¹¹ is implemented in NATO’s command structure through Bi-SC Directive 40-1.	PowerPoint. See slides 21–33. NATO Bi-SC Directive 40-1.	Instructor.

Step 7. Fill in other necessary information. This might cover a “plan B” for how to handle resistance if it occurs; issues to take into consideration; prerequisites for the instructor; a list of equipment that is needed; supplemental materials and useful references; and guidance on how to prepare for the lesson.

If your lesson plan is going to be a model plan used by several instructors, it should be detailed and provide clear guidance to each instructor. Model lesson plans are a great way to document best practices, share knowledge and experience, and ensure quality. It is important to note that every instructor always has to modify and rewrite the model lesson plan.

9. What is the revised Bloom’s taxonomy? How is it used in planning the lesson?

The revised Bloom’s taxonomy is a great tool to use while writing lesson plans, especially when setting learning outcomes and making an assessment plan. It is a framework for educators and instructors to use to focus on higher-order thinking. As a hierarchy of levels, this taxonomy assists course developers and instructors in defining learning outcomes, choosing appropriate activities and assessment tools, and providing feedback on learners’ work.

Box 7.15 Origins of Bloom's taxonomy

Bloom's taxonomy was originally published¹² in 1956 by a team of cognitive psychologists at the University of Chicago. It is named after the committee's chairman, Benjamin Bloom (1913–1999). The group sought to design a logical framework for teaching and learning goals that would help researchers and educators understand the fundamental ways in which people acquire and develop new knowledge, skills and competencies.

In 2001 another team of scholars – led by Lorin Anderson, a former student of Bloom's, and David Krathwohl, one of Bloom's colleagues who served on the academic team that developed the original taxonomy – released a revised version.¹³ The "revised Bloom's taxonomy", as it is commonly called, was intentionally designed to be more useful to educators and reflect the common ways in which it had come to be used in schools.

Bloom's taxonomy divides the way people learn into three domains: cognitive, psycho-motor and affective. The cognitive domain is linked with knowledge and thinking; the psycho-motor domain concerns physical skills; and the affective domain relates to attitudes and values. The affective domain is described in Chapter 5.

The cognitive domain emphasizes intellectual outcomes, and is further divided into six categories or levels. According to the revised Bloom's taxonomy, these levels are remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating and creating – the highest level (Box 7.16).

Box 7.16 Revised Bloom's taxonomy levels with verbs



The aim of the instructor is to move learners up the levels of the taxonomy. It is important especially in the context of teaching gender that learners become critical thinkers. Building on knowledge (the remembering level) and helping learners proceed to applying, analysing, evaluating and creating are key to success in the learning process. Higher levels of thinking require more active learning in the classroom, which is more time-consuming but more effective, especially in the context of transformative learning and teaching gender (described in Chapter 5).

Box 7.17 Example of learning outcomes at different levels of Bloom's revised taxonomy

Based on the revised Bloom's taxonomy, learning outcomes for a class on gender could be that by the end of the lesson the learners will be able to do the following.

1. Remember: repeat key definitions on gender.
2. Understand: explain how violent conflict can affect men, women, girls and boys differently.
3. Apply: use a gender perspective in engagement with the local population in a culturally sensitive manner.
4. Analyse: differentiate the security threats for men, women, boys and girls in the specific area.
5. Evaluate: hypothecate female voter turnout at elections from previous years' turnouts to assess the success of security provision for women.
6. Create: produce concepts for assessing, evaluating and reporting the effectiveness of integration of a gender perspective and performed activities.

To sum up, we link learning outcomes (with reference to the revised Bloom's taxonomy levels), assessment tools and recommended learning methods in a matrix (Box 7.18).

Box 7.18 Link between revised Bloom's taxonomy, learning outcomes, assessment tools and learning activities

Stage 1: Learning outcomes			Stage 2: Evidence	Stage 3: Learning activities
Taxonomy level	Description	Examples of learning outcomes	Possible assessment tools	Possible learning strategies and methods
Creating	Creating a new meaning or structure. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design, construct, plan, produce, invent 	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to produce concepts for assessing, evaluating and reporting the effectiveness of integration of a gender perspective and performed activities.	Original papers, projects, productions	Discussion, collaboration Project Problem-based learning Creative exercises

Evaluating	The act of judging. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appraise, critique, hypothecate, select, check, experiment, judge 	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to hypothecate female voter turnout at elections from previous years' turnouts to assess the success of security provision for women.	Appraisals, recommendations	Discussion, collaboration Project-based learning Simulations, case studies, evaluative exercises
Analysing	Breaking down material into parts. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compare, contrast, differentiate, organize, deconstruct, interrogate, classify, relate 	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to differentiate the security threats for men, women, boys and girls in the specific area.	Papers, essay tests, projects	Discussion, debate, collaboration Case studies, simulations, exercises Problem-based learning
Applying	Applying information to produce some result. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Implement, carry out, use, execute, solve problems 	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to use a gender perspective in engagement with the local population in a culturally sensitive manner.	Projects, performance, presentations	Practice, practice, practice Discussion, collaboration Simulations, exercise, games
Understanding	Grasping the meaning of material. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interpret, summarize, paraphrase, classify, explain, identify 	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to explain how violent conflict can affect men, women, girls and boys differently.	Writing, presentations, objective or essay tests	Lecture, reading, audio/visual Courseware (educational material kits), examples Discussion, dialogue, role playing
Remembering	Recalling basic information. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognize, list, describe, retrieve, name, find, recall, repeat 	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to repeat key definitions on gender.	Testing, instructor's questions	Lecture, reading, audio/visual Mnemonics, repetition, drill Simple courseware, demonstration, guided observations

We also want to share an example of a lesson schedule where gender mainstreaming has been integrated into the topic of quick-impact projects (QIPs; Box 7.19).

Box 7.19 Example of lesson schedule where gender mainstreaming has been integrated into the topic of QIPs

Lesson schedule: QIP lesson for military peacekeepers							
Time	Topic	Learning strategy/ method	Related learning outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content resources	Faculty
		<i>Strategies and methods</i> Lecture, reading, audio/ visual Courseware, examples Discussion, dialogue, role play	<i>Taxonomy level</i> UNDERSTANDING <i>Description</i> Grasping the meaning of material. Verbs to use: interpret, summarize, paraphrase, classify, explain, identify	<i>Assessment tools</i> Writing, presentations, objective or essay tests			
10 mins	Introduction, motivation, learning outcome	Presentation/lecture (direct instruction) Remark: The method is lecture with audio-visual aid (video clip).	Learners will be able to understand the aim of the lecture.	Explain the scope of lesson. Introduce military peacekeepers to the concept of gender mainstreaming and how it can be implemented in areas such as QIPs. Explain what gender mainstreaming is and give examples of how it improves performance.	Learning outcome and agenda. QIPs are an essential part of contemporary operations taking place among the local community. Gender mainstreaming is a better way of designing plans and responding to situations, as it creates a more inclusive solution which benefits more people than previously.	PowerPoint YouTube clip https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ud\$JbbGwVEg	Instructor
50 mins	QIP	Discussion (interactive instruction) Short scenario exercise	Learners will be able to explain what a QIP is. Learners will be able to explain how a QIP supports the commander's plan to establish a safe and secure environment. Learners will be able to identify appropriate QIPs. Remark: The taxonomy level is <i>understanding</i> and the verbs used are <i>explain</i> and <i>identify</i> .	Introduce military peacekeepers to the concept of QIPs, to understand how to design a QIP and who to include in the discussion and planning phase. Ask class what is a QIP? Explain QIPs and why learners need to understand what a QIP is. Ask class how QIPs contribute to securing a safe environment? Explain how QIPs contribute to security and give practical examples. Ask class what sort of projects would be good QIP? Give practical examples. Conduct a short scenario exercise which will force learners to think about women and men in a broader context. Remark: This learning activity is in line with methods recommended for one level higher in the taxonomy: applying – exercise.	If military operations are gender-blind they will not promote an enduring and sustainable peace, as half of the population will not have been considered. Good projects for a QIP are e.g. washing machines installed in a local hospital, compared to building a clinic which will require trained people and is more of a long-term project.	PowerPoint J1–19 Functions handouts	Instructor

30 mins	Factors	Discussion (interactive instruction)	<p>Learners will be able to identify who from the local community to include in the planning process.</p> <p>Learners will be able to explain why it is important to speak to women as well as men when planning QIPs.</p>	<p>Ask learners to prepare a short presentation/ answers to the following scenarios (this can be individual or a small group task).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You are an intelligence analyst in South Sudan and have been tasked to improve the collection of information. At the moment only male soldiers are patrolling – what can you do and who could you talk to in order to enhance the forces' situational awareness? You are a company commander in an operating base in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Boys and girls have arrived at your base asking for help, as they are child soldiers who have escaped from the Lord's Resistance Army. The Ministry of Defence has asked you to look at G1 matters and employ a gender perspective in all G1 areas. You are chief G5 and have been asked to plan the construction of an internally displaced persons camp in the Central African Republic. How can you gender mainstream this project? <p>Ask learners to present their answers. Discuss the answers with the rest of the class.</p>		PowerPoint	Instructor
15 mins	Summary	Discussion (interactive instruction)	Motivate learners to integrate a gender perspective in their QIPs.	<p>Ask class how do you ensure the project is appropriate and relevant to the local population? and the planning.</p> <p>Continue asking who to include in the discussion and who to engage with, and give practical examples.</p> <p>Point out benefits of using servicewomen on patrols to local villages – they can talk to men and women.</p> <p>Emphasize the importance of taking suggestions from both men and women in the village.</p> <p>Make sure that learners have reached the required learning outcomes.</p>	Gender mainstreaming is cost-efficient and easy to do, but requires a broader view of security.	PowerPoint	Instructor

10. Conclusion

A lesson plan is not a universal remedy that ensures success in every lesson, but rather a tool that an instructor uses to design, develop, conduct and revise a lesson. The lesson's success is defined in terms of the learning outcomes reached. Backward design helps to keep these outcomes in mind at every stage of lesson preparation and conduct.

A lesson plan is an essential element of any learning process, no matter if it takes place in a university classroom, online or during workshops and short courses on gender awareness. Practising backward design, developing comprehensive model lesson plans and using active learning methods will definitely contribute to the success of teaching gender in the military.

11. Annotated bibliography

11.1 Online resources

DCAF gender and SSR training website (see especially "Additional resources" page), www.gsrtraining.ch.

This website contains gender-related educational resources for the security sector developed by DCAF. It also contains links to additional resources developed by other organisations.

DCAF after-action reports on Teaching Gender to the Military Workshops of the PfPC SSR and Education Development Working Groups; see for example, <http://dcaf.ch/Event/Gender-Responsive-Evaluation-in-Military-Education-4th-Workshop-on-Teaching-Gender-to-the-Military>.

These after-action reports contain details of the four workshops held by the PfPC SSRWG on Teaching Gender for the Military as well as the practical resources created at each of the workshops.

NATO Allied Command Transformation gender education and training package for nations (see especially instructor guides), www.act.nato.int/gender-training.

This package of training and education tools was developed by NATO HQ Supreme Allied Command Transformation with the full support of the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations. It is aimed at supporting the increased awareness of the importance of integrating a gender perspective into military operations on the part of NATO Allies and Partners.

European Security and Defence College gender standard curriculum for course on "A comprehensive approach to gender in operations", www.eeas.europa.eu/csdp/structures-instruments-agencies/european-security-defence-college/pdf/standard_cv/esdc_gender_curriculum_feb_2012_en.pdf.

This curriculum was approved by the ESDC Academic Board in February 2012 and then presented to the ESDC Steering Committee for its approval.

11.2 Articles and books

Beattie, M., *Constructing Professional Knowledge in Teaching: A Narrative of Change and Development* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1995).

This book tells the story of a collaboration between an educational consultant and a classroom teacher. The purpose of the study was to gain an understanding of teaching and teacher learning from the teacher's perspective, and understand how the teacher's personal practical knowledge develops through narratives of practice.

Bloom, B. S., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1956).

This book outlines a classification of learning objectives that has come to be known as Bloom's taxonomy, and remains a foundational and essential element within the educational community.

Cole, A. L. and J. G. Knowles, "Teacher development partnership research: A focus on methods and issues", *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 30 (1993), pp. 473–495.

This article focuses on the researcher-teacher relationship in partnership research on teaching. Cole and Knowles conduct partnership research within the interpretive framework, going out into classrooms to observe, participate and talk with teachers about teaching and learning. In this paper they use a matrix to compare the roles and responsibilities of researchers and teachers in traditional research with those in partnership research.

Crawford, A., W. Saul, S. R. Mathews and J. Makinster, *Teaching and Learning Strategies for the Thinking Classroom* (New York: International Debate Education Association, 2005).

This book contains information on active learning, including sections on "Principles of active learning and critical thinking" and "Assessment of critical thinking and active learning".

Wiggins, G. and J. McTighe, *Understanding by Design* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1998).

This book details the basic principles of backward design and discusses the idea of "teaching for understanding", in other words looking at how to move beyond teaching learners to recall facts towards approaches that lead them to develop more practical analytical skills.

Annex: Detailed model lesson plan from NATO Allied Command Transformation gender education and training package for nations

Lesson plan for Module 3 Pre-deployment Lesson 3: Translate the operational impact of gender

Lesson title: Translate the operational impact of gender

Audience (level)

Learners are NATO allies and partners' national armed forces personnel deploying to NATO operations and missions

Time

180 minutes (Pre-deployment Lesson 1 + ADL 169 are prerequisites for this lesson). If you add more exercises or group tasks for the learners, be aware that you might need to add an additional 60 minutes to this lesson.

Lesson learning outcome

By the end of the lesson the learners will be able to do the following.

1. Demonstrate how gender can enhance operational effectiveness.
2. Explain how gender as a core competence will improve decision-making.
3. Explain how a gender-balanced force will improve operational effectiveness.
4. Examine a gender perspective related to security force assistance.
5. Explain how liaison and coordination with external actors, including international organizations (IOs), governmental organizations (GOs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), enhances the sustainability of the operation or mission.

Lesson scope

This basic-level lesson is for NATO allies and partners' national armed forces personnel deploying to NATO operations and missions. It is designed to support national pre-deployment training in implementing a gender perspective in order to be more effective at operations or missions. This lesson will help personnel to understand the operational impact of gender.

Strategy for execution/learning method

Learning outcomes and standards	Assessment		Strategy and method
By the end of the lesson...	Assessment tool	Type and timing of assessment	
<p>Learners will be able to explain what a gender perspective is.</p> <p>Learners will be able to explain that gender is a cross-cutting theme in military tasks.</p> <p>Learners will be able to integrate a gender perspective into the branch or unit's functional responsibility.</p> <p>Learners will be able to enhance operational effectiveness.</p>	Ask questions and observe.	<p>Recall definition of gender perspective; ask a learner to provide the definition.</p> <p>Give examples how gender perspective enhances operational effectiveness.</p>	Presentation
<p>Learners will be able to explain what a core competence is.</p> <p>Learners will be able to explain how gender is a core competence.</p> <p>Learners will be able to review how gender as a core competence will improve operational effectiveness.</p> <p>Learners will be able to explain how a gender-balanced force will improve operational effectiveness.</p>	Ask questions and observe.	<p>Ask the class what are the core competencies that military personnel need in an operation or mission.</p> <p>Ask how gender as a core competence can improve operational effectiveness.</p> <p>Explain how to assess your operation or activity in using the core competence of a gender perspective by asking: does my operation affect men, women, boys and girls the same way based on their gender? If yes, is this my purpose? If no, how can I change my effect?</p> <p>Give examples and explain how to evaluate effect.</p> <p>Give examples of integrating a gender perspective into core documents (and how this is supported by a gender analysis).</p> <p>If possible, provide examples from the host nation and deployment area.</p>	<p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion <p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion <p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion <p>Presentation</p> <p>Presentation</p> <p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is recommended to add a practical scenario-based exercise

<p>Learners will be able to explain security force assistance.</p> <p>Learners will be able to demonstrate the integration of a gender perspective in security force assistance.</p> <p>Learners will be able to demonstrate application of equal opportunities within security force assistance.</p> <p>Learners will be able to practise internal and external methods of security force assistance.</p>	<p>Ask questions and observe.</p>	<p>Explain what is meant by security force assistance and how to apply a gender perspective.</p> <p>Explain the internal and external aspects of security force assistance.</p> <p>If possible, provide examples from the host nation and deployment area. It is recommended to add a practical exercise linked with the host nation and the operation or mission.</p>	<p>Presentation</p> <p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presentation and practical exercise
<p>Learners will be able to explain the importance of liaison and coordination with external actors, including IOs, GOs and NGOs.</p> <p>Learners will be able to demonstrate consultation with external actors (including IOs, GOs and NGOs).</p>	<p>Ask questions and observe.</p>	<p>Explain the difference between external actors and the importance of liaison and coordination.</p> <p>Give a task to the class to identify existing coordination meetings on gender-related topics in your area of operations, including IOs, GOs and NGOs.</p> <p>Provide examples from the host nation and deployment area.</p>	<p>Presentation</p> <p>Interactive instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practical exercise

Lesson schedule

Time	Topic	Strategy and method	Related outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content resources	Faculty
5 mins	Introduction, motivation, learning outcome	Presentation (direct instruction)	Learners understand the aim of the lecture.	None.	Learning outcome and agenda.	PowerPoint See slides 1-4	Instructor
20 mins	Enhancing operational effectiveness	Discussion (indirect instruction, i.e. instruction led by the learner as opposed to the instructor) Exercise (indirect instruction)	Learners should be able to explain a gender perspective and how gender is a cross-cutting theme. Learners should be able to explain that gender is cross-cutting theme in military tasks. Learners should be able to integrate a gender perspective into the branch or unit's functional responsibility.	Recall definition of gender perspective; ask a learner to provide the definition. Give examples of how a gender perspective enhances operational effectiveness.	Gender perspective is a capability to enhance and broaden our understanding of the operational environment, notably the society and its social and (in some cases) patriarchal structures and relationships. This enhanced understanding is very useful in almost every task that a military force carries out. Gender is a cross-cutting theme and a gender perspective contributes to enhanced operational effectiveness.	PowerPoint See slides 5–10	Instructor
15 mins	Gender perspective as a core competence	Discussion and practical exercise (indirect instruction) Presentation (direct instruction)	Learners should be able to give examples of military core competencies. Learners should be able to explain how a gender perspective is a core competence. Learners should be able to review how gender as a core competence will improve operational effectiveness.	Ask the class what are the core competencies that military personnel need in an operation or mission. Ask how can gender as a core competence improve operational effectiveness. Explain how to assess your operation or activity in using the core competence of a gender perspective by asking: does my operation affect men, women, boys and girls the same way based on their gender? If yes, is this my purpose? If no, how can I change my effect?	Having a gender perspective competence is key in most military operations. Using a factor-deduction-conclusion analysis model demonstrates ways in which a gender perspective could enhance the operational effect and addresses challenges facing the operation or mission. A gender analysis should support the integration of a gender perspective in the core documents.	PowerPoint See slides 11–20	Instructor

10 mins	Gender-balanced force	Discussion (indirect instruction)	Learners should be able to explain how a gender-balanced force will improve operational effectiveness.	Ask class what gender balance is, and whether a gender balance in our own forces is necessary to carry out the task/mandate. Give practical examples.	Gender balance refers to equal representation of women and men at all levels of employment. Achieving a balance in staffing patterns and creating a working environment that is conducive to a diverse workforce improves the effectiveness of policies and programmes and enhances NATO's capacity to serve the entire population better. Gender balance does <i>not</i> refer to a 50–50 force. Gender balance should not be confused with gender perspective. Both men and women can use a gender perspective. Having a gender perspective is thus not dependent on having women in the force.	PowerPoint See slides 21–25	Instructor
35 mins	Security force assistance	Presentation (direct instruction)	Learners should be able to explain security force assistance. Learners should be able to demonstrate the integration of a gender perspective in security force assistance. Learners should be able to demonstrate application of equal opportunities within security force assistance. Learners should be able to practise internal and external methods of security force assistance.	Explain what is meant by security force assistance and how to apply a gender perspective. Explain the internal and external aspects of security force assistance. If possible, provide examples from the host nation and deployment area. It is recommended to add a practical exercise linked with the host nation and the operation or mission.	The very core of security force assistance is to provide security to a population. However, risks to security and threats may be very different to different people, and especially different between genders. Both in and after a conflict, men and women might define security very differently. Local ownership is key to a successful security force assistance process. Both internal and external aspects of security force assistance must be addressed and integrated for the host nation. Breaches in the code of conduct will risk the success of security force assistance and cause the operation to lose credibility.	PowerPoint See slides 26–34	Instructor

30 mins	Liaison and coordination with external actors	(Indirect instruction, i.e. instruction led by the learner as opposed to the instructor), Presentation (direct instruction) Brainstorming and/or think-pair-share	Learners should be able to explain the importance of liaison and coordination with external actors (including IOs, GOs and NGOs). Learners should be able to demonstrate consultation with external actors (including IOs, GOs and NGOs).	Explain the difference between external actors and the importance of liaison and coordination. Give a task to the class to identify existing coordination meetings on gender-related topics in your area of operations, including IOs, GOs and NGOs. Provide examples from the host nation and deployment area.	Local organizations can provide a local understanding of the situation. They can also be useful when trying to understand the gender relations and structures within the deployment area. Sharing information will enhance everyone's understanding.	PowerPoint See slides 35–41	Instructor
5 mins	Summary, conclusion and questions	Discussion (interactive instruction)	Motivate learners to integrate a gender perspective in their work when deployed. Learners should be able to translate the operational impact of gender.	Make sure that learners have reached the required learning outcome – that they are motivated to integrate a gender perspective into their work when deployed.	Summary of learning outcomes and opportunity for the learners to ask questions.	PowerPoint	Instructor

Other necessary information:

Prerequisites for the instructor

Sufficient understanding and comprehension of English is required (international policy is mostly written in English), as the instructor must be able to comprehend the national framework on gender perspective/national armed forces framework on gender perspective. The instructor should have sufficient knowledge of gender in military operations, and preferably have completed the NATO-accredited “Gender training of trainers” course. The instructor needs to research to be able to provide examples from the host nation and deployment area.

Equipment needed

Computer, projector, screen and checklist

Issues for consideration

Always explain abbreviations and interact as much as possible with the learners.

Mandatory preparation

Instructor has to go through the lesson plan, PowerPoint and content resources.

Supplemental to this lesson plan

Pre-deployment training 3: Translate the operational impact of gender

Pre-deployment lecture 1: NATO's framework on gender

ADL 169 Improving operational effectiveness by integrating gender perspective

Other useful references:

UN DPKO/DFS Guidelines: Integrating a Gender Perspective into the Work of the Military in Peacekeeping Operations, United Nations, 2010.

Notes

1. The authors would like to thank Natalia Albu and Ksenija Đjurić-Atanasievski for providing written comments on this chapter. They would also like to acknowledge input from Stéphane Bellamy, Rachel Grimes, Fernando Izquierdo Sans and Clare Hutchinson.
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Assessment and evaluation as tools for improvement

Beth Lape (United States)¹

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1. Introduction

Evaluation is the systematic determination of the merit, worth and significance of a learning or training process by using criteria against a set of standards. The evaluation phase is ongoing throughout the process used in designing curricula. The primary purpose of evaluation is to ensure that the stated learning outcomes will actually meet a required need, in this case for educational achievement. This chapter discusses evaluating a gender-related curriculum.²

Evaluation is performed during all phases of an instructional design process, and a model can be used when including evaluation in the review of a programme. Various questions are often asked during analysis of the requirements. Is there a performance problem related to a learning outcome? How will implementing a change to the curriculum positively affect a need or goal? What must the learners be able to do to attain the required change in performance?

Evaluation can also be taken one step further by ensuring the learners can actually meet the new performance standards once they have completed the learning process and returned to their jobs; and by ensuring that the needs or learning outcomes are actually being met by measuring performance and effectiveness in regards to a better understanding and application of more gender-sensitive practice in military operations' design and implementation.

In the process of developing an education and training programme that incorporates a gender perspective, it is important to consider how the learner will be assessed and evaluated throughout the programme, and in the end if the programme outcomes were achieved. This is not easy, as it may be necessary to determine if a change in the affective domain (attitudes, behaviour) occurred as well as a change in the cognitive domain (knowledge).

Through this chapter the theory behind evaluation is explored, as well as how it relates to learner assessment in lessons on gender. Descriptions are given of the various models and mechanisms used in developing evaluation schemes.

2. The theory behind evaluation

Evaluation is often considered the culminating feedback of a programme, but ideally the evaluation is part of a cycle with continuous oversight of the process. The evaluation results feed back into the design of the next iteration of the programme. In education, evaluation can be used to link the achieved results with the learning outcomes, in addition to providing a form of quality control for the programme.

Box 8.1 Assessment and evaluation³

Education professionals make distinctions between the terms “assessment” and “evaluation”.

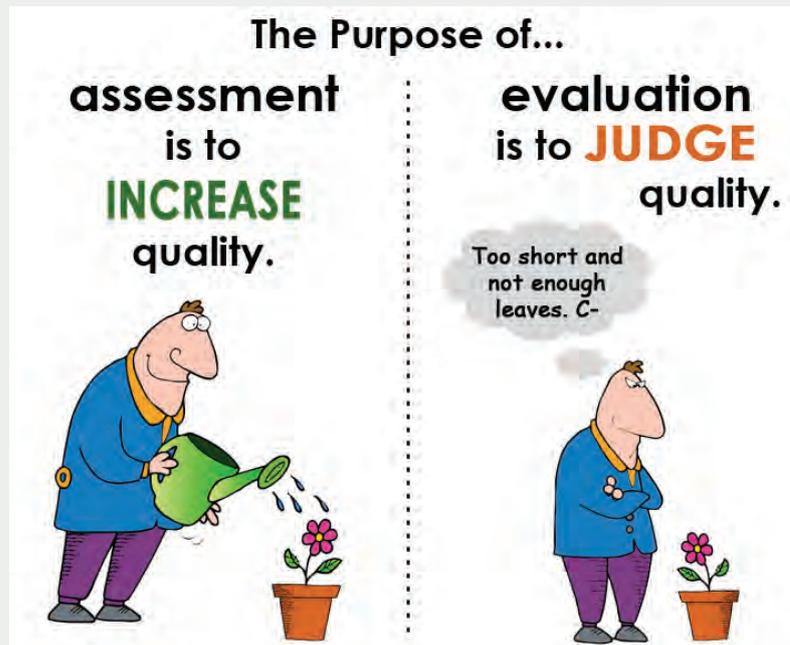
Assessment is the process of documenting knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs, usually in measurable terms. The goal of assessment is to make improvements, as opposed to simply being judged. In an educational context, assessment is the process of describing, collecting, recording, scoring and interpreting information about learning.

Evaluation is the process of making judgements based on criteria and evidence.

This is accomplished by making links from learning to organizational activities in addition to considering cost-effectiveness. It is important to determine the relationships between learning, training and the transfer of knowledge and skills to the job. It is also important to remember that there is a risk of evaluative data being manipulated for reasons of internal politics.⁴ For the purposes of this handbook, to help ensure the goal is actually being met it is essential for instructors to consider measures of performance (MOPs – am I doing the right things?) and measures of effectiveness (MOEs – am I doing things right?) to assist learners in striving for the new performance standards once they have completed the educational programme and returned to their jobs.

MOPs and MOEs are terms that have been recently mentioned when discussing a gender programme overall to determine if it is doing what is needed. An MOP can be easily evaluated when a person reviews the quantitative data that may be recorded. This collection could include, for example, information on how many women are in the unit, how many contacts a gender adviser had out in town, and whether extra restroom facilities were added to accommodate all the personnel in the unit. But the MOE is more difficult to evaluate, and it will take longer to determine if what is being done is having any kind of effect on the operations.

Assessments of the learner are a part of the evaluation process, as they help to measure the impact of what the instructor teaches and what the learner learns. By determining the value and effectiveness of the different parts of a curriculum, assessment tools provide useful data for the evaluation.

Box 8.2 The purpose of assessment and of evaluation⁵

A literature review suggested there is widespread underevaluation of educational programmes, and that what is being done is of uneven quality.⁶ However, in today's economy and its focus on value for money, organizations are looking to cut programmes that do not work, so this former attitude towards evaluation is changing towards ensuring that training and education support the units' needs. Evaluation provides a mechanism for decision-makers to judge whether quality standards are being met,⁷ and ensures training and education's continuing ability to produce qualified workers. A follow-up evaluation can be conducted to get a report of how well the training and education prepared learners to perform their jobs after having been on the job for a selected period of time. Evaluation is an ongoing process of assessing learner performance, identifying concerns of the instructors and initiating corrective actions for the entire programme. Data sources for evaluation often include surveys, interviews, tests, course evaluation results, service or product data and observations.

3. Evaluation in the ADDIE model

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the curriculum design process is often based on the ADDIE (analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation) model. While each phase of the ADDIE process builds on the outputs of the preceding phases, the phases are not sequential. Any change within a phase requires review and possibly adjustments to preceding phases. Note that although evaluation is part of the review cycle, it is also the overall encompassing factor that includes all the phases. Instruction developers may move in and out of each phase. Continuous evaluation of products from each phase, along with approvals, serves to eliminate or reduce wasted effort.⁸

The designer in the *analysis* should focus on the target audience. A diagnostic tool, such as a written or oral pre-test, could be conducted to determine whether the skill level of the curriculum matches the learners' level of skill and intelligence, to make sure that what they already know will not be duplicated and instead the learning is focused on topics and lessons yet to be explored. In this phase, instructors distinguish between what the learners already know and what they have to know after completing the course. Several key components must be used to make sure analysis is thorough. In a "blended learning programme" integrating online and residential courses, the learners could all be brought up to a more common learning level before the programme begins.

Other points to consider in the analysis phase are the demographics of the target audience, to include previous experiences; the learning outcomes in terms of knowledge, skills and attributes; review of existing instructional strategies previously employed and the assessment results; available technology and time for online and residential courses; and overall resources required (both technical and support) in time, human resources, technical skills, finance, etc.

While the instruction is being *designed* there are questions to consider. What must the learners learn to enable them to fulfil the required goal? While the curriculum is being *developed*, the designers should ask about the activities that will best bring about the intended outcomes. During the *implementation* of the curriculum, the developers should ask if the skills and knowledge to perform the required tasks have been acquired.

The *evaluation* phase of ADDIE is developed in more detail in the following sections of this chapter. Every stage of the ADDIE process involves evaluation, and it is an essential component of the construct. Throughout the evaluation phase the curriculum designer will monitor the educational programme to determine if the issue is solved and whether the desired outcomes are met.

4. Formative and summative assessments

Assessments of learners are normally divided into two broad categories: *formative* and *summative*. A *formative assessment* (sometimes referred to as internal) consists of a range of formal and informal assessment procedures that are used *during* the learning process to modify teaching and learning activities to determine the level of learners' cognitive achievement. It is used in judging the status of the programme while activities are in progress, i.e. *forming*. This kind of assessment allows learners and instructors to monitor how well the goals and desired outcomes of the instruction are being met while it is in progress. The main purpose is to determine gaps in the learning so that interventions can take place immediately to allow the learners to continue to master the required skills and knowledge.⁹ The formative assessment is intended to foster development and improvement within an ongoing activity (or person, product, programme, etc.).¹⁰

A *summative assessment* (sometimes referred to as external) focuses on the outcome and determines instructional achievement at *the end* of the programme's activities, i.e. *summation*.¹¹ It is used to assess whether the results of the object being reviewed (programme, intervention, person, etc.) met the stated goals.¹² Traditional assessments at the end of a class are summative, but it is also beneficial to include some that serve as formative assessments during the instruction to make sure the information is getting across to the learners.

The various methods used to collect summative information include questionnaires, surveys, interviews, observations and testing. The methodology used to gather the data should be carefully designed and executed to ensure the data are accurate and valid. Questionnaires are the least expensive procedure for external evaluations and can be used to collect large samples of information from those who have attended the course. The questionnaires should be tested before use to ensure the recipients understand what is being asked in the way the designer intended.

5. Using the Kirkpatrick model to integrate gender equality in military curricula

One of the better-known evaluation methodology models used for judging learning processes in military education and training is Donald Kirkpatrick's four-level evaluation model, first published in his 1954 dissertation titled "Evaluating human relations programs for industrial foremen and supervisors", and then later in a series of articles in 1959 in the *Journal of the American Society of Training Directors*.¹³ However, it was not until his 1994 book, *Evaluating Training Programs*, was published that the four levels became popular. Today the model is a cornerstone in the training and learning industry.¹⁴

The four levels of evaluation consist of reaction, learning, behaviour and results. These levels are explained further in the following subsections.

Level 1: Reaction – How well did the learners like the learning process? Assessments at this level help to report how learners react to the instructional programme. Common steps in a level 1 assessment include:¹⁵

- determine what you want to find out;
- design a form that will quantify reactions;
- encourage written comments and suggestions;
- attain an immediate response from all in attendance;
- seek honest reactions;
- develop acceptable standards;
- measure reactions against the standards and take appropriate action;
- communicate the reactions as appropriate.

Assessments can be conducted to get quick feedback on the instruction using various methods:

- ABCD questions (learners hold up a card with a letter stating which answer is correct);
- open-ended questions by the instructor;
- one-minute paper written at the end of the session by the learners and evaluated by the instructor;
- self-assessments (possible reactions to new gender concepts such as “boys don’t cry” or “a woman’s place is in the home”);
- peer assessments;
- journaling by the learners.

Examples of questions that could be used in evaluating how the subject of gender was received by the audience are noted in Box 8.3.

Box 8.3 Sample evaluation questions for education that incorporates a gender perspective¹⁶

Please rate on a score of 1–5 (1 = poor, 5 = excellent).

1. Value of this topic in relation to my job
2. Usefulness of the course content
3. Presentation methods used
4. Trainer’s ability to transfer knowledge
5. Atmosphere conducive to participation
6. My opinions were taken into consideration
7. Value of the fact sheets
8. Relevance of the work sheets

Please answer the following questions in your own words.

9. Do you have any suggestions about additions to the course?
10. Is there anything you think should be dropped from the course?
11. What did you enjoy most about the course?
12. What did you dislike most about the course?
13. What aspect of the course did you find most useful?
14. What aspect of the course did you find least useful?
15. Was the course (please tick)
 - a) Too long
 - b) Too short
 - c) The right length?
16. Do you have any comments to make about the administrative arrangements for the course (e.g. room, food)?
17. Do you have any other comments to make?

Level 2: Learning – What did they learn (the extent to which the learners gain knowledge and skills)? Steps in these assessment methods include:¹⁷

- evaluate knowledge, skills or attitudes both before and after the programme;
- attain a response rate of 100 per cent;
- use the results of the evaluation to take appropriate action;
- use feedback questions such as the following:
 - What did you find interesting about this course?
 - What does it take to succeed in this course?
 - How did the instructional approaches used in this class affect your efforts to learn?
 - How would you rate the effort you put into this course compared to other courses you have taken?

Common examples of assessment methods at this level include using a written test to measure knowledge and attitudes, and a performance test to measure skills. Other examples are:

- final exams, projects, essays;
- end-of-course feedback.

Some type of a feedback form/questionnaire/survey is the most commonly used method to evaluate instruction at this level. Parts of questionnaire construction are intuitive, but there are certain points with which a course evaluator should be familiar. Concepts being asked about need to be clearly defined and questions unambiguously phrased, or else the resulting data may be seriously misleading. Here are some simple rules to follow.¹⁸

- Each question should relate directly to your evaluation objectives.
- Everyone should be able to answer every question (unless instructed otherwise).
- Each question should be phrased so that all respondents interpret it in the same way.
- The answers to each question should provide the information you need to know, not what would be nice to know.

Box 8.4 can be used when developing a questionnaire. The comments in italics give tips on good questionnaire design.

Level 2 feedback is important to help evaluate the short-term impact of gender-related education on the learners' attitudes towards a gender perspective and awareness on gender-related topics.

Level 3: Behaviour – What changes in job performance resulted from the learning process? Does the learner have the capability to perform the newly learned skills while on the job? How have the learners been able to adopt a change in attitude towards gender within their daily work? Thoughts to consider in the use of this level include the following.²⁰

- Using a control group if possible.
- Allowing enough time for a change in behaviour to take place (such as six months, enough time for the learning to be put into action to cause any change).
- Surveying or interviewing one or more of the following groups: learners, their bosses, their subordinates and others who often observe the learners' behaviour on the job.
- Choosing the appropriate number to sample (how many would be a significant number to sample?).
- Considering the cost of evaluation versus the benefits.

Examples of ways to conduct evaluation at this level could include:

- reaching out to all identified stakeholders;
- creating assessments that reach as many stakeholders as possible;
- sending out questionnaires to previous learners.

Measures of effectiveness regarding any change in behaviour towards gender would start to be evaluated at this point.

Box 8.4 General course evaluation item consideration – Questionnaire¹⁹

Consideration	Example
<p>Statements should be neutral so as not to bias the respondent</p>	<p>Indicate to what extent you agree with the following statement.</p> <p>The course was generally well presented. 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p>1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 4 = Agree; 5= Strongly agree.</p> <p><i>The statement above is biased as it is written in a positive form. The alternate below is neutral.</i></p> <p>Indicate your response to the following statement.</p> <p>The course was:</p> <p>Very helpful Satisfactory Not helpful</p>
<p>Combined positive/negative statements</p>	<p>In cases where it is not possible to write neutral statements, positive statements must be balanced with negative statements.</p> <p>Indicate to what extent you agree with the following statement.</p> <p><i>Positive</i> – The course contained new information. 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p><i>Negative</i> – The activities were not well sequenced. 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p>1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree.</p> <p><i>Using an equal number of positive and negative statements balances the form and eliminates bias.</i></p>
<p>Statements should only ask respondents to evaluate one thing.</p>	<p>The course contained information, ideas, methods and techniques new to me. 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p>1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree.</p> <p><i>How would learners respond if they already knew the basic information but the techniques were new? Items must be singled out.</i></p> <p>Indicate to what extent you agree. The course contained the following that was new to me:</p> <p>a. Information 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p>b. Ideas 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p>c. Methods 1 2 3 4 5</p> <p>d. Techniques 1 2 3 4 5</p>

Level 4: Results – This level is the most difficult to assess, as it requires continuous follow-up with the learners and a measurement of the results of any actions they performed. In the area of gender, the results could be measured by a change in a person's affective domain in regards to how they value and include gender in any planning processes. Additionally, success at this level could be measured by how any attitudes within an area changed, or even using metrics such as improved health due to a change in the healthcare programme for a village. Overall, you need to evaluate the tangible results of the learning process in terms of reduced cost, improved quality, increased production, efficiency, etc. Points to consider include the following.²¹

- Allow enough time for results to be achieved.
- Repeat the measurement at appropriate intervals.
- Consider the cost of the evaluation versus benefits.
- Be satisfied with the available evidence if absolute evidence is not possible to attain.

Kirkpatrick's concept is quite important, as it makes an excellent planning, evaluating and troubleshooting tool, and can be applied to gender-related education.

6. Evaluation of gender awareness in military curricula

The effectiveness of learning about gender within the regular curriculum is evaluated using the standard assessment methods previously discussed. A more difficult measure is reviewing the behaviour of the learners. To achieve results an accurate assessment should be made over time, preferably several months. An accurate assessment is one that looks at integration based upon criteria determined in evaluations of the individual as well as the organization. Reviewing this kind of material is an example of the information that would be used when conducting a Kirkpatrick Level 3 review of how the knowledge transfer of the material changed the affective domain. The Committee of Women in NATO Forces has published basic metrics and drafted NATO guidelines to integrate gender-related topics into the NATO evaluation process (Box 8.5).

Box 8.5 Recommendations related to the evaluation process by NATO nations/authorities²²

The principle can only be successfully achieved if NATO nations and authorities implement, as a minimum, the following recommendations.

- Collect and analyse gender-related data, disaggregated by sex and other categories as appropriate, relevant to NATO operations.
- Monitor, review and analyse the effectiveness of gender and cultural awareness training, based on lessons learned from previous NATO operations.
- Report on identified advantages and disadvantages in respect of gender-related issues by:
 - identifying situations where having female personnel provided a specific advantage in NATO operations;
 - conducting surveys of military personnel regarding their perspectives on gender-related issues during NATO operations;
 - identifying any unintended impact on gender-related issues affecting civilian populations and military personnel.
- Evaluate the impact of actions not only on the population as a whole, but also on men and women separately.
- Integrate gender-related topics into the existing reporting system (e.g. lessons identified, lessons learned, best practices).
- Share and exchange information on gender-related best practices with other international organizations such as the United Nations, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, the European Union, the International Committee of the Red Cross and non-governmental organizations.
- Ensure that gender-related issues covered in the lessons learned are broadly shared so that the required changes can be implemented.

There are various methods for measuring the transformation of gender-aware attitudes into gender-responsive actions and behaviours – examples include the following.

- Anonymous surveys of men and women regarding sexual harassment.
- Exit surveys collecting information on people's opinions of the organization upon leaving employment, to include questions about job training and work environment.
- Evaluation forms completed by learners several months after the training programme, asking questions on relevant attitudes, perceptions and behaviours.
- Interview supervisors/managers to get their assessment of any change in behaviour of the learner when a reasonable amount of time has elapsed after return to the organization.²³

A transformative change in a person's behaviour can also be assessed through observations during military training exercises. The exercises presented in the annex to this chapter were developed by a military gender adviser conducting training on a gender perspective in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. All the information obtained at the various levels of these exercises becomes part of the "analysis" phase of the ADDIE model to review what has occurred in the field to see if there has been a change in the affective domain based upon the instruction given. Gender education and training should be transformative at all levels. Full evaluation to see if changes have occurred involves using a range of methods, from surveys that just tick a box to including observations, peer reviews and other forms of evaluation.

The availability of tools, resources and leadership support will have an effect on how easily learners will be able to apply what they have learned on gender in operations. Trained gender focal points should be available to assist with questions in the field, as well as the gender adviser on the staff. But it is also beneficial for learners to keep in contact with their gender instructor as a person to reach back to with questions on gender-related topics that have been encountered, but were not quite covered the same way in the programme. Assessments of learners and evaluation of programmes are not easy, but are important steps in ensuring that the concept of applying a gender perspective is understood and can be used in operational situations.

7. Annotated bibliography

Clark, Don, *Instructional System Design: The ADDIE Mode – A Handbook for Learning Designers*, www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/sat.html.

This online handbook contains a wealth of information on the ADDIE model and a chapter specifically on evaluation, which discusses formative and summative evaluations as well as Kirkpatrick's four levels. It also contains links to other useful electronic and paper resources.

Committee on Women in NATO Forces, "Guidance for NATO gender mainstreaming", 2007, www.nato.int/issues/women_nato/cwinf_guidance.pdf.

This document produced by the predecessor to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives includes a section on recommendations for the integration of a gender perspective in the evaluation process. It is specifically aimed at NATO nations and authorities.

Department of National Defence and Canadian Forces, "Evaluation of instructional programmes", in *Manual of Individual Training and Education*, Vol. 11, A-P9-050-000/PT-011 (Ottawa, ON: Department of National Defence, 2003).

This volume of the *Manual of Individual Training and Education* provides guidance for the evaluation of instructional programmes given within the Canadian Forces. It provides information on evaluation models, followed by recommendations on how to create and implement an evaluation plan and then interpret its findings so they can be fed into the evaluation report.

Kirkpatrick, Donald L. and James D. Kirkpatrick, *Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels*, 3rd edn (San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 2006).

This seminal book provides instructors with practical guidance on evaluation. It covers the four levels of reaction, learning, behaviour and results. Some useful resources are also available on the “Our philosophy” section of the Kirkpatrick website, www.kirkpatrickpartners.com/OurPhilosophy/tabid/66/Default.aspx.

Tönisson Kleppe, Toiko, “Gender training for security sector personnel – Good practices and lessons learned”, in Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek (eds), *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit* (Geneva: DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW, 2008), www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Security-Sector-Reform-Toolkit.

This publication is the twelfth tool in DCAF’s *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*. Using Kirkpatrick’s model, it provides concrete guidance for practitioners tasked with evaluating gender-related education and training courses.

Annex: Military exercise scenarios testing application of a gender perspective²⁴

When training soldiers, one method of assessing and evaluating how well lessons on gender have been assimilated is by seeing if they can apply the lesson in a practical scenario. The officer responsible for designing the exercises may benefit from liaising with a gender adviser who could assist in developing the integration of a gender perspective into the scenarios. Military exercises usually test officers through operational staff work, which includes writing orders, and tactical-level exercises which put soldiers through practical tests. The principles of UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325²⁵ are a good foundation for planning and developing exercises which seek to implement a gender perspective, for several reasons.

- a. UNSCR 1325 seeks to promote the *participation* of women within the military and within the indigenous population where the military is operating.
- b. UNSCR 1325 encourages militaries operating overseas and at home to *protect* women, men, girls and boys from conflict-related sexual violence (CRSV).
- c. UNSCR 1325 encourages militaries operating overseas and at home to *prevent* acts of CRSV against women, men, girls and boys.
- d. UNSCR 1325 encourages militaries operating overseas and at home to assist and support women and girls in the post-conflict *reconstruction* phase. This can include ensuring soldiers know how to *respond* to survivors of CRSV.

The situations below complement UNSCR 1325 and can be woven into tactical military exercises which require the implementation of a gender perspective by the soldiers.

PARTICIPATION

Key leader engagement

Senior non-commissioned officers and commissioned officers deployed on operations overseas are frequently required to engage with the civilian population. Experience from NATO missions in Afghanistan and UN peacekeeping operations across Africa has revealed that male-dominated military and peacekeeping units are less likely to talk to women (50 per cent of the population), thus hearing only “half of the story”. Soldiers should therefore be “tested” when tasked to initiate key leader engagement to see if they consider holding meetings with civilian women. At the tactical level soldiers should be tested in running a meeting with an all-women group or with a civilian woman who has influence in the community. The *participation* of servicewomen could also be tested, as in some societies only a woman can approach another woman, and men cannot approach women to whom they are not related.

Intelligence collection

As women often have their own “intelligence networks”, it is vital that military forces operating in an area speak to women as well as men. In twenty-first-century warfare civilian women are more likely to be targeted by illegally armed groups than NATO or UN soldiers. These women will have a better understanding of when and where they are vulnerable, and so should be included when gathering information. Staff officers in HQs and soldiers on tactical exercises can be tested to see if they include this in their planning and when they go on patrol and interact with the civilian population in the exercise setting.

PARTICIPATION, RECONSTRUCTION

Civil-military quick-impact project design

Officers at the operational level work with soldiers deployed on the ground to identify projects that can “win hearts and minds”, or at least tolerance from the civilian community among whom they are operating. Military units consistently seek out ideas for projects only from influential males. In exercises at both operational and tactical levels the soldiers can be assessed on whether they think to include women and speak to women to collect ideas for projects. Both levels could be tested to see if they can suggest projects that would target the female population.

Negotiation talks

NATO and UN staff may be required to support the political process by overseeing negotiation talks. This is often conducted in a role-play scenario. Both operational and tactical-level exercises can be tested to see if they seek to include women at the negotiating table and have servicewomen on hand for searching, etc., before the talks commence.

PROTECTION, PREVENTION

At the operational level staff being exercised can be tested to see if they will order units to conduct patrols in areas where they have been told the civilian population is most at risk. Assessment can reveal if the planners do not just target armed groups but also plan patrols that are near vulnerable areas for civilians – e.g. on roads into markets or around collecting points for water and wood.

Soldiers being exercised with role plays, etc., can be approached by a woman asking them for help. How they respond and who they inform will indicate if they have understood the gender lessons.

Vehicle check points, house clearing and cordon operations can all be given a gender “flavour” by introducing tasks and tests that make soldiers think beyond their role to defeat an enemy. For example, the soldiers stop a truck full of women and girls – do they let the vehicle pass or are they concerned it is part of a trafficking ring? Do they call the civilian police or let the vehicle through, have they got female interpreters who can talk to the women, etc.?

During a clearing operation the soldiers in a house come across a room full of young boys. Do the soldiers know how to respond and who to call? Are these boys being trained as child soldiers or used for suicide bombing? Do the soldiers know what to do with children?

Notes

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Leveraging technologies to support teaching gender

Tanja Geiss (NATO School, Oberammergau) and Gigi Roman (NATO School, Oberammergau)¹

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This chapter outlines how various e-learning tools can be used efficiently in support of teaching gender, especially to the military. It also introduces how content can be developed in a gender-sensitive manner as a principle of online teaching, faculty development and effective use of e-learning tools in curricula.

E-learning tools for instructors and learners show that collaborative learning is possible within an online training and education environment and can help to overcome gender bias. By linking the different efforts, the learner gets the most out of the blended experience and becomes better prepared to meet real-world challenges. E-learning content for pre-learning purposes is a tool used to support residential courses. The method allows instructors to presume certain knowledge on each course topic and address the audience on more detailed issues, by trying to overcome gender stereotypes in teaching.

Today e-learning has evolved from primarily being used as a strict pre-learning tool. Twenty-first-century e-learning tools and techniques provide course designers and instructors with numerous possibilities to support individual training and education, e.g. instructor-led course preparation, e-readings and the building of communities of practice. By leveraging these capabilities effectively, the instructor can focus on the special needs of his/her audience and tailor not only online courses but especially residential courses to the needs and wishes of the learners.

The power of global collaboration means that in a world of rapidly changing threats and challenges on different levels and featuring different actors, training and teaching independent of time and place are available.

1. Introduction

In recent years the need to teach gender in the military has become more and more of a necessity for NATO and the PfP (Partnership for Peace).² One challenge for NATO has been to offer education in a timely manner and ensure that it is made available to the majority of NATO/PfP personnel. To overcome this education gap, e-learning was used to provide a basic course on gender: the course was developed by NATO Allied Command Transformation (ACT) together with NATO School Oberammergau and the PfPC (Partnership for Peace Consortium) Security Sector Reform Working Group and Education Development Working Group, with support of the PfPC Advanced Distributed Learning Working Group. This course is not only a good example of interdisciplinary and interagency collaboration, but also a tangible example of how NATO can deliver education and training on various topics to thousands of potential learners by leveraging technology.

Box 9.1 Screenshot of the PfPC learning management system

Partnership for Peace Consortium
Advanced Distributed Learning

Home FAQ Software Test Helpdesk

Welcome to the Partnership for Peace Consortium Learning Management Services!

Please use this page to access PfPC ADL online courses.

For more information on the PfPC and ADL Programmes, [click here](#).

Important! For information on user settings, [click here](#).

This new PfPC e-learning portal has been restructured to support the PfPC Community. Please send your suggestions and requirements to pfpcadl@act.nato.int. In this way we will provide the courses and content you need to support your requirements.

Login to PfPC ADL

Username:

Password:

Login

[New Account Registration](#)
[Forgot password? Forgot username?](#)
[User Agreement](#)

PfPC ADL News

Following the decisions made at the PfPC Directors meeting in 2014, the PfPC ADL LMS will now be hosted by NATO at Allied Command Transformation. This service started on Jan 1st 2015 following the closure of the Swiss hosted server in Dec 2014. For edibility and user requirements please refer to [this document](#).

PfPC ADL Working Group

The PfPC ADL Working Group meet twice a year to engage with nations and NATO to promote and support the advancement of technology and use of ADL to support education and training. For further information please [click here](#).

NATO SCHOOL Oberammergau

The next e-Learning training even will be held at NATO School Feb 22 - Mar 4. This course will cover in detail all aspects of e-Learning and is open to all.

Contact jadladmin@act.nato.int for more details.

This chapter provides an overview of various online delivery methods and tools for teaching gender, and examines how e-learning can be embedded effectively into curricula. It includes practical examples from NATO and PfPC learning management systems (LMSs). We conclude with a summary of best practices in gender-sensitive instructional design to help instructors to guide and support learners using online tools. The chapter focuses on four main objectives: to provide an overview of online learning capabilities in support of teaching; to outline various online teaching methods and tools in support of gender teaching; to highlight instructional design considerations for online delivery; and to show how to apply gender to online instructional design of curricula.

2. Online learning capabilities in support of learning

When thinking about e-learning or online learning, most people envision self-paced online courses which can be joined at any time from anywhere. In some cases they link e-learning with the blended learning approach promoted by NATO School Oberammergau to enhance the quality of residential classes. This blended model of delivery is becoming more and more prevalent with the increased availability of powerful commercial and open-source tools on the market which allow a more customer-tailored approach to online learning. For example, many platforms now support online tutoring which allows learners and instructors to connect both synchronously and asynchronously as an important addition to enhancing teaching and learning. The various LMSs on the market allow tracking the success of learners, and many of them also support file management and online discussions. Portal technologies, on the other hand, are ideal to facilitate communities of practice and help learners and educators to exchange files and share knowledge in special online groups.

Box 9.2 Screenshot of the NATO LMS log-in page

NATO e-Learning
Education & Training "Anytime, Anywhere"

Home What is e-Learning? FAQ Software Test Helpdesk

Welcome to the NATO e-Learning Programme Learning Management System!

Please use this page to access NATO/partner online courses.

For more information on the NATO e-Learning Programme, [click here](#).

Important! For information on user settings, [click here](#).

Log in to NATO ADL

Username:

Password:

[New User/Account Registration](#)
[Forgot password?](#) [Forgot username?](#)
[User Agreement](#)

NATO e-Learning News

NATO has contracted with Bohemia **VBS3** Interactive for the use of 50 VBS3 licenses. Licenses may be loaned by NATO entities, nations and partners for up to 8 weeks to use in: exercise training preparation, training and education events, experimentation with immersive training, interoperability testing with other simulation products, and cross functional training.

The latest course to be added to the NATO e-Learning Course Catalogue is Introduction to Strategic Communications.

The aim of the course is to familiarise students with the basics of communication and introduce them to the concept of Strategic Communications.

The next e-Learning training event will be held at NATO School Oberammergau, Feb 15 - Mar 4. This new course will cover in detail all aspects of e-Learning and is open to all.

Contact jadladmin@act.nato.int for more details.

This website is maintained by the Allied Command Transformation Joint Education, Training and Exercises division

Even social networks can be used for teaching, and some universities are using Facebook groups to stay in contact with their learners during breaks and facilitate online discussion forums.³ In a military context Facebook might not be the preferable platform, but it shows that there are many online learning opportunities available – they just need to be used the right way and learners need to be aware where they can find the content. A good example is the Facebook group on “Gender in military operations”, for “people interested, professionally or personally, in the topic of gender in military operations. The purpose is to share information about ongoing events and topics that are worth discussing in a gender related context.”⁴ This demonstrates that social networks can be used in various ways to offer professional information beyond the normal channels. NATO School offers its learners the NATO School Members Portal so they can take advantage of collaborative learning prior to,

during and after residential classes. The portal allows instructors and learners to communicate and exchange their knowledge not only during classes but also months after leaving NATO School.

Learning today is no longer a hierarchical process; it is linear and has moved to peer-to-peer learning, or the so-called “flipped classroom”.⁵ In the case of gender this offers various online teaching possibilities which can be adapted to the needs of the respective audience, ranging from stand-alone courses on an LMS to more interactive communities of practice on a learning portal. In summary, we can see an evolution from instructor-driven learning towards knowledge-driven learning, which will further influence the ways of transmitting content to the learner.⁶ Peer-to-peer learning has a special relevance in adult education and vocational training. It is different from collaborative learning, where learners work together in small groups to find a solution to a problem; peer-to-peer learning is where one learner leads another through a problem.⁷ When speaking of the changing learning process and the use of different electronic means, there is no clear preferable solution. Both approaches are used, but social networks and different groups have to be seen as collaborative learning.

Box 9.3 Case study – Leveraging technology to support a regional network of gender trainers in Southeast Europe

The Regional Network of Gender Trainers in the Western Balkans was created in 2014 to enable networking, information sharing, knowledge exchange and learning among gender trainers in the region. The network is facilitated by UNDP SEESAC (UN Development Programme South Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons) through the Gender Equality in the Military in the Western Balkans project. Exchange of information and knowledge sharing are facilitated by a range of tools, ensuring that best practices are disseminated and cooperation takes place among the beneficiaries. Regional meetings, workshops and study visits are organized, and a knowledge-sharing platform was established on the secure area of SEESAC’s website (<http://kx.seesac.org>) to allow discussion among network members, knowledge exchange and learning. For example, the platform enables the sharing of presentations and relevant documents, and allows members to interact and consult on questions and issues they as trainers might encounter during lectures, workshops and training. The platform also includes all the training material from the capacity development activities in which the gender trainers participate.

In addition to the knowledge-sharing platform, the Gender Equality in the Military project created a Facebook page and a Twitter account (@genderssr), managed by SEESAC, and these are used as knowledge-sharing mechanisms. They feature articles and other resources on current news and discussions related to the recruitment and retention of women in the military worldwide, gender training and other relevant topics of interest to gender trainers.

Members of the Regional Network of Gender Trainers in the Western Balkans also created a closed Facebook group (Genders) that they use to share news on their activities – seminars and briefings on gender equality in the military, photos, articles they have written and other relevant news.

“ As a NATO School course director I am interested in providing access for our learners to the highest quality education and training, tailored to their individual needs. ‘ADL 169 Improving Operational Effectiveness by Integrating Gender Perspective’ online course is part of the pre-learning package recommended to all NCO Professional Development course participants at NATO School Oberammergau. This self-paced course provides the basic concepts and tools needed by personnel to apply gender perspective in their work at NATO and international environment, with the aim of improving operational effectiveness as they come better prepared and ready for discussions during the resident programme.

SGM Tibor Bogdan, Course director/instructor, NCO Programmes Department

3. Choosing the right online teaching method for your audience

Selecting the right tool for your online learning might be challenging: it depends on your audience and your course aim. If you want your learners just to get an overview of the topic, you might choose one method; if you plan online discussions and allow learners to ask you questions and give feedback, you may prefer another.

The three options discussed here are the main online learning methods used within NATO/PfP, but in some cases a combination of them is found most effective, depending on the individual instructor and the needs of learners.

3.1 Stand-alone

Stand-alone e-learning modules are very often used to reach as many learners as possible. The advantage of this form of asynchronous e-learning⁹ is that learners can truly be reached at any time, whenever the learner feels the need to access the content and has time for learning.⁹

When addressing the need for education and training associated with important topics such as gender, stand-alone e-learning is often the most expedient and cost-effective option to reach learners quickly when they are geographically and temporally separated. Our experience has taught us that changing the curriculum is not often as easy as it should be, and in many cases a stand-alone online course is the best way to ensure learners get the information they need in a timely manner. The option of stand-alone training becomes even more attractive when a course is mandatory. The LMS allows tracking learner success, and most of these systems are supported by various options for online assessment.

Box 9.4 Screenshot of gender perspective online course hosted on NATO e-learning LMS

Gender Perspective
Topic: Gender in Conflict and Post-Conflict Situations

NATO Unclassified/Releasable to Internet

Impact of Armed Conflict on Women (continued)

Caregivers and those responsible for obtaining food, water, and basic needs for families suffer extreme hardship when life is disrupted by war. Crops, wells, and markets are destroyed. Roads are blocked. Supplies are stolen or burned by armies. Malnutrition and disease sweep through families and communities. Women are often the sole providers for their families during war. This leads to an increasing number of female heads of households that can be attributed to demographic changes caused by conflicts, which in turn further impoverishes women.

Population Balance Changes Over Time

The actual population balance between women and men can change during war time. The casualty rate is generally higher among men and there may be a significant number of widows, single women, and others without male children. This will influence labour force projections, family structure, and the gender profile of various professions. In some societies, it may also reduce women's position in society, as women without a husband or male children may lose status. In the short-term, there are also implications for women's economic security and the risk of poverty for women unable to provide an income for themselves and their families.

Click on each box to read more.

About Help Glossary Page 20 of 44 Back Next

However, there are some aspects of stand-alone courses which should be taken into consideration, especially when addressing topics such as gender. A stand-alone course normally does not foresee any feedback to the learner from an instructor: the learner usually only communicates with the LMS and the course content. It also requires certain self-discipline from the learner to finish the course, as no one is actively checking on learner progress and course completion. To avoid drop-outs, the content needs to be well designed and should answer as many questions as possible on the topic. It should be informative but also comprehensive, to ensure the learner is not getting lost or being overwhelmed by the amount of information.

Another aspect of online teaching is the possibility of allowing learners who feel less comfortable in a residential class to learn at their own pace and within their comfort zone. Stand-alone courses offer a great opportunity for those who do not have time to attend residential courses, or who prefer to learn at their own pace. They are also a great option to allow learners to attend courses beyond the curriculum, and offer additional learning resources for those who want to study more.

The online learning courses developed by ACT, NATO School Oberammergau and the PfPC working groups can be seen as a good example of how a topic such as gender can be taught in a stand-alone online course without losing its relevance. The short course allows learner engagement and provides relevant information on policies and doctrines to build up a foundational knowledge on this topic.

3.2 Instructor/tutor in the loop



There will always be a role for the teacher, professor or subject matter expert to teach and entertain us in a classroom.¹⁰

John Bersin

Box 9.5 Screenshot of the online classroom set-up on an LMS

The screenshot displays the 'Content' management interface of an LMS. At the top, there are tabs for 'Content', 'Info', 'Settings', 'Members', 'Learning Progress', 'Metadata', 'Export', 'Permissions', and 'Show Member View'. Below these, there are sub-tabs for 'View', 'Manage', and 'Text/Media Editor'. The main content area is titled 'Content' and contains a list of folders with descriptions and 'Actions' menus:

- Admin**: Folder for Admin content e.g. course schedule, group photo, photos
- Forums for online discussions**: All FORUMS for online discussions are available here
- Lectures**: Course briefings will be uploaded here during the resident program in Oberammergau
- Online modules and tasks**: This area contains the online phase of the course including the tasks and exercises
- Syndicate work**: Area for Syndicate work and projects during resident weeks

On the right side, there is a 'News' section with a 'Loading News...' message and a 'Block is currently hidden in learner's view' notification. Below that is a 'Calendar' for May 2015, showing a grid of dates from 18 to 31. The calendar is currently displaying the week of May 18th to 24th.

An instructor or tutor in the loop allows learners not only to interact with the content but also to address questions to the instructor/tutor. One common strategy is for instructors to schedule online sessions to allow learners to address questions directly to them, and/or for them to participate in online discussions. Another common strategy is that the instructor encourages or requires learners to post questions in online forums which will be answered regularly by the instructor.

This online teaching method allows learners to get more involved with the content and encourages them to reflect on the topic being studied. The instructor can facilitate online discussions and answer open questions. It also allows learners and instructors to engage in depth with the content and facilitates learning on a more intense level: the learning moves from receiving information to engaging and interacting with the topic. This teaching method is also used to encourage participation in communities of practice and peer-to-peer learning. Stand-alone online courses of course do not forbid collaboration and further discussions on a certain topic, but these might or might not appear. The tutor-in-the-loop approach helps to facilitate learning communities and offer learners online spaces where they can exchange. The communities can be moderated by the facilitator, but the idea of collaborative learning is the driving agent: the facilitator is in an observing position and helps in spurring new ideas, rather than actively contributing to the online discussions. In some cases the facilitator just monitors the community and will not be actively involved in the discussions at all.

Different from stand-alone online learning, this method requires assigning a subject-matter expert (SME) who is also willing to moderate and drive the discussions. As a result, the course can be more interactive and the learning outcome might be more intense as the learner gets a deeper knowledge of the topics. However, if the instructor/tutor plans to schedule online sessions, s/he must be mindful that it will limit the freedom of the learner since it requires being online at a certain time. It also might limit the number of people who will be reached.

Choosing this method allows guiding the learner and encourages “out of the box” thinking, but it also requires an SME who is available and able to interact with the learners online. If this method is addressed properly it allows learners to broaden their knowledge and moves the online experience from a simple knowledge-receiving method to an interactive learning experience.

3.3 Blended learning¹¹



Blended Learning is the combination of different training ‘media’ (technologies, activities, and types of events) to create an optimum training program for a specific audience. The term ‘blended’ means that traditional instructor-led training is being supplemented with other electronic formats.¹²

John Bersin

Within NATO and the PfP blended learning has proven its success. A combination of online courses (mostly stand-alone) and classroom instruction is widely used by various training and education facilities. The “blending” of these two methods allows learners to prepare more thoroughly prior to attending a residential class, and the instructor can have some degree of confidence that learners come equipped to address a topic on a more detailed level.

The Non-Commissioned Officer Programmes Department of NATO School Oberammergau has had success in teaching gender to the military using the blended learning model. Its leadership courses contain a list of mandatory stand-alone online modules, including the gender course hosted on the joint advanced distributed learning (JADL) LMS¹³ followed by an active learning session where learners are encouraged to discuss gender-related case studies. The online course is used as basic background, while the classroom instruction allows the instructor and learners to focus on specific issues of the topic.

Choosing the proper strategy to support your instructional goals depends on various factors. The audience you plan to reach will influence the decision, as well as the time available for training and the availability of an instructor/tutor and/or an SME. Box 9.7 gives an overview of the different teaching methods discussed in this chapter.

Box 9.6 Teaching methods

Method	Mode of teaching	Learners' role	Instructor/SME role	Time
Stand-alone online teaching	Asynchronous (hybrid courses might exist)	Self-paced learning	Instructor-independent course Only during the development phase and for course review and update	Accessible any time, fully controlled by the learner
Instructor/tutor in the loop	Possibility of both asynchronous and synchronous	Self-paced and instructor guided	Instructor/tutor has to answer learners' questions, and might schedule online seminars	Depending on the set-up, online seminars might be scheduled Timing can be controlled by the instructor
Blended learning	Both asynchronous and synchronous	Depending on the course set-up, most of the online part is self-paced with classroom instruction	Learners meet instructor/tutor/lecturer during residential phase, and in some cases also online	Residential phase follows a predetermined schedule; online component can be accessed any time

Besides the discussed e-learning services for the learner,¹⁴ collaborative technologies allow easy exchange between experts, giving tutors and instructors a flexible way to prepare their courses weeks in advance, inviting their speakers and support staff to join an expert or facilitator community online. Course preparation is now no longer dependent on one's ability to access e-mail, as portal technologies can be accessed easily through tablets and smartphones, and experts anywhere and anytime can update and amend their briefings and course materials. Collaboration has moved to a new level, which is a good slogan for our online courses: "training and education anytime and anywhere" can now be transformed into "your office anytime and anywhere". This helps instructors to stay in contact with their speakers and support staff even when they are away from the desk on other missions. What was seen as innovative ten years ago is now referred to as traditional training. Currently NATO is looking towards 2020, and how we will address training and education five years hence. Of course the focus of the content will change, but we have to anticipate that the mode of transmitting information could be modified at any time. Tablets and smartphones are no longer status symbols, but tools which help the learner to navigate through the offered curricula. Learners of the twenty-first century no longer limit themselves to libraries and books; e-readers, e-magazines and e-journals are becoming an essential part of research, training and education.

4. Instructional design for online delivery – The challenge of communicating with the content

When deciding to develop an online course you should be aware of certain instructional design principles, even if you are only planning to be the SME for the course. In many cases the instructional design is the only way to influence how your learners will interact with and experience the content. To avoid e-learning drop-out¹⁵ your course should be well designed and avoid inconveniencing the learner, for example through delays when loading the course or multimedia elements that do not work properly.¹⁶

Based on your goals and objectives, you will have to define the e-learning content which will be used in your online course. Of course it is always possible to load a good briefing on an LMS or a portal, but these may not fulfil the needs of the learners. It is important to identify the key content required during the analysis phase, and structure the content so that it is presented in an easy and informative way. The overall aim of the course design should be to ensure that learners increase their knowledge or develop attitudes that allow them to transfer this information to the work environment, and to provide an authentic context which allows the learners to perform the job.¹⁷

The instructional design of an online course is also influenced by instructional methods. A stand-alone course requires more detailed instructions and explanations than a course which has an instructor/tutor in the loop who can offer help if a learner gets lost. With a blended learning approach it is important that the online content is harmonized with the residential programme. Both courses need to be designed in concert with each other to ensure the online content is the basis for the classroom instruction.

Additionally, the selection of multimedia elements is an important part of your course design. In many cases less can be more! Ensuring a balance between text, narrative and graphics in multimedia design and adhering to the design principles outlined by Moreno and Mayer¹⁸ apply equally to teaching gender-related content as they do to any e-learning offering. Given the proliferation of mobile devices of all shapes, sizes and configurations, it is a challenge to design and test course offerings which cover all options currently available on the market. The more multimedia you include and the more interactivity you embed, the more your course depends on a fast and stable internet connection and good resolution at the learner's end.¹⁹ Avoiding multimedia elements is not the answer;²⁰ it requires a balance between words and graphics²¹ to illustrate your content and help the learner to visualize. Well-selected multimedia elements can support your content and strengthen your teaching points.

The gender ADL (advanced distributed learning) courses²² are a good example to show how multimedia elements support the content and help the learner to visualize. The combination of narration, written text and pictures helps the learner to engage with the content. Interactive elements such as text boxes and comprehension questions not only allow the learner to expand the learning experience but also support the learner during studies and allow self-checks to see if the presented content was understood or must be reviewed.

Since these ADL courses were intended mainly as stand-alone online offerings, the design of the content aimed to be very self-explanatory. Focusing on the audiences of the courses (NATO and partners), the designers aimed to prepare the content in a very comprehensive manner which is easy to understand.

5. Applying gender in online instructional design for the curriculum

The instructional design is the critical part of the development of an online course. It sets the tone of the course and outlines how the learner will interact with the content. It also allows integrating certain aspects of teaching.

Considering how gender can be taught to the military, it is obvious that creating a gender-sensitive environment is important. Within classroom instruction there are different modes (discussed in Chapter 5 in this handbook). For online instruction there are some possibilities to develop gender-sensitive content, and other effective and simple ways to help visualization and promote a different way of addressing the topic.

Simple methods such as using gender-inclusive language and choosing your multimedia material carefully by respecting both women and men are easy first steps in promoting gender awareness in your online courses. However, this is not nearly enough: the aim of any form of teaching should be a knowledge transfer, and in the case of teaching gender it should ideally also be a transformation of the mindset. Box 9.7 gives an overview of how instructional design helps to apply gender to the online curriculum.

Box 9.7 Instructional design for gender in the curriculum

Design mode	How to apply gender	Example
Language/narration	Use gender-inclusive language.	Avoid generic male pronouns (“he”), but keep the content language inclusive to address any learner.
Pictures	Select pictures which reflect men and women.	Choose pictures with women in leadership positions. Vary your picture selection: focus once on men and the next time on women.
Other multimedia elements	Select/produce videos that incorporate a gender perspective.	Use, if possible, not only male experts. Find female experts on the topic and use them as testimonials.
Case studies	Keep a good balance in your case studies.	When selecting case studies ensure you are showing the respective case from both sides, from a female and a male perspective.
Questions	When posting questions and giving feedback try to use gender-inclusive language.	Avoid generic male pronouns (“he”), but keep the content language inclusive to address any learner.

Without addressing the topic directly, gender can be applied to learning content in fairly simple ways. Teaching gender online is more than just developing another online course on this topic; it means reviewing the online curricula and ensuring that newly developed online material applies a gender perspective. Teaching gender to the military means changing the mindsets of both learners and instructors.

6. Gender and online teaching – Opportunities, challenges and limits

Online teaching demands a great deal of innovative thinking and creativity from creators/designers, instructors/tutors and SMEs. As shown in this chapter, the online environment provides more opportunities than limitations. Course material designed with a gender-aware mindset sensitizes learners to a balanced approach to presenting the topic, and the gender aspect can be indirectly implemented in the course.

As discussed in Section 3.1, one aspect of online teaching of gender is the possibility of allowing those learners who feel less comfortable in a residential class to learn at their own pace and in their comfort zone. In addition, online classes can overcome the gender bias when learners remain anonymous.²³ This allows the instructor to focus purely on the comments and provided feedback in the online class free of gender bias. Anonymity can also give learners the confidence to post comments (adhering to the course etiquette) on subjects in the knowledge that the comments will be rated on their own merit. This concept can be extended into the instructional environment, whereby the learners may not be aware of the gender of the instructor teaching

the course. This approach may help to overcome prejudices when teaching sensitive topics such as gender. It might sound radical, and of course it should not be the case that both learners and instructors need to remain anonymous, but it helps, especially when it comes to the evaluation. An anonymous group will be rated purely on academic performance and not on personal reasons. The same applies to the instructor: the “typical male” or “typical female” prejudice will not apply in this case. However, it is interesting to mention that a study from the University of Alabama showed no significant difference between the genders using a communication module. This would mean that within an online environment there is no clear, predictable gender difference.²⁴ Nevertheless, anonymity in online courses makes it possible to allow learners to interact with content with which they may not be comfortable. It may be inappropriate to confront learners with this kind of content in the classroom setting.

Of course, challenges remain in the design of assessment criteria and the question of how far one should go in order to integrate a gender perspective and guarantee a gender-inclusive learning environment. It remains the decision of each creator/designer, instructor/tutor and SME as to how far they want to push the online course. As with many other aspects of course design, here “overdoing” can be worse than simply “not doing”. Mainstreaming your online curricula and trying to apply gender must make sense and support the content, otherwise the course will lose its aim and become redundant. Just editing the language to be gender-inclusive is a step in the right direction, but it is by far not enough; however, creating artificial case studies to meet the target to gender mainstream your course will for sure make it lose its relevance. It might be better to offer your learners an online course on gender as complementary reading to introduce them to the topic.

When discussing teaching gender online one has to be aware that there are limits within online teaching. The blended learning approach tries to overcome these issues, by offering both an asynchronous teaching environment online and a synchronous teaching environment during classroom instruction.²⁵ The question of how much an online course on gender will impact the learner is debatable; however, it should be noted that the classroom environment has its limits. The model of transactional distance first introduced by Dr Michael Grahame Moore,²⁶ who sees distance education as a pedagogical concept and not as a simple geographic separation of learners and instructors, explains that distance between instructor and learner can also exist in a classroom.²⁷

Box 9.8 Leveraging advances in technology to provide new training opportunities

New training opportunities include simulation-based training, which has always involved challenges with regard to user interfaces, collaboration, networking, standardization and interoperability. These problems have often been more advanced than those faced in the business IT and C4I (command, control, communications, computers and intelligence) communities. Recent advances in fields like computer gaming and business IT have shown that new technologies can become the basis for simulation systems. Over the last two years consumer IT applications have emerged that may have useful application in distributed simulation. Social networks, wikis, blogs, webpage tagging, photo and video sharing, and tools for personal 3D game development have all attracted significant attention in the academic environment by bringing distributed processing technologies to the mass consumer. Web 2.0 tools answer important problems around distributed, interoperable, interactive, user-centred experiences. Just as computer games brought powerful commercial technologies to military training, Web 2.0 applications have a similar potential which is not yet generally recognized. It is up to the instructors and users how useful application of these technologies can be within the interactive simulation community.²⁸

Finally it should be recognized that the challenges within online teaching could change into possibilities, and the limits are only in our ideas.

Box 9.9 offers a list of online courses, websites and social media groups on gender. The authors do not claim that this is a complete list, but it covers the online resources mainly used within NATO and PfP training and education facilities.

Box 9.9 Online resources on gender

Delivery mode	Name	URL	Registration	Open access
Online course	ADL 168: Role of gender advisers and gender field advisers in operations	https://jadr.act.nato.int/	Registration needed	Unlimited access to the course (once registered to the LMS)
Online course	ADL 169: Improving operational effectiveness by integrating gender perspective	https://jadr.act.nato.int/	Registration needed	Unlimited access to the course (once registered to the LMS)
Online course	ADL 171: Gender focal point	https://jadr.act.nato.int/	Registration needed	Unlimited access to the course (once registered to the LMS)
Online course	ADL 135 Gender perspective	https://jadr.act.nato.int/	Registration needed	Unlimited access to the course (once registered to the LMS)
Online courses	UN peacekeeping training resource	www.peaceopstraining.org/	No registration needed for the free online courses	Some courses require a tuition fee
Community of interest	Facebook groups such as Gender in Military Operations	https://www.facebook.com/groups/115311195225650/	Registration with Facebook needed	Subscription to group needed
Community of interest	Facebook pages such as SEESAC	https://www.facebook.com/SEESAC/	Open	Open
Community of interest	Twitter account @genderssr	https://twitter.com/genderssr	Open	Open
Community of interest	LinkedIn groups	https://www.linkedin.com/	Registration with LinkedIn needed	Subscription to groups needed

7. Annotated bibliography

7.1 Books

Bersin, Josh, *The Blended Learning Book: Best Practices, Proven Methodologies, and Lessons Learned* (San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer, 2004).

The Blended Learning Book is a user manual for implementing blended learning. It offers a guide to combining the latest technologies with traditional training models to create high-impact programmes that drive superior business results (not just reduced costs). Filled with real-world examples and case studies from organizations such as Accenture, BI, Cisco, FedEx, Kinko's, Grant-Thornton, IBM, Novell, the US Navy, Verizon and more, e-learning veteran Josh Bersin zeroes in on what works – in all shapes and sizes of training departments from a variety of industries.

Colvin Clark, Ruth and Richard E. Mayer, *E-Learning and the Science of Instruction. Proven Guidelines for Consumers and Designers of Multimedia Learning* (San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer, 2003).

The authors offer useful information and guidelines for selecting, designing and developing asynchronous and synchronous e-learning courses that build knowledge and skills for workers learning in corporate, government and academic settings.

Sauter, Annette M., Werner Sauter and Harald Bender, *Blended Learning* (Unterschleissheim/Munich: Luchterhand, 2004).

The book mainly addresses instructional designers and project managers, as well as tutors and trainers, to offer a set of best practices on how e-learning can be effectively embedded in an institution and enhance the learning experience of the learners.

7.2 Periodicals

Hrastinski, Stefan, "Asynchronous and synchronous e-learning", *Educause Quarterly*, No. 4 (2008).

Today's workforce is expected to be highly educated and to improve skills continually and acquire new ones by engaging in lifelong learning. E-learning, here defined as learning and teaching online through network technologies, is arguably one of the most powerful responses to the growing need for education. Some researchers have expressed concern about the learning outcomes for e-learners, but a review of 355 comparative studies reveals no significant difference in learning outcomes, commonly measured as grades or exams.

7.3 Online publications

Educause Learning Initiative, "7 things you should know about... Flipped classrooms", February 2012, <https://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/eli7081.pdf>.

The flipped classroom is a pedagogical model in which the typical lecture and homework elements of a course are reversed. The notion of a flipped classroom draws on such concepts as active learning, learner engagement, hybrid course design and course podcasting. The value of a flipped class is in the repurposing of class time into a workshop where learners can enquire about lecture content, test their skills in applying knowledge and interact with one another in hands-on activities. Although implementing a flipped classroom places different demands on faculty and forces learners to adjust their expectations, the model has the potential to bring about a distinctive shift in priorities – from merely covering material to working towards mastery of it.

Lucas, Susan, "Relationship of gender to faculty use of online educational tools", *Educause Library Items*, 1 January 2003, <https://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/EDU03159.pdf>.

Research shows that men and women use the web differently. This difference may dictate what online tools faculty make available to enhance learning. This paper presents the results of a research study that questions whether this gendered use extends to higher education faculty and discusses possible implications.

Sams, Aaron, Jon Bergmann, Kristin Daniels, Brian Bennett, Helaine W. Marshall and Kari M. Arfstrom, "What is flipped learning?", *Flipped Learning Network*, 2014, http://flippedlearning.org/cms/lib07/VA01923112/Centricity/Domain/46/FLIP_handout_FNL_Web.pdf.

While often defined simplistically as "schoolwork at home and homework at school", "flipped learning" is an approach that allows instructors to implement a methodology, or various methodologies, in their classrooms.

7.4 Online resources

NATO eLearning (Joint Advanced Distributed Learning – Learning Management System), <https://jadl.act.nato.int/>.

NATO's joint advanced distributed learning (JADL) platform has a wide variety of free courses, but users must have a NATO military, government or NATO official e-mail address in order to register. Some courses are restricted and require administrative approval to join, but all the gender-related courses (of which there are several) can be joined directly by anyone with a JADL account.

PfP Consortium e-learning, <https://pfpcadl.act.nato.int/>.

The PfPC JADL platform has a wide variety of free courses available to partners. All online courses are free to join.

"ADL 10 years", *NATO School Today*, www.slideshare.net/gigiroman/nato-school-magazine-adl-10-years-special.

NATO School Today is the authorized but unofficial publication produced by the NATO School Public Affairs Office. It contains a compilation of articles, reports and general information related to NATO School. The opinions expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official policy of NATO.

"JADLeT – Building communities of practice through collaborative learning at NATO School", *Journal of Advanced Distributed Learning Technology*, <http://jadlet.com/index.php/jadlet/article/view/5/10>.

This article documents the initiatives taken by NATO School's ADL team to promote the idea of collaborative learning within their institution. It also illustrates how e-learning tools can enhance existing curricula in educational institutions. It argues that e-learning is critical to NATO's activities given its specific need to respond to rapidly changing threats and challenges that can occur unexpectedly across a wide geographical area.

E-learning on gender and security – Inventory of existing resources, www.gssrtraining.ch/images/stories/PDF/AResources/Mapping-gender-e-learning.pdf.

This inventory compiles e-learning courses on gender and security identified by desk research and expert consultations. Its purpose is to map existing resources and serve as an annotated bibliography. The inventory focuses on self-directed courses and does not list individual courses that are offered for a limited amount of time. It seeks to identify courses that are available on a continuous basis, giving course name, authors, access requirements, duration, topics covered and target audiences.

Flipped Learning Network – A professional learning community for educators using flipped learning, <http://flippedclassroom.org/>.

This free professional learning community is for sharing best practices. The not-for-profit Flipped Learning Network is a source of information for emerging and established educators at all grade levels and in all subjects who are employing the flip in a single lesson, an individual class, an entire department or the whole school.

Notes

1. The authors would like to thank Aram Hong, Greta Keremidchieva and Rémi Tremblay for providing written comments on this chapter.
2. Since 2012 ACT together with NATO School Oberammergau and the PfP Consortium, mainly the Security Sector Reform Working Group and Advanced Distributed Learning Working Group, have been developing a series of online courses on gender.
3. The Facebook group "Gender in military operations" is a good example of bringing together experts and interested persons, <https://www.facebook.com/groups/115311195225650/>. The LinkedIn group "Gender in operations" is another example of using social networks to reach as many people as possible, <https://www.linkedin.com/groups/Gender-in-Operations-4065311>.
4. Charlottelsaksson, post on 8 July at 19:41, https://www.facebook.com/groups/115311195225650/?notif_t=group_r2j_approved.
5. Flipped Learning Network, "Definition of flipped learning", 12 March 2014, www.flippedlearning.org/definition.
6. Annette M. Sauter, Werner Sauter and Harald Bender, *Blended Learning* (Munich: Luchterhand, 2004), p. 67.
7. Itworx Education, "Collaborative learning versus peer-to-peer learning", 27 November 2014, www.itworx.education/collaborative-learning-vs-peer-to-peer-learning/.
8. Stefan Hrastinski, "Asynchronous and synchronous e-learning", *Educause Quarterly*, Vol. 31, No. 4 (2008), pp. 51–55.
9. Josh Bersin, *The Blended Learning Book: Best Practices, Proven Methodologies, and Lessons Learned* (San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer, 2004), p. 3.
10. *Ibid.*, p. 2.
11. In this chapter "blended learning" means a combination of online teaching and classroom instruction.
12. Bersin, note 9 above, p. XV.
13. See <https://jadr.act.nato.int/>.
14. There are a variety of different e-learning services for learners available. Here we mainly focus on the services designed for NATO and the PfP: currently the ACT LMS powered by ILIAS and the PfP Members Portal (similar to the NATO School Members Portal).
15. "Students drop out of online classes at rates 15 percent to 20 percent higher than traditional ones, according to earlier research cited in the study." Marc Parry, "Preventing online dropouts: Does anything work?", 22 September 2010, <http://chronicle.com/blogs/wiredcampus/preventing-online-dropouts-does-anything-work/27108>.
16. For further information on avoiding drop-outs see John Laskaris, "Avoiding drop outs in your e-learning courses", Talent blog, 17 July 2015, www.talentlms.com/blog/avoiding-drop-outs/.
17. Ruth Colvin Clark and Richard E. Mayer, *E-Learning and the Science of Instruction. Proven Guidelines for Consumers and Designers of Multimedia Learning* (San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer, 2003), p. 14ff.
18. Roxano Moreno and Richard E. Mayer, "Cognitive principles of multimedia learning: The role of modality and contiguity", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 91, No. 2. (1999), pp. 358–368.
19. *Ibid.*, p. 29ff.
20. For further information see Tanya Elia, "Universal instructional design principles for mobile learning", *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, Vol. 12, No. 2, (2011), www.irrodl.org/index.php/irrodl/article/view/965/1792.
21. Colvin Clark and Mayer, note 17 above, p. 54ff.
22. Hosted on <https://jadr.act.nato.int/>.
23. This refers mainly to the instructor/tutor-in-the-loop online teaching method.
24. Susan Lucas, "Relationship of gender to faculty use of online educational tools", Educause Library Items, 1 January 2003, <https://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/EDU03159.pdf>.
25. It has to be mentioned that these are ideal types: in reality there is very often an overlap of both synchronous and asynchronous teaching methods.
26. Professor emeritus of education at Pennsylvania State University, and known for his major contributions to the field of distance education. In 1972 he published his first statement of theory, while his transactional distance theory was first formulated in 1997.
27. Based on Moore's theory it can be simplified that the less dialogue between learner and instructor and the more structure, or the less capacity for individualization, the more transactional distance will be generated. Of course, the self-directed study of a textbook will generate more transactional distance than personal tutorials; but by selecting the appropriate communication media this distance can be influenced. See CI 484 Learning Technologies, "Transactional distance theory: Synopsis of Moore's theory of transactional distance", 22 August 2011, <https://ci484-learning-technologies.wikispaces.com/Transactional+Distance+Theory>.
28. Roger Smith, "Web 2.0 and warfighter training", 18 December 2014, <http://docslide.us/business/web20-and-warfighter-training.html>.

Mentoring and coaching

Nathaly Levesque (Canada) and Maka Petriashvili (Georgia)¹

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1. Introduction

Over the last decade coaching and mentoring programmes have gained in popularity in many organizations, both within government and in the private sector. The military is no exception; it also benefits from having coaching and/or mentoring at any level of its organization. To apply this in practice and show its importance, the Canadian Armed Forces published a mentoring handbook to increase the number of mentoring programmes in its organization.² A good example of military coaching comes from the Swedish Armed Forces, which ran a programme as part of a national framework known as Genderforce (see Annex 2 of this chapter).

Mentoring and coaching are not new ideas in training and education, and have existed in some form throughout history in most militaries. They are increasingly being recognized as informal yet effective teaching methods for raising awareness and enhancing knowledge in specific areas. Unlike more formal training and education, which require classroom attendance, coaching and mentoring activities are integrated into regular job duties or can be accomplished through media such as e-mails, video conferences or phone calls. All interventions are tailored to the specific requirements or needs of the recipient, and are aimed at both improving skills and performance and supporting professional and career development. These interactions also influence personal development, irrespective of whether this is one of the specific objectives. These types of teaching and learning are completely aligned with the adult learning principles presented by Knowles in 1980,³ in which the learner takes responsibility for his or her own learning such that it becomes more motivating.⁴

There is a general tendency to use the terms *coaching* and *mentoring* interchangeably, which is perhaps not surprising given that they are both performance-related leadership development tools that often share similar learning processes and characteristics. Scholars and practitioners, however, distinguish the two terms because they have quite different aims. One such scholar is Clutterbuck, who argues that “mentoring might look at individuals’ careers and self-development, whereas coaching might focus on a particular task, competence or behaviour”.⁵

This chapter presents an overview of mentoring and coaching and how they relate to gender in the military. Mentoring and coaching concepts are introduced, and then compared in terms of techniques. Some examples of each process are given to highlight the qualities and roles required in respective training situations. Annex 1 provides some useful tools for the development of coaching and mentoring processes and capabilities. Finally, Annex 2 presents a practical example of a gender-specific coaching programme to demonstrate how leadership can be sensitized to incorporating gender-specific training. The ultimate goal of this chapter is to ensure that the right people get the right mentoring and coaching as determined by their needs, so that one day they may become mentors and coaches themselves.

2. Mentoring

2.1 What is mentoring?

The term *mentor* has its roots in Greek mythology. When Greek hero Odysseus left for the Trojan War, his friend Mentor was charged with guiding Odysseus’ son, Telemachus, through life. The term “mentor” was subsequently adopted to describe an experienced person who guides relatively less experienced protégé(s). It is important to put emphasis here on the verb: to *guide*. Mentoring is, at its very essence, a process of guiding someone, and not one of telling them what to do and how to do it.

Mentoring is defined as a “professional relationship in which a more experienced person (a mentor) voluntarily shares knowledge, insights, and wisdom with a less-experienced person (a mentee) who wishes to benefit from that exchange. It is a medium to long-term learning relationship founded on respect, honesty, trust and mutual goals.”⁶ It is also a dynamic developmental relationship in which a mentor shares his or her own knowledge and experience.⁷ Usually, a mentor/mentee relationship is based around four developmental pillars:

- leadership development;
- professional development;
- career development;
- personal development.

For example, in 2014 the Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF) implemented a three-year mentorship programme as professional development for all its general officers to help them improve their cognitive and social abilities.⁸

Box 10.1 Perceptions on mentoring

Mentoring is an unselfish process. It is altruistic. It is interpersonal. It is a voluntary pairing of two individuals for mutual personal and corporate gain. Mentoring affects many aspects of organizational behaviour including leadership, organizational culture, job satisfaction and performance. Mentoring is a phenomenon that appears in almost every large corporation.⁹

In a military environment, we often see those in the gender-related field create either an informal or a formal mentoring programme with colleagues. Being a gender adviser (GENAD) requires specific skills, knowledge and attributes, and junior advisers can benefit tremendously from relationships with their seniors. Their knowledge and experience, in terms of both philosophical underpinnings and workplace challenges, can be imparted to junior colleagues to assist them in their new responsibilities and functions. This process perpetuates continued growth and development. While formal gender-related mentoring programmes are non-existent in many military institutions, informal mentoring is far more common.



“It has been really important for me to have someone with expertise in gender who I can consult for complicated technical or political questions. I consider this person a gender mentor – someone who I can go to for support and guidance. I also have a political mentor, someone who can help me identify the best strategy to deal with challenges in the workplace whether those are specific to gender or more related to management.”¹⁰

Anonymous mentee

Renowned leaders in military organizations have often taken on informal mentoring roles by establishing relationships with one or a group of subordinates and providing guidance.¹¹ The qualities of this type of leader are generally the same as those required to be a mentor, especially when overseeing a protégé(e)’s career and facilitating his or her professional development.¹²

Currently in the US military every service component has either a formal or an informal mentoring system. This is especially the case within the officer corps, where a well-paired mentor can help to fast-track a younger officer towards a successful career.¹³

Box 10.2 Mentoring in the Royal Canadian Air Force

The RCAF established a mentorship programme in 2013 for its non-commissioned members (NCMs). It has the following objectives:

1. To prepare NCMs for the future by aiding their development;
2. To enable future mission and RCAF success;
3. To enhance knowledge transfer;
4. To cultivate a learning organization;
5. To ensure personal success for the individual and overall success to the organization;
6. To endorse the dynamic and multifaceted operating environment;
7. To increase commitment to the organization and ultimately strengthen the RCAF image.¹⁴

After this programme was implemented, several interviews were conducted. Some of the comments were as follows.

“No one becomes a good leader on their own. Experience and wisdom must be shared.”

“For me, the mentorship programme is about the art of sharing your knowledge and experience with an individual who is aiming for higher performance.”

“Mentorship provides me the opportunity to develop long-term relationships in which I can share my experience through open, two-way dialogue.”¹⁵

Everyone in a military institution has a clear responsibility to contribute to the development of their subordinates.¹⁶ Many personnel working in gender-related roles in such institutions, such as GENADs, tend to work predominantly in one-on-one relationships with their colleagues. Coaching and mentoring of personnel in this situation is therefore extremely important for their development. Mentoring relationships can also serve to open up communication channels between organizations, which serve to break down barriers, foster cultural change and help develop younger generations. Advances in communications technology now give such personnel greater access to mentoring. This has provided new opportunities for military institutions to foster mentoring relationships across wide geographical areas, for example between personnel deployed abroad and those serving in their home country, in a way that would have been unimaginable in the past.¹⁷

2.2 How is mentoring relevant to teaching gender in the military?

Mentoring plays an important role in the retention and promotion of personnel in the military. As Chapter 6 notes, demographic groups without a long history in the military often lack access to mentors. Many women fall into this category, as do men serving in non-traditional roles or those from minority groups. In informal mentoring relationships especially, mentors will often select mentees with whom they can easily develop an affinity, and hence have a tendency to choose those with similar interests and a similar background to themselves. In this way, those from dominant groups within the armed forces are given an unfair advantage in terms of moral and educational support. They also have greater access to knowledge, and especially that contained within the “hidden curriculum”, such as the way members of the military should behave in order to leave a good impression on their superiors and boost their promotion prospects (see Chapter 4). It should come as no surprise that academic studies, including one conducted in the US Navy, demonstrate a relationship between mentoring and the retention of personnel.¹⁸

The solution to this problem is to encourage situations whereby underrepresented groups within the military receive formal or informal mentoring to address this disadvantage and foster merit-based promotion. There are some situations where peer mentoring can be effective, for example where both mentor and mentee are servicewomen. In these cases, the mentor can provide information on how to address some of the gender-specific challenges that women face while serving in the military, and available services that their male colleagues may not know about. On the other hand, in situations where there are few women in senior positions it is important that women have access to high-ranking male mentors to boost their prospects of promotion. Without this, it cannot be said that all personnel have an equal level of access to military education.

3. Coaching

3.1 What is coaching?

Coaching is defined as a short-term relationship in which the coach helps the “coachee” (i.e. the person being coached) to enhance and develop particular skills and performance in a given task. According to Sanger et al.,¹⁹ coaching is the process of “helping people to reflect upon their work (style) in a frank and rigorous way and to establish new patterns as a consequence”.

In US Army doctrine, coaching is defined as the guidance of another person’s development of new or existing skills during the practice of these skills.²⁰ In this sense it is easy to envision many functions or jobs in which coaching is necessary. For instance, when starting a new job, coaching is a way of reducing the time it takes for someone to become effective and efficient in the new role.

3.2 How is coaching relevant to teaching gender in the military?

Coaching is relevant to teaching gender in the military in at least three areas. Firstly, as many members of the military will not have studied gender as part of their compulsory education, they may require gender coaches to help integrate gender perspectives into their work. GENADs often play a *de facto* coaching role by using their skills in analysing how a proposed activity will affect women, men, girls and boys differently; this fills a knowledge gap and complements the skills and experiences of their coachees, who are often more senior commanders. The Swedish Gender Coach Programme in Annex 2 falls into this category.

Second, service personnel such as GENADs and gender focal points who have a formal role related to gender have often not been educated in all the skills they require to perform these roles effectively. One example is the workshop series on teaching gender to the military that provided the impetus for drafting this handbook. The adult education specialists in this series were not only facilitators but also short-term coaches in adult learning skills for the gender specialists who participated.

Third, ensuring the successful incorporation of a gender perspective into the work of a military unit and the creation of a non-discriminatory working environment requires the demonstration of strong leadership skills on the part of all those in leadership roles. Transformational leadership, as espoused in the Canadian Armed Forces, “entails that members are committed to the values of the military and to bringing about significant change to individual, group or system outcomes”.²¹ The incorporation of a gender perspective into the way that leaders are coached is thus a critical part of ensuring that diverse groups of women and men are able to serve together in the military and achieve their full potential. This kind of leadership coaching involves education on how to identify and prevent discriminatory behaviour and promote an environment where all personnel are valued based not on their identity or appearance but rather their contribution to the unit.

4. Mentoring versus coaching

As mentioned earlier, scholars such as Clutterbuck differentiate between mentoring and coaching. To apply Clutterbuck’s theory in practice in a military setting, we can view mentoring as a longer-term learning practice that aims to support professional and career development, while coaching can be considered a shorter learning practice targeting the skills required for a specific military role. Mentors assigned to military leaders in the longer term contribute to their mentees’ continuous learning, and this could theoretically influence decisions by adding a gender-based lens to all actions. Given that gender is a relatively new topic for the military, however, the number of senior military personnel with experience in integrating a gender perspective in their work tends to be quite small. In these situations, coaches with subject-matter expertise are often able to support military leaders in integrating gender perspectives into specific projects or operations despite the coach usually having less overall military experience than the coachee.

4.1 The differences between mentoring and coaching

The mentoring handbook of the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute highlights some of the major distinctions between mentoring and coaching (Box 10.3).²²

Box 10.3 Mentoring versus coaching

Mentoring	Coaching
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long-term relationship, usually lasting for several years. • Mentoring is an integral part of leadership. • Holistic: focused on empowering the individual to build insights, self-awareness and unique ways of handling issues. • Mentors provide guidance in terms of leadership and career, professional and personal development. <p>Mentors are sought when individuals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are keen to increase the pace of their learning; • Recognize the need for constructive challenges; • Want to build and follow through personal learning plans; • Want to explore a wide range of issues as they emerge and become important. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short-term relationship lasting until the individual acquires the required skills and behaviours. • Coaching is an integral part of mentoring. • Targeted: focused on helping the individual develop specific skills or behaviours. • Coaches observe the individual doing a specific task and provide objective feedback and encouragement. <p>Coaches are sought when individuals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are concerned about some aspect of their performance; • Want to make specific changes in behaviour; • Want to acquire some specific skills.

4.2 Mentoring and coaching processes

Both mentoring and coaching are dynamic processes, although mentoring may last longer and the changes in the relationship between mentor and mentee are more pronounced. While there are many models of mentoring, two are especially informative and helpful in planning, executing and evaluating mentoring processes.

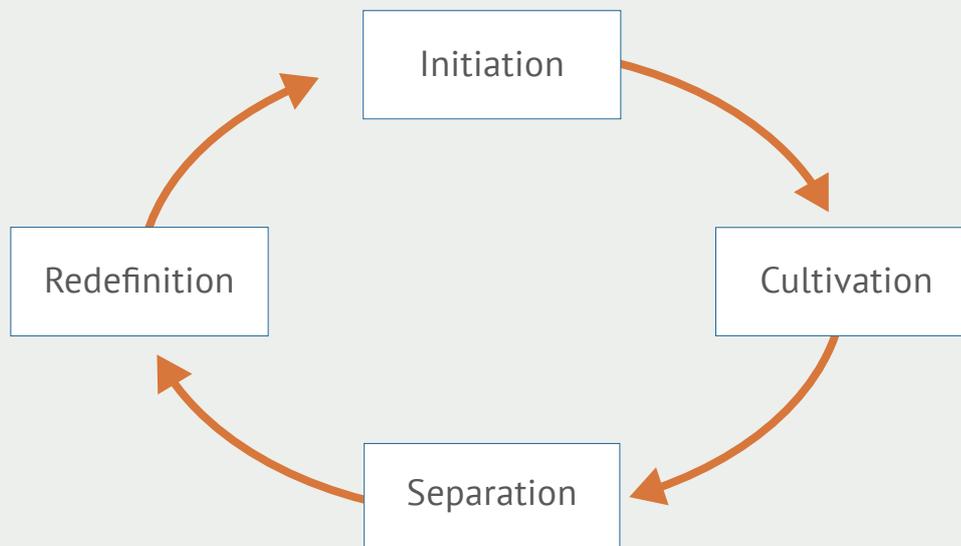
Gray's²³ model of mentoring processes examines changes in the mentee that are observable from the outside, and how these affect the kinds of activities undertaken by the mentor. It highlights the importance of the mentor's diminishing role in the work of the mentee (or "protégé(e)", to use Gray's terminology) in order to achieve the objectives of the mentorship programme.

Box 10.4 Gray's five-phase mentoring model²⁴

Phase	I	II	III	IV	V
Main theme	Prescriptive	Persuasive	Collaborative	Confirmative	Independent
Type of activity	Mentor directs the protégé(e).	Mentor leads and guides the protégé(e).	Mentor participates jointly with protégé(e).	Mentor delegates to protégé(e).	Protégé(e) achieves functional independence.
Mentee characteristics	Skill-trained. Lacks experience and organizational knowledge.	Eager to learn more skill application to become independent, and to show initiative.	Possesses ability to work jointly with mentor and apply technical skills in problem solving.	Possesses insight to apply skills and function independently, relying on mentor for confirmation.	Independent in problem solving; creative, innovative and develops new ideas; a mentor to new protégé(s).

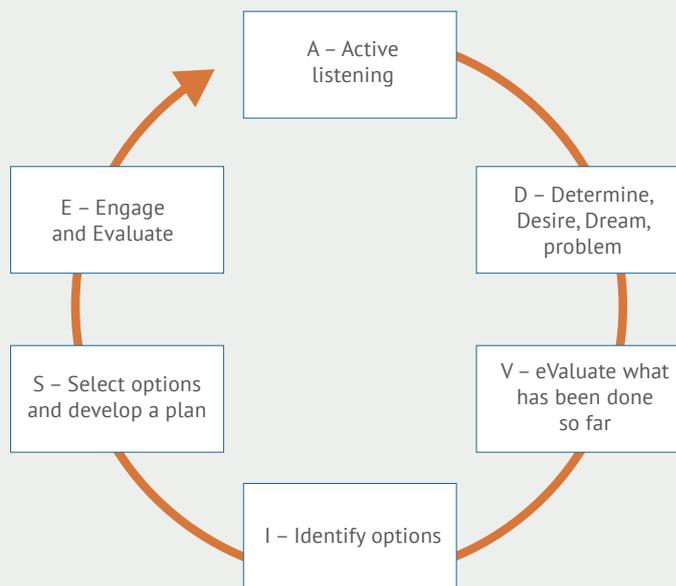
Kram's²⁵ model, on the other hand, highlights that the process has both a skills-transfer element and a psychological element. Kram's model especially highlights the importance of managing the separation phase. In some cases mentors may feel that their mentees are beginning to threaten their own position in the hierarchy, and may react negatively by trying to prevent the mentees' progression (in effect, trying to prolong the mentorship process). In other cases mentees may feel abandoned or let down by a mentor who no longer has the ability to help them. Kram argues, however, that it is possible to take active steps to manage the separation by setting a formal ending to the relationship in which the pair both reflect on the progress of the mentee and the contribution of the mentor. They can also discuss what kind of relationship they want to have in the future, and whether the mentee still has needs that can be met by a new mentor. In situations where the mentor and mentee simply drift apart, the mentor may feel undervalued or betrayed.

Box 10.5 Kram's phases of the mentor relationship²⁷



Stage	I	II	III	IV
Main theme	Initiation	Cultivation	Separation	Redefinition
Type of activity²⁸	A relationship is established; goals, objectives, process and timeline are planned.	The plan is implemented. (Most of the true mentoring takes place at this point.)	The mentoring relationship is ended by one or both parties, or by an external factor.	The parties decide whether to remain in contact. If so, they may become peers or remain in sporadic contact.
Relationship characteristics	Apprehensive, suspicious or overly formal.	Informal, intimate, close.	Resentful and hostile or positive yet challenging.	Indifferent or friendly or nostalgic.

In the literature there are many different coaching process models, but the vast majority include training, developing a plan and making the learner more responsible in order to achieve success. McClellan and Moser's model has been chosen here because it is complete, can be adapted to any organization and describes the process to apply while coaching (Box 10.6).²⁹

Box 10.6 A practical approach to advising as coaching³⁰

One of the key distinctions of the coaching process (compared to mentoring) outlined by this model is that the coachee takes the lead in decision-making and implementation. During the active listening phase, it is the coachee who outlines the “problem” and, with the support of the coach, determines what the desire is. The coach then encourages the coachee to evaluate what has been done so far and identify the different options for future steps. Once an option has been selected, the coach supports the coachee in elaborating a plan. Unlike in a mentoring process, the coach is not a role model to the coachee because he or she has only a narrow area of expertise and his or her professional experience may come from a different field. It is the coachee who has more knowledge of the broader context. There are thus not the same challenges of separation because the relationship comes to a clear end once the coachee’s objectives have been reached. Whether the process is repeated depends primarily on the nature of the coachee’s future work priorities, and not on any personal affiliation between the two nor on the coach’s evaluation of the coachee’s needs.

4.3 The roles and attributes of mentors and coaches

Mentors and coaches are there to make a difference, to establish new patterns and to lead developmental processes. These are two-way processes in which it is crucial for both sides to commit to spending time together, to listening and to setting developmental goals in order to achieve the change.

There are essential rules for making coaching and mentoring successful and results-driven:

- mentoring/coaching is a totally voluntary relationship;
- information discussed during mentoring/coaching is confidential;
- there are mutual trust, respect and commitment;
- mentoring/coaching communication is a collaborative “two-way street”;
- either party can withdraw from the relationship at any time;
- the relationship must be driven on mentees/coachees’ needs and requests.

In addition, there are clear expectations for each side of the relationship. The UK Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development developed a list of expectations and desired behaviours for both sides, and highlighted a “to do” list for each.³¹

Box 10.7 Expectations and activities of mentors, mentees, coaches and coachees

What you expect from the mentor or coach:	What you expect from the mentee or coachee:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • good active listening skills; • accessibility and approachability; • patience; • empathy and open-mindedness; • honesty; • subject-matter knowledge; • constructive feedback; • a balance of push (instruction and skills transfer) and pull (giving opportunities for the coachee to draw on existing strengths to find answers). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • commitment; • openness/being receptive to new ideas; • effort; • curiosity; • ambition; • time to do it; • defined goals or objectives; • willingness to learn or change.
What mentors and coaches do:	What mentees and coachees do:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • raise self-awareness; • provide feedback; • increase motivation; • build self-confidence and avoid being judgemental; • adopt a questioning, non-directive approach; • consciously match style to coachee's readiness to tackle a task; • encourage ownership of outcomes through dynamic interaction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listen and learn; • accept feedback with an open mind; • engage in introspection and show willingness to change; • have confidence to take risks and make changes; • show eagerness to take on new challenges.

5. Coaching and mentoring culture within military institutions

5.1 How can military institutions foster a culture of coaching and mentoring?



... while formal counseling is important from an institutional perspective, informal counseling and mentoring are major factors in leader development. And that is something that needs to be fostered in an increasingly complex world, where even junior leaders need to make split-second decisions that have far-reaching impacts.

General Raymond Odierno, retired, former chief of staff of the US Army³²

The importance of coaching and mentoring is widely accepted within senior military circles.³³ However, encouraging the development of a coaching and mentoring culture presents some particular challenges for military institutions. One of the first is that it is sometimes equated with favouritism due to the historical legacy of secret fraternities in some militaries which sought to gain unfair promotions for their own members.³⁴ A second challenge is that past experience of mandatory coaching or mentoring programmes may have cast the practice in a bad light. One author has described the matching process of such programmes as “like trying to find true love on a blind date – it can happen but the odds are against it”.³⁵ It is little surprise that most mentors

and mentees who have been forcibly paired find it to be a waste of time. The third challenge is that informal mentor relationships may exist outside the chain of command, creating (a fear of) tension between the mentee's supervisor and the mentor.³⁶ Indeed, the Canadian Forces recognize that many supervisors take on a minor mentoring role, but it is preferable that a mentor is someone other than the person who conducts performance reviews of the mentee, including those linked to promotions.³⁷

Recent experience has, however, identified several steps that military institutions can take to foster a culture of mentoring and coaching. One of the first steps is to recognize its importance and provide education for potential mentors and coaches. One study suggests that senior managers tend to be offered external professional coaches while more junior staff tend to have access only to internal coaches. Providing education in coaching skills to those with the requisite subject-matter expertise to work as coaches can therefore be an effective way to improve internal coaching programmes. This should also have the knock-on effect of increasing the number of coaches so that they are available to more junior personnel.³⁸ Similarly, while formal mentoring programmes have had mixed results, it is clear that offering education to willing mentors and incorporating mentoring skills into leadership training can improve results and institutionalize coaching and mentoring as regular duties of military personnel.³⁹ Ideally, such leadership training would incorporate a gender perspective, highlighting the important role played by mentoring and coaching in promoting gender equality in military institutions.

Another good practice that military institutions have adopted is to create written resources for coaches and mentors. The US Navy's handbook clearly outlines boundaries to the role the mentor can play and, while highlighting the importance of this role, reiterates the primacy of the command chain and the authority of the supervisor to disregard the mentor's recommendations. This should eliminate tensions between supervisors, mentors and mentees, and eradicate myths that mentors can obtain unfair promotions for their mentees.⁴⁰ The US Navy also created an online database where mentees can view the profiles of available mentors and invite them to start a mentoring relationship, either electronically or in person. The Canadian Forces handbook includes a mentor's and a mentee's pledge – effectively a code of conduct – as well as useful tools for mentor and mentee to use together to guide the process.⁴¹ These tools provide institutional endorsement and support for mentoring and coaching without forcing it upon military staff. They also reinforce the notion that coaching and mentoring are part of regular work and that activities can take place during working hours, although many find it conducive to hold sessions over lunch breaks or after work.⁴²

6. Conclusion

Mentoring and coaching make important contributions to the teaching of gender within the military by aiding the personal and professional development of both faculty and learners. They can help build the capacity and inner motivation to improve gender equality within individuals and organizations, but this requires strong commitment and leadership in supporting gender equality at senior levels.

As demonstrated through examples, coaching and mentoring become more and more important in every organization that is looking to increase individual performance and, ultimately, organizational performance. This chapter highlights that the military environment is no exception. Many of the services have a formal mentoring or coaching programme at either unit or organization-wide level, and others have taken significant steps towards supporting informal mentoring and coaching.

For personnel working within the gender-related field, coaching and mentoring processes can be both a source of support and an entry point towards achieving their professional objectives. As many GENADs are the sole such entity within their organization, they play a crucial role in bringing about transformation within their institutions. In addition, developments in communications technology mean they can now engage in coaching and mentoring activities over a wider area, thus sharing expertise with other lone advisers.

Mentoring and coaching are instrumental in leader development and key to improving organizations, especially in terms of promoting gender equality. While more work may still be needed in defining which interventions are

necessary in each specific situation, there can be no doubt that coaching and mentoring are tools that cannot be overlooked when adopting holistic and effective approaches to teaching gender in the military.

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Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, "Coaching and mentoring", September 2014, www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/coaching-mentoring.aspx.

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Civilian Working Group, *Mentoring Program Handbook*, US Department of Navy, undated, www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/navy/mentoring_hand.pdf.

This handbook was designed for mentors in the US Navy, and includes a list of answers to frequently asked questions as well as guidance on building mentoring skills.

Clutterbuck, David, *Everyone Needs a Mentor: Fostering Talent in Your Organisation*, 5th edn (London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2014).

David Clutterbuck has produced a variety of useful books on coaching and mentoring. This volume provides an in-depth introduction to mentoring as a concept and practical guidance on establishing mentorship programmes. It also contains chapters looking at specific kinds of mentoring, such as diversity, maternity, virtual and multicountry mentoring. A full list of his publications (many of which have been translated) can be found on his website, <https://www.davidclutterbuckpartnership.com>.

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This handbook by the Canadian Defence Academy offers an introduction to the concept of mentoring and concrete recommendations on how to go about entering into a mentoring relationship. It is aimed at both potential mentees and mentors in military institutions, and provides a selection of useful tools in its annexes.

US Department of the Army, *Army Mentorship Handbook* (Rosslyn, VA: Department of the Army, 2005), www.armycounselingonline.com/download/Mentorship%20Handbook.pdf.

This handbook was produced for the US Army and is adapted from a similar work by the US Marine Corps. It provides a list of answers to frequently asked questions about mentoring, an introduction to the mentoring process and a selection of useful tools aimed at mentees and mentors, including a model mentorship agreement.

Annex 1: Why should individuals and organizations engage in mentoring?⁴³

The first section can help someone who wants to become a mentor, and the second section is useful for an organization that would like to start a mentorship programme.

I. Why should I become a mentor (self-reflection)?

1. Are there aspects of my professional life in which I feel I am not reaching my full potential? My career? My leadership style? My personal development?
2. How would mentoring most benefit me?
3. What can I offer as a mentor? Can I help further the careers of underrepresented and minority groups in the military, such as women?
4. What can I bring to a mentoring relationship? What are my strengths? Do I have knowledge that could benefit others with a similar background to me?
5. What aspects of myself should I work on to become a better mentor and leader?
6. Are there any areas in my professional leadership journey that I wish to enhance through a mentoring relationship?
7. How can I improve gender balance?

II. Why would an organization need mentoring?

An organization might look at implementing a mentoring initiative for the following reasons:

- Passing on organizational memory;
- Enhancing knowledge transfer;
- Bringing new members up to speed faster and better;
- Increasing commitment to the organization;
- Decreasing attrition;
- Improving succession planning;
- Reaching individuals in remote and isolated regions;
- Increasing productivity;
- Strengthening the organizational image;
- Increasing diversity and/or creating a better gender balance in the organization.

Asking the following questions helps to identify the requirements.

1. How would you envision your organization (e.g., unit, group, etc.) benefiting from a mentoring initiative?
2. What are the potential obstacles and how could they be overcome?

Annex 2: The Swedish Gender Coach Programme

Best practice example

As introduced in Chapter 4 of this book, one way to accomplish transformative learning is to use a coaching programme. The Swedish Gender Coach Programme aims to influence both the cognitive and the affective domains of the coachee. The programme is tailor-made for the senior leadership of agencies within the Swedish security sector and crisis management institutions. It is an innovative method to strengthen an organization's ability to gender mainstream through a top-down perspective. What makes it so successful is the combination of the inner motivation of the individual achieved through mentoring, which seeks to influence the affective domain, and the parallel educational seminars which foster the cognitive domain, i.e. the capacity of the individuals to accomplish change within their organizations.

The beginning of the programme

The Swedish Gender Coach Programme was run for the first time in 2007, within the framework of a project sponsored by the European Union called Genderforce. Genderforce was a cooperative effort between security sector institutions and non-governmental organizations working in the fields of international relief and post-conflict peacekeeping operations. It was active between 2004 and 2007, and involved the Civil Contingencies Agency, the Swedish Armed Forces, the Association of Military Officers in Sweden, the Swedish police, the Women's Voluntary Defence Organization and the Kvinna till Kvinna Foundation.

After 2007 Genderforce developed into cooperation between the Swedish Armed Forces, the Civil Contingencies Agency, the Folke Bernadotte Academy, and the police. Kvinna till Kvinna plays an advising role in the cooperation. The purpose of Genderforce is to promote and strengthen the agencies' work on gender equality and implementation of UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 and related resolutions (the women, peace and security agenda).⁴⁴

Aims of the programme

The aim of the programme is to strengthen the capacity of the senior leadership to implement gender equality and the women, peace and security agenda within their organizations. Through a combination of coaching and building knowledge within individuals, the programme aims for a twofold result.

Primarily, the programme aims to create inner motivation within leaders to want to accomplish change and realize the benefits of gender responsiveness within their respective organizations. In other words the programme aspires to influence the affective domain. Secondly, it seeks to strengthen the capability of leaders to see what activities need to be implemented to achieve gender equality, i.e. the cognitive domain. Referring to Bloom's taxonomy this would be "creating", at the top of the learning pyramid (see Box 7.15 in Chapter 7).

The aims can be summarized as follows:

- Increase the capacity of leaders to implement gender equality laws and policies, and a gender perspective in their daily work;
- Enable leaders to meet their organization's obligations set out in the national action plan to implement UNSCR 1325;
- Improve leaders' ability to deal with organizational obstacles and resistance to gender mainstreaming and implementation of UNSCR 1325;
- Develop individual action plans on gender mainstreaming and the implementation of UNSCR 1325 within the area of responsibility of the individual leader;
- Implement the personal action plans developed.⁴⁵

Method

The Gender Coach Programme is tailored to the learners' needs and the context within which they are working. When the programme was conducted in 2013, it was aimed at directors and senior leadership. Within the Swedish Armed Forces one motivation for the coachees was that being selected for the programme was an indication that they were being considered for promotion. Almost all members of the armed forces' senior leadership have now participated in the programme. Putting together senior leaders from different agencies also strives to foster a network of peers in which the leaders can continue to seek advice and support even after the programme has ended. What has been noted within the Swedish Armed Forces is that those leaders who have completed the programme are able to discuss gender mainstreaming and equality on a level that leaves others behind. This serves to motivate others to achieve the same level of competence. The programme aims to help the individual to improve his or her understanding, motivation, competence and skills. It does not seek to produce anything more than the individuals' personal action plans. This is important for the outcome, since the focus is on the individual's own transformative process. Each participant is assigned a coach. The coaches are selected for their seniority and their expertise. The programme aims to match the leader with a coach who has an equivalent position of seniority within his or her field. This is crucial, since it makes it more likely that the coach and the coachee can adopt a transactional model of knowledge exchange (see Chapter 5). The coaches come from the collaborating agencies as well as civil society, the private sector and academia. The programme combines coaching sessions with seminars, educational conferences and workshops. The coaching is conducted on a one-to-one basis in a setting outside the coachees' normal conditions in order to meet on an equal footing away from staff and assistants. This combination of coaching and education aims to achieve a transformative learning process within the individual.

Best practices

The Gender Coach Programme has been successful due to a variety of factors. Some of the best practices that contributed to the success are as follows:

- Involving senior leadership and those on an upward career track lends additional status and demand to the programme;
- Good match-making to pair leaders with coaches with whom they have a good relationship;
- Using established networks of coaches and subject-matter experts to ensure coaches have a high level of seniority and expertise;
- Involving leaders at the same level from different organizations to share experiences and ideas as peers;
- Bringing leaders out of their usual environment by scheduling meetings and seminars outside their workplaces;
- Using a mix of coaching, education and seminars;
- Involving the permanent subject-matter experts from the leader's organization in the process;
- Ensuring that the programme is continuously evaluated, and that the learners are held accountable for implementing what they have learned.

A pilot gender coach programme inspired by the Swedish example was initiated by the Ministry of Defence of Montenegro with the support of UNDP SEESAC (UN Development Programme South Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons) Gender Equality in the Military in the Western Balkans project.

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Conclusion

Callum Watson (DCAF), with the participants of the Vienna Reviewers' Workshop

Teaching gender in the military: Where do we go from here?

Over the last decade coaching and mentoring programmes have gained in popularity in many organizations, This handbook started by highlighting that gender is an often invisible part of social life. Hopefully, by this point the authors of this handbook have made gender more visible to the reader, especially in military contexts. In addition, the handbook has hopefully demonstrated *what* teaching gender in the military comprises, *why* it is a relevant topic worthy of being both taught in its own right and embedded across the curriculum, and *how* an instructor might go about teaching it. The past experience of many of the authors would suggest that this is the point at which readers are likely to feel overwhelmed and wonder where to start in implementing what they have learned. Some readers, such as gender advisers, may have an explicit mandate to implement gender perspectives into an area of their work. Probably, though, most readers are simply individuals convinced of the importance of improving gender equality wherever they can, even though this is not formally part of their work. This handbook attempts to appeal to both categories of reader by concluding with an overview of what the integration of gender into military education might look like over time and what an individual reader's role might be this process.

Changing attitudes towards something as fundamental as gender norms may seem an impossible task given the size of the military (approximately 1 per cent of the workforce in NATO countries¹) and the way in which traditional gender roles seem to be entrenched. Studies in military sociology, however, suggest that norm creation – such as an individual member's attitudes towards gender equality – is influenced to the greatest extent at the primary level, in other words within the smallest military units (e.g. squads or platoons).² What this means is that while top-down policies where there are hierarchical chains of command can be very effective in shaping norms that improve gender equality, in the absence of sufficient policies, these norms can still be instilled at the primary unit level by motivated individual leaders. The evidence also suggests that when these two factors come together, the need to resort to punitive measures to ensure compliance with institutional policies decreases significantly.³ In other words, even if readers have the impression that the impact of their actions will be limited to a single class or a single unit, this should not discourage them. On the contrary – sustainable change is more likely to come about if a large number of individuals work to change mindsets in their immediate workplaces than through purely top-down changes in policy. Indeed, most of those who contributed to the development of this handbook would be able to identify one event or one individual that was instrumental in convincing them of the importance of integrating a gender perspective into their daily life and work.

Another challenge that readers are likely to face is where to start – what activities can they do right away, and what needs to happen in the medium to long term? In many instances, national and regional policies (mentioned in Chapter 2) can be useful for establishing current priorities, especially national action plans on UN

Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325⁴ and women, peace and security.⁵ In addition, the following sections, developed by participants at the handbook's review conference, provide some suggestions for different activities that can be undertaken in the short, medium and long terms.

What can be done now?

There are wide number of small but effective tasks that can be implemented immediately upon reading this manual. When considering what kinds of initial activities to prioritize and how to argue for their implementation, it can help to return to a statement made in the introduction to this handbook: gender in the military is an operational necessity, a legal obligation and a response to a humanitarian need. With this in mind, the following activities constitute some recommended initial steps.

1. Disseminate materials

One of the first tasks is to identify those who are willing to integrate gender into their teaching but do not know how to, as well as those who need to be convinced to give their permission for this to happen, such as superiors. Disseminating this handbook and relevant documents mentioned in the annotated bibliographies of each of the chapters can be a good starting point. By giving those who are relatively new to the subject an idea of what teaching gender in the military might entail, it will be easier to make the case for at least trying to integrate some new gender-related content into parts of the existing curriculum. In addition, handbooks like this one can be used to reach out to key people who control the distribution of resources, to highlight how they can seek to benefit by allocating resources to this topic and how this would fit within the wider scope of other activities currently being undertaken by NATO members and partner countries. Considering who would need what materials in order to initiate gender-related activities would therefore be a good first step.

2. Identify and map interested colleagues

The dissemination of gender-related materials and discussing gender-related topics with peers, colleagues and superiors can help identify others who may be willing to support the greater integration of gender into military education. In some cases, it may be that colleagues have relevant knowledge on the topic or are similarly interested in collaborating. In other instances, it may be that they are willing to allow an external person to add gender components to their existing educational content.

3. Map existing activities or those with relevant content

Several contributors to this handbook have come across situations where individuals are mandated to teach gender-related topics but lack the relevant expertise and struggle in silence with parts of their syllabus. People in this situation are often only too happy to receive resources that might help them or work with others who are enthusiastic about the subject. There are also cases where gender is not taught in courses that lend themselves to these kinds of discussions, for example those on conduct and discipline, the protection of civilians or human rights. It is usually easier to make the case for the inclusion of gender into these kinds of courses at the early stages. In some cases it may be that there are even resources available for teaching gender that are not being used.

4. Develop new content

Where readers have a degree of freedom or flexibility in deciding what to teach, they can lead by example by either introducing modules on gender specifically and/or integrating discussions related to gender into existing educational content. It can also be beneficial to develop a short "Gender in the Military 101" session that can be slotted into existing introductory courses if and when the opportunity arises.

5. Consider existing classroom gender dynamics

Chapter 6 discussed how the gender dynamics of the classroom can put some learners at an advantage and others at a disadvantage based on their gender (in combination with other factors such as age, rank and ethnic origin). While some of these factors are the consequence of deep-rooted social norms, by simply taking a moment to consider the gender dynamics in a given classroom instructors can make subtle changes that yield significant benefits. Very simply, recording how often female and male learners raise their hands and are invited to speak, as well as roughly how long they speak for, and comparing this to the gender balance of the class as a whole can be informative. Giving a few extra seconds before taking a response from a learner can encourage those who are less confident to participate more.

What can be done within one year from now?

Many of the tasks in this list involve trying to move beyond *ad hoc* activities that rely on the initiative of a single motivated person towards sustainable changes in the curriculum and in working practices. While it is unlikely that *all* of the actions on this list could be accomplished in one year, having some of them in mind should help prepare readers to make use of small windows of opportunity to institutionalize gender perspectives when they arise.

1. Integrate gender into institutional doctrine

One of the most effective ways of moving away from *ad hoc* approaches to teaching gender to the military is to ensure that it is mandated, not simply recognized as good practice. As Chapter 2 can attest, the creation of UNSCR 1325 provided the momentum necessary for military institutions to start addressing the different needs of women, men, girls and boys in conflict-related settings. This is most effective when translated into documents at the institutional level, so including a commitment to incorporate gender perspectives in all aspects of military education in institutional doctrines and mission statements can have a lasting effect. Not only does this transform gender from being a side consideration to becoming a core aspect of the institution's work, but it can push those without knowledge on the subject to action in seeking out experts and resources on the topic.

2. Implement new and newly identified resources

As new resources are developed or identified, it is important to look for opportunities to implement them. To facilitate the use of identified potentially relevant articles, case studies, pictures and videos, they should be stored in way that gives access to all faculty who wish – or are mandated – to address gender within their educational programmes. Having pictures of women and men working in non-traditional roles can be particularly useful to improving publications and PowerPoint presentations. Most institutions will have a few employees who are interested in photography and have taken pictures while on tour without realizing their potential educational value. There may also be existing institutional knowledge, such as learners or faculty who have previously worked as gender advisers on tour or on mission. Writing up these experiences and turning them into classroom resources (e.g. as case studies) can facilitate their use. In most cases, however, other faculty will need to be persuaded that these new resources will assist them in meeting their learning objectives.

3. Integrate gender into standard/compulsory courses

One of the best ways of institutionalizing gender into military education is to make it an integral component of compulsory, entry-level courses. In this case, it may be useful to develop a "Gender for the Military 101" course that can also be used elsewhere if the opportunity arises. However, a more effective and long-term approach would be to ensure that case studies, examples, pictures and videos used across the curriculum incorporate both women's and men's experiences. At the very least, care should be taken to ensure that female members of security forces are depicted as well as men in the civilian population, and that gender-biased language is eradicated (e.g. servicemen if not referring specifically to male personnel). Keeping this in mind when checking content, or explicitly offering to apply a "gender lens" to existing content, can be a first step in this regard.

4. Invite guest speakers to talk on gender-related topics

Guest speakers can play several important roles by talking about gender-related topics. First of all, if they are high profile, they may attract the attention of high-level members of an institution to the importance of talking about gender. They can be inspirational to others, and can sometimes bring like-minded faculty and learners together and help to identify some concrete actions that can be taken within the institution itself. They may also demonstrate the utility of gender-related aspects of the curriculum in the kinds of everyday work the learners aspire to do. If one is alert to the possibility of inviting a guest speaker, it is likely that several opportunities may present themselves over the course of a year. Potential speakers may be passing through the area on other business and add a short speech to their itinerary. It may also be possible to include talks or panels on gender in existing conferences, such as those that take place on an annual basis. At the very least, highlighting all-male panels or indeed all-male conferences can serve as a wake-up call to those who consider themselves to be gender-neutral.

5. Create committees to follow up on progress

Developing coalitions with other willing employees is an effective way to identify opportunities as they arise, share ideas and resources and ensure that any negative effects caused by changes of personnel are minimized. It is also a good way to avoid duplication and coordinate the replication of pilot projects that have been run in other parts of the institution. One of the most important roles, however, is to monitor progress so that the effectiveness of all gender-related activities can be measured later on. In some cases activities can be formalized, especially if other cross-cutting committees already exist or small amounts of funding are earmarked for gender-related work. Informal committees composed of like-minded individuals who meet on an *ad hoc* basis can be effective. It may also be that existing structures such as women's associations are interested in looking at how women are represented in military education.

What can be done within three years from now?

Over the course of three years, faculty should be able to start refining their approach to teaching gender in the military based on evaluations of their initial activities. In some cases, having data that prove the benefit and effectiveness of integrating gender into military education can help make the case for diverting some of the institution's resources towards more formalized positions and programmes. While some activities may turn out to have been ineffective, there should now be a larger pool of interested and increasingly experienced faculty available to help shape innovative new approaches.

1. Evaluate and revise content and approaches

After three years, it should be possible to start collecting level 4 evaluations which indicate the tangible results of a learning process and whether it has resulted in a change of attitudes, biases and interests on the part of learners (see Chapter 8). In a military context, this can be done by contacting learners who have graduated from the institution and evaluating the effect of their education after they take on professional roles. Having created a generation of learners who have gone into these roles with the language and skills to analyse the gendered dimensions of their work, there may be new insights that could be incorporated into the curriculum. Not least, it is likely that some of the more generic examples and case studies that were initially used can be adapted to be more specific to the actual work the learners will end up doing. These evaluation processes should also highlight situations where the desired change has not been achieved and a new approach is required. In any case, legal and policy frameworks relating to gender are likely to have been updated within this timeframe, resulting in revisions to educational content. In addition, the military may have shifted its geographical focus, meaning that new cases need to be developed or existing ones updated.

2. Formalize gender-related roles and functions within the institution

Much of the work on gender in educational institutions takes place in addition to an already full programme. Inevitably this involves individuals either not dedicating as much work to the topic as they would like or the work spills into their free time. One solution is to create gender advisers and/or gender focal points within the institution who have a percentage of their time specifically dedicated to gender-related work. The data collected through course evaluations and other monitoring mechanisms should help build the case for the creation of these kinds of roles. In some situations it may also be desirable and feasible to formalize gender coaching and mentoring programmes at this point (see Chapter 10), as well as previously informal committees working on gender.

3. Faculty development

As the case for mainstreaming gender across the curriculum becomes increasingly strong, it may become necessary to implement faculty development programmes. These can be coordinated by those who now have up to three years' experience of integrating gender in their work, but it may also be possible to draw upon existing national or regional networks such as universities and organizations involved in the drafting of national action plans on women, peace and security or networks within the Partnership for Peace Consortium. While providing a forum for sharing good practices may be a good first step, a more comprehensive approach will usually involve delving into academic literature, such as gender studies and feminist security studies, in order to empower instructors to apply a gender perspective to their particular area of expertise. Coaching programmes (see Chapter 10) may also be a more effective and sustainable approach to faculty development than a one-off course.

4. Integrate gender into curriculum review processes

Having demonstrated the relevance of gender to several pilot areas of the curriculum, it may now be possible to mainstream gender across the curriculum through the review process (see Chapter 4). As this is the most effective and sustainable way to institutionalize the inclusion of a gender perspective in all areas of the curriculum, it should be a high priority for faculty convinced of the importance of gender equality to try to influence curriculum review processes. Coupled with other activities such as faculty development and the provision of increasingly relevant gender-related educational resources, educational institutions should be increasingly equipped to support all of their staff in integrating a gender perspective by this point.

5. Refine strategies for monitoring progress and evaluating results

With an increasing number of faculty working to incorporate gender perspectives into their teaching and a growing number of perspectives on what this can and should achieve, there may now be opportunities to consider whether existing monitoring mechanisms are still adequate for measuring the impact these educational approaches are having on learners. Notably, it may be worth considering whether some of the high levels of learning in Bloom's taxonomy (see Chapter 7) are being reached. In other words, instead of just testing learners' ability to recall what they have learnt, new methods may need to be developed to monitor and evaluate their ability to apply this to areas of their work which are not explicitly related to gender.

What can be done within five years from now?

The experience of working on integrating gender into military education over the course of five years will, according to those who contributed to this handbook, result in someone being able to call themselves an expert in this area. Activities in this timeframe focus on documenting good practices so that others may benefit, as well as sharing insights to expand the work into areas not yet envisaged by this handbook.

1. Document institutional good practices

While every institution is different, many will have developed good practices that are relevant to others. Documenting institutional good practices is an effective way to share these practices, and can be used to adapt, validate or perhaps challenge current approaches that are advocated at national and regional levels. Creating a pool of evidence can also be a way of supporting individuals who have faced higher levels of resistance to integrating gender in their institution. While this may be a rather straightforward recommendation, it is often overlooked, meaning that others cannot benefit from the experience of those who have gone before them and mistakes often get repeated.

2. Contribute to communities of practice

After analysing the results of multiple evaluations and amassing experience in diverse areas of military education, the readers of this handbook should be in a position to contribute to future institutional, national, regional and international discussions on how to teach gender in the military by, for example, suggesting updates to the content of handbooks such as this one. They should also be in a position to act as mentors and coaches to others coming into this area of work.

3. Validation

Validation can be seen as the final stage in a curriculum review process. Whereas evaluation examines whether the desired learning outcomes have been achieved (see Chapter 8), validation involves testing whether achieving the stated learning outcomes has produced the anticipated effect in terms of workplace performance. A validation process seeks to use both surveys and interviews to establish which parts of the curriculum were effective and which were ineffective, irrelevant or unnecessary in meeting the performance requirements asked of the learners. For example, a validation process would seek to examine whether learners who had completed a curriculum that incorporates a gender perspective throughout actually went on to incorporate a gender perspective in their daily work as was envisioned. If they did, the validation process would seek to establish which parts of the curriculum were most important in achieving this outcome in order to improve efficiency. If not, the process would seek to establish whether the problem lies with what was taught, how it was taught or to whom it was taught. While this process can be highly sensitive and may cause instructors to be defensive, it is important that the professional experience of graduates feeds back into the curriculum development cycle. These good practices and lessons identified can then be shared across the organization and with its strategic partners.⁶

In closing

This handbook began as a collaboration, with the goal of encouraging collaboration on a larger scale. Many of those who have contributed to this project generally work alone on gender-related topics in their institutions. There is no question that many of those engaged in activities aimed at furthering the teaching of gender in the military can be frustrated and disheartened at times, especially as military institutions have such long-standing and seemingly unshakeable cultural practices. There can even be a negative impact on an individual's status and career progression. It is important to remember that many roles within the military are highly specialized and esoteric, and this is one of the reasons why institutional, national, regional and international networks have developed, including the Partnership for Peace Consortium itself. Gender as a theme also lends itself to this kind of collaboration, and, indeed, fostering this kind of network is one of the stated purposes of this handbook. The network that has developed around the creation of this handbook has already proven its worth to its members, not just in the sense of developing capacities and knowledge, but also in terms of providing professional and moral support. With this in mind, we encourage all those who work with this handbook to collaborate with

other like-minded people in their respective institutions, and to reach out to the authors and their various institutions should they need any further assistance. Moreover, we look forward to seeing the pool of experts develop in number, diversity and level of knowledge, and we therefore welcome any comments, criticisms and suggestions on how to build upon the content of this handbook at gender@dcaf.ch.

Notes

1. NATO Public Diplomacy Division, "NATO publishes defence expenditures data for 2014 and estimates for 2015", press release, 22 June 2015, www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/news_120866.htm.
2. See, for example, James Griffith, "Cohesion forgotten? Redux 2011 – Knowns and unknowns", in Mikael Salo and Riso Sinkko (eds), *The Science of Unit Cohesion – Its Characteristics and Impacts* (Tampere: Military Sociological Society of Finland, 2012), pp. 12, 16; Olli Harinen, "Knut Pipping's forgotten study of a WWII infantry company and his results about soldiers' informal group norms", in Mikael Salo and Riso Sinkko (eds), *The Science of Unit Cohesion – Its Characteristics and Impacts* (Tampere: Military Sociological Society of Finland, 2012), p. 70; Mikael Salo, "Import of vertical cohesion and the linking pin function in the military", *Tiede ja ase*, Vol. 66 (2008), p. 54; Elisabeth Jean Wood, "Armed groups and sexual violence: When is wartime rape rare?", *Politics & Society*, Vol. 37, No. 1 (2009), pp. 136–142.
3. Wood, *ibid.*, p. 142.
4. UN Security Council, "Resolution 1325 (2000) on women, peace and security", UN Doc. No. S/RES/1325 (2000), 31 October 2000.
5. For country-specific information on the existence of national action plans and other relevant activities, see www.peacewomen.org.
6. Department of National Defence and the Canadian Armed Forces, *Manual of Individual Training and Education, Vol. 8: Validation of Instructional Programmes* (Ottawa, ON: Government of Canada, 2006), pp. 2, 4, 9–12, 15.

