

TEACHING GENDER IN THE MILITARY

A Handbook



Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
Confédération suisse
Confederazione Svizzera
Confederaziun svizra

DCAF **25**
YEARS

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Acknowledgements

The first version of 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. The authors of the present revised and updated edition gratefully acknowledge the foundational work of the original contributors to the chapters in the earlier edition of the Handbook. Their insights, expertise, and dedication have provided a strong basis upon which the present revision has been built. In preparing this updated version, the new authors have sought to preserve the integrity of the original content while incorporating contemporary developments, updated practices, and expanded perspectives to ensure its continued relevance and utility.

Disclaimer

This handbook reflects the terminology and binary language used in official institutional and military documents relating to gender and the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda. While this alignment ensures consistency with existing policies and guidance, it does not exclude broader understandings of gender, intersectionality, or the experiences of underrepresented groups. Instructors are encouraged to use the examples and case studies provided throughout the handbook as opportunities to highlight these wider perspectives, and to adapt the material in ways that promote inclusivity, critical reflection, and recognition of diverse gender identities and lived experiences.

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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.

About DCAF

DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance is dedicated to improving the security of states and their people within a framework of democratic governance, the rule of law, respect for human rights and gender equality. Since its founding in 2000, DCAF has contributed to making peace and development more sustainable by assisting partner states, and international actors supporting these states, to improve the governance of their security sector through inclusive and participatory reforms. It creates innovative knowledge products, promotes norms and good practices, provides legal and policy advice and supports capacity-building of both state and non-state security sector stakeholders.

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First Foreword to the New Edition

Swiss Federal Councillor Martin Pfister, Head of the Federal Department of Defence,
Civil Protection and Sport (DDPS)

It is with great pride that I introduce this new edition of *Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook*. The Swiss Armed Forces are committed to fostering an inclusive culture – one in which gender equality is not only promoted but actively integrated into every aspect of military life, from training and leadership to operations and peacekeeping.

As a militia officer in the Swiss Armed Forces, I have first-hand experience of the benefits of multi-gender teams. I know that they work more creatively, judiciously and ultimately more effectively. Today, as Minister of Defence, I have the privilege and duty to continue the work of making the security sector more inclusive and representative of the population. The overarching goal remains the equal participation of women in all areas.

This new edition of the handbook reflects the evolving understanding of gender in military contexts and incorporates valuable lessons learned from practitioners, scholars, and service members alike. It is both a tool for education and a call to action – for commanders, instructors and soldiers of all ranks. I encourage readers to engage deeply with the insights offered here, as we continue to build armed forces that uphold dignity, equality and excellence in service. May this handbook serve as a guide towards that shared goal.

Twenty-five years after the adoption of Security Council Resolution 1325, this publication also plays a part in operationalizing the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda, a priority for Switzerland in its international engagements. The WPS agenda underscores the essential role that women play in conflict prevention, peace-building and security. By integrating gender perspectives and promoting the meaningful participation of women in military structures, we take concrete steps towards building more just, resilient and effective security institutions.

This handbook is the result of a truly collaborative effort. I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (PfPC) and to DCAF – Geneva Center for Security Sector Governance. Their steadfast support and commitment to international security cooperation have been instrumental in this endeavor. My thanks also go to the dedicated authors, editors and contributors from Switzerland and beyond. Their collective work exemplifies the spirit of partnership and shared responsibility that underpins our efforts to promote gender integration and awareness in military settings.

Martin Pfister
Swiss Federal Councillor
Head of the Federal Department of Defence
Civil Protection and Sport (DDPS)



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Swiss Confederation

**Federal Department of Defence,
Civil Protection and Sport DDPS**

Second Foreword to the New Edition

Minister Yuriko Backes, Minister of Defense, Minister for Gender Equality and Diversity,
Grand Duchy of Luxembourg

Since the adoption of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 in 2000, the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda has reshaped the global understanding of peace and security. It recognizes that sustainable peace cannot be achieved without the full, equal and meaningful participation of women in all aspects and at all levels of conflict prevention, resolution and post-conflict rebuilding. It cements the fundamental truth that for just and inclusive societies to thrive, women must be part of the decision-making process. For the armed forces, this means more than just including women in their ranks—it demands a shift in how security is conceived, taught and practiced. The WPS agenda is not merely a set of aspirations; it is a strategic framework that challenges institutions to address gendered harms, uphold human rights, promote inclusive leadership at all levels and, as such, increase both the efficiency and efficacy of peace and security efforts.

This new edition of *Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook* comes at a time when armed forces around the world are confronting complex challenges: symmetric and asymmetric warfare, hybrid threats, climate insecurity, the continued prevalence of conflict-related sexual violence as well as a pushback against the WPS agenda as a whole. Amid these, the imperative to embed gender perspectives in military education and practice has only grown more urgent. At a time when we are witnessing a global backlash against gender equality—often framed in the language of tradition, nationalism or security itself—this handbook becomes not just relevant but profoundly strategic in reaffirming our shared commitments and pushing back against regressive tides.

For too long, the military sphere has been shaped by assumptions of gender neutrality that in fact masked exclusion, bias and missed opportunities. Integrating gender perspectives is about harnessing the full spectrum of talent, improving mission effectiveness and building armed forces that reflect and serve the societies they protect. In our ministry and national defense institutions, we have started putting in place gender-inclusive policies in order to strengthen cohesion, resilience and operational outcomes.

This handbook provides not only the educational tools but also the conceptual clarity needed to challenge outdated paradigms and foster critical thinking. It is a practical resource, but also, a moral compass pointing toward the kind of military culture that upholds human rights, protects civilians, and values and reflects diversity as a strategic asset.

I am particularly pleased about the handbook's attention to diverse regional contexts, intersectionality and lived experiences—elements that are too often sidelined in the global security discourse. Its approach honors both the universality of gender challenges and the specificity of local realities. In this sense, it speaks to our shared goal: transforming defense institutions not just from the top down, but from the inside out.

Let this handbook be more than a curriculum tool. Like the WPS agenda itself, let it be a catalyst for change—across borders, across ranks and across generations in the interest of sustainable peace.

Yuriko Backes

Minister of Defense

Minister for Gender Equality and Diversity

Grand Duchy of Luxembourg



THE GOVERNMENT
OF THE GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBOURG

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Acronyms

A4P	Action for Peacekeeping	CO	Commanding Officer
ACHR	American Convention on Human Rights	CoC	Chain of Command
ACO	Allied Command of Operations	COI	Community of Interest
ACT	Allied Command of Transformation	COIL	Collaborative Online International Learning
ADDIE	Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation model	CPED	International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance
ADL	Advanced Distributed Learning	CPTM	Core Pre-deployment Training Material
AI	Artificial Intelligence	CRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome	CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
AOD	Archipelago of Design	CRSGBV	Conflict-related Sexual and Gender-based Violence
AR	Augmented Reality	CRSV	Conflict-related Sexual Violence
ARCS	Attention, Relevance, Confidence, Satisfaction model	CSDP	Common Security and Defense Policy
ASCOPE-PMESII	Areas, Structures, Capabilities, Organization, People, Event factors, and Political, Military, Economic, Social, Information, Infrastructure factors	CSO	Civil Society Organization
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations	CTL	Center for Teaching and Learning
AU	African Union	CWW	Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons
Bi-SCD	NATO's Bi-Strategic Command Directive	DFS	Department of Field Support
C4I	Command, Control, Communications, Computers, Intelligence	DPKO	Department of Peacekeeping Operations
CAF	Canadian Armed Forces	DPO	Department of Peace Operations
CAT	United Nations Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment	EAPC	Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council
CCW	Certain Conventional Weapons	ECHR	European Convention on Human Rights
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	EDII	Equity, Diversity, Inclusion, and Indigeneity
CEU	Council of the European Union	EHRC	Ethiopian Human Rights Commission
CFSP	Common Foreign and Security Policy	ENTRI	Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management

ESDC	European Security and Defense College	ICTR	International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy	ICTY	International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia
ETEE	Education, Training, Exercises, and Evaluation	IHL	International Humanitarian Law
ETS	European Treaty Series	IHRL	International Human Rights Law
EU	European Union	IMMS	Instruction Materials Motivation Survey
EUEA	European Union External Action	IMS	International Military Staff
EUFOR	European Union Force	IO	International Organization
GBA	Gender-based Analysis	IS	International Staff
GCI, GCII, GCIII, GCIV	Geneva Conventions	IT	Information Technology
GENAD	Gender Advisor	JADL	Joint Advanced Distributed Learning
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment	KPI	Key Performance Indicator
GFP	Gender Focal Point	KWL	Know, Wonder, Learn
GMO	Gender in Military Operations	LAP	Local Action Plan
GO	Governmental Organization	LEGAD	Legal Advisor
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus	LGBTI	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex
HRC	Human Rights Council	LMS	Learning Management System
IAC	International Armed Conflict	MDO	Multi-Domain Operations
IBM	Integrated Border Management	MGA-RTP	Military Gender Advisor – Reinforcement Training Packages
ICC	International Court of Justice	MGAT	Military Gender Analysis Tool
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	MOE	Measures of Effectiveness
ICERD	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination	MOOC	Massive Open Online Courses
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights	MOP	Measures of Performance
ICL	International Criminal Law	MOWIP	Measuring Opportunities for Women in Peace Operations tool
ICMW	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	NAP	National Action Plan
ICT	Information and Communication Technology	NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
		NCGM	Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations
		NCGP	NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives

NCS	Nato Command Structure	SOGI	Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization	SPS	NATO's Science for Peace and Security Programme
NIAC	Non-international Armed Conflict	SSR	Security Sector Reform
NLP	Natural Language Processing	STM	Specialized Training Material
OHCHR	United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights	TCC	Troop Contributing Country
OMA	Office of Military Affairs	TEU	Treaty on European Union
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe	TFEU	Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union
PEP	Post-exposure Prophylaxis	ToT	Training of Trainers
PfP	Partnership for Peace	TPACK	Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge framework
PfPC	Partnership for Peace Consortium	UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
PME	Professional Military Education	UK	United Kingdom
PMESII-PT	Political, Military, Economic, Social, Information, Infrastructure, Physical Environment and Time factors	UN	United Nations
POC	Protection of Civilians	UN COI	United Nations Commission on Inquiry on Ukraine
PRIO	Peace Research Institute Oslo	UN WPS	Women, Peace, and Security
QIP	Quick Impact Project	UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
R2P	Responsibility to Protect	UNITAR	United Nations Institute for Training and Research
RAP	Regional Action Plan	UNSC	United Nations Security Council
RTP	Reinforcement Training Package	UNSCR	United Nations Security Council Resolution
SACT	Supreme Allied Commander Transformation	UNSG	United Nations Secretary General
SEA	Sexual Exploitation and Abuse	USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
SEESAC	The Southeastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons	VR	Virtual Reality
SGBV	Sexual and Gender-Based Violence	WG	Working Group
SMART	Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, and Time-bound	WPS	Women, Peace and Security
SME	Subject Matter Expert	YPS	Youth, Peace and Security

Glossary of Key Definitions

Active learning: Teaching methodology that motivates students to get involved in the learning process, thus they take part independently in their education through conversation sessions, problem-solving, and group activities. This way of learning concentrates on critical thinking and enables students to use knowledge in the real-life scenarios, thereby making the learning process more relevant and effective.¹

Advanced Distributed Learning: Describes methods of teaching that do not require the learners' physical presence at a specific site. ADL also infers that the instruction uses some form of electronic and/or information technology. ADL is "an interactive, outcomes-focused approach to education, training, and performance aiding that blends standards-based Distributed Learning."²

Adult education: A synonym for "andragogy". It is a method of teaching adults, the science of adult learning, and refers to any form of adult learning. It is distinct from "pedagogy" which refers to learning by children.³

Assessment: Various definitions of assessment and the role it plays in teaching and learning: Assessment involves the use of empirical data on student learning to refine programs and improve student learning (Assessing Academic Programs in Higher Education by Allen 2004). Assessment is the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning. (Learner-Centered Assessment on College Campuses: shifting the focus from teaching to learning by Huba and Freed 2000). Assessment is the systematic basis for making inferences about the learning and development of students. It is the process of defining, selecting,

designing, collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and using information to increase students' learning and development (Assessing Student Learning and Development: A Guide to the Principles, Goals, and Methods of Determining College Outcomes by Erwin 1991). Assessment is the systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development. (Assessment Essentials: planning, implementing, and improving assessment in higher education by Palomba and Banta 1999).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

Bi-SC education and individual training directive (E&ITD) 075-007: This directive provides guidance and details the responsibilities and planning aspects to NATO's Systems Approach to [individual] Training (SAT), including the addition of responsibilities and planning aspects. It should be used as a comprehensive guideline for how to analyze, design, develop, implement, evaluate, and manage all NATO education and individual training (E&IT) solutions, whether delivered through residential or distributed means, including mobile training solutions (MTS).⁷

Blended learning: A mode of course delivery considered to be an appropriate mix of residential learning and self-study / e-learning methods and media.⁸

Bloom's taxonomy: A framework for levels of cognition. Bloom's taxonomy outlines six levels of cognitive gain. The lower levels of Bloom's taxonomy focus on the knowledge that we want our students to acquire – what we want our students to remember and understand. The middle levels focus on application and analysis of information. At the top of Bloom's taxonomy are tasks that involve creating and evaluating.⁹

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”.¹⁰

Collaborative learning (cooperative learning): Learning situation in which students work together in small groups.¹¹

Comprehensive approach: A strategic concept for effective crisis management, adopted by NATO, that involves combining political, civilian and military instruments.¹²

Core curriculum: Studies, activities, or courses that meet the common needs of students.¹³

Courses: Educational units within the curriculum dealing systematically with a particular subject or discipline for a given period of time.¹⁴

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.¹⁵

Curriculum: Plan incorporating a structured series of intended learning outcomes and associated learning experiences – generally organized as a related combination or series of courses learning and assessment materials available for a given course of study.¹⁶

Education: Process of imparting or obtaining knowledge, attitudes, skills, or socially valued qualities of character or behavior – includes the philosophy, purposes, programs, methods,

organizational patterns, etc., of the entire educational process as most broadly conceived.¹⁷

E-learning: The use of electronic technologies to access educational curriculum outside of a traditional classroom. In this chapter, it has evolved from primarily being used as a strict pre-learning tool to offering numerous possibilities for individual training and education.

Experiential learning: Learning by doing – includes knowledge and skills acquired outside of book/lecture learning situations through work, play, and other life experiences (Note: Do not confuse with “Learning Experience”).¹⁸

Evaluation: Appraising or judging persons, organizations, or things in relation to stated objectives, standards, or criteria.¹⁹

Facilitator: Individuals who have been designated to assist, expedite, or guide the efforts of groups, teams, or individuals to accomplish tasks, reach goals, or complete processes.²⁰

Formative assessment: Formative assessment is a process which is done continuously by teachers to determine students' learning and understanding throughout the teaching. The process includes the use of tools like quizzes, discussion, and feedback to enable teachers to detect the areas of concern and adapt their teaching strategies as needed.²¹

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.²²

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.²³

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.²⁴

Gender analysis: A critical examination of how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect men, women, girls and boys in certain situation or contexts. Gender analysis examines the relationships between females and males and their access to and control of resources and the constraints they face relative to each other. A gender analysis should be integrated into all sector assessments or situational analyses to ensure that gender-based injustices and inequalities are not exacerbated by interventions, and that where possible, greater equality and justice in gender relations are promoted.²⁵

Gender dimensions: A concept regrouping the various elements concerning biological characteristics and social/cultural factors of women, men, girls and boys into any analysis.²⁶

Gender discrimination: Any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on the basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.²⁷

Gender diversity: Is a term that recognizes that many peoples' preferences and self-expression fall outside commonly understood gender norms.²⁸

Gender equality (equality between women and men): This refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women's issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centered development.²⁹

Gender equity: The process of being fair to women, men, girls and boys and importantly the equality of outcomes and results. Gender equity may involve the use of temporary special measures to compensate for historical or systemic bias or discrimination. It refers to differential treatment that is fair and positively addresses a bias or disadvantage that is due to gender roles or norms or differences between the sexes. Equity ensures that women and men and girls and boys have an equal chance, not only at the starting point, but also when reaching the finishing line. It is about the fair and just treatment of women, men, girls and boys that takes into account the different needs of the men and women, cultural barriers and (past) discrimination of the specific group.³⁰

Gender Focal Point (GFP): GFPs are nominated personnel with dual-hatted roles in HQs, Divisions/Directorates, Branches and Offices. GFPs are to support integration of gender perspective and facilitate gender mainstreaming in their functional area. They report through the chain of command and maintain a functional dialogue with GENAD in order to ensure the coherent and consistent integration of gender perspective activities.³¹

Gender norms: Gender norms are ideas about how men and women should be and act. We internalize and learn these "rules" early in life. This sets-up a life-cycle of gender socialization and stereotyping. Put another way, gender norms are the standards and expectations to which gender identity generally conforms, within a range that defines a particular society, culture and community at that point in time.³²

Gender mainstreaming: into account the different needs of the men and women, cultural barriers and (past) discrimination of the specific group.³³

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.³⁴

Gender responsive: Gender-responsive means addressing and responding to the different needs, aspirations, capacities and contributions of women and men.³⁵

Gender roles: Gender roles refer to social and behavioral norms that, within a specific culture, are widely considered to be socially appropriate for individuals of a specific sex. These often determine the traditional responsibilities and tasks assigned to men, women, boys and girls (see gender division of labor). Gender-specific roles are often conditioned by household structure, access to resources, specific impacts of the global economy, occurrence of conflict or disaster, and other locally relevant factors such as ecological conditions. Like gender itself, gender roles can evolve over time, in particular through the empowerment of women and transformation of masculinities.³⁶

Gender stereotyping: Ascribing certain attributes, characteristics and roles to people based on their gender. Gender stereotypes can be negative (i.e., women are bad drivers, men can't change diapers) and benign (i.e., women are better caregivers, men are stronger). Gender stereotyping becomes harmful when it limits a person's life choices, such as training and professional path, and life plans. Compounded gender stereotypes occur when layered with stereotypes about other characteristics of the person, such as disability, ethnicity or social status.³⁷

Heutagogy: "Heutagogy is the study of self-determined learning ... It is also an attempt to challenge some ideas about teaching and learning that still prevail in teacher centred learning and the need for, as Bill Ford (1997) eloquently puts it 'knowledge sharing' rather than 'knowledge hoarding'. In this respect heutagogy looks to the future in which knowing how to learn will be a fundamental skill given the pace of innovation and the changing structure of communities and workplaces."³⁸

Hidden curriculum: A set of implicit messages relating to knowledge, values, norms of behaviour and attitudes that learners experience in and through educational processes. (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.)³⁹

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 complements state security which assesses threats to the survival and the territorial integrity of the state.⁴⁰

Learner: Individual actively engaged in acquiring knowledge, skills, and understanding of a subject or a range of subjects.⁴¹

Learning outcome: 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. A statement in specific and measurable terms that describes what the learner will know or be able to do as a result of engaging in a learning activity. It is an achieved result or consequence of what was learned.⁴²

Learning methods: Any interventions that are deliberately undertaken to assist the process of learning at individual, team or organisational level.⁴³

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.

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.⁴⁴

Non-attribution: Academic Freedom that consists in providing the climate to pursue and express ideas, opinions, and issues relative to the university purpose, free of undue limitations, restraints, or coercion by the organization or external environment. It is the hallmark of an academic institution.⁴⁵

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.⁴⁶

Programs: Schedules or plans of procedure under which a series of intended activities is directed toward desired results.⁴⁷

Reflection: Deliberate and careful consideration of previous actions, events, experiences, or decisions and the thinking that accompanied these activities. The lessons learned from reflection are intended to guide and inform future practice, behavior, etc.⁴⁸

Sex: A classification based on the biological differences and physiological characteristics 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.⁴⁹

Summative assessment: a form of assessment (= testing and making a judgment about someone's knowledge, ability, etc.) that happens after a student has finished being taught about a subject, for example at the end of a year or unit of work.⁵⁰

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.⁵¹

Training: Instructional process aimed at the acquisition of defined skills relating to particular functions or activities.⁵²

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.⁵³

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 a different gender.⁵⁴

WPS Agenda: The international policy framework based on the UN resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106, 2122 and 2242, 2467, and 2493.

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Introduction

Editorial Board



“The recognition that the gender perspective contributes to operational effectiveness and mission success is recognised not only by NATO, but also by other security organisations and nations. As the gender perspective contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of the operating environment, it enables us to make better informed decisions, thereby contributing to military effectiveness in the conduct of operations, missions and activities.”¹

Why teach gender to the military?

Gender is an important, but sometimes invisible, part of social life. It is also present in and affects many aspects of military institutions and military operations. As the nature of armed conflict and global security threats continues to evolve, the importance of integrating gender perspectives into military operations has become both a legal obligation and an operational necessity. Gender is not a peripheral concern—it is central to understanding the dynamics of conflict, the lived experiences of those affected, and the effectiveness of military responses.

Modern military missions require the capability to gather and disseminate information from and through the local population, a task which relies on the capacity to interact with both men and women in culturally diverse contexts.² Accurate casualty estimates in planning kinetic operations require the application of a gender perspective.³ And military forces are often called upon to respond to conflict-related sexual violence and assist male and female survivors of such violence in the theatre of operations.⁴ Military institutions have had their own set of challenges, which include strong gender dimensions, to contend with. High profile national and global debates of recent years have had to do with preventing misconduct – as sexual exploitation and abuse in missions or sexual harassment and sexual assault within the ranks – as well as with the integration of women and other underrepresented groups in the service.⁵ All share the concern with defining the professional identity, obligations, and capability requirements of service members. It is clear from the above that military forces need to take gender perspectives into account to ensure that they can both fulfil their mission, and respect the rights and dignity of women, men, boys and girls, and other gender identities, whether they are civilians or uniformed personnel. As Lena Kvarving and Rachel Grimes in Chapter 1 of this handbook so poignantly put it, “It is not only the right thing to do, it also helps us to do things right.”

To support this necessity, the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) and other global security organizations have drawn from a body of legal and policy documents which mandate the inclusion of gender perspectives in military operations, ranging from the United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolutions (UNSCR) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS), in particularly UNSCR 1325 adopted in 2000, to various institutional policies and

operational directives for implementing these resolutions. Accordingly, the integration of gender perspectives is not only an operational necessity, and crucial to the fulfilment of human rights; it is also a normative obligation.

The UNSCRs on WPS and institutional policies also mandate the inclusion of gender in education and training. Education is a key factor in successfully integrating gender perspectives into military operations and military institutions. Whether the challenge is interaction with the local population, or addressing sexual harassment within the ranks, military education and training should foster the appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable personnel to overcome these challenges. Teaching gender in the military equips personnel with the tools to respond more effectively to diverse security needs, improve mission outcomes, and uphold the principles of human rights, equality, and international humanitarian law.

Excerpts from UNSCR 1325 related to the content of this handbook

"Expresses its willingness to incorporate a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations..." (paragraph 5)

"Requests the Secretary-General to provide to Member States training guidelines and materials on the protection, rights and the particular needs of women, as well as on the importance of involving women in all peacekeeping and peacebuilding measures, invites Member States to incorporate these elements as well as HIV/AIDS awareness training into their national training programmes for military and civilian police personnel in preparation for deployment, and further requests the Secretary-General to ensure that civilian personnel of peacekeeping operations receive similar training..." (paragraph 6)

"Urges Member States to increase their voluntary financial, technical and logistical support for gender-sensitive training efforts..." (paragraph 7)

"Calls upon all parties to armed conflict to respect fully international law applicable to the rights and protection of women and girls, especially as civilians, in particular the obligations applicable to them under the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the Additional Protocols thereto of 1977, the Refugee Convention of 1951 and the Protocol thereto of 1967, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women of 1979 and the Optional Protocol thereto of 1999 and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1989 and the two Optional Protocols thereto of 25 May 2000, and to bear in mind the relevant provisions of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court..." (paragraph 9)

"Expresses its willingness to ensure that Security Council missions take into account gender considerations..." (paragraph 15)

Purpose and audience: What and who this handbook is for

This Handbook is designed as a practical and flexible resource for military educators, commanders, trainers, and defence professionals responsible for implementing gender training within armed forces. It is also intended for civilian educators and gender experts working with military institutions, and for policymakers seeking to embed gender equality into defence sector reforms. Whether used in professional military education (PME), operational training, or strategic planning contexts, the handbook offers adaptable content suited to national, regional, or mission-specific needs.

The Handbook addresses two related questions: *what* do we need to teach about gender in the military, and *how* should we teach it? The 'what to teach' section of the Handbook may be of interest to educators and instructors who wish to either integrate gender in the content of the courses they deliver, or who wish 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 knowledge of gender in the military. The 'how to teach' section likewise offers something for both gender experts and educators.

On the one hand, this part of the Handbook introduces 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, this 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 other words, 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 a topic that a single handbook cannot claim to cover exhaustively. Moreover, the editors and authors of this Handbook recognise 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 complement existing resources. To mention a few, the reader will note that the Handbook does not contain ready-made lesson plans or presentations. These resources have been provided in, for example, NATO's *Education and Training Package on Gender Perspective for Nations*.⁶ This Handbook aims to equip instructors and educators with the background knowledge regarding gender and skills for delivering the content of such packages. In a similar vein, the handbook does not offer a military curriculum that integrates gender. This aspect of training has been addressed by resources such as the Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC)/NATO Reference Curricula for the Professional Military Education (PME) of Officers and Non-Commissioned Officers.⁷ Instead, the chapters of this Handbook provide guidance to trainers and educators 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 be useful. To ensure complementarity, and to 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 trainers, this handbook draws upon experience and normative frameworks of NATO, the UN, the European Union and other security organizations who have adopted the WPS resolutions. Therefore, the approach of the Handbook is to provide resources and suggestions, rather than being prescriptive, the hope is that it is useful for global security community. The authors and editors of this Handbook 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.

Methodology: How this handbook was compiled

The development of this updated edition was guided by a collaborative and inclusive methodology. Drawing on lessons learned from the first edition,⁸ this version incorporates new research, recent international policy developments—including those from NATO, the UN, and regional organisations—and direct input from gender advisers, military educators, civil society experts, and operational personnel. A consultative process involving original and new authors, and peer reviews, ensures that the handbook reflects contemporary realities, institutional priorities, and emerging best practices across diverse defence environments.

Introduction to the content

As mentioned earlier, this Handbook is organized in two sections. It is structured around thematic modules that explore the rationale for teaching gender in the military; the legal and normative frameworks underpinning gender integration; practical approaches to training design and delivery; and tools for assessing learning outcomes. Additional case studies and examples from field operations and national defence institutions provide real-world context and support experiential learning. New sections also address intersectionality, inclusive leadership, and the role of military education in advancing the WPS agenda.

Section I - 'what to teach' - 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 effectiveness. In Chapter 2, Sally Longworth, Kathie Knell, and Jennifer Wittwer unpack the legal instruments and normative WPS obligations for teaching gender in the military. They provide an overview of how international legal standards developed to address the protection needs of different groups can assist in understanding the rationale behind policy developments related to gender and security. They highlight the global policy frameworks that mandate gender education and training for military audiences, arguing that not only is the integration of a gender perspective beneficial, but it is also a requirement. Sara Greco and Kristine St. Pierre 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 in different contexts also introduces existing gender training initiatives currently underway in regional and international security organizations. In the final chapter of this section, Vanessa Brown and Iryna Lysychkina 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, and assessment and evaluation – serves as a bridge to Section II - thinking about how to teach as well as what to teach.

Section II of this handbook –“how to teach”- is dedicated to the question of current teaching and learning methodologies. 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 Lysychkina and Andreas Hildenbrand highlight the application of adult learning principles in teaching gender and the concept of transformative learning. They discuss why effective gender education in the military should prioritize attitude change, critical reflection, and behavioral transformation by using adult learning principles, motivational strategies like Keller's ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, Satisfaction) model, and participatory, learner-centered approaches that connect gender perspectives to operational effectiveness. Callum Watson then examines gender dynamics in the classroom and corresponding aspects of the classroom environment 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, Olha Lysychkina, Andreas Hildenbrand and Kristine St-Pierre then outline how to plan lessons (including gender content) using backward design. In this chapter, they also provide examples of classroom assessment and learning activities that realize the goals of good adult education through active and transformative learning. Chapter 8 then turns to consider how we measure whether the required learning has taken place through assessment and evaluation. In this chapter, Elizabeth Lape describes 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 of the handbook are dedicated to teaching gender outside of the classroom setting. In Chapter 9, Tanja Geiss and Georghe Roman ask how technology can be leveraged to support education and training on gender. They examine currently available e-learning applications for teaching gender and discuss the advantages and limitations of online learning for teaching gender. Chapter 10 then focuses on coaching and mentoring as distinct, but complementary methods for advancing gender equality and competence across educational institutions. In it, Nathaly Levesque and Maka Petriashvili explore ways in which mentoring can support efforts to improve the gender balance within educational institutions, 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 in some instances to NATO and PfP member nations 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.

Endnotes

1. North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, "Military Voices on the Gender Perspective: A NATO Anthology", NATO (2024).
2. Eva-Lena Lindbäck, "Women can provide valuable information," in *Good and Bad Examples: Lessons Learned from Working with United Nations Resolution 1325 in International Missions* (Stockholm: Project Genderforce, 2007), 20-21.
3. Jody M. Prescott, "NATO Gender Mainstreaming," in *The RUSI Journal* 158, No.5 (2013), 56-62.
4. Patrick Cammaert, "Protecting Civilians from Conflict-Related Sexual Violence," in *Women on the Frontlines of Peace and Security* (Washington, DC: National Defense University Press, 2015).
5. Cheryl Hendricks and Lauren Hutton, "Defence Reform and Gender," in *Gender and SSR Toolkit*, ed. Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek (Geneva: DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN-INSTRRAW, 2008), 13-17.
6. NATO HQ SACT, "Education and Training Package on Gender Perspective for Nations" (Virginia, 2023), <https://www.act.nato.int/about/gender-advisor/>.
7. Canadian Defence Academy, "Generic Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum" (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes, 2011); Canadian Defence Academy and Swiss Armed Forces College, "Non-Commissioned Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum" (Garmisch-Partenkirchen: NATO Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes, 2013).
8. The first edition published in 2016 drew from the work of two Working Groups (WG) of the Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC): the working groups on Security Sector Reform and Education Development. Between 2012 and 2014, the two working groups jointly organised a series of four workshops that involved 66 gender and education experts from 23 countries in the NATO-PfP community. In 2014, the WG established an editorial board for the handbook, selecting academics, faculty in PME, military gender experts, civilian staff from ministries of defence and security, and civil society experts to draft the relevant chapters who could provide diverse, complementary expertise and perspectives. Some of those authors remain in the 2025 edition.

What to Teach



ONE

TWO

THREE

FOUR

Why and How Gender is Vital to Military Operations and Activities

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

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1. Introduction

Would you, do it? Would you make the effort to include a new approach to military operations and activities if you knew it would provide greater situational awareness? Would you make the effort to learn about this approach, knowing it was relevant to all social interactions, including in war and conflict? If you knew you could improve your unit's chance of success, improve the lives of civilians impacted by armed conflict, ensure they are protected, and enhance their agency in shaping their own future, would you, do it?

These are all essential questions related to teaching gender in the military, that ideally should serve as motivation for learners to understand, change and evolve. They are also a reminder of the importance of knowing the organisational culture where you teach, the current political situation and what kind of motivation or resistance you might consequently face and if and how that might impact your approach to teaching. A gender perspective is an inherent and necessary part of (the) comprehensive approach¹ to military and multi-domain operations². It is not only the right thing to do, but it also helps us to do things right. In this chapter we focus on why implementing a gender perspective has become an important aspect of military operations, and why this has implications for national as well as international military activities.

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 led to the creation of the WPS agenda through United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325, the first Women, Peace and Security (WPS) resolution adopted by the UN Security Council (UNSC) in 2000.³ Finally, we discuss why a gender perspective is relevant internally in military organizations and what the integration 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 physiological characteristics, and is something you *are*, while “gender” is a term used to define the flexible and tan changeable socially constructed roles and attributes you learn through socialization processes and perform in society as both women and men (see Box 1.1).⁴ “Gender” is most often 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 (see Box 1.1). For example, Simone de Beauvoir summarised the social construction of “women” when she observed that *“One is not born, but rather becomes a woman.”*⁵ Without wishing to refute Goldstein’s⁶ claims that the terms sex and gender 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 fundamental, and 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 do change given historical and geographical contexts, 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.

Box 1.1 Sex versus gender

Sex: Biological and physiological characteristics that one is born with.

Gender: Socially constructed characteristics that vary across societies and time.

It is a common belief that the topic of “gender” only refers to women and women’s concerns. This is a misconception, however, as gender refers to the socially constructed characteristics of all women and men (including LGBT+ people⁷), and the relationships, norms and expectations of and between groups of women and men. To have a gender perspective means being aware of these differences and observing, analysing, understanding and considering 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 (which frequently limit opportunities for women and girls and force men and boys into stereotypical roles), does not mean supporting or accepting gendered roles.



“Our society constantly promotes role models for masculinity, from superheroes to politicians, where the concept of being a ‘man’ is based on their ability to be tough, dominant – and even violent when required.”

Deeyah Khan⁸

Discussions around gender and gender perspectives are not new, but increased research⁹ and attention to the nexus between (human) security and development has led to greater support for universal human rights and demands for equality in all 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, conflict and crisis are affected by women, girls, men and boys in different ways. They also affect women, girls, men and boys differently. Military operations occur in areas often with diverse cultures and gender roles to those in the deployed force. This, coupled with high levels of sexual violence and other forms of abuse and repression (see Box 1.2¹⁰), mean that a gender perspective must be an integral part of a comprehensive approach to every civil-military crisis.

Box 1.2 Examples of Gender Based Violence committed in Ukraine under Russian occupation

“Throughout the conflict Russian and Russian-affiliated forces committed numerous grave abuses against civilians in occupied regions. They carried out enforced disappearances, summary executions of civilians, and unlawful detention and torture, especially targeting civil servants. They perpetrated sexual violence, forced transfers of Ukrainian adults and children, and looting of cultural artifacts. In September, the UN Col [UN Commission of Inquiry on Ukraine, 2023] reported that Russian soldiers raped and committed sexual violence against women there ranging in age from 19 to 83.”

Human Rights Watch Report on Ukraine, 2024.

Within the context of the comprehensive approach, striving for gender equality and integrating gender perspectives are seen as both a goal (the right thing to do) and a means to effectiveness (doing things right). These objectives are paramount and will be discussed further under the umbrella of the WPS agenda. Due to changing values and other socio-economic factors, gender is dynamic and changeable over time. Military forces should consider this when integrating a gender perspective into operations and activities. Introducing and including a gender perspective into operational areas can contribute to operational objectives in bringing about a more equal society. Institutions such as the OECD¹¹, International Monetary Fund¹², the Brookings Institute¹³ and academic researchers mentioned in this chapter have observed that in societies where men and women enjoy the same opportunities, states are more likely to be prosperous and more peaceful.



“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 Albright¹⁴

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 by military forces within military operations responding to interstate or intrastate conflict should only be used as a last resort for self-defence or, if authorised by the UNSC, to maintain or restore international peace and security when all other non-violent approaches have been exhausted. The use of lethal force against armed actors to a conflict, and advanced weapons systems that can affect the civilian population as bystander casualties, can only legally be authorized within a very narrow set of circumstances.¹⁵ This demonstrates why vigorous investigations into the conduct of the armed forces, their ethics and their ability to work effectively and in a legal way towards reaching the political aim of peace and security for all, with a minimal use of force, are an inherent part of a democratic state.

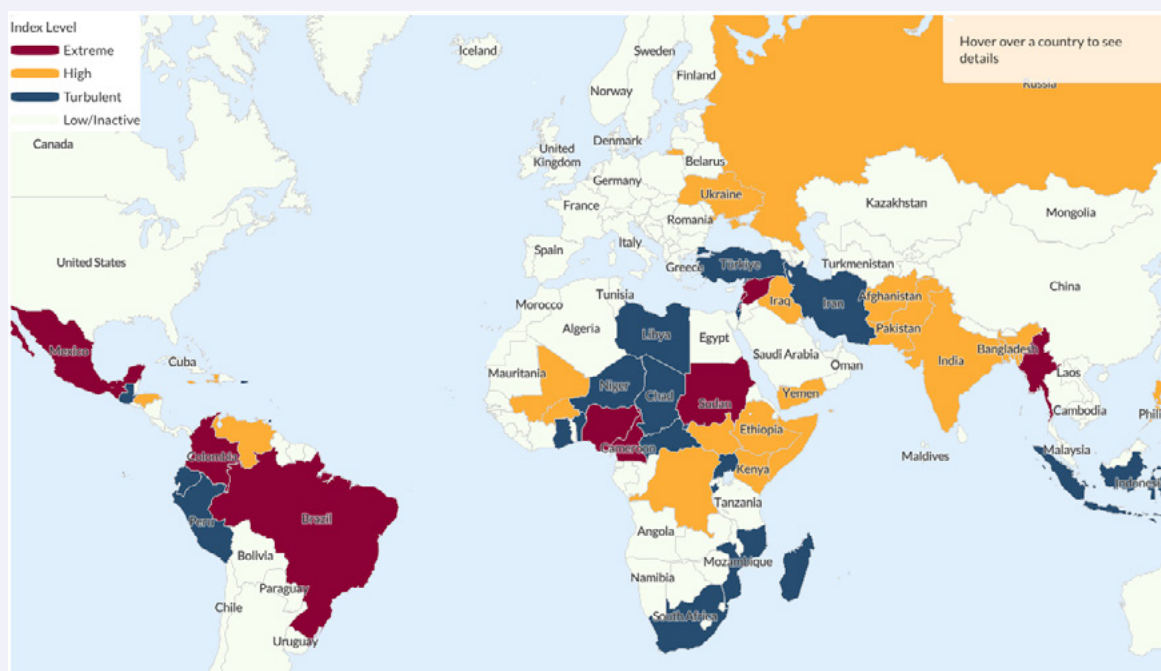
Since the end of Cold War¹⁶ and events of 9/11,¹⁷ the nature of armed conflict has changed. Historically, civilians have often been caught up in the morass of conventional war, and they are now a regular feature in today's conflicts. As General Rupert Smith explains, “war amongst the people” is becoming routine.¹⁸ In fact, while research on World War I¹⁹ 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”.²⁰ In applying a gender perspective to this shift, the Peace Research Institute Oslo (PRIO) 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”.²¹

While men and some boys at times are sent (sometimes forcefully) to the battlefield in disproportionate numbers, many women and girls can be 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 civilian infrastructure.²² Some engage in sexual acts to ensure their own survival and that of their families. This may involve prostitution and sex work within the community, or sexual exploitation or abuse by state and non-state armed actors and peacekeepers or aid workers responsible for the distribution of humanitarian aid.²³ Women and girls (and men and boys), can be subjected to sexual violence, which is sometimes used systematically as a political weapon, a war strategy, tactics of terror or opportunistically by warring parties.

Post-Cold War changes in 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.²⁴ One of the reasons why human security is 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.²⁵ Complex emergencies can only be resolved by a comprehensive approach to crisis management.²⁶ 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 manner²⁷.

Measures of human insecurity, including gender inequality and the lack of democratic values, have also been used by researchers to predict the resilience of a given area to violent conflict. As shown in Box 1.3, there is a noticeable correlation between some countries experiencing conflict (see ACLED's Global Index) and their gender equality ranking (see table with extracted data from UN Development Programme's reports²⁸). This correlation would suggest that the promotion of gender equality can contribute to preventing future conflict. Caprioli and Trumbore (2006)²⁹ and Hudson et al (2009)³⁰ observe a correlation between gender inequality and conflict. They note that nations where human rights are respected, including those relating to gender equality, are less likely to experience intra or interstate conflict. This outcome is often because greater gender equality is linked to more sustainable development, which, in turn, reduces the likelihood of conflict.³¹ Despite this insight, during 2025, gender perspectives became more evident in geo-politics as state administrations globally introduced laws and policies that were either critical of gender equality or deliberately targeted women and girls.³²

Box 1.3 The correlation between gender inequality and conflict and political violence



Source: ACLED, "Global Index: December 2024", <https://acleddata.com/conflict-index>

Country	Ranking for gender equality ³³ (193 countries and territories in survey)
Colombia	95
Cameroon	142
Sudan	140
Lebanon	86
Brazil	94
Nigeria	165
Mexico	84
Syria	123
Myanmar	119
Palestine	No ranking available

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 Charter³⁴ 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 states, with assistance from 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".³⁵ The outcome document of the 2005 UN World Summit included a political commitment to the R2P and was subsequently adopted unanimously by the UN General Assembly. The World Summit Outcome document stipulates that "Each individual State has the responsibility to protect its populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity. This responsibility entails the prevention of such crimes, including their incitement, through appropriate and necessary means."³⁶ The R2P principle was invoked for the first time by the UNSC on the situation in Libya in

2011³⁷, resulting in military interventions by the UN.³⁸ 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 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."

The World Bank³⁹

Notwithstanding this approach to global security, the use of R2P was considered a failure in Libya, as it has become a haven for extremist groups like Islamic State and al-Qaeda.⁴⁰ After the Libya crisis, the UNSC refused to act in Syria in 2012, despite Arab leaders requesting UN intervention to prevent mass casualties. China and Russia vetoed the usage of R2P, and since then, China and Russia have used their veto power on the UNSC to block more than fifteen attempts by the UN to intervene in Syria. As a result, the UN has been unable to use military action to mitigate some of the world's most violent conflicts. Despite this, R2P remains an active UN doctrinal mechanism to address global conflicts.

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 UN and regional security organisations such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) and the African Union (AU) 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 environment⁴¹. A fundamental aspect of this will be recognizing the gender roles of the people in the area of operations, and how women, girls, men and boys are being targeted and affected differently. Without this knowledge military planners risk overlooking security threats (like assuming that all women are non-combatants) and may fail to identify those in vulnerable situations who need protection (like young boys and men used for trafficking in illegal organ harvesting or who have experienced conflict-related sexual violence). To have this situational awareness embedded in their approach, military personnel will require added competence, such as host-nation and cultural awareness training, language skills and the ability to view the situation with a gender perspective and conduct a gender analysis of the human terrain.

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

In October 2000 the UNSC 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 UNSC came to a well-informed and deeper understanding of the security concept⁴².

The unanimous adoption by the UNSC of UNSCR 1325 on WPS in 2000 was a landmark resolution that 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 four pillars of prevention, protection, participation and gender-responsive relief and recovery. The *prevention* (of conflict and

conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence (CR-SGBV)) and *participation* (at all levels of decision-making related to peace and security) pillars recognize that the effects of war and conflict on women and girls have been historically overlooked and calls for more women to be deployed in peacekeeping operations. The third *prevention* pillar highlights that increased efforts and mechanisms are needed to protect their basic human rights. The resolution also calls, through its fourth pillar, for advancement of relief and recovery measures to address international crises through a gendered lens, including by respecting the civilian and humanitarian nature of refugee camps, and considering the needs of women and girls in the design of refugee camps and settlements. Additionally, the resolution calls for gender perspectives to be part of all planning and execution of UN peacekeeping operations.⁴³ However, the main shift in the security agenda was that women were subsequently perceived as important actors and active contributors in shaping their own security and future and that of their nations through participation in conflict resolution and peacebuilding activities.

The UNSC has in turn cemented its commitment to gender equality and enhancing peace and security efforts by subsequently adopting another nine resolutions on WPS (see Chapter 2 for more details).⁴⁴ Together, the resolutions represent an important framework for improving women's situations, especially in conflict-affected countries.

5. The military's role in implementing the WPS agenda

What does this mean for the armed forces? First, different nations have developed international, regional and national National Action Plans (NAPs) or other obligations related to the WPS agenda, and most UNSC mandates for military operations since 2000 have included references to UNSCR 1325 and the other resolutions on WPS. Many armed forces include objectives and desired outcomes related to the WPS agenda into their operational plans. Secondly, including gender perspectives as a tool in planning and conducting missions, operations and activities 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 integrating a gender perspective in force protection, intelligence, information efforts and strategic communication, especially within the context of complex emergencies.

For its part, NATO's 2022 Strategic Concept emphasises how the WPS agenda underpins its core tasks.⁴⁵ Since 2012, the NATO Secretary General has appointed Special Representatives for WPS, with this position responsible for NATO's WPS policies and action plans. NATO's policy on WPS, originally adopted in 2007, and with further iterations in 2014, 2018 and 2024⁴⁶, established the need for gender responsive leadership, adequate personnel and financial resources, and accountability are profoundly addressed.

NATO has also comprehended and embraced its role in relation to the WPS agenda through its Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, which was adopted in 2009 and revised in 2012, 2017 and 2021 (see Chapter 2). The directive embraces gender mainstreaming as a strategy that assesses implications for women and men in planned actions in all areas and at all levels to ensure their concerns and experiences are considered and gender equality is achieved. To give effect to this goal, gender adviser (GENAD) positions were established in Allied Command Operations at the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe in Mons, and at the Allied Command Transformation in Norfolk, United States of America, and the Joint Force Commands in Brunssum, the Netherlands, and Naples, Italy. GENADs at strategic, operational and tactical levels have also been deployed in military operations in Kosovo and Afghanistan. NATO also appointed the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations⁴⁷ in Sweden as department head for the Gender in Military Operations Discipline and all curricula related to gender for NATO and Partnership for Peace (PfP) countries (see Chapter 3).⁴⁸

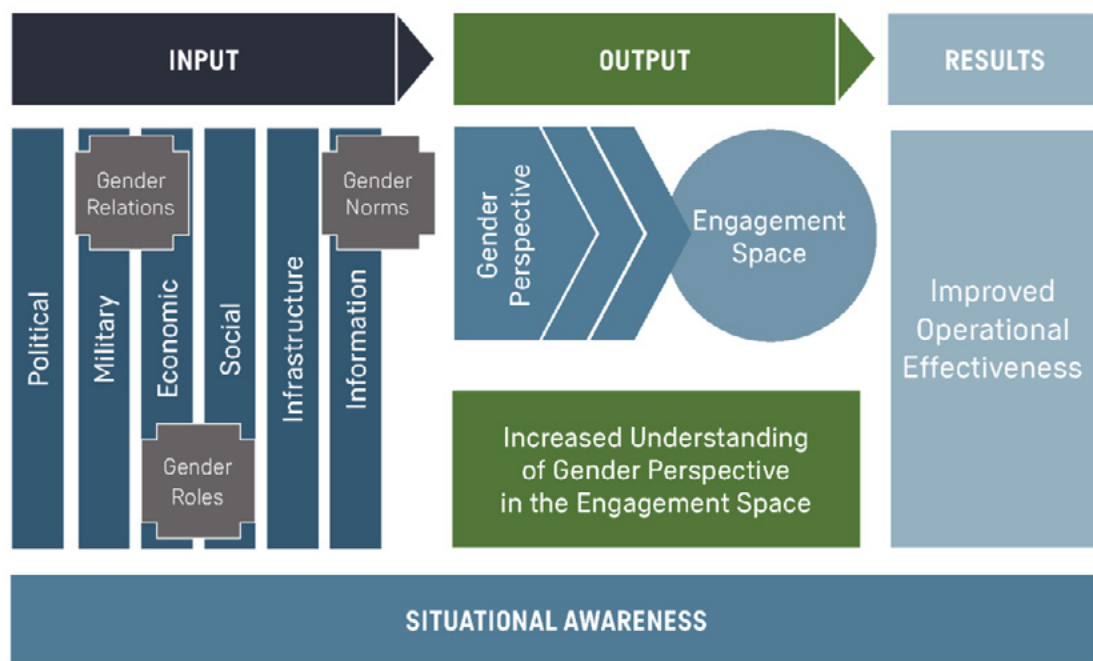
The implementation of the WPS agenda in military operations and missions involves a three-step process. First, as part of the planning phase, a gender perspective, which considers how a particular situation impacts the needs of women, men, boys and girls and if and how activities affect them differently⁴⁹, is needed in the environmental analysis of the area of operations. A military strategy needs to be based on a full gender analysis of the operational environment. This will not be possible however, unless political, military, economic, social,

information, infrastructure, physical environment and time factors (PMESII-PT) are understood within their socio-cultural context which will itself be gendered. Including a gender analysis is fundamental because the experiences 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 and concerns of the population relate to the four pillars (participation, prevention, protection, and gender-responsive relief and recovery) of the WPS 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 WPS agenda. For example, an operation with a mandate to protect civilians would see the military playing an active role in its implementation by ensuring the integration of a gender perspective. Conversely, if the mandate were to establish air supremacy in an arctic area, the armed forces would play a more passive role. However, operations would still need to be adapted so as not to exacerbate the situation for women and girls and avoid undermining the work of various actors operating in the same environment.

These steps are collectively represented in Box 1.4, which outlines how the PMESII-PT analysis enables increased understanding of the engagement space through a gender perspective, with the result being improved operational effectiveness.

1.4 PMESII-PT analysis process⁵⁰



In some contemporary conflicts, civilians are being deliberately targeted both through direct physical harm and in the cyber domain. Disinformation is used to undermine the role of women in society, which can translate into impacts such as CR-SGBV⁵¹. To that end military planning should include a gender analysis within the cyber and information domains. Integrating a gender perspective into all aspects of military operations is logical in terms of promoting operational effectiveness and for NATO and other security organisations, promoting democratic values for societies.

Similarly, implementing gender perspectives at all levels in military operations involves a shift in institutional mindset. This goes hand in hand with a greater appreciation of the need for gender equality and the meaningful participation of women within the armed forces.⁵² 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 armed forces, thus creating a larger recruitment pool for international deployments. In addition, national military forces must ensure their structures, functions and organizational cultures facilitate a thriving environment for women and men. This cannot be achieved, however, without committed gender-responsive leadership.

6. Implementation at strategic, operational and tactical levels

To integrate gender perspectives in military operations, gender dimensions must be included in all phases of an operation. Implementation at all levels, however, requires military and civilian staff 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 1.5 outlines the different tasks of personnel at the strategic, operational and tactical levels.

Box 1.5 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”.⁵³

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”.⁵⁴

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”.⁵⁵

The *strategic level* must ensure that gender perspectives, gender-related provisions in international humanitarian and human rights as well as domestic law, and the provisions of UNSCR 1325 and associated resolutions are part of the operational mandate with clear, politically defined end-state 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, such as policies for recruitment and retention, are set at this level. The strategic level also plays a key role in formulating codes of conduct, and leadership at this level can influence the development of national policies that make behaviour such as sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) of civilian populations, and sexual harassment and sexual violence against other collation military forces, morally and ethically unacceptable with severe consequences.

The strategic political aims are then transformed into military tasks at the *operational level*. In the operational planning process, gender-specific analyses of the mandate, operational environment and the military forces must be incorporated. This process 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 to attend to these tasks, 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 women, men, girls and boys are subject to in an operational area. Also, from a participation point of view, it is important to involve local women as actors in defining their security needs and concerns themselves. Often women are primarily seen as victims of conflict, but gender roles change over time and in different parts of the world. Such gender

stereotyping by the military can 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 burkas to detonate bombs, and women have shot coalition forces in Iraq.⁵⁶ Rebel groups have also sought to garner international support by visibly including women in their armed forces, undermining the legitimacy of government forces in fostering a fair and equal society⁵⁷. Misconceptions about the roles of women is also evident in the way Indian Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi was assassinated by a female suicide bomber from the Tamil Tigers. A female police officer had tried to stop the eventual assassin from reaching him, but Gandhi had told her to “relax baby” and died shortly after.⁵⁸

7. Conclusion

The WPS agenda underpins the efforts by NATO, the UN, other regional organisations, and their military forces to embed principles relating to gender equality, the protection and participation of women in peace and security efforts, including the prevention of conflict, and the integration of a gender perspective into all tasks in military operations.

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.⁵⁹ 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 the armed forces, 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, the following chapters of this handbook will support this work. The integration of gender perspectives needs, first and foremost, to be included in the steering documents upon which military education and training is based. This cannot be achieved, however, without gender responsive leadership from the senior level.

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 undoubtedly create better situational awareness and substantively contribute to reaching the goals of international obligations of working towards a more equal, just and peaceful society, in addition to making the use of military forces more effective. To do so, the military needs to gender mainstream their organization internally and integrate a gender perspective in all missions, operations and activities.



The increasing complexity of the strategic environment requires an in-depth understanding of how new and more advanced patterns of warfare affect women, men, girls and boys differently. Integrating gender perspectives into the analysis and planning of our operations will give a deeper understanding of the societies in which we operate, as well as the modus operandi used by our adversaries. This will improve the Alliance’s ability to recognise and respond to threats and challenges. It is also crucial that the Alliance’s armed forces, when recruiting, ensure the full participation of both men and women.

Lieutenant-Colonel Diana Morais⁶⁰

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.

Caprioli M. & Trumbore F. P. "Human Rights Rogues in Interstate Disputes, 1980–2001". *Journal of Peace Research* (2006).

This article examines the role of human rights violations in interstate disputes between 1980 and 2001, arguing that states with poor human rights records—termed "human rights rogues"—are more likely to engage in militarized interstate disputes. Their study, published in the *Journal of Peace Research*, finds that systemic repression and domestic human rights abuses correlate with aggressive foreign policy behaviour, reinforcing the notion that internal state practices influence external conflict tendencies.

de Beauvoir, S. *The Second Sex*. London: Vintage Classics, 2015.

This book (originally published in French as *Le Deuxième Sexe* in 1949) is a foundational text in feminist philosophy and gender studies. It explores the ways in which women have been historically oppressed and defined as "the Other" in a male-dominated society. De Beauvoir's work provides a thorough critique of patriarchal structures and examines the lived experiences of women from existential, historical, and philosophical perspectives.

DCAF. "Global MOWIP Report: Fit-for-the-Future Peace Operations: Advancing Gender Equality to Achieve Long-term and Sustainable Peace". Geneva: DCAF, 2022.

Produced under the umbrella of the Elsie Initiative, the Global MOWIP presents consolidated data using the MOWIP methodology from four Troop- and Police- Contributing Countries (TPCCs) with a focus on actionable recommendations for international peacekeeping policy and practice. Consolidated MOWIP data reveals the importance of advancing long-term sustainable peace that is grounded in positive peace and human security. This fundamentally involves recognition that long-term sustainable peace is not merely the absence of armed conflict; rather, it reflects the presence of equal safety, security, and livelihood for all people: women, men, girls, boys, including people of diverse sexual orientation and gender identity or expression. As such, gender equality is central to long-term and sustainable peace – and central to Peace Operations that are fit for the future.

De Jonge, C., and Micheal E. Brown. *The Gender and Security Agenda: Strategies for the 21st Century*. Routledge, 2020.

This book examines the gender dimensions of a wide array of national and international security challenges. It examines gender dynamics in ten issue areas in both the traditional and human security sub-fields: armed conflict, post-conflict, terrorism, military organizations, movement of people, development, environment, humanitarian emergencies, human rights, governance. Each chapter also examines a common set of key factors across the issue areas: obstacles to progress, drivers of progress and long-term strategies for progress in the 21st century. The volume develops key scholarship on the gender dimensions of security challenges and thereby provides a foundation for improved strategies and policy directions going forward.

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.

Duffield, M. "Complex emergencies and the crisis of developmentalism". *IDS Bulletin*, Vol. 25, No. 4 (1994).

This article examines the intersection of humanitarian crises and the changing nature of international development. Published in the mid-1990s, this analysis focuses on how so-called "complex emergencies" challenge traditional approaches to development and humanitarian aid.

Goldstein, Joshua 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.

Hudson, Valerie, Donna Lee Bowen and Perpetua Lynne Nielson. *The First Political Order – How Sex Shapes Governance and National Security Worldwide*. New York: Columbia University Press, 2020.

This book examines the foundational role of gender relations in shaping political systems, governance, and national security outcomes. This groundbreaking work argues that the subjugation of women and patriarchal structures in societies fundamentally influence the nature of political order, stability, and security.

Hudson, Valerie. M., Mary Caprioli, Bonnie Ballif-Spanvill, Rose McDermott, and Chad F. Emmett. "The Heart of the Matter: The Security of Women and the Security of States". *International Security*, Vol. 33, No.3, (2009), 7-45.

This article argues that the security of women is directly linked to the security and stability of states, positing that societies with high levels of gender inequality and violence against women are more prone to internal conflict, authoritarianism, and aggressive foreign policies. Their study empirically demonstrates that gender-based violence and discrimination are predictive indicators of broader instability and conflict, advocating for the inclusion of women's rights and gender equality as central components of national and international security strategies.

Karim, S., and Kyle Beardsley. *Equal Opportunity Peacekeeping: Women, Peace, and Security in Post-Conflict States*. Oxford University Press, 2017.

The book argues that gender power imbalances between the sexes and among genders place restrictions on the participation of women in peacekeeping missions. Specifically, discrimination, a relegation of women to safe spaces, and sexual exploitation, abuse, harassment, and violence (SEAHV) continue to threaten progress on gender equality. The book also identifies and examines how increasing the representation of women in peacekeeping forces, and through "equal opportunity," can enable peacekeeping operations to overcome the challenges posed by power imbalances and be more of an example of and vehicle for gender equality globally.

McDermott, Rose. "The role of gender in political violence". *Current Opinion in Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 34 (2020).

This article explores the intersection of gender and political violence, examining how gender influences participation in, experience of, and societal responses to political violence. This piece critically engages with the ways in which traditional gender norms and roles shape the dynamics of political violence and terrorism.

Ormhaug, Christin and Helga Hernes. *Armed Conflict Deaths Disaggregated by Gender*. Oslo: Peace Research Institute Oslo, 2009.

This book explores the gendered dimensions of fatalities resulting from armed conflicts. It provides a critical analysis of how men and women are differently affected by conflict, contributing to the broader discourse on gender and security.

Sjoberg, Laura. *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.

Smith, Rupert. *The Utility of Force*. London: Penguin, 2006.

This seminal work that challenges traditional notions of warfare and redefines the understanding of military force in the 21st century. Drawing on his extensive experience as a British Army general, Smith argues that modern conflicts differ fundamentally from the wars of the past and require a shift in the way military power is conceptualized and employed.

Tryggstad, Torrun. 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.

This thesis examines the international developments that lead to the emergence of the WPS 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.

DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women. "Defence and Gender". In *Gender and Security Toolkit* (Geneva: DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women, 2019).

For armed forces and other defence institutions, thinking about gender until recently used to mean integrating women. While still an important priority, many defence institutions now also focus on what it means to mainstream, or integrate, gender in military operations and how gender dynamics impact on protecting civilians in conflict. Drawing on experience and evidence from around the world, the Tool sets out ways in which the defence sector can integrate a gender perspective and promote gender equality.

Further research and reading lists:

London School of Economics. "The Centre for Women, Peace and Security". LSE.
<https://www.lse.ac.uk/women-peace-security>

Georgetown University's Institute for Women, Peace & Security. "Women are critical to achieving sustainable peace". GIWPS. <https://giwps.georgetown.edu>

Oxford Academic. "Reading List: Women, Peace and Security agenda (WPS)". *International Affairs*.
https://academic.oup.com/ia/pages/women_peace_and_security_agenda

Our Secure Future. "Women, Peace and Security 2019 Reading List". OSF, January 19, 2019.
<https://oursecurefuture.org/our-secure-future/news/women-peace-and-security-2019-reading-list>

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:

- implement the UN resolutions on women, peace and security – noting the critical role the inclusion of women plays in achieving an enduring peace;
- acknowledge the serious impacts that conflict has on diverse groups of women, men, girls, boys and gender minorities in the civilian population;
- include specific direction, as mandated, to consider the protection of civilians, addressing differentiated needs related to gender and age, 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 diverse groups of women and men to join the military;
- service members 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 diverse service members.

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 UN Security Council resolutions relating to women, peace and security – this appointment could be based on the NATO gender (field) adviser function;
- 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 level

J1: Personnel/chief personnel officer	J2: Operational intelligence
▶ Does the deploying force have a gender adviser or equivalent? ▶ Are there sufficient servicewomen to conduct searching operations and engage with local women, and sufficient women interpreters and trained women to respond to survivors of conflict-related sexual violence? ▶ Are soldiers aware of standards of behaviour towards the local population? ▶ Zero-tolerance policy towards sexual exploitation and abuse. ▶ Zero-tolerance policy towards sexual harassment or violence by and against service members.	▶ Is information being collected from women as well as men? ▶ Are data disaggregated to show the experiences of women, men and the under-18s? ▶ Are data being analysed to provide commanders and staffs with relevant intelligence? ▶ Are procedures in place to push intelligence out to the field?

J3: Current operations ▶ 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/witchcraft. ▶ Train staff on and implement gender overlay in collateral damage estimates for air-dropped munitions. ▶ Ensure missions using gendered interface units (mixed-gender teams, cultural support teams, women's initiative training teams, mixed patrols) are tracked in the joint operations centre. ▶ Information operations. ✓ Are products communicating with local population inclusive? ✓ Has the force considered whether its messages reinforce cultural mores of the society that undermine human rights and gender equality? ✓ Does key leader engagement include dialogue with women?	J4: Logistics/medical ▶ Can local contracts be given to companies that have a transparent record on human rights, child protection and gender equality? ▶ Can contracts be given to businesses run by women or supporting women in local society? ▶ With J1 and military police, ensure that employed staff on camp are engaging in sex work. ▶ Medics to have service members trained in how to respond to conflict-related sexual violence and use PEP⁶¹ 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 service women service who choose not to use camp laundry services.
J5: Deliberate planning ▶ 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.	J6: Communication and information systems ▶ Ensure communications structures are not placed near schools or areas usually occupied by local women and men in the civilian population. J7: Training ▶ Ensure induction training for the force includes a gender-specific lesson. ▶ If involved in security sector reform, ensure women from host countries 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. J8: Finance and human resources ▶ 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

J1: Personnel ▶ Units have battle casualty replacements at the home unit. ▶ Discipline of soldiers is monitored and zero tolerance shown to soldiers who transgress the rules regarding sexual exploitation and abuse.	J2: Operational intelligence ▶ Units to use mixed and female engagement teams to gather information from the entire spectrum of society. ▶ Are patterns and trends for conflict-related sexual violence being monitored and collated?
J3: Current operations ▶ 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 (mixed) engagement teams when there are no female military staff or the local women cannot meet with the men from the unit.	J4: Logistics/medical ▶ With J1 and military police, ensure that staff employed on camp are not engaging in sex work. ▶ Medics to have service members trained in how to respond to conflict-related sexual violence and use PEP kits, etc.
J5: Deliberate planning ▶ Units to have servicewomen prepared and trained to assist with security sector reform, disarmament, demobilization and reintegration, internally displaced persons camps, etc. ▶ Ensure that adversary cyber and disinformation tactics are monitored and responded to when appropriate.	J6: Communication and information systems ▶ Ensure communications structures are not placed near schools or areas usually occupied by local women.
	J7: Training ▶ Training officer to ensure deployed personnel are refreshed in gender training during tour. ▶ If involved in security sector reform, ensure women from host country are included in training.
	J8: Finance and human resources ▶ Commanding officer to allocate funding for women's projects.

Endnotes

1. NATO operations and missions show that addressing crisis situations calls for a comprehensive approach combining political, civilian and military instruments. NATO can contribute to the efforts of the international community for maintaining peace, security and stability, in full coordination with other actors. Military means, although essential, are not enough on their own to meet the many complex challenges to our security. Effectively addressing crisis situations requires a comprehensive approach, wherein countries, international organizations, and non-governmental organizations collaborate in a coordinated and unified effort (see https://www.nato.int/cps/su/natohq/topics_51633.htm).
2. NATO's new transformative concept, Multi-Domain Operations (MDO) supports this and seeks to empower the Alliance to strategically influence events, synchronize efforts with external stakeholders, and present challenges to adversaries with the aim of safeguarding the freedom and security of NATO's extensive population (see <https://www.act.nato.int/article/mdo-in-nato-explained/>).
3. UN Security Council, "Resolution 1325 (2000) on women, peace and security", UN Doc. No. S/RES/1325 (October 31, 2000).
4. On the other hand, "gender" exists on a broad spectrum and encompasses both gender identity (a person's internal sense of their gender) and expression (refers to how people may convey their gender to others through behavior and appearance), in addition to societal expectations about status, behavior, and characteristics associated with certain sex traits.
5. Simone de Beauvoir, *The Second Sex* (London: Vintage Classics, 2015), 8.
6. Joshua. S. Goldstein, *War and Gender* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), 2.
7. LGBT+ people refers to lesbians, gays, bisexuals, trans people and anyone who may identify beyond the binary understanding of gender. LGBT+ individuals face unique security threats including due to their sexual orientation or gender identities (perceived or real). Moreover, within many armed forces, personnel openly serve as transgender and non-binary. Transgender people can currently serve openly in the militaries of many members (Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain and the United Kingdom) and three NATO Partnership for Peace members (Austria, Finland and Sweden), see M. J. Elders, et al., "Medical aspects of transgender military service", *Armed Forces & Society* 41, No. 2 (2015), 199–220. Other NATO partners or UN members states include Australia (see <https://defglis.com.au/resources/gender-identity/>) and New Zealand (see <https://www.nzdf.mil.nz/assets/Uploads/DocumentLibrary/OIA-2023-4629-gender-non-binary-workforce.pdf>).
8. Deeyah Khan is a documentary film director and human rights activist.
9. Valerie Hudson, Donna. L Bowen and Perpetua. L. Nielson, *The First Political Order – How Sex Shapes Governance and National Security Worldwide* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2020).
10. See Human Rights Watch, "Ukraine: Events of 2023", HRW, <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2024/country-chapters/ukraine>.
11. See OECD Working Paper on Gender Equality and Fragility (July 2021).
12. See the Interim Guidance Note on Mainstreaming Gender at the IMF (January 2024).
13. See Brookings Policy Brief, Democracy, Gender Equality and Security (2017).
14. M. Albright, White House address commemorating International Women's Day (March 8, 2010), Washington, DC (see <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tXHukyJCWVw>).
15. For UN peace operations, authorization is granted under Chapter VII of the UN Charter through a mandate from the UN Security Council. In the case of NATO operations, authorization is derived from Article 5 of the NATO Treaty.
16. The Cold War was a period of global geopolitical rivalry between the United States (US) and the Soviet Union and their respective allies, the capitalist Western Bloc and communist Eastern Bloc, which lasted from 1947 until the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991.
17. The September 11 attacks, commonly known as 9/11, were four coordinated Islamist terrorist suicide attacks carried out by al-Qaeda against the US in 2001. Nineteen terrorists hijacked four commercial airliners, crashing the first two into the Twin Towers of the World Trade Center in New York City and the third into the Pentagon (headquarters of the US Department of Defense) in Arlington County, Virginia. The fourth plane crashed in a rural Pennsylvania field during a passenger revolt. The September 11 attacks killed 2,977 people, making it the deadliest terrorist attack in history. In response to the attacks, the US waged the multi-decade global war on terror to eliminate hostile groups deemed terrorist organizations, as well as the foreign governments purported to support them.
18. Rupert Smith, *The Utility of Force* (London: Penguin, 2006).
19. World War I (WWI) or the First World War (28 July 1914 – 11 November 1918), also known as the Great War, was a global conflict between the Allies (or Entente) and the Central Powers. Fighting took place mainly in Europe and the Middle East, as well as in parts of Africa and the Asia-Pacific. WW1 was one of the deadliest conflicts in history, resulting in an estimated 10 million military dead and more than 20 million wounded, plus some 10 million civilian dead from causes including genocide.

20. Beatriz Frieyro de Lara and Margarita 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), 51.
21. Meier Ormhaug and H. Hernes, *Armed Conflict Deaths Disaggregated by Gender* (Oslo: Peace Research Institute Oslo, 2009), 23.
22. See Women, War and Peace portal, www.womenwarpeace.org/.
23. UN General Assembly, "A comprehensive strategy to eliminate future sexual exploitation and abuse in United Nations peacekeeping operations", UN Doc. A/59/710 (March 24, 2005).
24. UN General Assembly, "In larger freedom: Towards development, security and human rights for all", report of the Secretary-General, UN Doc. A/59/2005 (March 21, 2005), <https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/543857?ln=en&v=pdf>.
25. Mark Duffield, "Complex emergencies and the crisis of developmentalism", *IDS Bulletin* 25, No. 4 (1994), 3–4, <https://www.ids.ac.uk/download.php?file=files/dmfile/duffield254.pdf>.
26. Crisis management is one of NATO's core tasks for which it employs an appropriate mix of political and military tools to manage crises in an increasingly complex security environment, see https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_49192.htm.
27. A comprehensive approach to crisis prevention and management was promoted in the 2022 NATO Approach and Guiding Principles to Human Security, see https://www.nato.int/cps/eb/natohq/official_texts_208515.htm.
28. UNDP, Human Development Reports, https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/documentation-and-downloads_2023-24.
29. Mary Caprioli & Peter F. Trumbore, "Human Rights Rogues in Interstate Disputes, 1980–2001", *Journal of Peace Research* (2006), <http://www.uk.sagepub.com/martin3study/articles/Caprioli.pdf>.
30. Valerie M. Hudson, et al., "The heart of the matter: The security of women and the security of states", *International Security* 33, 7–45, <http://www.mitpressjournals.org/doi/pdf/10.1162/isec.2009.33.3.7>.
31. See, for example, M. Caprioli, "Primed for violence: The role of gender inequality in predicting internal conflict", *International Studies Quarterly* 49, No. 2 (2005), 161–178, <https://academic.oup.com/isq/article-abstract/49/2/161/1793002>; R. McDermott, "The role of gender in political violence", *Current Opinion in Behavioural Sciences* 34, 105, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cobeha.2019.09.003>.
32. Equality Now, "New Report Finds Sexist Laws Persist Worldwide", Equality Now (2025), https://equalitynow.org/press_release/new-report-finds-sexist-laws-persist-worldwide/; Global Governance Forum, "Laws Discriminating Against Women in Iran and Afghanistan Go Beyond Borders", Global Governance Forum (January 9, 2025), <https://globalgovernanceforum.org/laws-discriminating-against-women-iran-afghanistan/>.
33. UNDP, footnote 27.
34. See UN Charter, Article 2(4), www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter1.shtml.
35. International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty. *The Responsibility to Protect: Report of the International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty* (Ottawa: International Development Research Centre, 2001), XI, <https://idl-bnc-idrc.dspacedirect.org/server/api/core/bitstreams/7321d402-4733-4e62-98f2-8fbed4db04c1/content>.
36. See Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect, "2005 World Summit Outcome A/60/L.1", GCR2P, <https://www.globalr2p.org/resources/2005-world-summit-outcome-a-60-l-1/>.
37. Following widespread and systematic attacks against the civilian population by the Libyan regime, the Security Council unanimously adopted UNSCR 1970 on 26 February 2011, making explicit reference to the R2P. Deploing what it called "the gross and systematic violation of human rights" in strife-torn Libya, the Security Council demanded an end to the violence, "recalling the Libyan authorities' responsibility to protect its population", and imposed a series of international sanctions.
38. United Nations, "'Responsibility to protect' came of age in 2011, Secretary-General tells conference, stressing need to prevent conflict before it breaks out", UN press release (January 18, 2012), www.un.org/press/en/2012/sgsm14068.doc.htm.
39. World Bank, "World Development Report", World Bank (2011), 2, <https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents-reports/documentdetail/806531468161369474/world-development-report-2011-conflict-security-and-development-overview>.
40. See Council for Foreign Relations, "The Rise and Fall of the Responsibility to Protect", CFR Education (April 20, 2023), <https://education.cfr.org/learn/timeline/rise-and-fall-responsibility-protect>.
41. The need for situational awareness and Sex and Aged Disaggregated Data (SADD) is also needed in traditional deterrence and defence scenarios.
42. Torrun L. Tryggstad, *International Norms and Political Change: "Women, Peace and Security" and the UN Security Agenda* (Oslo: University of Oslo, 2014).
43. With NATO's and other security institutions adoption of the WPS agenda since 200, this has been expanded to 'military' operations.

44. The WPS agenda includes UNSCRs 1820 (2008; 1888 (2009); 1889 (2009) 1960 (2010); 2106 (2013); 2122 (2013); 2242 (2015); 2467 (2019); and 2493 (2019). See <https://www.un.org/shestandsforpeace/content/united-nations-security-council-resolutions-women-peace-and-security>.
45. See NATO, "NATO 2022 Strategic Concept", NATO (2022), <https://www.act.nato.int/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/290622-strategic-concept.pdf>.
46. See: NATO, "NATO 2024 Policy: Women, Pace and Security", NATO, https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/2024/7/pdf/240711-WPS-Policy-2024_en.pdf.
47. See Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations, "Welcome to NCGM", Försvarsmakten, <https://www.forsvarsmakten.se/en/swedint/nordic-centre-for-gender-in-military-operations/>.
48. NATO, "Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1, Rev. 1" (2012), para. 2-5, www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2015_04/20150414_20120808_NU_Bi-SCD_40-11.pdf.
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60. NATO, "The people behind the policies: integrating gender perspectives into the military", NATO (2022), https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/news_198293.htm.
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Gender Training and the Military: The Legal and Policy Framework

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1. Introduction

Law and policy provide the framework for ensuring that the objectives pursued by the international community regarding 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 in understanding the rationale behind policy developments related to gender and security, and the importance of incorporating a gender perspective in military operations. This chapter therefore provides an overview of the international legal and policy requirements relating to incorporating gender and the WPS agenda in military operations. The aim is to aid in understanding other chapters in the handbook and assist in explaining the importance of incorporating these requirements into training and education for military personnel. It 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 legal and other experts within their work. The chapter outlines the legal obligations under international human rights law (IHRL), international humanitarian law (IHL) and international criminal law (ICL) that underlie the requirements included in the ten UN Security Council resolutions (UNSCR) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS), followed by a summary of the UNSCRs relating to this area. It goes on to provide an overview of UN strategy and 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), African Union (AU) and other regional bodies.

2. The international legal framework

International law is made up of rules agreed between and governing the relations between States and other international actors.¹ By signing and ratifying international treaties and conducting themselves in accordance with customary international law, States express their will to be bound by these rules.² Of particular relevance to military operations are the protections and obligations set out in IHRL, IHL and ICL, and as such are the focus of this chapter. States are obliged to respect and ensure the rights under IHRL,³ and respect and ensure respect the obligations under IHL.⁴ They are obliged to prevent, repress, investigate and prosecute individuals within their jurisdiction who are suspected of having committed certain serious violations of IHRL and IHL that constitute international crimes.⁵ These obligations apply to all those exercising state authority, and includes the actions of military personnel. Integrating these standards into training and education, codes of conduct, disciplinary structures, manuals and procedures is therefore critical.

As will be described, IHRL and IHL contain legal rights and protections for all persons and specific rights and protections for different groups within society. Numerous international crimes have a gendered element, or their commission may impact on different genders differently. The WPS agenda builds on and is complementary to these obligations, especially in relation to protection, the prevention of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), and ensuring that perpetrators are held accountable. Understanding the international legal obligations underlying these requirements is therefore beneficial in implementing a gender perspective in military operations. International law also provides guidance in identifying those in vulnerable situations and the protection needs of people in society.

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; and
- d. judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified practitioners as subsidiary means for determination of rules of law.

Treaties (also referred to as "conventions", "protocols", "charters", etc.)

Examples

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.

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.

Customary international law

Examples

Prohibition of the use of force in international relations; prohibition of genocide; prohibition of torture, inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment; the prohibition of piracy.

Customary international law is made up of established, widespread and consistent practice by states followed in the opinion that they are legally required to do so (opinion juris). 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".⁶

General principles of law	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.
<i>Example</i> The principle of <i>pacta sunt servanda</i>, that treaties are binding upon the parties to them and must be performed in good faith	
Subsidiary means for the determination of rules of law	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.
<i>Examples</i> Decisions of the international courts, such as: • Regional human rights courts, including the European Court of Human Rights, the Inter-American Court of Human Rights and the African Court of Human and Peoples' Rights; • The International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY); • The International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR); and • The International Court of Justice (ICC).	

2.1 International human rights law

The protection of human rights is a fundamental 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 as: "[t]oday's human rights violations are the causes of tomorrow's conflicts."⁸ As such, in defining the purposes of the UN, Article 1 of the UN Charter calls for the achievement of international cooperation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all 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.

The UN Charter does not define human rights. Key human rights obligations can be found in other 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 UN General Assembly in 1948.⁹ Although General Assembly resolutions are not generally legally binding, its provisions are now considered to be reflective of customary international law.¹⁰ 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

Human rights law is a body of law that regulates the relation between States and individuals through the legal recognition of inherent and fundamental rights – that cannot be taken away – owed to all human beings, setting out obligations on States to respect, protect and fulfil the realization of those rights.⁷

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 individuals 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”.¹¹ In addition, there are ten core international human rights instruments covering specific persons or areas (see box 2.2). 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. 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 within their respective regional systems.¹²

Box 2.2 Key legal instruments in international human rights law

- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965 (ICERD)
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966 (ICCPR)
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966 (ICESCR)
- 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 (CAT)
- Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989 (CRC)
- International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990 (ICMW)
- International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2006 (CPED)
- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006 (CRPD)
- 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 the core instruments is available at www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CoreInstruments.aspx.

States are obliged not to infringe upon the rights of individuals. In addition, States are also obliged protect the human rights of individuals and ensure the fulfilment of these rights.¹³ They are required to exercise due diligence to prevent, investigate, punish and ensure redress for the acts of other persons or entities that breach the human rights of individuals within their jurisdiction.¹⁴ This does not mean that States cannot make distinctions for certain categories of persons. States can treat people differently if it is based on reasonable and objective criteria and has a legitimate purpose.¹⁵ 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 (see further Box 2.2).¹⁶ International human rights instruments need to be interpreted in light of the standards prevailing at the given time, and thus the rights of sexual minorities, transgender and other gender identities are recognized in IHRL.¹⁷ The rights of older persons are also increasingly recognized.¹⁸

The 1979 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, "[p]rotecting 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, peace-making, and reconstruction processes are important objectives of the Convention."²⁰ By becoming party to this treaty, States are obliged to undertake appropriate measures to end discrimination against women in all forms.²¹ CEDAW includes specific provisions relating to the participation of women in political and public life, in government and at the international level.²² These requirements also apply to the military, and as such, States must introduce measures to ensure recruitment, participation and opportunities for promotion of women within the military. These requirements also further impact on working conditions, equipment and resources provided, including uniforms, amongst others. 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 Recognizing the rights of rural women is one example of how multiple forms of inequality and differential treatment can impact on the fulfilment of human rights.

State parties to these treaties implement their international obligations in their national legal systems through the adoption of legislation, policy, education and training, amongst others. This requires a system 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.²⁴ State parties are required to submit reports on progress in implementing the treaty every four years.²⁵ When conducting gender training, it is important to understand to what extent the State concerned is bound by and has implemented international legal requirements under relevant human rights treaties. Advice from legal experts will assist with this.

Human rights are interdependent, indivisible and interrelated, meaning that they are linked and the non-observance of one right may impact on another.²⁶ IHRL applies in peacetime, as well as during armed conflicts, but the context of armed conflict may change the scope of the obligations and States may introduce measures limiting the exercise of human rights during armed conflicts.²⁷ During situations of armed conflict, it has been shown that conflicts worsen existing 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.²⁸ Examples of these issues have been highlighted in the reports of international bodies in the armed conflicts in Ukraine,²⁹ Myanmar,³⁰ Sudan³¹ and Ethiopia,³² to name a few.

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), which constitutes a violation of their human rights. A correlation has been shown between the increased prevalence of gender-based violence and discrimination, and the outbreak of conflict.³³ 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.³⁴ Women and girls are most commonly targeted by the use of sexual violence, which remains severely underreported during armed conflict.³⁵ Internally displaced and refugee women and girls and members of minority groups can be particularly at risk due to the effects of double discrimination.³⁶ A conflict situation can also lead to increases in domestic violence against women, both during and after the armed conflict.

2.2 International humanitarian law

IHL is applicable during armed conflicts. What rules apply depends on whether the armed conflict is classified as an international armed conflict (IAC) or a non-international armed conflict (NIAC). Broadly speaking an IAC exists when there is a resort to armed force between States. This relates to both total and partial occupations, and additional obligations will apply in such circumstances.³⁸ A NIAC exists when there is protracted armed violence between governmental authorities and organized armed groups, or between such groups in the territory of a state.³⁹ Whether or not a situation amounts to an armed conflict is a question of fact. The treaty regulation of IACs is more extensive than treaties applicable during NIACs. However, many of the rules applicable in IACs are now considered to be reflective of customary international law, and applicable in NIACs.⁴⁰

International humanitarian law, also known as “the law of armed conflict”, is the body of international law that sets rules for how fighting is conducted 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.³⁷

Parties to an armed conflict are obliged to ensure respect for IHL,⁴¹ which includes incorporating the legal requirements in the planning and conduct of military operations during armed conflicts, as well as taking measures necessary in peacetime.⁴² This includes sharing information on the requirements under IHL, including education of military personnel.⁴³ 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.⁴⁴

Box 2.4 Key legal instruments in international humanitarian law

- St Petersburg Declaration Renouncing the Use, in Time of War, of Explosive Projectiles Under 400 Grammes Weight, 1868
- 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
- First Hague Protocol 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.

Most of the provisions of IHL do not differentiate between genders. In addition, IHL prohibits making any adverse distinction in the treatment of civilians and other protected persons 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.⁴⁵ As such, IHL should be interpreted in a neutral manner.⁴⁶ However, as noted above, perceptions and stereotypes relating to different groups within a society may lead to differences in how the law is interpreted and applied.⁴⁷ For example, civilian men and boys of fighting age may be subjected to may face harsh treatment and be forced to join armed groups due to their gender.⁴⁸

IHL provides obligations for State parties to armed conflict in relation to the civilian population within their territories or in territories under their control. The protections in this field are complimentary to those under IHRL. Different groups within the civilian population will have different needs and different vulnerabilities. For example, armed conflict has particular impacts on older persons and those with disabilities.⁴⁹ It may be more difficult for such people to leave areas themselves or be evacuated. As highlighted above, these difficulties are often compounded by gender and other forms of discrimination. Awareness of this is critical to ensure their protection needs are met while still making no adverse discriminatory distinctions.

There are specific requirements in IHL that do make a distinction based on gender. Article 76 of Additional Protocol I provides special protection to women, and Article 77 provides special protection for children. In the general obligations to respect, protect and treat people humanely, without adverse distinction, particularly for the wounded or sick, specific mention is made that women must be treated with all consideration due to their sex.⁵⁰ Special protections for women, children and families are also included in the regulation of detention under IHL. For example, in the protections for military prisoners of war and civilians who are detained, Geneva Conventions III and IV provide for the separation of women and men,⁵¹ and requirements for women detainees to be supervised by women.⁵² 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.⁵³ There are 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.⁵⁴

In situations of occupation, in addition to obligations owed to all members of the occupied civilian population, several provisions relate to different genders.⁵⁵ For 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 infants.⁵⁶ The occupying power is also under a general obligation to respect “family honour and rights”.⁵⁷

IHL provides protection for women against rape, forced prostitution and any other form of indecent assault.⁵⁸ 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. Men and boys are also protected against such acts and these acts are also prohibited during NIACs.⁵⁹ 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 in all circumstances against all persons.

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

Gender dynamics may affect the implementation of IHL. For example, understanding gender roles in the local context may assist in implementing the obligation to protect civilians and only target military objectives (the principle of distinction) better.⁶⁰ Understanding the gender dynamics in the local context would assist in understanding the roles of different individuals and group so as to be able to distinguish between those that are protected, and those that are directly participating in the hostilities and so would not be protected as civilians.⁶¹ For example, women have engaged in indirect support roles smuggling food, medicine and other aid into besieged areas have been noted in the armed conflicts in Syria⁶² and Afghanistan.⁶³ Such activities would not constitute direct participation in the conflict and therefore these individuals would still be protected as civilians and could not be targeted for these activities.

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.⁶⁴ Applying a gender perspective may assist in providing a more detailed understanding of the situation at hand and highlight gender-specific impacts an attack may have on the civilian population, thus ensuring greater adherence to the legal requirements.

In carrying out military operations, it is essential to understand when these different obligations apply and how they relate to each other. As noted above, IHRL does not cease to apply during armed conflict or with the application of IHL.⁶⁵ How IHRL applies does change, though, with the application of IHL. 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.⁶⁶

2.3 International criminal law

Certain serious acts breaching IHRL and IHL 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.⁶⁸ As such, they are required to implement national legislation establishing these acts as crimes within their domestic systems.⁶⁹ Military personnel must therefore have sufficient knowledge in the relevant legal principles to be able to identify, prevent and report such acts, if they take place.

International criminal law is the body of international law that defines certain acts as crimes under international law and ascribes responsibility on individual persons for committing such acts.⁶⁷

The adoption of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court 1998 marked a significant development in the substantive legal provisions relating to sexual and gender-based violence. There is also today a 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.⁷⁰ 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, which were influential in the drafting of the Rome Statute.⁷¹

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
- Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 1998
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984
- International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, 2006
- Convention on International Cooperation in the Investigation and Prosecution of the Crime of Genocide, Crimes against Humanity, War Crimes and other International Crimes 2023 (Mutual Legal Assistance Convention)

There are further treaties that define international crimes relating to the protection of cultural property under IHL, apartheid, piracy, terrorism, slavery and human trafficking, drug trafficking, and hostage taking, among others.⁷²

All States are bound to introduce legislation to criminalize international crimes and establish jurisdiction over the prosecution of these crimes, regardless of the nationality of the perpetrator or where the crime was committed.⁷³ In addition, the Rome Statute of 1998 established the ICC, a permanent body that investigates and prosecutes 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.⁷⁴ The Security Council may also refer a situation to the jurisdiction of the ICC, as happened in the situation of Darfur, Sudan, and Libya.⁷⁵ In addition, 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.⁷⁶ Uganda and Ukraine accepted the ICC's jurisdiction in their territory prior to becoming State parties to the Rome Statute.⁷⁷

Many of the crimes included in the jurisdiction of the ICC are based on customary international law,⁷⁸ 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.⁷⁹ In addition, the Rome Statute recognized the war crime of rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization, or any other form of sexual violence committed against protected persons in armed conflict and connected with the armed conflict in both international and non-international armed conflicts.⁸⁰

In addition to crimes with specific gender elements, different genders may be specifically targeted or impacted by the commission of international crimes.⁸¹ 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".⁸²

Box 2.7 Gender-based violence from a criminal law perspective

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.⁸³

The ICC received criticism of its handling of gender and sexual violence in its early cases,⁸⁴ but has made progress in recent years. For example, on 4 February 2021, Trial Chamber IX held Dominic Ongwen guilty of 61 crimes characterized as war crimes and crimes against humanity, committed in Uganda between 1 July 2002 and 31 December 2005. This included numerous sexual and gender based crimes, including forced marriage, torture, rape, sexual slavery, enslavement, forced pregnancy and outrages upon personal dignity he committed against seven women whose individual stories are set out in the judgment, and forced marriage, torture, rape, sexual slavery and enslavement committed against girls and women by the Sinia brigade of which he was commander.⁸⁵ In 2025, the Prosecutor of the ICC opened an investigation into persecution based on gender grounds as a crime against humanity in Afghanistan.⁸⁶

Members of minority groups are particularly vulnerable to double discrimination based on their gender and membership of a minority group. For example, in the armed conflicts in Syria and Iraq Yazidi women and girls aged 9 and above were held captive in sexual slavery and specifically targeted because of their community's religious identity.⁸⁷ In contrast, men and boys above the age of 12 from the same group were summarily executed those who refused to convert to Islam and subject those that did to forced labour.⁸⁸ These acts have been held to amount to war crimes, crimes against humanity and genocide by international monitoring bodies and domestic courts in numerous States.⁸⁹

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.⁹⁰ It is critical to be able to identify situations and contexts in which these crimes might occur, as well as groups that might be subject to international crimes, so as to be able to take measures to prevent their commission. Considering how and why different groups are targeted because of their gender or other basis, and how conflict can shape gender roles, norms and expectations, and thus increase the risk of gender-based crimes, will assist in this. Gender aspects are therefore fundamental in identifying key elements to establish criminal liability for the crime, including the commission of and culpability for crimes.⁹¹ In addition, 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 be an aggravating factor in the sentence ultimately imposed.⁹²

3. The policy framework: Women, Peace and Security

Complementing the international legal framework outlined in the previous section is an international peace and security policy framework on integrating gender perspectives into global security governance, peace operations, and military structures. This transformative policy framework is established through ten UNSCRs and provides overall direction for planning, development and guidance on how the requirements set out in the resolutions should be implemented in practice in the operational environment. Recognizing the gendered impacts of armed conflict and the critical role of women in conflict prevention, peacekeeping, and post-conflict reconstruction, the WPS agenda mandates the participation, protection, prevention, and relief and recovery of women in peace and security processes. Within military operations, WPS has driven policy reforms and institutional mechanisms aimed at embedding gender-responsive approaches into strategic planning, operational procedures, and tactical engagements. Institutions such as NATO and the UN Department of Peace Operations (DPO) have responded by developing gender integration policies, deploying Gender Advisers (GENADs), and mainstreaming gender considerations into training, doctrine, and operational mandates. The remainder of this chapter explores the WPS agenda, the importance of it to armed forces, and implementation practices, all of which should be included in training.

3.1 Background on the Women, Peace and Security agenda

3.1.1 UNSCRs on WPS

Box 2.8 The legal nature of UNSC resolutions

Resolutions are formal expressions of the opinion or will of the UNSC. 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 UNSC. Under Chapter VII of the Charter, the UNSC is authorized to decide on measures to be taken in accordance with Articles 41 and 42 to maintain or restore international peace and security. These resolutions can include instructions to the Secretary-General and other UN bodies, such as in relation to UN peace operations, which must be followed. The UNSC 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. Otherwise, they often refer to and reinforce legal obligations of member states already in place, such as the UN Charter and CEDAW, but not all UNSCRs entail legal obligations, and not all are legally binding on UN members states in the same way as treaties.

The UNSC, under the Presidency of Namibia, adopted UNSCR 1325⁹³ in 2000, representing the culmination of many years of activism and work by civil society, countries and others.⁹⁴ This resolution seeks to ensure greater participation of women in peace and security processes, and the inclusion of gender considerations and perspectives in peacekeeping. For armed forces who have incorporated UNSCR 1325 into their military operations and practices, applying a gender-responsive approach means: i) recognizing and analysing the gendered differences in status and power of all women and men, girls and boys, and other gender identities; and ii) ensuring implementation of the mandate at the strategic, operational and tactical level advances gender equality and reduces the harmful effects of patriarchy, gender norms and roles, and power relations.⁹⁵ Ultimately, the integration of a gender perspective ensures the delivery of operational effectiveness.

Box 2.9 Pillars of the WPS agenda

The commitments expressed in the UNSCRs adopted under the WPS agenda are often divided into four 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 SGBV.

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: The protection from SGBV under international and national laws in conflict-affected situations. In addition, this includes full respect for and promotion of women's and girls' rights.

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.

UNSCR 1325 further recognizes the importance of specialized education for all peacekeeping personnel on the protection of women's and girl's human rights in conflict-affected situations, including protection from SGBV.⁹⁶ It seeks to ensure that, where appropriate, field operations include a gender component, and to expand the role and contribution of women, including as military observers.⁹⁷ It also stresses 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.⁹⁸

The adoption of UNSCR 1325 expanded efforts from the 1990s by both the UN and member states to incorporate gender mainstreaming and a gender perspective more broadly in all their actions, including legislative, policy, and programmatic work.⁹⁹ It followed a greater recognition and more developed understanding within the international community of the differential impact of armed conflicts on women, men, boys and girls, particularly during the 1980s and 1990s, and the need to reinforce compliance with legal protections established under international human rights law, international humanitarian law and international criminal law. As noted above, the issue was further addressed through the work of the ICTY and the ICTR, which highlighted the vulnerabilities of different genders to SGBV during the armed conflicts within their jurisdictions.¹⁰⁰

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.¹⁰¹ 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.¹⁰² 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 1325.¹⁰³

Since 2000, the UNSC has passed nine further resolutions developing and adding to the original framework created by UNSCR 1325, which are outlined below.¹⁰⁴

UNSCR 1820 (2008)¹⁰⁵ links sexual violence with the primary responsibility of the UNSC, namely the maintenance of international peace and security. The UNSC 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)¹⁰⁶ expands on and reiterates calls in UNSCR 1820 for the protection of women and children from sexual violence in armed conflict. The resolution requested the UN Secretary-General (UNSG) 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". 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 **UNSG** to develop indicators to measure progress in the implementation of UNSCR 1325.

UNSCR 1889 (2009)¹⁰⁷ addresses 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". It set out requirements for the UNSG 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.

UNSCR 1960 (2010)¹⁰⁸ also addresses sexual violence in armed conflict, adopting a "naming and shaming" approach in which the UNSG 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". In addition, the UNSC requested the UNSG to develop monitoring, analysis and reporting arrangements on conflict-related sexual violence (CRSV), including rape in armed conflict, post-conflict and other situations relevant to the implementation of UNSCR 1888. The UNSG's reports on this provide detailed country-specific information on CRSV and can be a useful tool when teaching gender.

As an extension of UNSCR 1960, the UNSC adopted **UNSCR 2106 (2013)**¹⁰⁹. UNSCR 2106 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. 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.

UNSCR 2122 (2013)¹¹⁰ addresses gaps in the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda that were highlighted in a report by the UNSG and again emphasized the need for the participation of women in all phases of conflict prevention, conflict resolution and peacebuilding. 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 UNSC's agenda and sets out measures in relation to these.

Marking the fifteenth anniversary of the adoption of UNSCR 1325, **UNSCR 2242 (2015)**¹¹¹ addresses women's roles in countering violent extremism and terrorism. In this resolution the UNSC decided to integrate WPS concerns across all country-specific situations on the UNSC's agenda, including relating to counterterrorism and countering violent extremism. The preamble to the resolution affirmed "the primary role of Member States to implement fully the relevant provisions of UNSC resolutions on WPS, and the important complementary role of UN entities and regional organizations". The resolution returned to central themes of preventing and addressing SGBV, women's participation and gender equality. In relation to the latter, the UNSC welcomed the UNSG's commitment to prioritize the appointment of more women in senior UN leadership positions. 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. The UN has also instituted a zero-tolerance policy for sexual exploitation and abuse in UN peace operations in other resolutions issued by the UNSC.

UNSCR 2467 (2019)¹¹² marked a significant and hard-won development in the WPS agenda, particularly in addressing CRSV. While previous resolutions, such as UNSCR 1820 (2008) and UNSCR 2106 (2013), had already recognized CRSV as a weapon of war, UNSCR 2467 sought to strengthen accountability mechanisms, survivor-centred responses, and reparations for victims. The resolution underscored the need for national governments to take greater responsibility in prosecuting perpetrators of CRSV, moving beyond an UN-centric approach to one that reinforces state accountability and justice mechanisms. Additionally, it emphasized the importance of holistic, survivor-centred approaches, recognizing medical, psychological, legal, and socio-economic support as essential components of addressing sexual violence in conflict.

UNSCR 2493 (2019)¹¹³ reaffirms the commitments of the WPS agenda, emphasizing the need for accelerated and effective implementation of previous resolutions, particularly UNSCR 1325 (2000) and UNSCR 2242 (2015). Recognizing the persistent gaps in gender-responsive security policies, peace operations, and institutional accountability, UNSCR 2493 urged all UN Member States, regional organizations, and security actors, including military institutions, to fully implement the WPS agenda across all levels of peace and security governance. A key focus of the resolution was the operationalization of gender mainstreaming strategies within peacekeeping, post-conflict reconstruction, and security sector reform (SSR). It stressed the importance of women's full, equal, and meaningful participation in peace processes, calling for increased funding, measurable accountability mechanisms, and strengthened institutional support to advance gender equality in security governance. Additionally, UNSCR 2493 highlighted the need for enhanced coordination between the UN, national governments, and civil society organizations (CSOs) to ensure gender-sensitive conflict resolution and sustainable peace outcomes.

3.1.2 The limitations of the WPS agenda

Despite its transformative potential, the WPS agenda has experienced a significant implementation gap and normative stalling, particularly in translating commitments into sustained, systemic change. While UNSCR 1325 (2000) and its successor resolutions created a robust normative framework for women's participation, protection, and leadership in peace and security, progress has been uneven, fragmented, and often symbolic rather than substantive.

Scholars and practitioners have identified several reasons for this stagnation, with some directly related to the participation pillar. Institutional resistance within militarized and patriarchal structures has constrained meaningful integration of WPS principles, reducing the agenda to “add women and stir” approaches. That is, including women in existing male-dominated structures without changing the underlying norms, power relations, or institutional cultures that impact their meaningful participation.¹¹⁴ Participation is often measured in numbers rather than influence, leading to tokenism rather than transformation. This is evidenced by the UN's *Uniformed Gender Parity Strategy 2018-2028*, which established numerical targets for uniformed women's participation, rather than addressing the structural barriers to women's meaningful inclusion.¹¹⁵ The agenda has also increasingly been instrumentalized, with women's participation justified primarily on the grounds of operational effectiveness rather than gender equality or rights-based principles.¹¹⁶ This instrumental framing undermines feminist aims by positioning women as tools of security rather than agents of peace. Furthermore, the agenda has struggled to meaningfully engage with intersectionality, often excluding youth, and women from marginalized groups including from the LGBTI+ community and racialized groups. This narrow framing reproduces hierarchies of inclusion and silences the voices of those most affected by conflict and insecurity.¹¹⁷

Another key factor contributing to stagnation is implementation processes and practices, which often remain under-resourced and inconsistent. National Action Plans (NAPs) (see section 3.1.4) often lack budget allocations, monitoring mechanisms, or political will.¹¹⁸ In conflict-affected and authoritarian contexts, civil society spaces for women's peace activism have also shrunk, further limiting local ownership of the agenda.¹¹⁹

As a result, the transformative promise of the WPS agenda has been diluted by institutional inertia, instrumentalization, and exclusionary practices—revealing a persistent disconnect between normative ambition and political implementation.

3.1.3 Additional WPS-related agendas

The WPS agenda has served as a catalyst for broader inclusion frameworks within the UN's peace and security architecture. Building on its foundational principles of participation, protection, prevention, and relief and recovery, the WPS agenda has informed and intersected with parallel initiatives, including specific measures to increase the participation of uniformed and civilian women in peacekeeping, the Youth, Peace and Security (YPS) agenda, and emerging efforts to uphold the rights of LGBTI persons in conflict and post-conflict contexts. As further detailed below, a separate UNSCR mandates the increase in uniformed women in peacekeeping efforts. The YPS agenda, initiated through UNSCR 2250 (2015), recognizes the agency of young people as peacebuilders and calls for their meaningful participation in peace processes—resonating with WPS demands for inclusive and representative governance. Simultaneously, the UN's growing attention to sexual orientation and gender identity (SOGI) rights—through Human Rights Council (HRC) resolutions and the mandate of the Independent Expert on SOGI—aligns with WPS by advocating for the protection and inclusion of women, men, girls and boys affected by conflict, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity or expression. Together, these agendas reflect a broader normative shift toward more inclusive, intersectional, and rights-based approaches to peace and security.

Women's participation in peacekeeping. Finally, while not a WPS resolution, but as it relates to women's participation, a key pillar of UNSCR 1325, UNSCR 2538 was adopted by the UNSC in 2020. UNSCR 2538 reaffirms the critical role of uniformed women personnel in UN peacekeeping operations and underscores their meaningful participation at all levels and in all aspects of peacekeeping, including planning, deployment, and

decision-making. The resolution highlights the operational benefits of women's full, equal, and meaningful participation. These benefits include increasing the overall performance and effectiveness of peacekeeping missions, and the creation of more balanced contingents that can improve community engagement, enhance protection efforts, and increase mission credibility. It calls on Member States, the UN, and regional organizations to address barriers to the deployment and retention of women peacekeepers, including through targeted recruitment, gender-sensitive policies, and enabling working environments. Importantly, UNSCR 2538 is the first stand-alone resolution focused specifically on women in uniformed peacekeeping roles and aligns with the broader WPS agenda by advocating for institutional reforms that advance gender equality, operational effectiveness, and inclusive security outcomes.

Youth, Peace and Security. The UN YPS agenda recognizes that young people often form the majority of the population in conflict affected countries, and that youth play a positive and transformative role in the promotion of peace, the prevention of conflict, and the rebuilding of societies in the aftermath of violence. Anchored in UNSCR 2250 (2015)—and expanded through Resolutions 2419 (2018) and 2535 (2020)—the agenda calls for the inclusive participation, protection, and empowerment of youth in peace and security processes. It challenges stereotypical narratives that associate youth primarily with violence or vulnerability, and instead emphasises their agency as peacebuilders, political actors, and community leaders. The agenda urges Member States and the UN system to create enabling environments for youth inclusion, including in decision-making forums, peace negotiations, and post-conflict recovery efforts. Importantly, it also promotes intergenerational dialogue and highlights the intersectionality of youth experiences—acknowledging how factors such as gender, race, and socioeconomic status shape young people's security and participation.

Human rights of LGBTI persons. The UN's approach to the human rights of LGBTI person is grounded in the principles of universality, equality, and non-discrimination as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. While the UN does not have a specific treaty dedicated to LGBTI (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex) rights, they are increasingly recognized through resolutions, reports, and mandates. The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) has led global advocacy through initiatives such as the *UN Free & Equal* campaign¹²⁰ and the publication of guidelines on ending violence and discrimination based on SOGI.¹²¹ In 2011, the Human Rights Council (HRC) adopted resolution 17/19, affirming the rights of individuals based on SOGI.¹²² In 2016, HRC resolution 32/2 mandated an Independent Expert on protection against violence and discrimination based on SOGI, marking a significant institutional step.¹²³

UN agencies have developed inclusive programming and issued policy guidance for Member States to protect LGBTI individuals from stigma, violence, and legal discrimination. One example is a 2022 OHCHR report that highlights how IHL prohibits violence targeting people based on SOGI, that prisoners of war cannot be discriminated against, and that SGBV against LGBT persons can be considered as grave breaches of IHL and potential war crimes. Further, ICL allows for the prosecution of acts of gender-based persecution, sexual violence, enforced disappearance, killing, and other inhumane acts motivated by LGBT-related prejudice. The report advocates that peace and security mechanisms cover situations in which LGBT persons are subjected to heightened risk, and for the inclusion of people of diverse SOGI in peace processes.¹²⁴

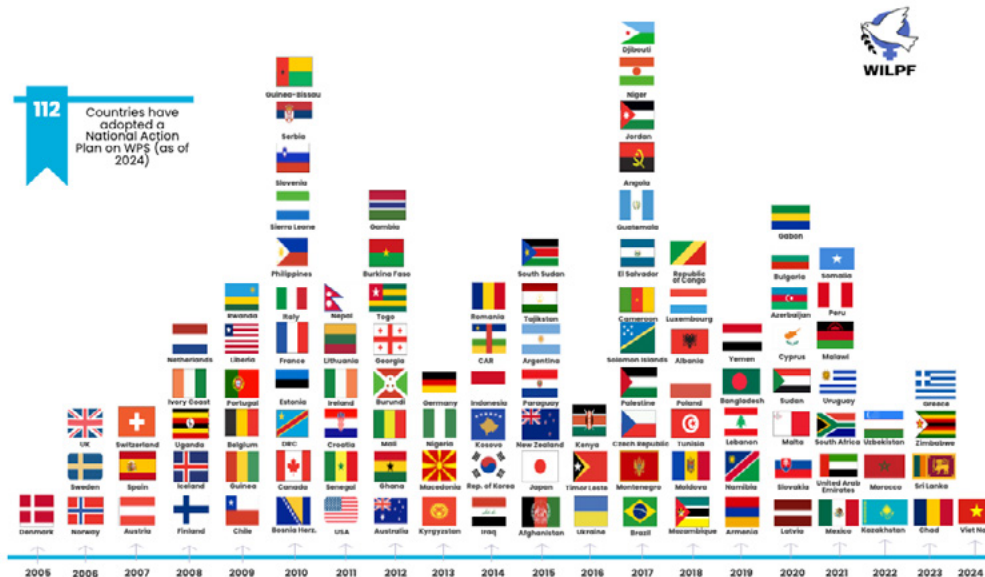
However, the implementation of LGBTI-inclusive policies remains uneven, and the UN continues to encounter resistance from some Member States—highlighting persistent tensions between global human rights standards and local socio-political norms. Approaches to LGBTIQ participation vary significantly across countries and military institutions. While NATO leadership explicitly supports the inclusion of LGBTI personnel at Headquarters and across the Alliance,¹²⁵ their rights are not equally protected or respected among all member states.¹²⁶ With the exception of Turkey, all NATO members permit LGBTI individuals to serve, though the degree of inclusion, legal safeguards, and societal acceptance differs. Importantly, in joint operations involving NATO or the UN, personnel—regardless of their national or institutional background—will likely serve alongside LGBTI colleagues. From a training and education standpoint, addressing LGBTIQ needs and concerns is essential for integrating a gender perspective and conducting context-specific gender analysis in operational environments.

3.1.4 National Action Plans (NAP) on WPS

NAPs on WPS emerged as policy documents adopted in member states' national frameworks to implement the WPS agenda and as a direct response to UNSCR 1325, which called on UN member states to develop concrete strategies for integrating gender perspectives into peace and security efforts. In 2002 the UNSC 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."¹²⁷ As a result, member states began to develop NAPs,¹²⁸ which outline a government's approach and course of action for implementing the WPS Agenda.

In 2005, Denmark became the first country to adopt a WPS NAP, paving the way for others to follow. Since then, over 100 countries have developed NAPs, each tailored to national security priorities, institutional structures, and regional challenges (see Box 2.9). These plans serve as policy roadmaps for ensuring that WPS commitments are implemented through legislative, institutional, and operational measures, fostering greater accountability among security actors. Some NAPs are 'outward facing', in that they primarily focus on international cooperation and assistance that the country will provide abroad. Other NAPs are 'inward facing', describing actions to be undertaken within the country. This includes functioning as key policy instruments for integrating gender perspectives into military operations, peacekeeping, diplomacy, and conflict prevention strategies. They outline specific objectives, timelines, and implementation mechanisms to institutionalize gender equality within security sector governance, peace negotiations, and humanitarian responses. Some NAPs prioritize women's participation in peacekeeping missions, while others focus on preventing CRSV, strengthening legal protections, or promoting gender-sensitive SSR. When incorporating gender into military education, it is therefore critical to review and understand these documents relating to the relevant national context.

Many countries have developed second, third, and even fourth-generation NAPs, building upon the experiences and lessons learned from previous iterations. Over the past two decades, the implementation of the WPS agenda through NAPs has expanded beyond national frameworks to regional, organizational, and local levels. At the regional level, Regional Action Plans (RAPs) have been established, such as those of the African Union (AU) and the European Union (EU), fostering coordinated policy approaches across member states. Additionally, regional collaboration initiatives, such as the Asia-Pacific Regional Symposium on National Action Plans on WPS, provide platforms for states and civil society representatives to exchange best practices, challenges, and lessons learned in implementing UNSCR 1325. In some countries, NAPs have been complemented by Local Action Plans developed in specific cities or regions to address localized security needs and gender-responsive governance challenges. Furthermore, many NAPs include directives for government agencies and institutions to develop their own sector-specific plans to integrate WPS commitments across policy areas, security institutions, and peacebuilding efforts. These multi-level implementation strategies underscore the evolving nature of NAPs as dynamic policy instruments aimed at enhancing gender-responsive security governance at multiple scales.

Box 2.10 National Action Plans on WPS as of 2024¹²⁹

3.2 The policy framework on military training and education on gender and WPS

The UNSCRs on WPS 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, the protection of women's rights and the prevention of sexual and gender-based violence. When establishing peace operations, the UNSC now routinely references its resolutions on WPS, and those on youth, peace and security¹³⁰, children and armed conflict and the protection of civilians in armed conflict.¹³¹ Specific instructions are given in relation to peace operations, including the need for gender training (see Box 2.10). The UNSC explicitly links these actions with contributing to and ensuring the maintenance of international peace and security. Throughout, the UNSC 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.

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.
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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.
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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.
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UNSCR 2467, 23 April 2019 (S/RES/2467)

Para. 24	Recognizes the role of United Nations peacekeeping contingents in preventing sexual violence, and, in this respect, calls for pre-deployment and in-mission training of troop – and police-contributing country contingents to include training on sexual and gender-based violence.
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National and international policy requirements emphasize the need to integrate gender into military education and training, including during UN and NATO deployments, which play a vital role in ensuring that member states adhere to their legal obligations to protect, respect and fulfil the human rights of all persons. Institutional structures and requirements have therefore been introduced to ensure that this is done within all national, regional and international organizations. These are outlined in the following sections.

3.2.1 United Nations

The DPO, previously known as the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), is responsible for planning and management of UN peacekeeping 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 and other relevant issues to other UN political and peacebuilding missions.¹³²

At the strategic level, the DPO aligns its work on the WPS agenda with key UN initiatives, including the 2018 'Action for Peacekeeping (A4P) Declaration of Shared Commitments in UN Peacekeeping Operations'¹³³ (A4P Declaration) and the UNSG's 2020 'Call to Action: Women Transforming Peace and Security'.¹³⁴ These initiatives reaffirm the UN's commitment to ensuring women's full, equal, and meaningful participation in peace processes, political solutions, and peace operations, emphasizing that gender-responsive approaches are essential for effective peacekeeping.¹³⁵ The implementation strategy for the A4P Declaration, known as the A4P+ Plan 2021–2023,¹³⁶ further underscores the WPS agenda as a cross-cutting priority, recognizing its role in enhancing progress across all peacekeeping mandates.¹³⁷ Additionally, the DPO has committed to transformative actions¹³⁸ through the Women, Peace and Security and Humanitarian Action Compact Framework (WPS-HA Compact) – a global, multi-stakeholder initiative launched by UN Women in 2021 to accelerate gender equality and strengthen the participation and protection of women and girls in conflict and humanitarian settings.¹³⁹ These strategic frameworks collectively reinforce the institutionalization of gender-responsive peacekeeping, ensuring that the WPS agenda remains integral to both operational effectiveness and long-term peacebuilding efforts.

At the operational level, the DPO has reaffirmed the UN's commitment to the WPS agenda and has implemented relevant policies since 2006. As an initial step, the then-DPKO and the Department of Field Support (DFS) released the policy "Gender Equality in UN Peacekeeping Operations", which outlined the key principles guiding gender equality and gender mainstreaming in post-conflict societies.¹⁴⁰ This was followed by the DPKO/DFS guidelines on "Integrating a Gender Perspective into the Work of the United Nations Military in Peacekeeping Operations," which provided practical directives for incorporating gender considerations into training programs, including pre-deployment training for military peacekeeping personnel.¹⁴¹

Further advancing these efforts, the 2014 DPKO/DFS "Gender Forward-Looking Strategy (2014–2018)" was introduced to emphasize the importance of gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping missions.¹⁴² Training and education were central components of this strategy, with concrete recommendations for integrating gender considerations into general training, pre-deployment programs, and specialized in-mission courses. Additionally, the strategy called for the systematic collection of sex-disaggregated data, both for internal UN forces and their external engagements with local populations, to enhance gender-responsive peacekeeping practices.¹⁴³

The DPO is currently guided by its policy on "Gender-Responsive United Nations Peacekeeping Operations," initially issued in 2018 and updated in 2024, which provides a comprehensive framework for integrating gender considerations across all aspects of peacekeeping operations.¹⁴⁴ This policy underscores the "importance of embedding gender equality and WPS mandates into peacekeeping structures", including through specialized training programs, tailored training modules, and the development of operational resources aimed at enhancing the capacity of DPO personnel and field missions.¹⁴⁵ Since 2019, DPO has expanded its efforts by developing a range of strategic and operational resources on WPS, gender perspectives, gender equality, and CRSV.¹⁴⁶ These policies and guidance documents reflect DPO's recognition of the transformative potential of the WPS agenda, not only as a mechanism for enhancing operational effectiveness and inclusivity, but also for ensuring the long-term sustainability of peacekeeping efforts worldwide. By prioritizing gender-responsive approaches, DPO reinforces its commitment to advancing gender equality within peacekeeping mandates and promoting inclusive security governance.

3.2.2 NATO

NATO's work on gender dates 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 (NCGP).¹⁴⁷ In its current form, the NCGP advises the NATO Military Committee on gender-related topics to enhance operational effectiveness, in support of Alliance objectives across the core tasks.¹⁴⁸

Policy

In response to UNSCR 1325, NATO allies working with their partners in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) adopted a strategic policy for the implementation of the WPS agenda in 2007. Since then, the policy has been reviewed in 2011, 2014, 2018, and more recently in 2024, underscored by actions plans published in 2014, 2016, 2018 and 2021.¹⁴⁹ NATO's 2024 WPS policy reflects a commitment to integrating gender perspectives across all core tasks in response to evolving global security challenges. It emphasizes the necessity of gender-responsive leadership and accountability, the inclusion of women at all decision-making levels, and the protection of women and girls from gender-based violence. Notably, it addresses emerging threats such as technology-facilitated gender-based violence and the impacts of climate change on security dynamics. The policy also highlights the importance of strengthening partnerships with civil society to enhance the implementation of the WPS agenda.

This updated policy aligns with NATO's 2022 Strategic Concept,¹⁵⁰ which, for the first time, acknowledged the WPS agenda, underscoring the Alliance's recognition of gender equality as integral to its core values and operational effectiveness. The 2024 WPS policy builds upon this foundation by outlining strategic objectives aimed at fostering an inclusive security environment. These objectives include enhancing gender-responsive leadership, increasing women's participation across all levels, preventing and addressing threats that disproportionately affect women, and protecting women and girls from gender-based violence. The policy also includes ensuring foundational training on WPS, including key concepts and practices, to enhance knowledge and understanding of the importance of WPS to NATO's work, as well as ensuring gender perspectives are integrated into education and training.¹⁵¹ By implementing these measures, NATO aims to bolster its collective security and ensure sustainable peace through the meaningful inclusion of diverse perspectives.

NATO's efforts to integrate gender perspectives into its command structure are guided by its operational policy, Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-1 (Bi-SCD 40-1), which was originally issued in 2009 and subsequently updated in 2012, 2017, and 2021.¹⁵² This policy serves a dual purpose. First, it translates political directives and strategic guidance into concrete actions and operational activities, ensuring that the NATO Command Structure (NCS) effectively implements the WPS agenda. Second, it establishes compliance mechanisms within the NCS to align with NATO policies and guidelines on preventing and responding to CRSV and sexual exploitation and abuse.¹⁵³ The 2021 revision of Bi-SCD 40-1 introduced a dedicated chapter on education and training, reinforcing NATO's commitment to building institutional capacity on gender mainstreaming. This chapter outlines mandatory gender training requirements for NATO personnel, allied forces, and partner nations, ensuring alignment with NATO's Gender Education and Training Policy and Framework.¹⁵⁴ By institutionalizing gender training within its structures, NATO aims to enhance gender awareness, operational effectiveness, and compliance with international norms, further embedding gender perspectives into all aspects of its security and defence operations.

Implementation

The implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related WPS resolutions within NATO is a shared responsibility between NATO's Strategic Commands, divisions, and governing bodies at NATO Headquarters, coordinated through the Gender Advisory Community of Interest (COI). This COI serves as a network of key stakeholders within NATO's military and civilian structures, responsible for integrating a gender perspective into military operations and ensuring the implementation of NATO's WPS policy across the Alliance. The core functional offices and positions

supporting NATO's gender integration efforts include the NATO Secretary General's Special Representative for WPS¹⁵⁵ and the International Military Staff (IMS) Office of the Gender Adviser. The Gender in Military Operations (GMO) discipline is further supported by the NCGP and the NATO Department Head on Gender, led by the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations (see Box 2.12).¹⁵⁶

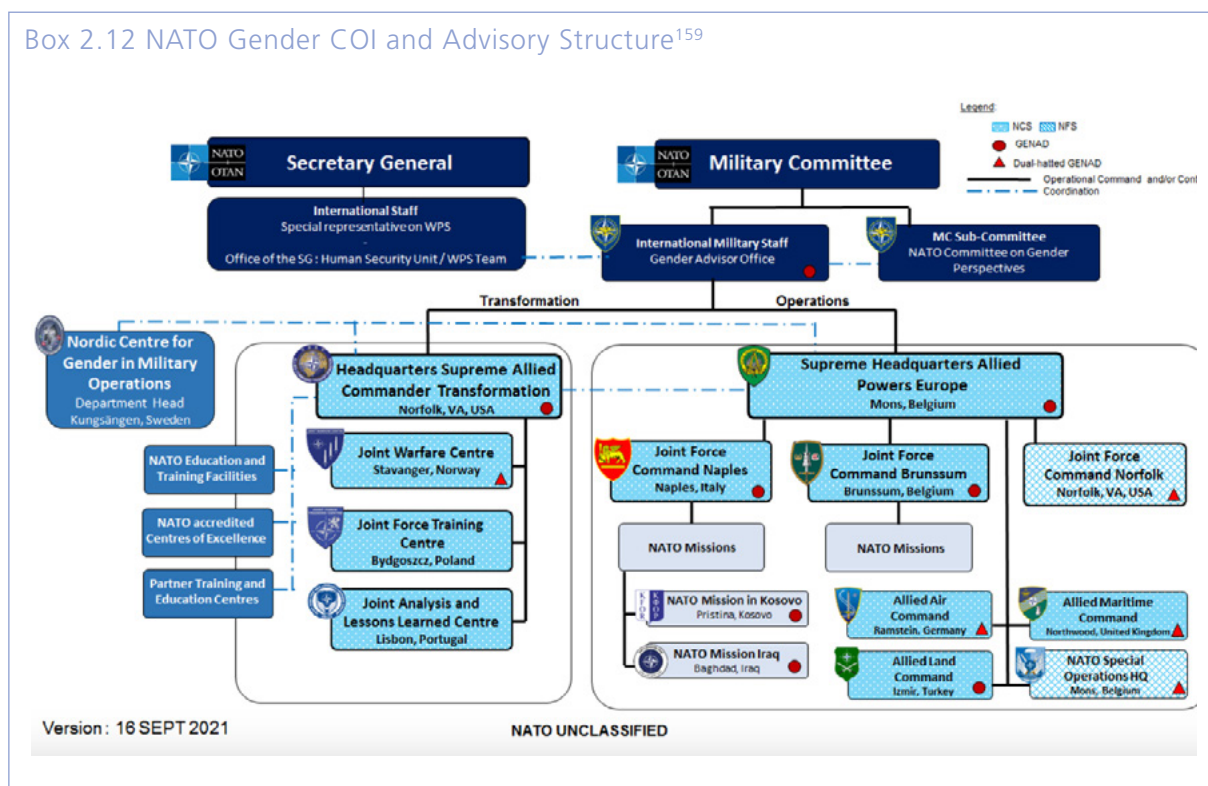
Additionally, the Gender COI is strengthened by two key task forces:

The WPS Leadership Task Force, which provides a high-level platform for senior NATO leaders and agencies to engage in discussions on progress, challenges, and opportunities in implementing the WPS agenda; and¹⁵⁷

The WPS Technical Task Force, a staff-level coordination mechanism designed to facilitate cross-divisional engagement, information-sharing, and technical support to ensure WPS implementation across all NATO functions.¹⁵⁸

Through these institutional mechanisms, NATO aims to mainstream gender perspectives across its security and defence strategies, reinforcing its commitment to ensuring that its governance and policy structure is gender-responsive, and operationalizing the WPS agenda.

Box 2.12 NATO Gender COI and Advisory Structure¹⁵⁹



In addition, NATO has GENADs deployed at different levels of its command structure, including within the IMS, Allied Command of Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT), as well as operations and missions. GENADs can advise their respective units and institutions on how NATO policy on the WPS agenda should be implemented in specific contexts. Gender Focal Points and WPS Focal Points steer the integration of gender perspectives and the implementation of the WPS agenda across NATO's IMS and International Staff (IS), respectively. These Focal Points perform their roles in addition to their core tasks, which enables them to integrate gender perspectives and WPS efficiently into their areas of expertise and communicate the WPS Agenda with colleagues.¹⁶⁰ There are also several committees and working groups that develop and review specific and overall policy. For example, the ACO Gender Perspective Working Group was established by the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe 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 gender Department Head. One such activity has been to provide support to ACT, in developing a NATO Education and Training package on gender perspective, designed to increase awareness on gender perspective in military operations and activities and assist NATO allies and partners to build their gender capability.¹⁶¹ For more detail on this package, see Chapter 3.

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 Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes (PfPC).¹⁶²

3.2.3 Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe

The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) recognizes that gender equality and equal opportunities for women and men are fundamental to peace, democracy, and sustainable economic and environmental development.¹⁶³ In line with this commitment, the OSCE actively promotes and supports the implementation of the WPS agenda across its participating states, as reflected in numerous Ministerial Council decisions (see Box 2.13).

The Organization works to ensure that peace agreements and security measures are inclusive, integrating diverse perspectives and safeguarding the human rights of both men and women. The OSCE advocates for the meaningful participation of women in peace processes and security institutions, recognizing that inclusive decision-making enhances operational effectiveness and long-term stability.¹⁶⁴ Furthermore, the OSCE promotes non-discriminatory laws and policies, supports increased political participation of women, and fosters gender-equal decision-making in economic and environmental governance. Additionally, the OSCE collaborates with participating states to combat violence against women, reinforcing its commitment to gender-responsive security and human rights protections.¹⁶⁵

In 2004, the OSCE introduced its Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality, recognizing that the full and equal participation of women and men is essential to achieving its core objectives of peace, prosperity, and stability.¹⁶⁶ This document outlines responsibilities and tasks for both the OSCE and its participating states, ensuring a comprehensive and institutionalized approach to gender equality.

The OSCE's gender strategy is based on three key pillars:

1. Mainstreaming gender across all OSCE policies, programs, and activities to ensure that gender perspectives are systematically integrated into decision-making and implementation processes.
2. Developing a professional, gender-sensitive management culture and working environment, fostering inclusive leadership and equitable institutional practices.
3. Promoting the rights, interests, and concerns of women among OSCE participating states and supporting national efforts to achieve gender equality.¹⁶⁷

This gender-responsive framework was further reinforced in the 2009 OSCE Concept of Comprehensive and Cooperative Security, which explicitly recognizes gender equality as a fundamental component of human rights and security. By embedding gender considerations into its security framework, the OSCE underscores its commitment to building more inclusive, resilient, and sustainable peace and security structures.¹⁶⁸

The OSCE Secretariat's Programme for Gender Issues develops operational tools, guidelines, and training materials to support OSCE staff and stakeholders in integrating a gender perspective into their activities. It also organizes events, initiatives, and projects aimed at advancing gender equality and strengthening local capacities on gender-related issues.¹⁶⁹ The Programme works closely with the OSCE Conflict Prevention Centre to develop measures for the inclusion of women in conflict prevention, peace negotiations, and dialogue processes across the OSCE region. It collects and analyses data on the prevalence and various forms of violence against women in conflict, contributing to evidence-based policymaking. Additionally, the Programme promotes the

empowerment of young women professionals in arms control, disarmament, and non-proliferation through a scholarship initiative administered by the Conflict Prevention Centre. Further, the Programme collaborates with the Transnational Threats Department to raise awareness of the role of gender in preventing and countering violent extremism and radicalization that lead to terrorism.¹⁷⁰ It also oversees the annual Gender Champion Awards, established by the OSCE Secretary General in 2018, which recognize outstanding achievements by OSCE staff in advancing gender equality and women's empowerment.¹⁷¹

Box 2.14 OSCE documents related to gender¹⁷²

- Istanbul Document, 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, with the ultimate aim of promoting 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

The WPS agenda is a foundational principle of the European Union's (EU) Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP). It serves as a critical framework for ensuring that the rights, agency, and protection of women and girls are upheld across all EU security and defence initiatives. The EU is committed to securing the meaningful and equal participation of women in all institutions and processes related to conflict prevention, peacemaking, peacebuilding, and post-conflict rehabilitation.¹⁷³ A key example of this commitment is the integration of gender and human rights perspectives into all EU Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) missions,¹⁷⁴ ensuring that WPS principles are systematically implemented in their respective interventions.¹⁷⁵ By embedding gender-sensitive approaches in peace and security efforts, the EU reinforces its dedication to inclusive and sustainable conflict resolution strategies.

The EU policy framework on WPS encompasses the 2018 Council Conclusions on WPS,¹⁷⁶ the EU Strategic Approach to WPS, the related WPS Action Plan (2019-2024),¹⁷⁷ and the 2022 Council Conclusions on WPS.¹⁷⁸ The Action Plan on WPS sets out clear objectives and implementation criteria, structured around six key priority areas: prevention; protection; relief and recovery; and the three overarching and cross-cutting principles of participation; gender mainstreaming; and leading by example.¹⁷⁹ Further documents relating to gender and WPS are detailed in Box 2.15.

The EU's WPS objectives are pursued through political and diplomatic engagement, incorporating a gender perspective into peace and security policies, and ensuring women's participation and leadership in peacebuilding and security governance. The EU also provides targeted training for military, justice, and security forces to strengthen WPS implementation. Monitoring and reporting mechanisms on WPS are aligned with the EU's Action Plan on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in External Action (2021–2025),¹⁸⁰ ensuring full integration of WPS commitments into the EU's broader gender equality policy framework.¹⁸¹

Furthermore, the EU is committed to advancing the WPS agenda in close cooperation with allies and partners, particularly civil society organizations and international security actors. Several formalized partnerships – including those with the UN, NATO, and the Association of South Asian Nations (ASEAN) – prioritize WPS as a key area for multilateral cooperation,¹⁸² reinforcing the EU's role in promoting gender-responsive peace and security policies globally.

Principles

The EU is a unique supranational legal entity with international legal personality, meaning it can enter into agreements, negotiate treaties, and engage in diplomatic relations as a single entity distinct from its member states. This status was formally established under the Treaty of Lisbon (2007), which entered into force in 2009, granting the EU legal capacity to act in various policy areas on behalf of its member states.¹⁸³ The EU's legal foundation is based on a hierarchical system of laws, including primary law (treaties), secondary law (regulations, directives, and decisions), and case law developed by the Court of Justice of the European Union.¹⁸⁴ The Treaty on European Union (TEU) and the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) serve as its constitutional framework, outlining its competencies, institutional structure, and division of powers between the EU and member states.¹⁸⁵

As a legal entity, the EU can conclude international agreements, participate in global organizations, and enforce legal obligations on its member states through binding regulations and directives in accordance with its powers set out in relevant treaties. It also has exclusive competence in areas such as trade, customs, and competition policy, meaning only the EU, not individual member states, can legislate and negotiate in these domains. In other areas, such as security and defence, the EU operates under shared or supporting competences, where both the EU and its member states contribute to policymaking. This legal status strengthens the EU's role as a global actor, enabling it to engage in diplomacy, security cooperation, and international legal agreements, while also ensuring the uniform application and enforcement of EU law across its member states.

Article 2 of the TEU 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.¹⁸⁶ 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 (ECHR) legally binding and providing under Article 6(2) that the EU in its entirety shall accede to the ECHR. 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.¹⁸⁷

Civilian and military crisis management plays a pivotal role in the EU's external policies. The TEU establishes that the EU's 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.¹⁸⁸ 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.¹⁸⁹ 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.

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 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 2003.¹⁹⁰

Through the CSDP the EU can take a lead in matters of international security, peacekeeping operations and conflict prevention. Since 2003 the EU has launched more than 40 peace missions and operations in Europe, Africa and Asia.¹⁹¹ 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 WPS 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.¹⁹² This system has been introduced to ensure that the EU's policies and knowledge are translated into operational guidelines and WPS 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.¹⁹³

As part of its efforts to prioritize gender equality internally, the EU established the post of the European External Action Service Principal Adviser on Gender and the implementation of UNSCR 1325 in 2015. This position serves to engage with the EU's international, regional and national actors on policies and actions related to gender and WPS, and to coordinate the EU's internal gender mainstreaming. Additionally, the Adviser work towards enhancing the visibility of gender in the EU's external action and collaborates with relevant UN services and agencies.¹⁹⁴

Box 2.15 EU gender and WPS-related documents

- Implementation of UNSCRs on Women, Peace and Security in the context of CSDP missions and operations, 2012

The aim of this document is to ensure gender mainstreaming and implementation of UNSCRs on WPS from the early planning to the conduct of CSDP missions and operations, including their follow-up and evaluation. The document also refers to gender training in-mission and during pre-deployment courses.

- Implementation of UNSCR 1325 and 1820 in the context of training for the ESDP missions and operations – Recommendations on the way forward, 2009.

This paper established 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.

- Implementation of UNSCR 1325 as reinforced by 1820 in the context of ESDP, 2008

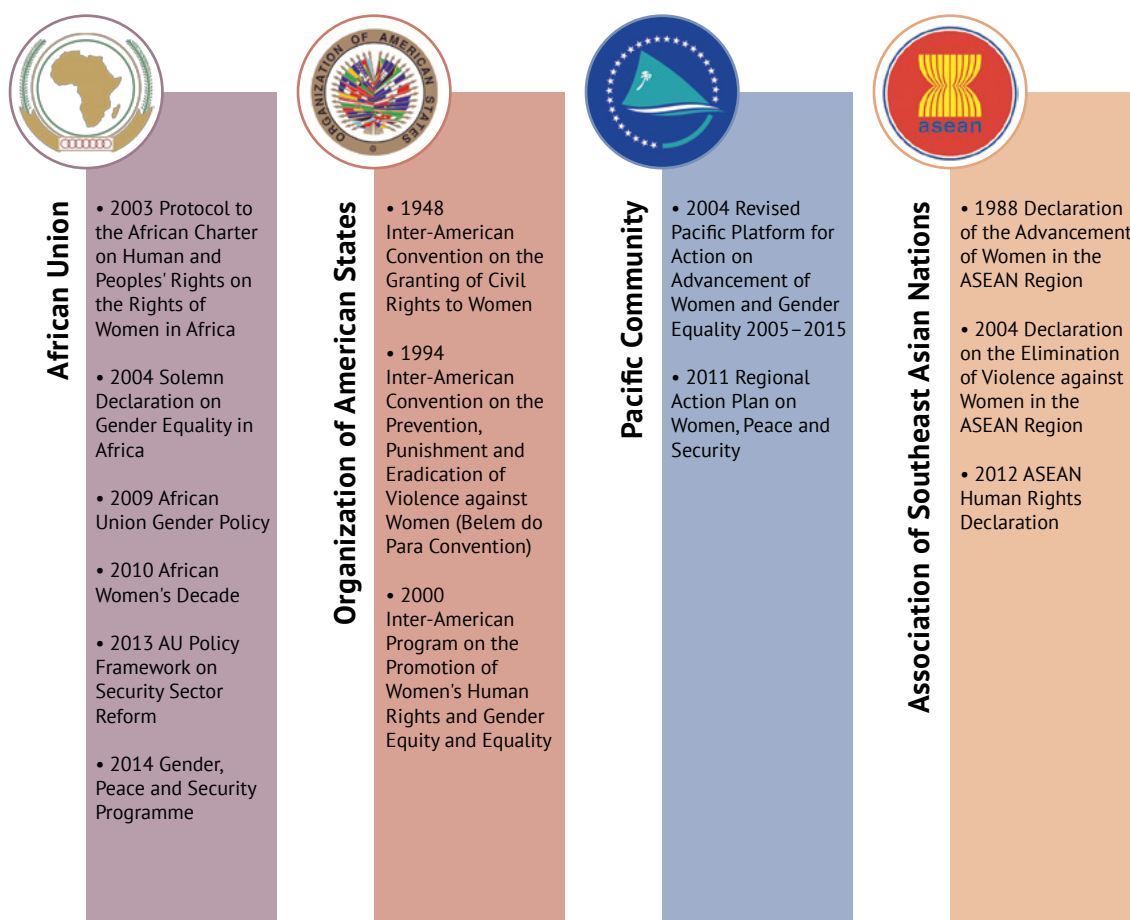
The main goal of this implementation policy is to ensure gender mainstreaming and implementation of UNSCR 1325 and UNSCR 1820 from the early planning to the conduct of ESDP operations, including their follow-up. The text itself focuses on increasing the representation of women in the civilian component of ESDP operations as well as promoting the UN's WPS 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.

- Comprehensive approach to the EU implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 on women, peace and security, 2008
This document constitutes the strategic framework on gender and gender mainstreaming. It gave substantial impetus to the political and operational processes of implementing the WPS and reflects and legitimizes the EU-specific holistic approach to gender issues in EU external relations, development, security and defence policies. 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.
- European Parliament resolution on participation of women in peaceful resolution (2000/2025(INI)), 2000
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.

3.2.5 Other Regional Frameworks

Other regional organizations worldwide have committed themselves to implementation of the UN WPS 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 NAPs on UNSCR 1325.

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



African Union

The African Union's (AU) commitment to gender equality is rooted in the AU's African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, which requires State Parties to combat all forms of discrimination against women through appropriate legislative measures.¹⁹⁵

The AU Women, Gender and Youth Directorate was created in 2000 under the Office of the Chairperson of the AU Commission and 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 also oversees the development and harmonization of gender and youth policies; defines strategies for gender and youth mainstreaming within the Commission, AU organs and Member States; and supports capacity building by providing training on gender and youth policies and instruments.¹⁹⁶ Its 2009, gender policy promoted a gender-responsive environment and practices which contributed to gender equality and women's empowerment in member states.¹⁹⁷ The policy included a gender management system responsible for creating appropriate institutional structures, as well as frameworks for gender analysis, gender training, monitoring and evaluation.¹⁹⁸ In 2010, the AU declared 2010-2020 the "African Women Decade" with the overarching theme of gender equality and women's empowerment.¹⁹⁹

In 2013, the AU adopted its policy framework on SSR, marking another significant accomplishment of its broader peace and security goals. The policy acknowledged gender perspectives as critical components of conflict management and peacebuilding processes and reaffirmed the AU's commitment to the principles of gender equality, women's empowerment and the WPS agenda.²⁰⁰ To enhance the protection of women's rights, the AU seeks to promote international and regional commitments on peace and security, as well as to strengthen women's participation in peace and security efforts through the AU Peace and Security Department, the Peace and Security Council and the Panel of the Wise.²⁰¹

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 and promoted the protection of women in conflict and post-conflict situations throughout Africa.²⁰² Also in 2014, the AU established the office of the Special Envoy on Women, Peace and Security to leverage the AU's efforts in addressing issues of women's empowerment, participation and protection in conflict and post-conflict settings.²⁰³ In 2015, the AU consecrated 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".²⁰⁴

The AU recognizes that gender equality is a fundamental human right and an integral part of regional integration, economic growth and social development. In 2018, the AU released its strategy for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE) 2018-2028 to ensure the inclusion of women in Africa's development and peace and security agendas.²⁰⁵

Organization of American States

The Organization of American States, established in 1890, brings together 35 member states from the Americas and aims to: strengthen peace and security in the hemisphere; promote representative democracy; ensure the peaceful settlement of disputes among members; provide for common action in the event of aggression; and promote economic, social, and cultural development.²⁰⁶ 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.²⁰⁷

Pacific Community

As the principle international development organization supporting the Pacific region, the Pacific Community promotes sustainable Pacific development through science, technology and innovation.²⁰⁸ Following the adoption of UNSCR 1325, the Pacific Islands region has increasingly recognized women's role in conflict prevention and

peacebuilding and the security implications of sexual and gender-based violence in the region. 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, resulting in the development of its Regional Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security 2012-2015 in 2011.²⁰⁹ The plan applies at the regional level for forum members and Pacific territories, and set out goals for mainstreaming gender in security policymaking, ensuring women's rights in humanitarian crises and post-conflict situations and enhancing women's role in leadership and conflict prevention and peacebuilding.²¹⁰

While this region-wide plan has not been revised or renewed, the Pacific Community released its Strategic Plan 2022-2031 in 2022, structured around four key development goals: sustainable development, empowerment and resilience, health and well-being, and organizational excellence.²¹¹ The plan underscores a strong commitment to gender equality and women's empowerment as integral components of sustainable development in the Pacific region and emphasizes the importance of mainstreaming gender considerations across all programs and activities, recognizing that equitable participation of all genders is essential for achieving the organization's goals.

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 have historically included:

- Declaration of the Advancement of Women in the ASEAN Region 1988
- Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the ASEAN Region 2004
- ASEAN Human Rights Declaration 2012
- Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women and Elimination of Violence Against Children in ASEAN 2013
- ASEAN Regional Plan of Action on the Elimination of Violence against Women 2015
- Joint Statement on Promoting Women, Peace and Security in ASEAN 2017

The ASEAN Ministerial Dialogue on Strengthening Women's Role for Sustainable Peace and Security, held in September 2020, further reiterated ASEAN's determination to ensure the integration of WPS into regional policies and frameworks across the three ASEAN community pillars: Political-Security Community, Economic Community and Socio-Cultural Community.²¹²

More recently, a Regional Plan of Action on Women, Peace and Security was adopted in 2022.²¹³ The development of a Regional Plan of Action on WPS was one of the key recommendations of the ASEAN Regional Study on Women, Peace and Security, which was launched in 2021 with the support of the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and UN Women.²¹⁴ This plan includes a priority action to build capacity of frontline responders, including military and peacekeepers, to prevent and respond to SGBV through gender training, as well as including gender equality and WPS objectives in educational curriculum in training programs related to peace and security such as military colleges.²¹⁵

ASEAN also established the ASEAN Committee on Women in 2002 and the ASEAN Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Women and Children in 2009.

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 WPS. 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 the WPS agenda, and how military structures ensure these obligations are incorporated into their operations. It is by no means exhaustive but aims to highlight 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 WPS, 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." UN Doc. A/HRC/29/23, May 2015. 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.

United Nations General Assembly. "Report of the Independent Expert on protection against violence and discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity, Victor Madrigal-Borloz." UN Doc. A/75/235, July 2022. www.undocs.org/a/77/235; Key Finding: https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/2022-11/Reader-friendly-summary-of-the-report-Armed-conflict_1.pdf

This report by the UN Independent Expert on protection against violence and discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity details how lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) persons can be affected by gender-based violence in conflict and details the obligations that parties to conflict have in this regard. It also provides details on the role LGBT persons can play in peacebuilding and transitional justice initiatives.

Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights. "About gender equality and the human rights of women and LGBTI persons". OHCHR. 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". ICRC, July 1st, 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". OHCHR, 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.

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, October 18, 2013.

This recommendation by the CEDAW Committee gives guidance to countries that have ratified CEDAW on concrete measures to ensure women's human rights are protected before, during and after conflict.

5.2 International humanitarian law

International Committee of the Red Cross. "Customary international humanitarian law database". ICRC. 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". ICRC. 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.

International Committee of the Red Cross. "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. Stockholm: ICRC, October 4-5, 2007. 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.

ICRC, NCGM and Swedish Red Cross. "International Humanitarian Law and a Gender Perspective in the Planning and Conduct of Military Operations". Geneva: ICRC, March 2024.

This report provides guidance as to how gendered harm arising from military operations can be better understood and sets out good practices to avoid and reduce it.

International Committee of the Red Cross. "Gendered Impacts of Armed Conflict and Implications for the Application of International Humanitarian Law". Geneva: ICRC, June 2022.

This report analyses the gendered impacts of the conduct of hostilities and of situations of occupation and explores their implications for related IHL rules.

5.3 International criminal law

Washington College of Law. "Gender jurisprudence and international criminal law project". American University. 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.

International Committee of the Red Cross. "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.

International Committee of the Red Cross. "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.

International Committee of the Red Cross. "How does the law protect in war? Sexual violence in armed conflict". ICRC, April 7, 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 WPS

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 WPS held by the UNSC in October 2015. The study includes important recommendations informing the work of the Security Council and member states in progressing this area of work.

UN Women. "Guidebook on CEDAW General Recommendation No. 30 and the UN Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security". United Nations, 2015. <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2015/Guidebook-CEDAW-General-Recommendation-30-Women-Peace-Security-en.pdf>.

This report sets out and analyses how the frameworks established by CEDAW and the WPS agenda can be used to strengthen and reinforce each other.

Endnotes

1. For further background on public international law see Malcolm Evans, *International Law* (6th ed., Oxford University Press, 2024); Malcolm N. Shaw, *International Law* (9th ed., Cambridge University Press, 2021); and International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), *Handbook on International Rules Governing Military Operations* (ICRC, 2020).
2. Permanent Court of International Justice, *The Case of S.S. Lotus (France v. Turkey)*, Judgment No. 9 (September 7, 1927), PCIJ Series A. No. 10, 18.
3. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), 999 United Nations Treaty Series (UNTS) 171, Art. 2(1); International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), 993 UNTS 3, Art. 2(1); Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), 1577 UNTS 3, Art. 2(1); Council of Europe, European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (ECHR), as amended by Protocols 11 and 14 (November 4, 1950), European Treaty Series (ETS) 5, 213 UNTS 22, Art. 1; African Union, African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (Banjul Charter), OAU Doc. CAB/LEG/67/3, Rev. 55, 1520 UNTS 217 (1982), Art. 1; 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.
4. Common Article 1 to Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field (August 12, 1949), 75 UNTS 31 (1949) (GCI), Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea (August 12, 1949), 75 UNTS 85 (GCII), Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War, (August 12, 1949), 75 UNTS. 135 (GCIII) and Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (August 12, 1949), 75 UNTS 287 (GCIV); Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 Aug. 1949, and Relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts, 1125 UNTS 3 (API), Art. 1(1); Jean-Marie Henckaerts and Louise Doswald-Beck (eds), *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (Cambridge University Press, 2005), Rule 139 (Respect for International Humanitarian Law).
5. Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (1948), 78 UNTS 277, Arts. 5 and 6; GCI, Art. 49; GCII, Art. 50; GCIII, Art. 129; GCIV, Art. 146; API, Art. 85 and 86; Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 2187 UNTS 90.
6. 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 Anne Peters and Rüdiger Wolfrum (eds.), *The Max Planck Encyclopaedia of Public International Law* (Oxford University Press, online edition, April 2024).
7. For general background on human rights law see Daniel Moeckli, Sangeeta Shah, and Sandesh Sivakumaran, *International Human Rights Law* (4th ed., Oxford University Press, 2022); and Ilias Bantekas and Lutz Oette, *International Human Rights Law and Practice* (3rd ed., Cambridge University Press, 2020).
8. Mary Robinson, "Realizing human rights: Take hold of it boldly and duly", lecture (Oxford University, November 11, 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* (Kluwer Law International, 1998), 440.
9. Universal Declaration on Human Rights, adopted by GA Res. 217 A(III) of 10 December 1948, A/810 (1948).
10. See, for example, International Court of Justice (ICJ), *United States v. Iran* (ICJ, 1980), 3, 42, Judgment of 24 May; International Conference on Human Rights, "Declaration of Tehran" (1968), A/ CONF.32/41.
11. 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.1.en.pdf.
12. 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 Bantekas and Oette (2020), 239-303.
13. See further UN Human Rights Committee, "General comment No. 31: The nature of the general legal obligation imposed on States Parties to the Covenant", CCPR/C/21/Rev.1/Add.13 (May 26, 2004).
14. Martin Scheinin, "Core rights and obligations", in Dinah Shelton (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of International Human Rights Law* (Oxford University Press, 2013), 536-538.
15. Human Rights Committee, General Comment 18, Non-discrimination, Compilation of General Comments and General Recommendations Adopted by Human Rights Treaty Bodies, HRI/GEN/1/Rev.1 at 26 (1994), paras. 13 and 18.
16. United Nations, "Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination" (1969), 660 UNTS 195; Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), 1577 UNTS 3; and Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2007), 2515 UNTS 3.
17. See, for example, UN Human Rights Council, Resolution 55/14, "Combating discrimination, violence and harmful practices against intersex persons", A/HRC/RES/55/14 (April 8, 2024); European Court of Human Rights, *Smith and Grady v. the United Kingdom*, Application no. 33985/96 and 33986/96, Judgment (September 27, 1999); Inter-American Court Human Rights, "Gender identity, and equality and non-discrimination with regard to same-sex couples - State obligations in relation to change of name, gender identity, and rights deriving from a relationship between same-sex couples

- (interpretation and scope of Articles 1(1), 3, 7, 11(2), 13, 17, 18 and 24, in relation to Article 1, of the American Convention on Human Rights)", Advisory Opinion OC-24/17 (November 24, 2017), Series A No. 24; and African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, Resolution on Protection against Violence and other Human Rights Violations against Persons on the basis of their real or imputed Sexual Orientation or Gender Identity, ACHPR/Res.275 (LV) 2014, 15 November 2022. See also OSCE and DCAF, "Human Rights of Armed Forces Personnel: Compendium of Standards, Good Practices and Recommendations" (2021), 199-223.
18. United Nations, "United Nations Principles for Older Persons", adopted by the UN General Assembly, Annex to Resolution 46/91 (December 16, 1991), and UN Open Ended Working Group on Ageing, <https://social.un.org/ageing-working-group/>.
 19. United Nations, "Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women" (1979) (CEDAW), 1249 UNTS 13.
 20. UN General Assembly, 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, (October 18, 2013), para. 2.
 21. CEDAW, Art. 2.
 22. CEDAW, Arts 7 and 8.
 23. CEDAW, Arts 1-6, 10, 12 and 14.
 24. CEDAW, Arts. 17-22.
 25. CEDAW, Art. 18. Individuals in the jurisdiction of State parties to the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women 1999, 2131 UNTS 83, can send communications of violations of their rights under CEDAW by the State party for the Committee to consider after they have exhausted domestic remedies.
 26. Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, adopted at the World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna, (June 25, 1993), A/CONF.157/23, para. 5.
 27. For requirements on limitations of human rights see further Thilo Marauhn and Vera Strobel, "Limitations and Restrictions of Rights" in Christina Binder, Manfred Nowak and Jane A. Hofbauer (eds), *The Elgar Encyclopaedia of Human Rights* (Elgar Online, 2022), 427-433. Some treaties permit derogations, which are exceptional limitations to the exercise of human rights during armed conflict. See further UN Human Rights Committee, General Comment No. 29, "State of Emergency" (Article 4), CCPR/C/21/Rev.1/Add.11 (August 31, 2001).
 28. See CEDAW Committee, General Recommendation No. 30, 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).
 29. OSCE, "Understanding and Addressing the Gendered Consequences of the War in Ukraine", Annual Report of the OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues (2023).
 30. UN General Assembly, "Report of the Independent International Fact-Finding Mission on Myanmar", A/HRC/39/64 (September 12, 2018), paras. 20-23, 38-40, 60-65 and 79. See also OHCHR, "UN Fact-Finding Mission on Myanmar Calls for Justice for Victims of Sexual and Gender-based Violence", Press Release (August 22, 2019).
 31. UN Women, "Gender Alert - Women and Girls of Sudan: Fortitude Amid the Flame of War" (September 2024).
 32. Ethiopian Human Rights Commission (EHRC) and Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), "Joint Investigation into Alleged Violations of International Human Rights, Humanitarian and Refugee Law Committed by all Parties to the Conflict in the Tigray Region of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia", (November 3, 2021), 40-47 and 78-82.
 33. CEDAW Committee, General Recommendation No. 30, para. 29.
 34. There is specific regulation in international law relating to the crime of trafficking. See United Nations, "Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others" (December 2, 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 (November 15, 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, Art. 6; CRC, Arts 4-5; International Labour Organization, "Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention" (June 17, 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.
 35. CEDAW Committee, General Recommendation No. 30, paras. 34-35. See also Megan Bastick, Karin Grimm, and Rahel Kunz, "Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict: Global Overview and Implications for the Security Sector", DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance (Geneva, 2007).
 36. CEDAW Committee, General Recommendation No. 30, para. 36.
 37. For general background on international humanitarian law, see Dieter Fleck (ed.), *The Handbook of International Humanitarian Law* (4th ed., Oxford University Press, 2021); Emily Crawford and Alison Pert, *International Humanitarian Law* (2nd ed., Cambridge University Press, 2020); and Ben Saul and Dapo Akande, *The Oxford Guide to International Humanitarian Law* (Oxford University Press, 2020).

38. Common Article 2 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV.
39. See Common Article 3 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV; Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and Relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts, 1125 U.N.T.S. 609 (APII), Art. 1. See further ICTY, *Prosecutor v. Tadic*, IT-94-1, Appeals Chamber, “Decision on the defence motion for interlocutory appeal on jurisdiction” (October 2, 1995), para. 7. This definition has been applied by the International Criminal Court (ICC) in its case law. See, for example, ICC, *Prosecutor v. Ongwen*, ICC-02/04-01/1, Trial Chamber IX, Trial Judgment (February 4, 2021), paras. 2684 and 2685.
40. Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005).
41. Common Article 1 to GCI, GCII, GCIII and GCIV; and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 139 (Respect for International Humanitarian Law).
42. See, for example, GCI, Arts. 45 and 47–49; GCII, Arts. 46 and 48–50; GCIII, Arts. 127–129; GCIV, Arts. 144–146; and API, Arts. 80 and 83–85.
43. See Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 142 (Instruction in International Humanitarian Law within Armed Forces).
44. ICRC, “Gender perspectives on international humanitarian law: Report summary of international expert meeting held 4–5 October 2007 in Stockholm, Sweden” (2007), 5.
45. GCI, Art. 12; GCII, Art. 12(2); GCIII, Art. 16; GCIV, Arts. 13 and 27(3); API, Art. 9, APII, Art. 2(1); and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 88 (Non-Discrimination).
46. GCIII, Art. 16; GCIV, Art. 13; API, Arts. 9(1), 69(1), 70(1) and 75(1); APII, Arts. 2(1), 4(1) and 18(2). See further Helen Durham and Katie O’Byrne, “The dialogue of difference: Gender perspectives on international humanitarian law”, *International Review of the Red Cross* 92, No. 877 (2010), 31–52.
47. ICRC, NCGM and Swedish Red Cross, “International Humanitarian Law and a Gender Perspective in the Planning and Conduct of Military Operations”, ICRC, (March 2024), 47.
48. See, for example, Human Rights Council, “Report of the Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic”, UN Doc. A/HRC/30/48 (August 13, 2015) (“Report of the Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic”, 2015), paras. 40–48. See further paras. –80. See also UN Human Rights Council, “Report of the Independent International Commission of Inquiry on Ukraine”, A/HRC/58/67 (March 11, 2025), para. 17.
49. See, for example, Elizabeth Rushing, Nawaf Kabbra, Veronica Ngum Ndi, and NNG’AA Michael Mwendwa, ‘Persons with disabilities in armed conflict’, *ICRC Humanitarian Law & Policy* (blog) (July 13, 2023); and UN Meetings Coverage: Security Council, ‘With Deadly Offensive in Kharkiv, Last Month Civilian Casualties in Ukraine Hit Highest Level Since June 2023, Deputy Relief Chief Tells Security Council’, SC/15719 (June 7, 2024).
50. GCI, Art. 12 and GCII, Art. 12. See also GCIII, Art. 14 setting out the obligation to treat women POWs being with due regard to their sex and that they must in all cases benefit by treatment as favourable as that granted to men. In the execution of penalties for prisoners of war following disciplinary or judicial measures, GCIII, Art. 88(3) provides that in no case may a woman prisoner of war be awarded or sentenced to a punishment more severe, or treated whilst 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 eighteen years at the time of the offence, pregnant women and mothers of young children is also provided under API, Arts. 75(5) and 77(5) and APII, Art. 6(4).
51. GCIII, Arts. 25, 97 and 108; GCIV, Art. 76, 85, 124. GCIV, Art. 82 also provides that, members of the same family, and in particular parents and children, shall be lodged together in the same place of internment 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 Conventions.
52. GCIII, Arts. 97 and 108; GCIV, Arts. 76(4) and 124(3); API, Art. 75(5); and APII, Art. 5(2).
53. See, for example, European Court of Human Rights, *Valasinas v. Lithuania*, Application No. 44558/98, Judgment (July 24, 2001), para. 117. On conditions in detention see further United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners (the Mandela Rules) (September 29, 2015), UN Doc. A/C.3/70/L.3. See also Professor Veronika Bílková, Dr. Cecilie Hellesstveit and Dr. Elina Šteinerte, “Report on Violations and Abuses of International Humanitarian and Human Rights Law, War Crimes and Crimes Against Humanity, Related to the Arbitrary Deprivation of Liberty of Ukrainian Civilians by the Russian Federation”, OSCE, ODIHR.GAL/19/24/Corr.2 (April 25, 2024).
54. Hague Regulations 1907, Art. 46. See also ICRC, “Legal Protection of Children in Armed Conflict – Factsheet” (2003).
55. See, for example, GCIV, Arts. 20 and 21.
56. GCIV, Arts. 50, 76, 85, 97 and 124; API, Arts. 75(5) and 76 (protection of women).
57. Hague Regulations 1907, Art. 46.
58. Such prohibitions date back to the Lieber Codes of 1863, Art. 44. See also GCIV, Art. 27 and API, Art. 76.
59. API, Art. 75(2)(b) and APII, Art. 4(2)(e).

60. API, Art. 51(3); APII, Art. 13(3); Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rules 1 (The Principle of Distinction between Civilians and Combatants) and 6 (Civilians' Loss of Protection from Attack), note 36 above, Rules 1 and 6.
61. APII, Art. 13(3) and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 6 (Civilians' Loss of Protection from Attack). See also Syed Qasim Abbas, "Women and Armed Conflicts: A Critical Analysis of the Principle of Distinction", DLP Forum (October 27, 2022).
62. "Report of the Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic" (2015), para. 66.
63. Afzal Ashraf and Caroline Kennedy, "Woman, War, and the Politics of Emancipation in Afghanistan", LSE Public Policy Review 2, Issue 3, (2022), 1-11.
64. API, Art. 57(1)(b). See further Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 15 (Principle of Precautions in Attack). On proportionality see API, Arts 51(5)(b) and 57(2)(a)(iii); and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 14 (Proportionality in Attack).
65. See also International Court of Justice, "Legal Consequences of the Construction of a Wall in the Occupied Palestinian Territory", Advisory Opinion of 9 July 2004, ICJ Reports (2004), 136, para. 106. See also UN General Assembly, "Resolution 2444 (1968) on respect for human rights in armed conflict", A/RES/2444 (December 19, 1968); CEDAW Committee, General Recommendation No. 30, paras 19–24.
66. See also GCI, Art. 47; GCII, Art. 48; GCIII, Art. 127; GCIV, Art. 144, API, Art. 83; APII, Art. 19; and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules*, 2005, Rule 142 (Instruction in International Humanitarian Law within Armed Forces).
67. For general background on international criminal law, see Robert Cryer, Darryl Robinson, and Sergey Vasilev, *An Introduction to International Criminal Law and Procedure* (5th ed., Cambridge University Press, 2024).
68. Genocide Convention (1948), Arts. 1, 5 and 6; GCI, Art. 49; GCII, Art. 50; GCIII, Art. 129; GCIV, Art. 146; API, Art. 85 and 86; Rome Statute (1998); and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rules 151 (Individual Responsibility), 52 (Command Responsibility for Orders to Commit War Crimes), 53 (Command Responsibility for Failure to Prevent, Repress or Report War Crimes), 157 (Jurisdiction over War Crimes) and 158 (Prosecution of War Crimes).
69. 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.
70. See Helen Durham and Vincent Bernard, "Sexual violence in armed conflict: From breaking the silence to breaking the cycle", *International Review of the Red Cross* 96, No. 894 (2014), 427–434, 429.
71. 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" (2010).
72. In 2019, the UN's International Law Commission adopted draft articles on prevention and punishment of crimes against humanity, submitted them to the General Assembly and recommended the elaboration of a convention on their basis. See Official Records of the General Assembly, Seventy-fourth Session, Supplement No. 10 (A/74/10 and Corr.1 (French only), paras. 37–45. At the time of writing, work towards establishing a convention on preventing and punishing crimes against humanity continued in the General Assembly's Sixth Committee.
73. GCI, Art. 49; GCII, Art. 50; GCIII, Art. 129; GCIV, Art. 147; Genocide Convention, Art. 5; and "Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment", 145 UNTS 85, Art. 3. See also Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 157 (Jurisdiction over War Crimes).
74. See Rome Statute, note 61 above, Arts 5–8 and 11–13.
75. See UN Security Council, "Resolution 1593 (2005) referring war in Darfur to the International Criminal Court", UN Doc. S/RES/1593 (March 31, 2005); and UN Security Council, Resolution 1970 (2011).
76. See Rome Statute, note 61 above, Art. 12(3). See, for example, the Republic of Côte d'Ivoire's declaration under this article (April 18, 2003), <https://www.icc.cpi.int/NR/rdonlyres/CBE1F16B-5712-4452-87E7-4FDDE5DD70D9/279779/ICDE.pdf>; Republic of Côte d'Ivoire's letter to the ICC reconfirming its acceptance of ICC jurisdiction (December 14, 2010), <https://www.icc-cpi.int/NR/rdonlyres/498E8FEB-7A72-4005A209-C14BA374804F/0/ReconCPI.pdf>.
77. Genocide Convention (1948), Arts. 5 and 6; GCI, Art. 49; GCII, Art. 50; GCIII, Art. 129; GCIV, Art. 146; and Henckaerts and Doswald-Beck, *Customary International Humanitarian Law, Volume I: Rules* (2005), Rule 157 (Jurisdiction over War Crimes).
78. 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 ed., C. H. Beck, 1999), XXXIX. For an analysis of the material jurisdiction of the ICC see Kai Ambos (ed.), *Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court: Article-by-Article Commentary* (4th ed., Beck/Hart/Nomos, 2021).
79. See also Rome Statute, 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 collectively on political, racial, national, ethnic, cultural, religious, gender or other

- grounds that are universally recognized as impermissible under international law. The definition of gender under the Rome Statute has been criticised for conflating gender with sex. See further Valerie Oosterveld, "The Definition of "Gender" in the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court: A Step Forward or Back for International Criminal Justice?", *Harvard Human Rights Journal* 18 (2005), 55-84.
80. Rome Statute (1998), Arts. 8(2)(b)(xxii) and 8(2)(e)(vi).
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Gender and Intersectional Education and Training in the Armed Forces

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1. Introduction

The United Nations (UN) Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda¹, introduced in Chapter 1 and discussed more broadly in Chapter 2, calls on member states to incorporate gender perspectives into all peace and security efforts. For militaries specifically, realizing the WPS agenda requires integrating gender perspectives at the strategic, operational, and tactical levels, with the aim of helping facilitate: the meaningful representation and participation of diverse women² at all stages of conflict resolution; the protection of women and girls from conflict-related violence, especial sexual and gender-based violence; the application of a gender perspective or an intersectional analysis; and the protection of the rights of all individuals, with special attention to women and girls. The term gender perspective appears in the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation's (NATO) 2021 Bi-Strategic Command Directive (Bi-SCD) 40-1, where it is defined as a process of considering gender-based differences between women and men that are reflected in gendered social roles and interactions, that impact the distribution of power and people's access to resources.³ Box 3.1 defines intersectionality and intersectional analysis, respectively, which are concepts and approaches increasingly leveraged in the WPS space.

The current chapter outlines what gender and intersectional training in the military can look like at all levels, for Commanding Officers (COs), to staff and other personnel, including civilians, working institutionally and operationally. The chapter includes examples of good practices and flags barriers to the effective integration of gender and intersectional perspectives in the classroom and across militaries more broadly. The chapter borrows from the experiences of integrating gender perspectives and the WPS agenda in NATO education and training combined with lessons from the European Union (EU) and the UN.

Box 3.1 Intersectionality and intersectional analysis

Intersectionality is a concept that helps explain differences in individual and group experiences, based on identity and demographic factors. It shows how multiple social and identity factors combine to shape an individual or group's experiences, based on how those factors create discrimination or facilitate privilege. Examples of identity factors include gender, sex, age, race, culture, religion, and geography. Some military specific identity factors include rank, component, trade, and occupation.

Applying the concept of intersectionality, intersectional analysis is a way to understand the different experiences of individuals and sub-groups, with the aim of assessing the impact of an intervention and planning a response that will minimize unintended consequences, including inequitable outcomes.

2. Overview: Gender education and training in regional and international organizations

2.1 The North Atlantic Treaty Organization

While NATO has and continues to take steps to collectively realize the WPS agenda, the Alliance still notably places the primary responsibility on member states for their implementation of the WPS agenda, as outlined in the 2021 NATO/Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) Action Plan for the Implementation of the NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security (NATO/EAPC Action Plan). The NATO/EAPC Action Plan summarizes the contents of UNSCR 1325, outlining the intention for NATO members and partners to implement gender mainstreaming into civilian and military structures, ensuring a gender perspective is mainstreamed into policies and activities. Likewise, the policy notes the commitment among NATO members and partners to implement and develop their own education and training on gender.

At the NATO Summits in 2010 and 2012, heads of state and governments 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, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2.⁴ The objective of the plan is to describe and delineate an adaptive and flexible NATO education and training system for gender in the military context. This system seeks to standardize and harmonize the education and training activities at all levels of NATO's military structures and to 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 mechanism to educate and train personnel on gender in all NATO's military operations to protect the human rights, and the safety and security of men, women, boys and girls.⁵

Notably, in its 2022 Strategic Concept, NATO reaffirmed its commitment to the continued advancement of gender equality and renewed its commitment to the integration of the WPS agenda across all tasks, including in training and education.⁶ The revised NATO policy on WPS in 2024, highlighted in Chapter 2, reiterates several commitments related to Professional Military Education (PME) and training, which include:⁷

- Facilitating partner access to WPS-related and gender in military operations (GMO) training offered through NATO; and encouraging its partners to develop their national education and training; and
- Integrating gender perspectives into the development of education, training, exercises, and evaluation (ETEE) curricula, doctrine, as well as other activities such as conflict analysis, mission planning and execution, and operations.

The policy also further commits NATO Allies to integrate WPS and GMO into training and their PME programmes.⁸

NATO's Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme also supports training and education on gender perspectives and WPS through funding opportunities for NATO member and partner countries,⁹ encouraging the production of collaborative, multi-year projects, which include training courses, study institutes, and workshops.¹⁰

In 2012, the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations (NCGM),¹¹ located in Kungsängen, Sweden, was designated by NATO as the department head for gender education and training within NATO. 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 gender programme courses must adhere. One such activity has been to provide support to the Allied Command Transformation (ACT), in developing a NATO Education and Training package on gender perspective, designed to increase awareness on gender perspective in military operations and activities and assist NATO allies and partners to build their gender capability.¹² This package, updated in 2023, is available to NATO members and partners and includes good practice examples and guidance from different nations on the institutionalization of a gender perspective within the framework of NATO policy. The package contains three modules, each with three learning objectives. Box 3.2 outlines the structure of NATO's training and education package. Notably, 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).¹³

Box 3.2 Structure of the NATO education and training package on gender perspectives

Tactical	Operational and Strategic	Pre-Deployment Training
Module 1: Gender Perspective in Military Operations		
Module 2: International and National Frameworks		
Module 3: Conflict-Related Sexual Violence and Sexual Exploitation and Abuse		
Module 4a: Planning and Execution of Military Activities at Tactical Level	Module 4b: Planning and Execution of Military Activities at Operational and Strategic Levels	Use module 4 applicable to your level
		Module 5: Gender Perspective in Host Nation

Regarding NCGM more specifically, the courses it offers are held in two different formats: in-person and virtual. NCGM provides five different courses, each geared towards a different military professional, including a seminar on gender for NATO leaders and a seminar on gender for COs. This seminar aims to support COs, Chiefs of Staff, and branch heads on integrating gender perspectives into operations, specifically at the operational and tactical levels.

NCGM also delivers three NATO-approved courses which are open to participants around the world.¹⁴ First, the Gender Adviser (GENAD) Course seeks to prepare personnel to deploy as a GENAD across all levels (strategic, operational, and tactical). The course provides personnel with the conceptual, historical, and legal underpinnings of the gender advisory role; and seeks to equip personnel with the competencies and tools to integrate gender perspectives into military planning and operations. At the end of the course, students are expected to be able to:

- Provide advice to COs and staff on integrating a gender perspective across NATO's core tasks;
- Give advice on the integration of international frameworks and guidelines on gender in military processes, procedures, and products;
- Establish and maintain relationships with staff and other key actors;
- Apply a gender analysis to security risk; and
- Assess risks and make recommendations related specifically to conflict related sexual and gender-based violence (CRSGBV).

Second, the Gender Focal Point (GFP) Course seeks to prepare personnel to deploy as GFPs, in support of a GENAD, and to do so at the operational or strategic levels. The goal of this course is to strengthen students' capacities to integrate gender perspectives, particularly when it comes to advising their Chain of Command (CoC) on mainstreaming gender analysis across all core and mandated tasks.

Third, the Training of Trainers Course, for its part, is geared towards active trainers, instructors, and teachers of military units, as well as officers from defence or other security structures. Upon completion of the course, learners should be equipped with the skills and knowledge to plan and execute training and education exercises on gender perspectives during pre-deployment, in theatre, or in national training settings.

NCGM provides open access to key resources and publications, including general and more tailored guidebooks. For example, NCGM offers a handbook on integrating gender perspectives in operations and a guide to WPS in the military context. It also uses this handbook as one of its reference materials.¹⁵ More specific resources are also available, such as a guide on the application of gender perspectives in Ukraine and humanitarian law.¹⁶

NATO ACT maintains an Advanced Distributed Learning (ADL) platform, discussed further in Chapter 9, with several courses pertaining directly to gender and gender perspectives, as well as its application in certain contexts and for specific subjects.¹⁷ There are both entry level courses that introduce the concept of gender in the military and more advanced courses, aimed at personnel applying gender perspectives, including GENADs¹⁸ and GFPs. For example, personnel can take:

- Course 171 – Gender Focal Point or Course 168 – Role of a Gender Advisor for role-specific training;
- Course 169 – Improving Operational Effectiveness by Integrating Gender Perspectives;
- Course 417 – Identifying, Preventing, and Responding to Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in NATO; and
- Course 418 – Gender Mainstreaming in Small Arms and Light Weapons.

These trainings are available to all personnel and government employees from NATO and partner countries to pursue independently. These courses may be required or prerequisites to other courses, particularly ones offered at NCGM.

2.2 The European Union

The EU places the WPS agenda at the centre of its Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP), which includes gender and human rights perspectives as part of all missions conducted by the EU. The CSDP is 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 to “deliver strategic-level education on CSDP, and provide knowledgeable personnel, within both EU Institutions and EU Member States.”¹⁹ In so doing, the ESDC aims to complement national efforts in the field of training and education. It is organized as a network of civilian and military educational institutions, offering courses to public officials, diplomats, police, and defence personnel.²⁰

In 2022, the EU adopted the policy, A Strategic Compass for Security and Defence (Compass), which reiterates the EU's commitment to delivering on WPS by “systematically mainstreaming gender perspectives, based on gender analysis, in all civilian and military CSDP planning and actions.”²¹ The Compass also calls on the strengthening of the network of human rights and GENADs in CSDP missions and operations, further reinforcing the need and importance of specific training on gender mainstreaming.

With respect to training on the WPS agenda, and gender equity and equality, the EU does not conduct compulsory pre-deployment training for military or civilian personnel. It is the member state's responsibility to provide gender-awareness training. Knowledge and competence therefore vary greatly between EU countries, but notably, many deployed personnel have received training on WPS and gender either from their national militaries or from previous UN or NATO pre-deployment training. While all EU member states are members of either NATO or the Partnership for Peace, no further training is conducted in theatre.

The ESDC has two specific courses on gender: A Comprehensive Approach to Gender in Operations and Integration of a Gender Perspective in CSDP.²² Like with NCGM, these courses are offered in different geographical locations. Participant backgrounds are diverse, with learners hailing from the diplomatic, military, and police sectors. A third course is offered on Investigating and Preventing Sexual and Gender-Based Violence in Conflict Environments.²³ Other courses also include gender components as part of the curriculum and learning outcomes, such as:²⁴

- Strategic planning process of Civilian CSDP Missions;
- Basic and core courses on Security Sector Reform;
- Civilian aspects of EU Crisis Management;
- Mediation, negotiation and dialogue skills for CSDP;
- Pre-deployment Training for CSDP Missions and Operations;
- Conflict analysis to integrated action; and
- Integrated Border Management (IBM) in CSDP.

Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi), certified by the European Security and Defence College, maintains a list of courses in the field of civilian crisis management for civilian personnel deploying on crisis management missions. A list of ENTRi-certified curricula is available on the ESDC website, with two specific courses offering gender-specific training: Leadership and Gender and Gender Advisors.²⁵

2.3 The United Nations

Over the years, numerous UN entities, including the Department of Peace Operations (DPO) and the Office of Military Affairs (OMA), have developed policy, guidance, and training on the implementation of WPS and gender equality to support member states in strengthening the capability of both uniformed and civilian personnel deployed to different missions. Box 3.3 provides an overview of recent UN guidance relevant to training and the military more specifically, which are meant to build on and complement each other.

Box 3.3 Recent United Nations training resources related to gender and the military

Gender Equality and Women, Peace and Security Resource Package (2020)

This resource package offers a capacity building tool and reference guide for peacekeeping personnel in headquarters and peace operations to more effectively translate WPS policies into practice. It is meant to serve as a 'how-to' guide, providing concrete practical guidance on implementing WPS mandates and commitments, including good practices and case studies drawn from the field.

Guidelines on Implementing a Gender Perspective into the Military Component of United Nations Peacekeeping Operations (2023)

These guidelines seek to support the practical translation of existing mandates on gender equality and WPS to UN military peacekeeping personnel. The guidelines are geared toward troop contributing countries (TCCs) and the military component of peacekeeping missions and are designed to support pre-deployment preparations and planning operations during deployment.

Case Study Handbook on Gender, Peace and Security for United Nations Infantry Battalions in Peace Operations and Other Military Personnel (2024)

The handbook aims to provide UN infantry battalions and other military personnel with the knowledge and tools to integrate gender perspectives in their work as part of UN peacekeeping operations. Published in 2024 by the UN DPO, the training resource includes hands-on, scenario-based exercises that look at gender aspects from mission planning to creating inclusive environments for personnel. It also includes self-learning, moderated learning, and enacted learning through role-play formats, making it adaptable to diverse training settings. The handbook is designed for Commanders, planners, and soldiers who implement peacekeeping mandates, protect civilians, and facilitate peace.

While member states are responsible for delivering pre-deployment training, the UN has developed Core Pre-deployment Training Materials (CPTM)²⁶ that includes essential knowledge, required by all peacekeeping personnel – including military, police, and civilians – to function effectively in a UN peacekeeping operation. WPS and CRSV constitute two lessons within this training. Additional Specialized Training Materials (STMs) for Military Observers²⁷ and Staff Officers²⁸ are also available, which incorporate training on priority areas, including Sexual Exploitation and Abuse (SEA) and CRSV.²⁹ Finally, another category of training materials called Reinforcement Training Packages (RTP) are also available, which includes the UN Military GENAD Training Programme. The Programme consists of three modules divided into two components. The first component is a five-chapter online course that includes the conceptual and legal framework. The second component is face-to-face training, delivered over ten days.³⁰

UN Women also has an online Training Centre that offers courses, programmes, and resources, with the aim of supporting the UN and its partners in realizing their commitments to gender equity and equality through training and education, both for those looking to apply gender knowledge and for those looking to teach on the subject. Like the NATO ADL offerings discussed above, the UN Women Training Centre offers self-paced asynchronous courses that are specific to the application of gender perspectives, which include courses on the historical and legal underpinnings of gender equity and equality efforts, including the WPS agenda and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

Other courses tailored to specific foundational concepts are also available, including understanding violence against women and girls, masculinities and violence against women and girls, gender in the context of human rights, gender in education, and women in leadership and decision-making. A third category of training focuses on the application of gender perspectives in specific contexts. Those courses serve as functional 'how-to' courses, like ones on integrating gender into emergency response, understanding the impact of gender on trade and the economy, and key considerations for gender and migration, organized crime, procurement, infrastructure, and disarmament, to name a few. In addition, UN Women works in partnership with the Peace Operations Training Institute, to provide courses on WPS in the context of Asia-Pacific, Latin America, and Africa as part of Gender Awareness Specialised Training.³¹

Within the NATO, EU, and UN contexts, some key similarities appear vis-à-vis training and education on gender and WPS. Gender analysis training is essential to mainstreaming and to supporting militaries in realizing the WPS agenda and yielding operationally effective outcomes. While the concept and understanding around intersectionality within the context of peace and security and within military training and education more specifically remains nascent, its importance for greater inclusion and enhanced conflict analysis is continually being recognized. A focus on intersectionality in training and education is visible in the UN context, as well as within specific militaries, including in Canada. NCGM has also sought to incorporate intersectionality into its curricula for GENADs and GFPs.

Each of these institutions offer a variety of training courses and educational resources, that can be leveraged by personnel deploying on missions. It may be important to consider how to incentivize these trainings that are voluntary for personnel. A system to track courses taken may be helpful for an individual's professional development, for example. It may likewise serve as a useful resource for defence institutions seeking to manage and identify qualified GENADs and GFPs, which is particularly advantageous when seeking to fill vacancies for deployments in short order. As well, as many of these courses are applicable to both civilian and military personnel, it may be useful for defence institutions to support and encourage all staff at all levels to better understand how they can contribute to realizing mission objectives and the WPS agenda simultaneously. The diversity of thought and perspectives that may come from bringing diverse civilian and military personnel together is another consideration that defence institutions may want to further explore.

3. Application: Gender and intersectional education and training in practice

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

An important observation when considering education and training on gender and intersectional perspectives is that these perspectives are relevant to all military personnel and have implications at all levels of military planning and execution. Military personnel undertake training and education throughout their service, and as such, there are many of opportunities and points in time to mainstream gender and intersectionality, beginning at basic military training or basic military officer training. In this way, consideration should be given to not only what is taught, but also how it is taught and when. Mainstreaming gender perspectives is indeed about incorporating the knowledge and skills to be able to undertake such gender analyses and to be able to understand how militaries can support the realization of the WPS agenda. Gender mainstreaming is likewise about reviewing existing curricula and supporting a training and learning environment that is equitable and inclusive (see Chapter 6 for more information on gender dynamics in the learning environment). That is, training and learning on gender perspectives should move beyond an additive and ad hoc approach, where standalone material is added on to an existing course subject. Instead, consideration should be given to fulsome and sustainable ways of integrating gender and cultural perspectives in curriculum development, delivery, and review.³²

Another essential observation when considering education and training on gender and intersectional perspectives is the importance of senior leadership support and buy-in. It is imperative that senior leaders understand the importance of gender and intersectional education, as well as the value that key advisors like GENADs and GFPs bring in pre-empting and addressing key issues that have gender and intersectional causes and consequences. This means having senior leadership trained and educated on the subject matter.

The operational impact of education and training on gender perspectives at the most senior levels links to the importance of mainstreaming gender perspectives into broader and more general military training and education, including PME. Senior ranking military are responsible for leading subordinates and in this way, they are likewise responsible for their subordinates' socialization, internalization, and expressions of the profession of arms. Thus, it is important for senior leadership to understand the intersections between gender perspectives and the military profession, so that they can impart that knowledge onto their subordinates. This is not only crucial for operational effectiveness, but also for the fostering of an inclusive and healthy military and military culture.³³ Actioning such a suggestion would entail integrating gender and intersectional perspectives, and WPS education into the education plans that form the basis of PME course plans and curricula, irrespective of the topics of focus. The processes of integrating gender into the curriculum is explored in more detail in Chapter 4.

Within the NATO context, Bi-SCD 40-01 brought gender mainstreaming and WPS to every level of Command. A CO is responsible for abiding by the obligations imposed by the laws guiding their national military. While a CO should lean on the advice of a specialist, like a GENAD, when undertaking any decisions, ultimately, it is the CO who bears the responsibility of any decisions or actions. All subordinate military personnel are also responsible for implementing a gender perspective into their different areas of work according to the Commander's orders. These responsibilities emphasize the importance of equipping all personnel with baseline literacy when it comes to gender and WPS. 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.³⁴ Box 3.4 provides an overview of the relevance of mainstreaming activities at the three different levels of military planning.

Box 3.4 Relevance of mainstreaming gender perspectives at different levels of military planning

Strategic

Results in a more complete understanding of a conflict and a conflict zone; supports the development and deployment of appropriate capabilities and plans; and yields fulsome lessons learned from missions and operations.

Operational

Supports the protection of civilians; enhances information gathering and the intelligence cycle; and enhances interoperable coordination.

Tactical

Increases operational effectiveness through the integration of gender and diversity considerations into patrol duties and checkpoint duties, civilian protection tasks, engagements with child soldiers, detention centre patrols, health services provisions, negotiations, data reporting, cultural heritage protection.

Source: Government of Canada³⁵

Fostering a common understanding of gender perspectives and the WPS agenda is also important to ensure military personnel at the strategic, operational, and tactical levels can contribute towards the overall realization of the agenda, and to help facilitate equitable and operationally effective outcomes. This common understanding can further support interoperability and multi-national cooperation, which is becoming increasingly commonplace within our international defence and security systems.³⁶

3.2 Gender advisors, gender focal points, and the gender structure

While Commanders and senior leaders bear the overarching responsibility of integrating gender perspectives, all personnel are required to have an awareness and understanding of gender perspectives and the WPS agenda, and how to integrate their goals into day-to-day work. Effective integration is possible when all personnel have a shared understanding and can work collaboratively with GENADs and GFPs. In this regard, it is critical that personnel have a functional understanding of the gender structure that exists within their own organization, and of how it can be used to advance learning and strengthen both analyses and responses, including within operational settings and in-theatre.

The creation of a gender structure is one way many military institutions have responded to their international and national obligations related to WPS, which includes assigning designated staff to advise on and facilitate the implementation of gender perspectives. While different kinds of gender structures exist in different countries, the most common positions are those of GENADs and GFPs.

In general, and within an operational context, the role of the GENAD is to support their Commander in implementing a gender perspective in daily work. The GENAD should be able to influence the implementation of the mission's mandate by integrating gender perspectives into mandated tasks. Gender mainstreaming is the recognized tool for implementation in the planning, execution and evaluation of a military operation. It is the Commander's responsibility to ensure that the GENAD has access to the appropriate channels, environments, and personnel to do their job effectively. According to a report conducted by the Swedish Armed Forces, support from mission leadership is essential for enabling the implementation process.³⁷ 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.

GFPs, for their part, are normally dual-hatted. That is, in addition to their 'regular' work, they support the CoC in integrating gender perspectives in their daily work in a specific functional area. GFPs typically report within the CoC but maintain routine dialogue with a designated GENAD, who is usually tasked with coordinating the work of GFPs across the institution.

The roles and responsibilities of GENADs and GFPs can vary, depending on national and multinational contexts. That is, the purpose and function that these experts bring may look different across militaries, and within and between the EU, NATO, and the UN. However, in all contexts, it is important to mention that GENADs and GFPs require specific expertise or education to fulfil their roles, and the necessary time and resources must be allocated for this purpose. It is equally important that all military personnel understand the roles and functions of the GENADs and GFPs working with their units so that their advice is sought and fully utilized. Box 3.5 identifies common roles and responsibilities of GENADs and GFPs.

Box 3.5 Sample roles and responsibilities of gender advisors and gender focal points

A Gender Advisor

- Reports to and advises the Commander and the CoC on matters related to gender and intersectionality, and WPS;
- Provides technical and functional guidance on the development or review of any function;
- Provides advice and offers recommendations to senior leadership and seeks to foster synchronicity across their institutional landscape as it relates to gender and WPS;
- Offers support on the integration and application of gender and intersectional perspectives, which involves training and capacity building; and
- Coordinates the work of Gender Focal points across the institution.

A Gender Focal Point

- Assists in the application of gender and intersectional analysis, through monitoring and the provision of support;
- Stimulates considerations of gender and intersectional equity and equality into daily work in a specific functional area; and
- Liaises with the Gender Advisor.

Source: NATO³⁸

NATO's International Military Staff (IMS) has an Office of the Gender Advisor (IMS GENAD) who provides information and advice on gender perspectives, including on the implementation of the WPS agenda. The IMS GENAD also takes on the role of facilitator between partner countries on issues related to gender and liaises with international organizations and agencies on the integration of gender perspectives in operations. It is the IMS GENAD's responsibility to collect and disseminate information on national policies within NATO on gender and WPS, which positions them well to publish the annual document, titled "Gender Perspectives in Armed Forces – Summary of National Reports." The NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP), as an advisory body to the Military Committee promotes the integration of gender mainstreaming and gender perspectives across all of NATO; and the IMS GENAD serves as the secretary for NCGP.

3.3 Content of gender and intersectional education and training

The content of training programmes on gender perspectives has evolved tremendously over the years. As presented in the first section of this chapter, numerous training programmes exist that provide extensive materials for militaries to use and adapt, in addition to programmes individual members can leverage. The following section discusses two specific focus areas that are critical parts of any PME or training programme on gender and intersectional perspectives, and WPS.

Focus Area 1: International and national frameworks related to gender equality and women, peace and security

Under Bi-SCD 40-1, the provisions of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions apply to all NATO-led missions (see also Chapter 2).³⁹ Notably, the WPS agenda also applies to all missions undertaken under the terms of a UN mandate. Many other member states have sought to realize the WPS agenda through National Action Plans (NAPs), which can and do incorporate education and training on the WPS agenda for national armed forces. A NAP will often identify how a country and its implementing partners, like the military, view the advancement of gender equality and how they define gender responsive peace and security outcomes.⁴⁰ In this way, a state's NAP opens the door for teaching and learning about the historical and legal foundations of the WPS agenda and related efforts, within the domestic and international contexts. For example, by incorporating background information about the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995), we can trace the international advocacy by women's organizations that led to UNSCR 1325 and the formal documentation of key concepts like gender mainstreaming. The Beijing Platform outlined member states' commitment to "mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programmes, so that before decisions are taken, an analysis is made of the effects for women and men, respectively."⁴¹ The intent behind offering this background and context, when operationally feasible, is to empower military personnel and equip them with deeper understandings of why and how actions and responsibilities are linked to professional practices and international commitments.

As military personnel move up the ranks of their respective organizations, their foundational understandings of these international and national frameworks should deepen and evolve. Personnel working at the operational level will need to know how to apply these policies in their operational planning processes with the support of GENADs and GFPs. 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 advisors including a legal advisor (LEGAD) (see the discussion on Bloom's taxonomy in Chapter 7). Commanders have a particular responsibility to apply and promote the principles of gender equality within their organization, team, and operation. The contents of this focus area, therefore, applies to courses at many different educational levels.

The historical, legal, and doctrinal underpinnings of WPS are important to highlight in and of themselves, and to spotlight the impact of advocacy and the women's liberation movement on the formalization of the WPS agenda. These examples also shed light on the multiple layers within which change has been directed and where change needs to occur, and highlights how important it is to consider how to teach, in addition to what to teach. Individuals have different learning styles, which can vary based on a learner's identity factors. Ensuring course materials, delivery, and review consider the diversity of the student population is important. A top-down and bottom-up approach to teaching and learning on gender and intersectional perspectives, and WPS can support diverse learning styles. Some learners may benefit from a top-down approach, which moves from broad strokes overviews to more specialized and granular sub-topics. In contrast, others in the classroom may connect more with an approach to learning that moves from the specific to the general, as is the case with bottom-up learning. These approaches may likewise be dictated by the level of the course or the ranks of the cadre in the classroom.

Teaching and learning on key founding documents can help move discussions away from solely focusing on diverse women's representation as a force multiplier within a military context. Indeed, there is solid evidence that the presence of women from diverse backgrounds and a range of experiences and perspectives in the military and on operations enhances operational effectiveness and success. But it is likewise important to balance the operational argument with the intrinsic one, and to acknowledge the moral and human rights imperative of equity and diversity.⁴² As can also be discerned from these founding documents, there has been a historic focus on women's representation. As we have seen in the context of individual countries, there is an acknowledgment of intersectionality and the importance of equity and equality in terms of gender and other key intersections, including ethnicity, race, religion, age, ability, geography, and sexual orientation, as some examples. It is likewise important to acknowledge the unique demographics and intersections within and across particular geographies and countries.

Focus Area 2: Foundation

Gender and intersectional analysis are essential for mainstreaming and for supporting militaries in realizing the WPS agenda and yielding operationally effective outcomes. Some states, including Canada, and organizations, including the UN and NCGM are broadening the aperture of gender analysis to include intersectional considerations. In this way, they are recognizing the importance that multiple and compounding identity factors have in conflict settings. In conflict zones, the concept of intersectionality can help shed light on minority subsets of the population, including what violence they may experience, as well as the “interests, needs, agencies, and views” of particular groups.⁴³ Applying intersectionality in this space can help ensure populations are not treated like a monolith, which can help support operationally effective outcomes. Who is consulted in a host country is important for understanding diverse experiences and needs. For example, in UN mediation, there is a tendency to consult with women who are urban, elite, and educated, which leaves women with obverse intersectional identity factors underrepresented and further marginalized.⁴⁴

Gender as an identity factor is important to unpack further. There has been a gradual but visible shift away from identifying gender in binary terms, including in the UN context. For example, the 2024 UN Gender-responsive Peacekeeping Policy refers to “women and men, girls and boys, and other gender identities.”⁴⁵ The UN is increasingly taking gender diversity, and multiple identity factors and intersections into considerations in its various entities and peacekeeping is following suit. For example, UN Women produced in 2021 an Intersectionality Guide and Toolkit.⁴⁶

While GENADs and GFPs sit in specialized roles, advising and supporting on gender and intersectional analysis, the application of these analyses remain still the responsibility of all personnel, albeit with respective responsibilities and accountabilities differing. Gender and intersectional analysis help support the mitigation of risks, negative, and unintended consequences in both an institutional setting and an operational environment. It is a process that allows personnel to anticipate and understand the impact or potential impact of a decision, in a way that supports operationally effective decision-making proactively and, in an ad-hoc manner. As such, there is a tangible case to be made for why all personnel should be responsible for engaging in gender and intersectional analysis.

Different models or approaches exist for conducting a gender and intersectional analysis.⁴⁷ One example of a gender and intersectionality tool is the Military Gender Analysis Tool (MGAT), developed by NCGM to help improve situational awareness and identify strategic-level needs to better inform planning and operations. The tool builds on NATO models to understand the Engagement Space as well as approaches to gender analysis, in addition to the PMESII model and Factor Analysis.⁴⁸

The UN Guidelines on Implementing a Gender Perspective into the Military Component of UN Peacekeeping Operations proposes the ASCOPE-PMESII⁴⁹ model to organize and process the information acquired to assess its relevance to the mission and the mandate and serves as another tool to support gender and intersectional analysis. The UN Policy on Gender Responsive Peacekeeping Operations also discusses the role of a gender analysis to gain a more in-depth understanding of the actors, causes, and dynamics of a conflict, and of how gender shapes, and is shaped by, conflict. It also identifies how a gender analysis “facilitates the identification of specific roles and capabilities (including women’s and girls’ varied roles in peace and conflict), risks and vulnerabilities of all community members as well as the appropriate POC [protection of civilian] intervention.”⁵⁰ In particular, the UN policy calls on peacekeeping actors to, for example:

- Undertake a gender analysis for enhanced situational awareness and to inform prevention and protection efforts based on the gender specific needs of host communities;
- Utilize gender analysis to better understand the risks of mine/explosive remnants of war in communities; and
- Integrate a gender analysis into monitoring, analysis, and reporting on trends and patterns of CRSV, including by identifying links with other forms and trends of gender-based violence and discrimination, investigating how gender-based violence may have been exacerbated during a conflict, and studying the distinct and gender-specific risks and effects of CRSV on survivors.

By way of example of effective gender analysis, Box 3.6 provides an analysis of how the Canadian Armed Forces (CAF) leveraged the Gender-based Analysis Plus (GBA Plus) tool, developed by the Government of Canada to produce responsive and inclusive outcomes, in response to the COVID-19 pandemic.⁵¹

Box 3.6 Application of Gender-based Analysis Plus (GBA Plus) in emergency response

GBA Plus is a process that considers how gender and other identity factors can impact operations and thus, GBA Plus can shape operational planning, and operations and their evaluations. The Plus acknowledges that individual differences go beyond biological (sex) and socio-cultural (gender) ones and therefore prompts considerations of how many other factors may influence challenges and opportunities in theatre. Through the application of GBA Plus, the Department of National Defence and the CAF strive to reach mission goals in a way that considers the experiences and realities on the ground of certain groups.

GBA Plus was used to guide CAF operations LASER and VECTOR, which were operations focused on responding to the COVID-19 global pandemic. In these operations, CAF personnel deployed to long-term care facilities in two provinces, and directly supported northern and remote communities. The Government of Canada's initial COVID-19 response measures created economic and social disparities, that affected certain groups in Canada disproportionately, particularly women, youth, racial minorities, Indigenous persons, people living in remote communities, and immigrant populations. GBA Plus findings were used to adjust internal response policies in operations LASER and VECTOR. Efforts were designed to protect and assist the most vulnerable sub-populations in Canada, and ensure marginalized groups were not disproportionately disadvantaged, given that intersecting identity factors, particularly age, ethnicity, and location, affected vulnerability to COVID-19-related morbidity and mortality.

Source: Government of Canada⁵²

While approaches may differ, important aspects of any gender and intersectional analysis include the collection of data and the meaningful consultation with and inclusion of diverse voices. Box 3.7 offers some learning outcomes that militaries may want to consider vis-à-vis gender and intersectional analysis training.

Box 3.7 Potential learning outcomes to consider when mainstreaming gender and intersectional perspectives

Strategic

- Understanding how the integration of gender and intersectional perspectives improves the security situation within the context of a wider military and political strategy; and
- Evaluating and addressing the potential impact of gender norms within a military, between militaries, and within a host country on strategic objectives.

Operational

- Integrating gender and intersectional perspectives into orders given to the tactical level;
- Understanding the applicability of the WPS agenda in each context, and the role of the military in its implementation; and
- Understanding of how gender intersects with the cultural practices of the population in the mission area.

Tactical

- Appreciating the importance of collecting sex and gender-disaggregated data to gain greater situational awareness; and
- Acknowledging the value in engaging diverse members of a community, to identify different security needs and design targeted responses.

Source: Government of Canada⁵³

Intelligence gathering and analysis

For strategic advice and actions to be evidence-based, knowledge about gender and other intersectional considerations is vital, including qualitative understandings surrounding gender and intersectional norms, in addition to quantitative data. Without this information, there is no substance upon which gender and intersectional analysis can be built. Conducting a gender and intersectional analysis involves seeking out information about power and status, which includes considerations of gender roles and gender stereotypes; and group locations, activities, risks, needs, and interests. Some of this information can indeed come in the form of statistical information, which can be collected in advance of a mission. In an operational context, key nuances and insights can and should be gleaned qualitatively, through intelligence gathering, to understand social processes and realities on the ground. This is not to say that sex, gender and other demographic-disaggregated data is not important. For example, an awareness of literacy levels being lower among women than men in a particular location may be important, as it has implications for who may be receiving messages, which can lead a GENAD or GFP to advise their Commander to leverage different communication strategies to disseminate key information to local civilian populations and civil society organizations.⁵⁴ When a GENAD is providing a situation report to their Commander, they may want to consider not only how they are relaying data, but also what that data looks like. In this way, GENADs may consider leveraging and reporting on both qualitative and quantitative intelligence.

Decisions are often taken based on best available information and not necessarily based on all available information. There are and likely will be many situations where the data that is needed is incomplete or completely absent. In such instances, these realities should be relayed to senior leadership and can also be included in after action reports. This reality also further highlights the utility of seeking out different types of data, beyond quantitative statistics.

Meaningful consultation and engagement

A gender and intersectional analysis should be, as much as possible, participatory and inclusive, and should be informed by multiple voices and perspectives, including local populations and specific demographic groups.⁵⁵ Meaningful consultation and engagement with diverse voices is a helpful way of building trust and legitimacy in mission and essential for gaining reliable intelligence that is informed by multiple voices and perspectives.

It is important when consulting with individuals and groups of a host country, that these engagements apply a trauma-informed approach. This approach acknowledges the history, systems, and structures that have contributed to the harm, marginalization, and inequality of certain subsets of a population. A trauma-informed approach considers the social realities of certain groups with the aim of ensuring engagements are sensitive to those social realities that manifest in culture, history, and power. This approach seeks to reduce any harm to individuals or groups that could arise from the engagement, and enhances intelligence validity, by increasing trust.

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, are key to the successful integration of gender and intersectional perspectives and the full implementation of internal and external aspects of gender equality. External aspects may refer to how an operation affects the security of women, men, women, girls and boys, and people of all gender identities differently in a specific area, while the internal aspects could refer to the gender balance within one's own organization and the need to ensure that the harnesses the diversity of its personnel represented across its ranks.

3.4 Key Considerations when integrating gender and intersectional perspectives into military training exercises

Integrating gender and intersectional perspectives into scenarios for training exercises is about ensuring the inclusion of gender, and intersectional considerations across all aspects of the exercise. 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 gender and intersectional perspectives are included at all levels of planning from the outset, it is important to involve a subject matter expert from the beginning as a core member of the planning group, which can include a GENAD or GFP. Moreover, military exercises consist of multiple different scenarios, which include specific events, incidents, or messages, called injects, which simulate a challenge for which personnel may encounter on a real mission. It is also relevant to consider the way gender and diversity injects are integrated, whether they are considerations within an inject or injects that stand alone. Both approaches are valuable and provide an opportunity to better appreciate areas of knowledge strength and sites of knowledge gaps.⁵⁶

A standalone incident could involve a case of SGBV, which could include:

- sexual harassment, which occurs within troops;
- sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA), which is committed by troops against local populations; and or/
- CRSV, which occurs against civilians or military forces by non-state actors.

These incidents are important, but they should not be the only gender and intersectional injects, as these oversimplify and reduce gender and intersectional considerations to those cases that are more overt or obvious.

Integrated considerations are a second approach that should also be incorporated to supplement standalone incidents, which are more aligned with gender and intersectional mainstreaming. The idea here is to incorporate gender and other diversity factors into broader injects, which may impact operational processes or outcomes. For example, the emergency evacuation effort of a hospital will require participating personnel to ask, learn, and respond to different gender and considerations, including factors like age, ability, and geography. An understanding of culture and religion, and its impacts on gender norms in a host country are important here, regarding how those deep-rooted social structures and systems impact: who would be in the hospital; how they would respond to the presence of military personnel; what their needs might be during and after the evacuation, for example. These considerations could all impact the sequencing, methods, and processes of military personnel involved in the evacuation. Box 3.8 offers an illustration of mainstreaming in military exercises, from Joint Viking 2025.

Scenarios or case studies are effective at bringing gender and intersectional perspectives into other topics or areas of study, where such issues or considerations may not be front and centre, or immediately obvious. Important research has been done in the last two decades to elucidate the nexus between gender perspectives and areas such as terrorism, violent extremism, cybersecurity, infectious diseases, and climate change. More work is required to strengthen the understanding of the gender dimensions of these issues, including the role of women and the impact they face, to ensure all information is considered as part of a military response. For example, the NATO Office of the Gender Advisor published a quick reference guide on the Military Implications of the Gender Perspective in NATO's Core Topics to build a more accurate picture of the threat environment and to respond more effectively by improving military planning, assessment and operations. Topics discussed include resilience, terrorism, climate change, Artificial Intelligence, cyber threats, and hybrid threats, among others.⁵⁷

Box 3.8 Joint viking 2025

Joint Viking is a Norwegian exercise aimed at enhancing allied interoperability, through training on protecting NATO's northern flank. The March 2025 exercise brought together participants from nine nations: Belgium, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Norway, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Understanding diverse landscapes and environments was a focus of the exercise. The mainstreaming of diverse factors and considerations was built into the planning phase of the exercise. For example, the Norwegian Armed Forces conduct reconnaissance tours during these exercises, which involve the requirement to cooperate with local civilians and authorities, to better understand areas to avoid, including cultural monuments. Building in local community considerations and cultural property protection into the exercise at the planning phase is a clear demonstration of mainstreaming efforts that incorporate diverse factors, which have an impact on operational planning and potential operational outcomes.

Source: Norwegian Armed Forces⁵⁸

Challenging assumptions and confronting stereotypes

It is important to understand and acknowledge that biases and stereotypes can impact what may be included or excluded in an exercise or inject. Gender stereotypes are held ideas and actions based on them, which encompass hostile and negative views and unconscious associations. Take for example, the inference that women are more nurturing and by extension make better peacekeepers. Issues relating to gender dichotomies detract from the goals of equity, equality, and inclusion. What this means is that for the stereotype to exist that 'women make better peacekeepers because they are nurturing' presupposes the dichotomy that men are naturally aggressive.⁵⁹ These dichotomies are harmful to all genders when those assumptions lead to action or inaction for certain demographic groups. For example, there remains a stereotype that women and girls are weaker than men and boys, and thus, are the sole populations that are survivors of SGBV, which refers to violence targeted at individuals because of their sex and/or their socially constructed gender roles. This stereotype and related assumption can lead to an exclusion or lack of attention paid to men and boys who are also targets of such violence. It is helpful to consider using what NCGM refers to as 'eye openers,' which are non-traditional incidents that expose stereotypes. This could include for example, a terrorist attack carried out by a woman or as mentioned, SGBV carried out against men. Box 3.9 offers an illustration of how wargaming programs can integrate gender and intersectional, and WPS injects.

Box 3.9 Good practice: using transformative games to advance Women, Peace and Security

Inner Alliance is a transformative game developed by the non-profit organization Archipelago of Design (AOD) in collaboration with a project community, including several defence and security organizations and more than 100 members. As most transformative agendas, gender responsive leadership is facing some resistance from key constituents in armed forces and civil society. Inner Alliance mobilizes stealth learning to overcome this barrier by making tangible the effects of taking intersectionality seriously, both inward and outward, through immersive gameplay. Participants play the role of individual members of a Climate Change Task Force assisting civilians in evacuating from dangerous floods in a Post-World War Three context. Inward, they must address different needs and perspectives of team members to ensure team belonging for readiness. Outward, they must ensure a high level of community trust for operational effectiveness. Overall, by mobilizing a game as a medium, participants become aware of the concrete value of the WPS agenda, making it stick in their everyday duties.

The AOD is a global not-for-profit headquartered in Toronto, Canada including 51 members and more than 500 supporters across NATO members and partners. Its mission is to empower leaders to shift mindsets in their organization to better set conditions for evolution and address complex situations. The AOD achieves its mission by developing and delivering transformative games and by facilitating professional development and workshop activity.

Source: AOD Network

4. Identifying and addressing barriers to integrating gender and intersectional perspectives in training and education

Despite advancements in policy, guidance, and training materials, there remain multiple barriers to integrating gender and intersectional perspectives into training and education. These barriers can be divided into three broad categories: systemic and structural inequities, institutionalization and integration, and leadership and accountability. Chapter 4 addresses the specific challenges related to curriculum development and the learning environment.

Systemic and structural inequities

Training and education creation, delivery, and review create opportunities for involved personnel to exercise reflexivity, and to acknowledge the biases that may exist and that can be perpetuated in that specific context. If possible, soliciting the perspectives of diverse actors may likewise support an understanding of how the social context within which teaching and learning personnel operate can perpetuate biases and privilege. Resistance to material relating to gender perspectives and WPS has been observed.⁶⁰ One way to respond to such resistance is to practice ‘calling in’ versus ‘calling out.’ ‘Calling in’ involves approaching an individual or group in a compassionate way, to help identify an individual or group’s harmful attitudes or beliefs, conscious or unconscious. To this end, it is important to acknowledge that adult-learners enter the training and education environment with different personal and professional worldviews, which impact how they will respond to curricula. These diverse perspectives reinforce the importance of ensuring educators and trainers have the skills to manage disagreement and resistance within the learning environment.⁶¹ It is likewise important that educators and trainers help facilitate a brave space, where all learners feel empowered and able to share. This is especially important among those students who are not of the dominant group and in classrooms where a lack of diversity remains the status quo.

Institutionalization and integration

Biases and assumptions in the context of teaching and learning can contribute to what is taught and how it is taught, when it comes to gender and security, and the WPS agenda. That is, training and education on gender perspectives and WPS are often ad-hoc add-ons in existing curricula, which runs contrary to the method of gender mainstreaming. This approach risks failing to highlight the need to apply gender perspectives across all military activities. It can lead to the assumption that gender and intersectional analysis is not relevant in certain circumstances. These assumptions may be rooted in unconscious or conscious bias. People’s taken-for-granted assumptions, coupled with the structural, institutional, and systemic biases that could be reflected within the military contexts can impact how problems are identified and framed, and how gender perspectives and WPS can support the identification of the problem and the corresponding solution sets.

A baseline understanding of key gender and intersectional concepts provides teachers and learners with a solid springboard upon which they can grow their knowledge and skills in applying gender and intersectional mainstreaming. To that end, training and education in this space can lean on scaffolded learning⁶² to ensure learners are empowered with knowledge on gender and intersectional perspectives, and that they can build on their knowledge as they progress their careers. A scaffolded learning approach presents an opportunity for instructors to flag and reduce any duplication of material across curriculum, reinforce required learning and skills over time, and ensure knowledge and skills are commensurate with rank and occupation. PME is limited in its ability to elicit transformational or affective change – relating to feelings or attitudes – as it focuses more on knowledge acquisition. Greater emphasis on training and education as a space for military personnel to develop and exercise reflexivity can help foster behaviours and held beliefs that align with the WPS agenda.

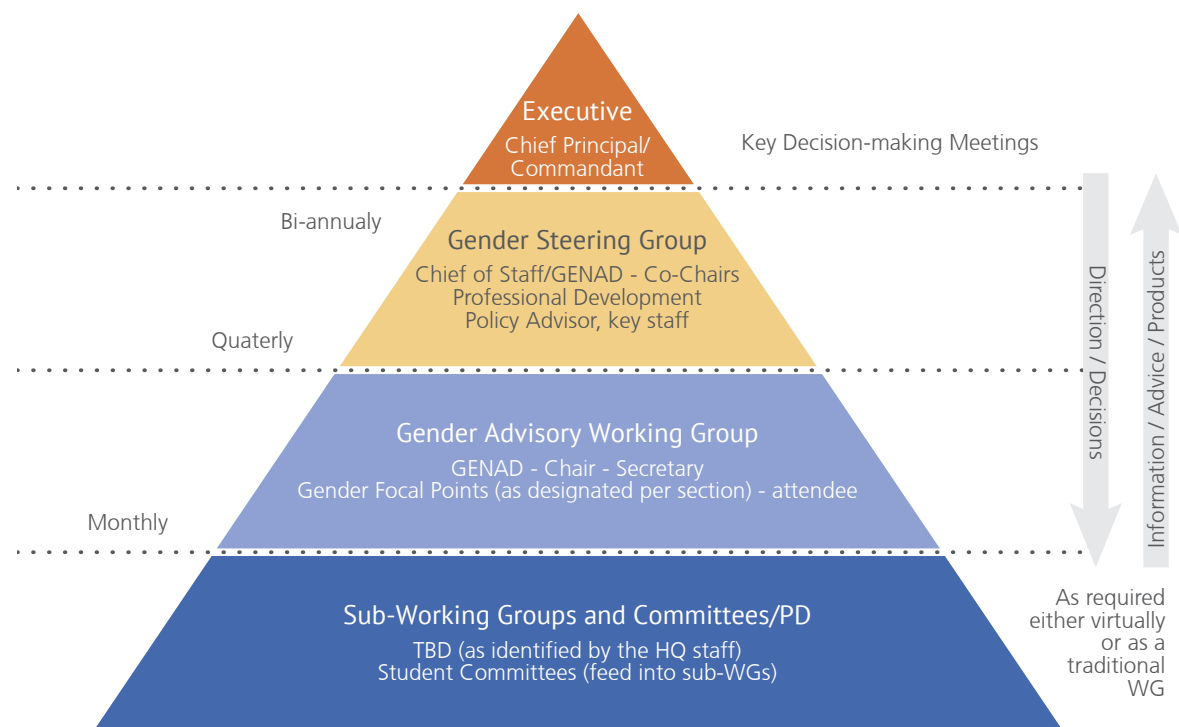
There are instances where gender and security subject matter experts are leveraged to provide training and education in the way of gender and intersectional competencies and skills, potentially to deliver a course or serve as a guest lecturer on an existing course. Efforts to enhance learning between experts and instructors can help support their own development and learning. Some subjects, trainings, or courses may reveal themselves to be easier or more obvious to mainstream. As such, support in the way of specialists and subject matter

experts on gender and security, and the WPS agenda should be offered to training and education personnel to build their understandings of how gender and intersectionality, and WPS relate to their courses or programmes. Opportunities to support trainers and educators in mainstreaming gender and intersectional perspectives and analysis, and WPS, into their existing curricula should be investigated by the leaders of training institutes. One option may be to provide consultation opportunities for staff responsible for curriculum development, delivery, and review to support the mainstreaming of gender and intersectional analysis, WPS, and EDII⁶³ principles. Such opportunities would help training and education establishments formally and measurably mainstream core gender and intersectional principles into its curriculum in a way that supports capacity building in these areas. Consultations could range from one-on-one collaboration between a subject matter expert and an instructor, to include multilateral networks that convene to review, workshop, and share gender mainstreaming practices.

In addition, mainstreaming WPS, gender perspectives and gender analyses includes applying these to military institutions themselves. In doing so, inequities may be identified which require organizational buy-in and collaboration to change. Working towards change necessitates an understanding of the institutional dynamics at play that can serve as catalysts or barriers. Institutional analyses in relation to commitments of WPS can highlight that there may be military and civilian leaders, personnel, educators and students who resist change and prefer traditional ways of doing things. There may also be larger socio-political institutional contexts that create inertia on equity or optimal conditions for new ideas. As such, it is important to consider how institutions function and what strategies may be used to ensure that changes related to WPS can be effectively implemented and managed.

In some military education spaces, the utility and urgency of WPS, gender perspectives and analysis may be subject to resistance and criticism. As the application of WPS and gender analyses of training and education can uncover and respond to potential barriers for mainstreaming WPS, and in the face of increased politicization of gender equality and equity work, it is important to learn from the lessons identified by military education institutions from getting it right and importantly learning from others' experiences of getting it wrong. Box 3.10 provides an example of establishing a formal structure within the military for mainstreaming gender in training and education.⁶⁴

Box 3.10 Establishing formal structures for gender mainstreaming



Leadership and accountability

The profession of arms doctrine seeks to guide military personnel based on a core set of values and beliefs that reflect the military ethos. Alliances like NATO have the added challenge of promoting standardized understandings of the profession, to support interoperability and operational effectiveness. As outlined in NATO reference curriculum for officers,⁶⁵ leaders have a responsibility to model the standards that permeate military culture.⁶⁶

Leadership plays a significant role in ensuring that gender mainstreaming efforts in education and training are supported and sustained. While a lack of resources and funding is often presented as a barrier to gender and intersectional mainstreaming, this can stem from the perception that gender efforts are of lesser importance or that they do not require specific attention. According to recent research findings on the development of military gender advisor capabilities, leadership on WPS is most prominent among leaders who are well versed in the concepts, either thorough training or previous experience working with GENADs.⁶⁷ Having leaders that are knowledgeable in the normative frameworks surrounding gender equality and WPS, and in the role of the military in advancing WPS also sends an important signal of institutional will across the entire organization, thereby fostering a tangible top-down commitment to the issue. The establishment of clear directives further institutional commitment. It is just as important to see these directives in practice, through leader modeling, and leading by example. Leaders also have an important role to play in supporting bottom-up approaches and organizational structures that seek to advance mainstreaming efforts and the integration of WPS, including GENADs, GFPs, as well as gender networks.

For leaders at all levels to succeed, it is imperative that they be provided with the opportunities to strengthen their knowledge and understanding through ongoing training and life-long learning. It is also important that organizations model their values by supporting leaders that demonstrate inclusivity and addressing those that violate the values and military ethos espoused in the profession of arms. Box 3.11. presents a 5-Step Engagement Plan that can be used directly with a military dean, commandant, or other senior leader to secure buy-in for gender mainstreaming in curricula.

Box 3.11 5-Step engagement plan for leadership buy-in. Source: Iryna Lysychkina (2025)

 Step 1 Align with the Mission	Frame gender integration as a force multiplier. Show how it supports operational effectiveness, readiness, and compliance with national strategies, defence policies, and international commitments (e.g., UNSCR 1325, NATO standards). Use language that reflects the institution's core values – discipline, effectiveness, adaptability – so it feels like a natural fit, not an external imposition.
 Step 2 Present Evidence and Examples	Share concrete cases where gender perspectives improved outcomes in military operations, strategic planning, or training. Use examples from peer institutions or allied forces to avoid political framing and instead emphasize professional, results-driven benefits.
 Step 3 Propose Low-Risk, High-Impact Actions	Ask for specific, manageable approvals – such as a pilot workshop, guest speaker event, or short module on Women, Peace and Security – rather than an open-ended commitment. Include clear timelines, deliverables, and expected outcomes so leaders can see a path to success.
 Step 4 Show Broad Support	Present the proposal as the product of a coalition of faculty, curriculum developers, gender advisers, and external experts. This demonstrates that the initiative is institution-wide, reduces perceived risk, and increases confidence in its feasibility.
 Step 5 Maintain Momentum with Results	After approval, quickly implement the first initiative and report back with tangible outcomes – such as participant feedback, increased knowledge scores, or operationally relevant insights. This reinforces the leader's decision and builds a case for scaling up.

5. Conclusion

While many challenges remain in integrating gender and intersectional perspectives within the military context, this chapter highlighted some of the many education and training opportunities available to militaries, particularly through the EU, NATO, and UN. The increased training and education on gender and intersectional perspectives and WPS serves as a marker of progress in the realization of the WPS agenda, since the adoption of UNSCR 1325 in 2000. The last two decades have revealed important lessons learned and good practices. Efforts to institutionalize gender and intersectionality, and WPS perspectives are prominent within national, regional, and international contexts. Opportunities to share operational success stories and challenges are becoming increasingly critical as the composition of militaries continues to change; coupled with increasingly insecure and austere conflict spaces; and rapid changes to modern warfare technologies and systems. Trainers and educators will be increasingly called on to practice reflexivity and agility in incorporating gender and intersectional perspectives into understanding and addressing new and unique conflicts and challenges. By providing an overview of gender and intersectional education and training, this chapter sought to help personnel, trainers and educators, and leaders in identifying existing options for learning; sharing key considerations when mainstreaming gender and intersectionality in education and training; and identifying common challenges and opportunities to gender and intersectional mainstreaming in training and education.

6. Annotated bibliography

Bastick, Megan, and Clare Duncanson. "Agents of Change? Gender Advisors in NATO Militaries." *International Peacekeeping*, Vol. 25, No. 4, 2018, 554-577. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/13533312.2018.1492876>.

This article examines the question of whether military members can be agents of feminist transformative change. To answer this question, the authors explore the roles and responsibilities of GENADs, and how they may impact a military's ability to advance the WPS agenda.

Chapin, Jennifer, and Verity Warne. "Gender Responsive Pedagogy in Higher Education: A Framework." *International Network for Advancing Science and Policy*, 2020. <https://www.inasp.info/sites/default/files/2021-01/Gender%20responsive%20pedagogy%20Framework%20paper.pdf>.

This piece suggests that traditional pedagogic practices reinforce gender inequalities in the classroom when educators lack sufficient awareness about diversity. The piece seeks to promote the use of gender-responsive pedagogical strategies for the integration of gender in teaching and learning. It likewise provides examples of what gender-responsive pedagogy might look like in curriculum design, classroom dynamics, and assessments.

Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP). "Strategy for Distance Learning Support." NATO, 2021. https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/2021/12/pdf/211209-deep-strategy-dist-learn.pdf.

A product out of DEEP's virtual workshop and conference, this report delineates good practices and lessons learned from NATO PME institutions during the COVID-19 pandemic, which saw an increase in distance learning education. The report also seeks to identify effective and cost-efficient ways to deliver and enhance student-centered learning in the military context.

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.ub.gu.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. Given the report's focus on understanding the propelling and blocking forces that impact military's realization of UNSCR 1325, this document offers useful lessons learned to help increase mainstreaming and understanding of the WPS agenda.

Holvikivi, Aiko. "Training the Troops on Gender: The Making of a Transnational Practice." *International Peacekeeping* 28, No. 2, 2021, 175-199. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13533312.2020.1869540#references-Section>.

This article provides a review of training mandates across armed forces vis-à-vis the integration of WPS principles and gender perspectives. It finds that common narratives in mandates and training guidance, particularly for ones related to peacekeeping operations, leverage normative understandings of gender, which are focused on vulnerability to sexual violence and cognitive capacities of gender diverse personnel.

Kaptan, Senem. "UNSCR 1325 at 20 Years: Perspectives from Feminist Peace Activists and Civil Society." *Women's International League for Peace and Freedom*, 2020. <https://www.wilpf.org/unscr-1325-at-20-years-perspectives-from-feminist-peace-activists-and-civil-society/>.

Drawing on qualitative data collection across the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, and other members and partners around the world, this article provides a glimpse into state perceptions around the WPS agenda. The report identifies three barriers to the advancement of the WPS agenda, including militarism and militarization; the patriarchal and political underpinnings of the WPS agenda; and the lack of accountability and implementation for the agenda.

Karim, Sabrina, Laura Huber, Léa Lehouck, Solène Brabant, Callum Watson, and Ingrid Munch. "Measuring Opportunities for Women in Peace Operations (MOWIP) Methodology." DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance, 2020. https://www.dcaf.ch/sites/default/files/publications/documents/MOWIP_Methodology_4.pdf.

This document provides an overview of the MOWIP methodology, which was developed collaboratively among various states and militaries to assess the degree to which women can meaningfully participate in peacekeeping operations.

Kirby, Paul C., and Laura Shepherd. *Governing the Feminist Peace: The Vitality and Failure of the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press, 2024. <https://cup.columbia.edu/book/governing-the-feminist-peace/9780231555852>.

This book identifies the successes and failures of the WPS agenda in the context of peace and gender equity. The authors argue that the WPS agenda is one that ebbs and flows, and that it changes based on the behaviour of actors at the subnational, national, supranational, and transnational level. It offers a useful resource to instructors and students alike, offering rich context into understanding the WPS agenda and the role of state actors in realizing the agenda. Chapters 2 and 6 speaks to training in the context of SGBV.

Munch, Ingrid, and Aiko Holvikivi. "Saving the World, One Gender Training at a Time." Policy Brief, DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance, 2012. https://www.dcaf.ch/sites/default/files/publications/documents/Elsie_Policy_Brief_5_FINAL.pdf

The policy brief offers a useful resource for troop and police contributing countries on leveraging existing training on gender in order to help foster transformational change in peacekeeping operations.

Okros, Alan, Vanessa Brown, and Victoria Tait. "Integrating Gender and Cultural Perspectives in Professional Military Education Programmes." Science and Technology Organization, Technical Report Human Factors and Medicine Panel 307, 2023. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13533312.2020.1869540#references-Section>.

This report serves as a guide for staff and faculty of national PME programs. It offers research and analyses that seek to enable the development of gender and cultural competencies among senior officers in the teaching and learning environment. The report includes findings and recommendations that aim to improve interoperability and, in this way, the effectiveness of NATO-led missions.

Watson, Callum, ed. "Gender and Security Toolkit – Tool 3: Defence and Gender." DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance, 2020. <https://www.dcaf.ch/tool-3-defence-and-gender>.

This tool seeks to support defence professionals seeking to integrate gender perspectives and promote gender diversity. In so doing, it outlines the legal framework that serves as the foundation for gender equality within the armed forces. The toolkit offers ways to integrate gender perspectives into military operations and more specifically, defence oversight mechanisms, while identifying the role of training and education in achieving this outcome.

Endnotes

1. The WPS agenda is a policy framework that consists of UN Security Council Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106, 2122, 2242, 2467, and 2493. For further information, see Chapter 2 on the policy framework of the WPS agenda. For more on the making of the WPS agenda, see Katharine A.M. Wright, "NATO's Adoption of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security: Making the Agenda a Reality," *International Political Science Review* 37, No. 3 (2016), 350-61, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192512116638763>.
2. The WPS agenda and its resolutions have been criticized for presenting a binary and heteronormative interpretation of gender and gender perspectives. While important research has been published on the need to expand this interpretation for the WPS agenda to be truly transformative, the extension of WPS principles to military operations with an intersectional perspective remains dependent on the interpretation of the WPS agenda by member states. While we recognize that not all member states' militaries have adopted this approach, we hope that this chapter can provide member states and defence institutions with a starting point. For an example of literature that critiques the binary nature of the WPS agenda, see Sarah Smith, and Elena B. Stavrevska, "A different Women, Peace and Security is possible? Intersectionality in Women, Peace and Security Resolutions and National Action Plans," *European Journal of Politics and Gender* 5, no. 1 (2022). See also Paul C. Kirby, and Laura Shepherd, *Governing the Feminist Peace: The Vitality and Failure of the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda* (New York, NY: Columbia University Press, 2024), <https://cup.columbia.edu/book/governing-the-feminist-peace/9780231555852>.
3. North Atlantic Treaty Organization, "Bi-Strategic Command Directive 40-01: Integrating a Gender Perspective into the NATO Command Structure" (October 2021), https://www.act.nato.int/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/Bi-SCD_040-001.pdf.
4. This document is only available upon request. Contact genderadvisor@act.nato.int to request a copy.
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How to Integrate Gender into Military Curricula

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1. Introduction

Chapters 1-3 of this handbook highlight that gender is a core security concern, shaping both the impacts of conflict on diverse populations and the internal dynamics of armed forces. It frames the integration of Women, Peace and Security (WPS) commitments and gender perspectives as operational, institutional, and educational imperatives for the military. In education and training, this means embedding gender analysis not only in dedicated modules but also across all curriculum areas to enhance decision-making, leadership, and operational effectiveness.

Integrating gender into military curricula is vital because it equips personnel with the analytical skills to recognise and address different security impacts, fulfil international obligations, and improve mission outcomes. However, challenges persist since gender may be perceived as irrelevant to “hard security” tasks, faculty may lack expertise or confidence in teaching gender, institutional priorities may sideline it, and assessment practices often fail to capture gender-related competencies. These obstacles can limit both the depth and reach of gender integration, making deliberate, structured approaches essential.

This directly connects to the aim of this chapter – to provide practical guidance on integrating gender into military curricula. This chapter adopts an intersectional approach to gender-based work, like the rest of this handbook. It aims to include all individuals, including those from minority groups. Building on the introduction's rationale, the chapter moves from defining the scope of "curriculum" to explaining why integrating gender into military curricula is essential, then details how to weave gender considerations through the curriculum cycle by discussing common challenges encountered when integrating gender into the curriculum and offering useful responses to these challenges.

2. What is a military curriculum?

The term *curriculum* means "a specific learning programme, a range of courses that collectively describes the teaching, learning and assessment materials available for a given course of study".¹ More broadly, the curriculum refers to these 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*".²

A military curriculum differs from civilian curricula by integrating operational requirements (e.g., combat readiness, strategic planning, logistics), military-specific standards (doctrine, regulations, and procedures), physical, moral, and psychological preparedness for service in high-stress, high-risk environments, and leadership and discipline training aligned with the armed forces' values and mission. In essence, a military curriculum serves both as an academic framework and a professional preparation tool, ensuring personnel are trained to meet mission-specific demands while adhering to military ethics and organizational culture.

Military curriculum, as implemented across North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) Allied and partner nations, represents a structured framework of instruction and experiential learning designed to develop the core competencies, ethical foundations, and leadership capabilities required for effective performance of military roles and tasks. Military curricula are usually grounded in military doctrine and pedagogical rigour, combining formal academic instruction with immersive practical training to ensure operational readiness and professionalism. Foundational programs, such as Basic Military Training, introduce obligations of the profession of arms through military ethos, discipline, and essential tactical skills. Formal academic content typically includes skill-building through research and inquiry. Topics in post-secondary and graduate-level military education can include international and national security, military history, defence policy, civil-military relations, international relations and law, organizational behaviour, resource management, operations, command and control, as well as leadership and ethics – each topic is aimed at cultivating a professional military identity within national and multinational contexts.³

Integrating WPS, gender perspectives, and gender analysis into military education and training strengthens force interoperability, strategic awareness, and leadership effectiveness across NATO and its global partners. In addition to theoretical and methodological capacity building, military curricula often include practical components which emphasize experiential learning which stems from pedagogic insights that individuals achieve greater understanding through active practice, rather than passively receiving information.⁴ Chapter 7 of this handbook provides detailed active learning methodologies in support of experiential learning.

Military curricula take into account the uniqueness of military learners. Like civilian students in post-secondary education and vocational training, military learners comprise adults with diverse experiences, perspectives, skills, and desires. Distinct from civilian learners, military personnel also have professional values, ethos, identity, and

objectives which are specific to military service. You can read more on adult learning principles and transformative learning in Chapter 5 of this handbook. Drawing from Malcolm Knowles' research on adult learners, military training and education can be conceived of as a continuous process of *becoming* military professionals through diversified experiences of thinking and doing.⁵

3. What is the curriculum design process?

The curriculum design process is generally based on the ADDIE [Analyse, Design, Development, Implement, Evaluation] model of instructional design (see Box 4.1). This concept can be traced back as early as the 1950s, but it was only in 1975 that ADDIE was designed and developed for the United States (US) Army, and later implemented across all US armed forces.

Box 4.1 ADDIE model for curriculum design⁶

"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.

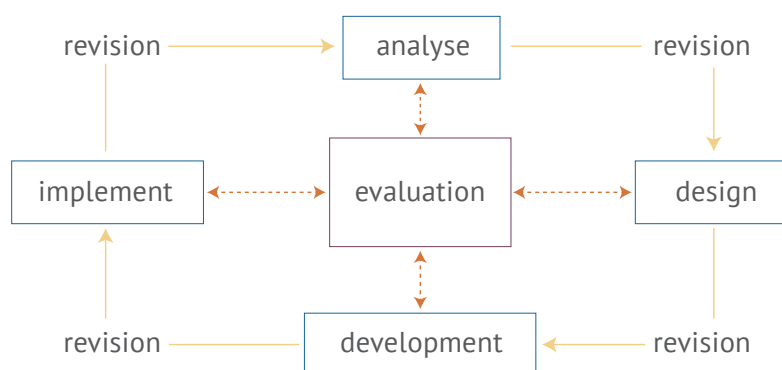
The *analysis* phase can be considered as the "goal-setting stage".

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.



Curriculum design generally follows two taxonomies of learning. The first is Norman Webb's Depth of Knowledge (DOK), which examines the thresholds or 'ceilings' of learning for a specific purpose⁷. It asks how learners are expected to use knowledge, and what level of depth is required. DOK helps educators and trainers to consider the extent to which learners are expected to: memorize information, apply knowledge to complete tasks, use knowledge to analyse problems and explore outcomes, or think extensively to make decisions about complex situations. DOK has four thresholds of learning:

1. Learn and recall information, procedures, facts and definitions (acquiring knowledge).
2. Use theory, concepts and skills to answer questions, respond to problems, complete tasks, as well as analyze conditions and contexts (applying knowledge).

3. Think critically about how and why circumstances and conditions arise, and formulate conclusions, decisions, outcomes and recommendations (analysing knowledge).
4. Think expansively about alternatives, how theory and concepts can be used in diverse hypothetical and real-world contexts (knowledge creation).⁸

Like DOK, Bloom's Taxonomy (cognitive domain) contains a scaffolding approach to learning that layers education and training aims into levels of increasingly higher complexity and capability. More details on Bloom's Taxonomy are provided in Chapter 7 of this handbook. While both taxonomies provide a framework for breadth and depth of learning as well as the characteristics of skills to be developed, "they differ in scope and application"⁹. Each is applied across training and education contexts; however, DOK is more commonly found in science, technology, engineering, and math disciplines, while Bloom's taxonomy is typically applied to the humanities and social sciences. As military training and education crosscut these disciplines, and as both offer complementary ways to advance adult learning, this chapter suggests viewing both as useful frameworks to combine and apply depending on the context, desires of learners, and institutional aims.

4. Mainstreaming gender perspectives in military curricula

4.1 Military operations and mandates require gender learning in the curriculum

Since 2000, international commitments to normative and legal frameworks included within United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 and related resolutions on WPS have precipitated roles, responsibilities, and expected contributions by members of the armed forces. Armed forces personnel are increasingly being called to understand and respond to the disparate and often disproportionate impacts of conflict and crisis on women, men, girls, and boys, including from minoritised groups. To be effective in this domain, military learners require capacities in critical thinking, data collection, and analysis using gender and intersectional perspectives and methodologies such as NATO's Military Gender Analysis Tool, as well as national guidelines, like Canada's Gender-based Analysis Plus. However, successful integration of these concepts and methods in the context of military education requires deep analyses of gender and intersectional social constructions within military culture and the military learning environment by educators and military learners.

As is demonstrated in critical security studies and international relations disciplines, the defence and security of societies has historically been a patriarchal enterprise, where men have traditionally defined security contexts, identities, and the purpose of security sector organisations, as well as the ontologies of war.¹⁰ With these conditions in place, women and girls have generally occupied subordinate socio-economic positions where their access to resources, power, and status in society is subsumed to men and boys. As a result, women and girls experience differential and often disproportionate risks in daily life. As expressed in UNSCR 1325, these risks are only exacerbated in situations of crisis and conflict, as the causes of and solutions to insecurity are also primarily constructed by men. This hegemony of men and masculinities in broader society is also woven into the structural and social fabric of institutions, including Professional Military Education (PME) institutes.¹¹

Thus, military operations that do not incorporate gender perspectives jeopardize the success of their missions by omitting key security risks, needs, and perspectives of socially marginalised groups, like women and girls. Drawing from normative and legal obligations within UNSCR 1325, related resolutions, international and national action plans on WPS, as well as policy and procedures within armed forces, military personnel require requisite skills ranging from collection and analysis of gender disaggregated information, applying international and national legislation, creating, disseminating and applying gender related guidance, policy and reports operationally and institutionally. Each entails capabilities in assessing gender perspectives and applying gender analysis – "skills, knowledge and attitudes that must be developed through education and training".¹² More broadly, militaries must uphold the human rights of women, men, girls, and boys, including those from minoritised groups, at all times. This entails consideration of differential risks to human rights due to gender factors in the conduct

of various operations. Doing so also entails upholding the human rights of all individuals in the context of working with military peers and personnel from institutions outside of the military, such as other governmental departments and non-governmental organizations. Military personnel may be tasked to protect civilians in conflict contexts, and to ensure the needs of minority groups are met in crisis contexts such as pandemics and disaster response. Understanding these responsibilities and applying effective strategies which uphold human rights requires the integration of gender perspectives and analysis in military training and education.

4.2 Identifying and addressing gendered curricula

Renowned gender scholar Raewyn Connell contends that it is important to “think institutionally” about how patriarchy and masculinity operate.¹³ Connell writes that “in the case of gender and schooling” “it is not too strong to say that masculinity is an aspect of institutions, and is produced in institutional life.”¹⁴ Masculinity and the dominance of men can influence what is taught. As examined by Katherine E. Brown and Victoria Syme-Taylor, military curricula are typically already gendered as men’s work and worldviews about security and peace tend to dominate course topics, readings, activities, and presentations.¹⁵ As such, military learners can receive incomplete information about peace and security, as well as the different risks and perspectives of women and other minority groups. Integrating WPS principles (see Chapter 2), gender perspectives and skill development in gender analysis can enable more complete and accurate assessments of the complex real-world problems presented across military education and training.

Curricula inevitably reflect their social and institutional contexts, carrying implicit norms and gendered assumptions. This “hidden curriculum,”¹⁶ as Alan Skelton defines it¹⁷, conveys unspoken messages about knowledge, values, and behaviour, which learners interpret in individual ways. Left unexamined, it risks reproducing existing gender inequalities. Recognising that curricula may carry hidden gendered dimensions reveals that “integrating gender” is not simply adding a module or gender-related readings. It involves uncovering and making visible the ways in which the curriculum already conveys gendered messages.

4.3 The benefits of gender mainstreaming and the risks of ignorance

Gender mainstreaming is an approach to promote and enable gender equality by assessing the implications for women, men, girls, and boys, including those from minoritised groups, of any action, policy, programme or plan in all areas and at all levels.¹⁸ In military education and training, gender mainstreaming comprises awareness raising on gender differences and inequalities, as well as skill building on the analytical and decision-making processes which serve to recognize and incorporate gender considerations within the military’s operational and institutional work.

While gender mainstreaming is a key function of advancing WPS across the UN, NATO, and NATO allied and partner nations, there are important barriers to acknowledge and navigate. Research on the successes and failures of WPS implementation note that while critical for inclusive security, gender mainstreaming can suffer from assumptions that all members of a given institution have the will and ability to make change.¹⁹

Integrating a gender perspective into military curricula makes the topic standardized and mandatory, helping to ensure consistent quality in education and training. Failing to embed gender throughout the curriculum risks undermining the organization’s stated commitments to gender equality and the meaningful participation of women. When treated only as a stand-alone topic, gender often appears as a “box-ticking” exercise, signaling to learners and future leaders that the institution’s commitment is superficial. In contrast, meaningful integration across the curriculum demonstrates both the operational relevance of gender and the institution’s adherence to its publicly declared values. Enhancing the quality of gender instruction also serves broader goals: it strengthens operational effectiveness, supports legal compliance, and reinforces equality and democratic principles.

5. The process: Integrating gender into military curriculum

5.1 The process

Integrating gender in the curriculum is an iterative process with no definitive conclusion. More than just “add women and stir” approaches²⁰, mainstreaming the principles of WPS, and critical gender concepts requires consistent collaborative efforts across faculty, staff and leadership. Integrating gender and intersecting critical concepts should be a requisite facet of existing curriculum development and review processes, and the impacts of this integration should be monitored and evaluated both by the quality assurance specialists and gender advisers. In some military educational institutions, gender is integrated as a cross-cutting topic in all curriculum development and review processes, although this is not the case everywhere.

In this way, it is important to ensure that all key actors are involved to both initiate and support the mainstreaming of gender perspectives and analyses in the design and delivery of curriculum, as well as aligned changes within the broader learning environment. Individual faculty efforts to mainstream gender can create incremental change, but lasting and cohesive integration across the curriculum requires institutional leadership and strong political will. In academic language, key actors could include the chief academic officer or provost, deans of colleges, chairs of departments, programme directors and faculty members. In military terms, key actors could include appropriate military commands or government authorities, commandants of colleges, chiefs of staffs, directing staff, military curriculum development or training officers as well as curriculum review and writing boards. Outside these academic and military hierarchies, important collaborative actors can include learners themselves, academics from other military and civilian institutions, military services or defence departments, as well as interested civil society actors. This network of actors can construct a supportive community of practice from which to develop, implement and review progress on mainstreaming gender perspectives and analyses in military curriculum. Building a collaborative network to integrate gender perspectives into military curricula starts with mapping key stakeholders – learners, instructors, military leadership, civilian and military academics, defence departments, NGOs, and civil society actors – and agreeing on shared goals linked to mandates like UNSCR 1325. Both formal (steering committees) and informal (online groups, shared workspaces) communication channels enable the process. Mixed working groups can co-develop and pilot curriculum materials, gather learner feedback, and refine content. Regular review meetings and anonymous surveys ensure continuous improvement, while institutional support, documentation of best practices, and connections to international defence education networks sustain the effort.

Often, key decision points about military curriculum are made in spaces that can be far removed from educators of curriculum themselves, such as during Training Needs Analyses and Curriculum Review Boards where determinations are made about what to include and exclude in military curriculum, at what developmental level, and for what purpose.²¹ The optimal conditions for mainstreaming gender perspectives and analyses in training and education can include writing official military doctrine, direction, or guidance on WPS and gender perspectives at the highest levels of leadership (such as from Chiefs of Defence Staffs themselves),²² or through the highest level that is customary in relation to change management for each armed force.

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, those working on integrating WPS and gender perspectives in curricula should include staff with gender expertise. Additionally, a diverse team of curriculum developers may ensure deeper level integration due to the addition of lived experience and broader perspectives. Both men and women should be involved in curriculum design and review processes related to WPS. It is important to acknowledge that simply being a woman (or a man) does not make someone a gender expert. Gender expertise requires requisite education and experience in applying gender perspectives to complex issues and contexts. It is therefore crucial to ensure that gender expertise is integrated at every stage of mainstreaming, from writing guidance at the highest levels, to assessing the subjects and conditions of training and education, to monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of this learning in practice as students of WPS in military learning move on to practitioners of gender lenses and analysis institutionally and operationally.²³

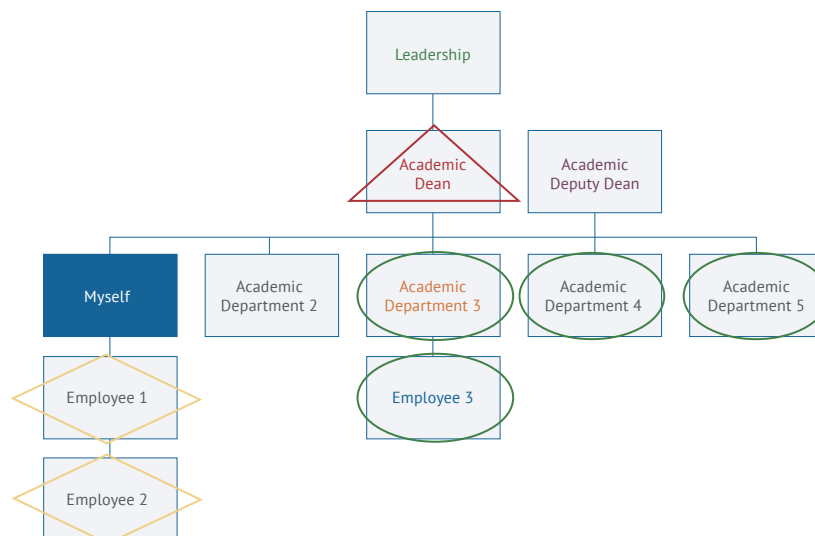
5.2 Getting into the process

Integrating gender perspectives into a curriculum is often a politically sensitive and potentially contentious process, as it challenges hidden curricula and entrenched gender-biased norms, which can unsettle even those supportive of gender equality. As bell hooks observes, 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.”²⁴ Successful integration typically demands negotiation, education, and the support of institutional allies. A practical starting point involves mapping the curriculum review process, identifying supportive individuals, entry points, potential obstacles, and strategies to address them, as illustrated in Box 4.2²⁵.

Box 4.2 Mapping the curriculum process for integrating gender²⁶

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 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



5.3 Understanding institutional dynamics

Mainstreaming WPS, gender perspectives and gender analyses includes applying these to military institutions themselves. In doing so, inequities may be identified which require organizational buy-in and collaboration to change. Working towards change necessitates an understanding of the institutional dynamics at play that can serve as catalysts or barriers. Institutional analyses in relation to commitments of WPS can highlight that there may be military and civilian leaders, personnel, educators and students who resist change and prefer traditional ways of doing things. There may also be larger socio-political institutional contexts that create inertia on equity or optimal conditions for new ideas. As such, it is important to consider how institutions function and what strategies may be used to ensure that changes related to WPS can be effectively implemented and managed.

In some military education spaces, the utility and urgency of WPS, gender perspectives and analysis may be subject to resistance and criticism. As the application of WPS and gender analyses of training and education can uncover and respond to potential barriers for mainstreaming WPS, and in the face of increased politicization of gender equality and equity work, it is important to learn from the lessons identified by military education institutions from getting it right, and importantly learning from others' experiences of getting it wrong.

6. Integrating gender: Practical measures and specific considerations

The preceding sections of this chapter highlight the distinct characteristics of military learners and learning environments, emphasizing why these matter when integrating WPS, gender perspectives, and gender analysis into curricula. Understanding the organizational dynamics of military education – its rules, norms, and culture – is critical, since these factors shape how staff, educators, and learners engage with gender-related content. Such dynamics also determine how effectively learners can apply WPS principles in institutional and operational contexts after their studies. Without recognizing these institutional functions, educators risk overlooking both the barriers that hinder gender mainstreaming and the institutional tools that could support it. This section outlines three additional steps that can help to set conditions for the integration and successful reception of WPS curricula. These steps are: building faculty and trainers' gender expertise; mainstreaming WPS, gender perspectives and gender analysis across the curriculum; and developing gender transformative learning using gender sensitive assessments and evaluations.

6.1 Building faculty and trainers' gender expertise

Military education and training institutions may have faculty and staff with the requisite knowledge and expertise on gender and security. There may be faculty with disciplinary expertise in WPS and practical experience applying gender perspectives and analyses in the field. Drawing on this expertise through collaboration, informal briefings, and faculty development opportunities may be good first steps to initiate a conversation about building in-house capacity for gender expertise. These conversations can help identify faculty and staff who perceive the utility of mainstreaming gender perspectives and analysis in their areas of study but require additional support in closing gaps in their expertise. As military training and education are collaborative practices, it is best not to force unwilling participants but rather to begin by creating space for open dialogue, negotiation, and personal narrative among the willing to explore possible avenues to advance work on WPS while generating ideas on how to address hesitation and resistance to gender mainstreaming.

In the contemporary moment, it is important to consider how deep resistance to gender mainstreaming might be across faculty and staff, noting that, in addition to the military being a masculinised entity, security-related disciplines in academia can contain gender bias and unequal gendered practices.²⁷ It is important to identify a coalition of willing participants among staff and faculty. It is usually initiated by either a senior decision-maker who recognises the importance of gender integration or an educator/researcher who builds momentum by networking, identifying allies, and convening the first meeting. Once formed, the coalition works as a community of practice

to drive curriculum change. This coalition will allow for an assessment of their capacity and needs to integrate gender in curriculum.

At the individual level, faculty and staff can take advantage of existing training opportunities available via NATO's Defence Education Enhancement Programme's Advanced Distributed Learning courses (NATO DEEP ADL) (see Chapter 9). These courses can give staff and faculty a broad understanding of WPS and its implications for military members, specifically in relation to NATO missions.²⁸ The Canadian Defence Academy also offers an online "Women, Peace and Security & Gender Perspectives Curriculum Framework"²⁹ which is tailored to armed forces members applying WPS principles in UN-focused peacekeeping missions.

There are a number of existing networks where experts on WPS, gender and security, and feminist security studies collaborate and convene. Additionally, the Partnership for Peace Consortium, George C. Marshall Centre for Security Studies, Canadian Defence Academy, and Swedish Defence University have developed a Community of Practice on WPS in PME, designed to connect military and civilian educators working to mainstream WPS.³⁰ Trainers and educators can also join academic and civil society networks with an interest in incorporating WPS in higher education, such as the Research Network on Women, Peace and Security.³¹

Drawing from these networks and communities of practice, trainers and educators can provide advice on sourcing subject matter experts across subjects of the curriculum, make suggestions on what research and materials would be relevant across different areas of programming and provide leads for guest speakers to be invited to speak to military audiences on diverse WPS topics. These networks can enable staff and faculty to develop competency across optimal instructional and teaching methods for inclusivity and self-reflection among learners, breadth of knowledge on key gender theories and methods to integrate gender considerations and questions in curricula, and skills to understand and address gender dynamics in the learning environment while supporting respect, inclusion, and challenges to personal/institutional bias and stereotypes. Box 4.3 summarizes suggestions for building the gender expertise of faculty and trainers to fortify the mainstreaming of gender into military curricula.

Box 4.3 Suggestions for building faculty and trainers' gender expertise³²

- Source and develop reference materials for staff and faculty to integrate gender perspectives and analyses across curriculum areas, including:
 - Mapping subject-matter experts to invite as consultants and guest speakers
 - Drawing from resources available in internal and external libraries, data bases, and think-tanks to develop a repository of relevant and up-to-date research, training materials, and data sources
 - Drawing from gender experts to assist in revising curricula and instructional materials where there are gaps in in house expertise
 - Developing a repository of instructional methods, classroom exercises, and activities to introduce gender perspectives (such as case studies, serious games, group exercises, experiential learning and research projects)
- Support faculty and trainers who wish to build their competence on gender, including:
 - Learning about WPS, gender and security, intersectionality, diversity and gendered implications of inequality, conflict and crises on sub-populations
 - Learning about inclusive classrooms
 - Learning how to conduct gender-sensitive assessments and evaluations
 - Challenging gendered and other unequal power structures
 - Promoting women's leadership and roles in decision-making
 - Learning how to empower learners as agents of change in relation to WPS
 - Participating in communities of practice and networks on WPS
 - Developing regular professional development activities on WPS, gender perspectives and gender analysis
- Create faculty development plans to build competencies in applying gender perspectives and analysis
- Collect and analyse sex-disaggregated data as well as qualitative research on staff, faculty and students to identify gaps in representation and opportunities to advance WPS through institutional transformation

6.2 Mainstream gender learning across the curriculum

Mainstreaming WPS, gender perspectives and gender analysis into existing curricula spans three broad themes:

1. the integration of gender concepts, theory and methods into content and materials;
2. the use of learner-centred educational methods that result in transformative learning (see Chapter 5);
3. developing an inclusive learning environment (see Chapter 6).

Such mainstreaming can be supported by first introducing basic concepts, theory and methods, which can then be applied in a cross-cutting way across the remaining curriculum and programming. Doing so ensures baseline requisite knowledge that can be built upon over the course of students' learning, experimentation, and knowledge creation.

Having a gender expert to develop and deliver this baseline learning also ensures clarity of the role of gender and power, how gender constructions influence inequality, instability, and conflict, and how women, girls, and historically minoritised groups experience disproportionate risks, which are exacerbated in times of crisis and conflict. To emphasise national and institutional commitments related to WPS, relevant institutional policy, national laws, and international norms and frameworks should be presented (see Chapter 2), along with specific implications for armed forces related to the conduct of operations and aspirational norms of the institution. These include the UNSCRs on WPS, and their relevance to laws of armed conflict; human rights laws, conventions such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; as well as NATO policy on implementing WPS. The provisions of these normative frameworks should be introduced in relevant parts of the curriculum. WPS, gender perspectives, and analysis can be woven throughout the curriculum and included as bespoke topics within larger courses. It is also helpful to formally integrate WPS into learning objectives (LO), learning outcomes, teaching points, and materials. While it is suggested to first present basic concepts on WPS, gender perspectives and analysis at the beginning of training and education programs as a cross-cutting theme, gender must also be intentionally integrated across core topic areas (such as those represented in NATO PfPC Reference Curriculum as discussed in box 4.4³³).

Box 4.4 Mainstreaming gender in NATO PfPC Generic Officers Reference Curriculum³⁴

Theme	Gender-related 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 different risks, needs, and roles of women, men, girls and boys and their relevance to operational courses of action and outcomes.
	Block 1.3 Staff planning process/Tactics and planning LO 6 – Apply gender perspectives and analysis in operational planning and conduct.
	LO 12 – Recognize the influences of gender in operations and the risks in failing to address them.

Theme	Gender-related LO
2. Command, leadership and ethics	Block 2.1 Ethics of the military profession LO 6 – Discuss how gender and other identity bias (e.g. age, racial) effect human rights and influence unethical decision-making. Block 2.2 Organizational culture LO 2 – Identify problematic cultural norms within the military that lead to gender and diversity marginalization and seek out cultural norms that support inclusion. Block 2.4 Law of armed conflict LO 13 – Explain 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 tailored communications to effectively reach men and women; literate and illiterate audiences; and displaced persons and marginalized groups. Block 3.6 Cultural awareness LO 3 – Apply gender-sensitive cultural analysis and determine their links to the security of the unit and local population.

In addition to integrating gender in content, gender theory, frameworks and methods should be applied to pedagogy. As mentioned above, gender topics can illicit strong responses from learners as they help to make existing injustice, discrimination, and inequality across societies and institutions visible. Acknowledging and working to transform systems of inequality which push women, girls and historically minoritised groups into positions of vulnerability requires pedagogies that facilitate critical thinking about social constructions of power and learners' positions vis-a-vis this power. This practice constitutes transformational learning (see Chapter 5), essential for advancing WPS through military training and education. Generating collaboration, reflexivity, and mindset shifts in learning is key to identifying and addressing harmful institutional and societal stereotypes and practices.³⁵ According to a NATO Scientific Report on integrating gender and cultural perspectives in PME:

As presented in the anthropological and sociological literatures, gender is a key component of social structures in all societies hence needs to be understood as something that varies (significantly) from one cultural context to another. A net result is that all people have gender perspectives; the key is in developing the capacity for individuals to be able to apply gender perspectives other than their own (hence the references above to 'transformative learning', 'learner self-reflection' and 'his/her own value system').³⁶

To do so, facilitation methods must intentionally carve out space for collaboration, personal reflection, and encourage shifts in personal philosophies.³⁷ This type of pedagogic practice requires an inclusive learning environment, where diversity in identity and perspective are respected, and where differences in experience are sought out. In this way, optimal pedagogy for mainstreaming gender perspectives requires attention to hidden curriculum manifest in the learning environment (see Chapter 6).

Box 4.5. contains a checklist for mainstreaming gender learning across the curriculum. This checklist provides practical guidance for embedding gender concepts, perspectives, and inclusive practices across all aspects of the curriculum, ensuring that teaching content, methods, and materials actively promote gender equality and reflect diverse experiences.

Box 4.5 Checklist for mainstreaming gender learning across the curriculum³⁸

- Introduce content on gender concepts, theory and frameworks in curriculum
 - Include concepts like gender, gender equality and gender roles, social construction, social hierarchies, intersectionality, and hegemonic systems;
 - Present normative and legal frameworks on WPS and gender equality including UN Security Council resolutions on WPS, Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Beijing Platform for Action, and the UN Sustainable Development Goals.
 - Present relevant national and institutional policy on WPS and gender perspectives such as regional and national action plans, as well as departmental guidance, implementation plans, gender integration and diversity policy.
 - Present gender analysis tools used by the UN, NATO, and National or Institutional gender analysis tools if available (ex. NATO's Military Gender Analysis Tool,³⁹ Canada's Gender-based Analysis Plus⁴⁰ tool, and UN Women's Gender, Crisis and Conflict Analysis Tool⁴¹).
- Ensure that gender perspectives are considered in all core topics, including those which may not be obvious.
 - Military operations: include gender and cultural perspectives, gender and intersectional analysis, disaggregated data, gender responsive protection needs, and responses to sexual violence, gender requirements for force structure, and specific gender analysis across staff functions.
 - Ethics and international humanitarian law: include codes of conduct, human rights and provisions of international humanitarian law protecting women.
 - Leadership skills: include inclusive and transformational leadership, leading diverse teams, leading institutional change, personnel development, mentorship and preventing sexual harassment and abuse.
 - Communication: develop communication strategies tailored to the needs of diverse genders and sub-populations.
 - Cultural awareness: include awareness of culturally specific gender norms and roles.
 - Use reading materials by women and men with diverse academic disciplines and lived experience, including gender and intersectional 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.
 - Experiential learning visits and activities showcasing lived realities of diverse communities and genders.
- Review exercises, language and images used to ensure they are inclusive. This may include:
 - use of gender-inclusive pronouns (staffing instead of manning, team instead of men);
 - using pictures and images of diverse personnel across gender, ethnicity, and age;
 - using exercises that depict women and men in roles that counter inequitable traditions and stereotypes;
 - ensuring that examples, case studies, and historical references include the experiences of both women and men.

6.3 Planning for gender-sensitive assessment and evaluation

Integrating gender-sensitive assessment and evaluation processes into the curriculum requires a dual approach. First, it is essential to ensure that assessments of both learners and instructors are designed and implemented without gender bias. This involves reviewing evaluation criteria, tools, and processes to identify and eliminate any language, expectations, or assumptions that could disadvantage individuals based on gender. Second, it is critical to assess whether learners have achieved the intended gender learning outcomes, ensuring that gender competence is genuinely developed rather than superficially acknowledged.

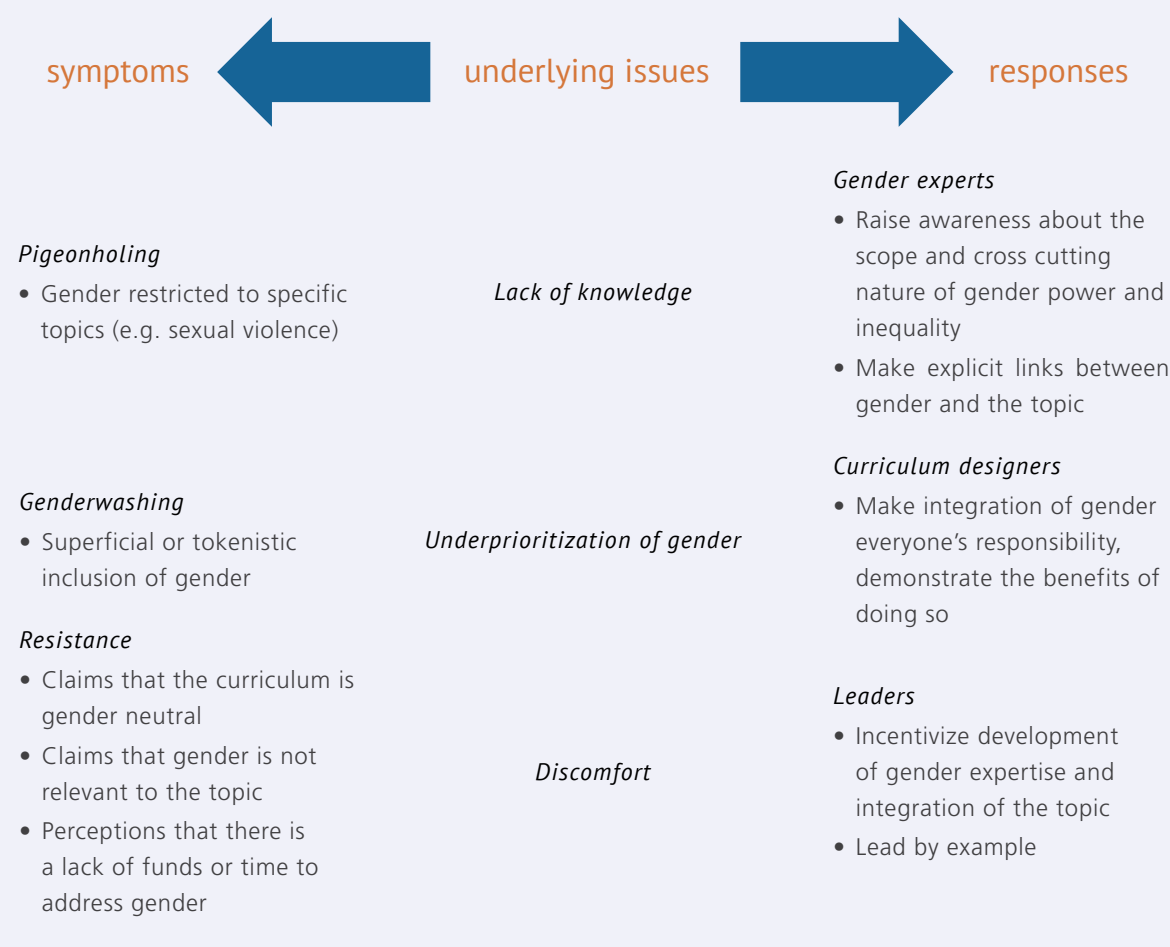
A significant and growing body of research reveals that unconscious gender biases are deeply embedded in societal norms and professional environments. These biases influence how we perceive and judge the competence, suitability, and potential of learners and educators alike. Without deliberate efforts to recognize and counteract these biases in assessment, there is a risk of perpetuating inequalities and undermining the effectiveness of gender mainstreaming initiatives.

To address this, institutions should incorporate gender-sensitive training for evaluators, use diverse assessment methods that capture a broad range of skills and perspectives, and continuously monitor evaluation results for patterns that might indicate bias. By embedding these practices into assessment and evaluation planning, military education institutions can better align with their commitments to gender equality and foster more inclusive learning environments.

7. Common challenges and useful responses in integrating gender

This final section closes with an examination of some common challenges to the process of integrating gender in the curriculum, the reasons behind these challenges and some useful responses from the perspective of key actors – gender experts, curriculum designers and leaders (see Box 4.6).

Box 4.6 Common challenges and useful responses⁴²



7.1 The symptoms

This subsection outlines how challenges to integrating gender in the curriculum, pedagogy and the learning environment may manifest. What follows is not an exhaustive list, but an examination of potential warning signs, and why they are problematic.

Pigeonholing refers to associating gender with limited and specific topics (such as sexual violence in conflict or integrating women in the armed forces) with the implication that expertise and the burden to address these areas is the responsibility of women (eg. example 2 in box 4.8).

Genderwashing refers to surface level, check box, or tokenistic inclusion of gender perspectives – such as the mention of gender concepts, but without meaningful engagement with them. An example of this would be adding one lecture on WPS without any means of integrating these concepts across the curriculum.

Resistance refers to the reluctance or refusal to meaningfully engage with gender concepts. Resistance can come from educators, learners or leadership and can take many forms. Explicit resistance is outright ridicule of gender topics as ‘woke’, ‘politically correct,’ or ‘ideological.’ A damaging but less overt claim is that gender is not relevant to military work, or core military topics. More subtle resistance, may be assertions that curriculum, military policy, and practices are gender neutral or that responsibility for gender equality resides elsewhere, or simply that there are a lack of funds and resources to advance gender equality initiatives.

7.2 Underlying issues

These challenges can be symptoms of underlying dynamics given larger gender inequalities in societies and institutions. In relation to ongoing systemic gender power relations, this subsection attends to key issues and how they can be mitigated.

Lack of knowledge or awareness about gender relations, WPS, gender perspectives and concepts may create resistance to their inclusion. If educators and trainers do not understand how gender dynamics relate to curriculum, they may not consider gender implications as relevant to the topics they teach. A curriculum developer who has not been introduced to how gender operates in the learning environment may miss how curriculum (choices in topics, case studies, authors, teaching methods) reinforce gender norms and stereotypes. Faculty required to integrate gender without the requisite knowledge and understanding may pursue genderwashing. Lack of knowledge can be mitigated by creating faculty development sessions on gender, creating opportunities for working groups and consultations with gender experts, and by following up with trainers, educators and staff with any challenges they encounter with gender mainstreaming.

Under or deprioritization of gender happens due to lack of understanding about gender perspectives or backlash against progress on gender equality. While educators may be supportive of gender equality in principle, they may not perceive the importance of gender to the topics they study and teach, or, they may be told by unsupportive leadership to remove gender considerations and focus on more traditional military analyses. Under and deprioritization may also happen because of incremental curriculum review, where new content replaces older content. If gender perspectives are not prioritized, work to integrate them can be lost overtime, especially in a military context with high turnover of trainers and educators due to posting cycles. Thus, it is important to maintain momentum on gender mainstreaming and develop gender structures such as gender advisor/gender focal point networks and working groups to sustain efforts from year to year. Lastly, under prioritization can occur if gender concepts and skills of students are not formally assessed and if the educators are not incentivized (extrinsically or intrinsically) to include gender in curricula. Students and staff will prioritize areas in which they are assessed.⁴³ Thus, leadership buy-in helps to ensure that gender learning is prioritized in curriculum, pedagogy and the learning environment. Formal assessments of gender mainstreaming can be made with constructive feedback, monitoring and evaluation.

Discomfort and resistance can come from lack of knowledge, challenges from confronting personal bias and privileges, or perceptions that focussing on gender will create unwanted attention and backlash, specifically towards women and other historically minoritized groups. The key to mitigating these challenges is to have regular interfaces with faculty and staff through professional development sessions, experiential learning activities to understand impacts and consequences of gender inequality on diverse groups, as well as opportunities for faculty and staff to share ethical dilemmas and situations where right answers were difficult to ascertain. Working with faculty and staff from other military training and education institutes can be helpful for understanding that these challenges are being experienced by others in diverse cultural contexts and are being addressed in innovative ways.

7.3 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.

8. Conclusion

Integrating gender into military curricula is a continuous, iterative process requiring sustained commitment from all levels. This chapter has outlined the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of this integration, emphasizing its necessity for enhancing operational effectiveness and upholding human rights. By systematically addressing existing gendered assumptions within curricula, building faculty expertise, and employing gender-sensitive pedagogical and assessment practices, military education can foster critical thinking and prepare personnel to effectively navigate complex security environments with a comprehensive understanding of gender dynamics. Overcoming challenges such as resistance and lack of knowledge requires strong leadership buy-in, dedicated gender structures, and a collaborative community of practice committed to advancing gender mainstreaming as a core component of military professionalism.

9. Annotated bibliography

Jennifer Chapin and Verity Warne. *Gender Responsive Pedagogy in Higher Education: A Framework*. International Network for Advancing Science and Policy, 2020. <https://www.inasp.info/sites/default/files/2021-01/Gender%20responsive%20pedagogy%20Framework%20paper.pdf>

This article argues that traditional pedagogic practices can reinforce gender inequalities in the classroom due to educators' insufficient awareness about diversity. It promotes the use of gender-responsive pedagogy to better integrate gender into teaching and learning, detailing what gender-responsive pedagogy might be in curriculum design, classroom dynamics, and assessment. This approach locates traditional power relations in learning and their often-unequal impacts.

Aiko Holvikivi. "Training the Troops on Gender: The Making of a Transnational Practice." *International Peacekeeping*, vol. 28, no. 2, 2021, pp. 175-199. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13533312.2020.1869540>

This paper reviews training mandates of armed forces on the integration of Women, Peace and Security principles as well as gender perspectives. Its findings suggest that common narratives in mandates and training guidance, especially related to peacekeeping operations, establish normative conceptions of gender which are narrowed to the vulnerability to sexual violence, and physical as well as cognitive capacities of gender diverse personnel "rather than political investments or moral values."

Alan Okros, Vanessa Brown, and Victoria Tait. *Integrating Gender and Cultural Perspectives in Professional Military Education Programmes*. Science and Technology Organization, Technical Report Human Factors and Medicine Panel (HFM) 307, 2023. [https://www.sto.nato.int/publications/STO%20Technical%20Reports/STO-TR-HFM-307/\\$\\$TR-HFM-307-ALL.pdf](https://www.sto.nato.int/publications/STO%20Technical%20Reports/STO-TR-HFM-307/$$TR-HFM-307-ALL.pdf)

This report provides staff and faculty of national Professional Military Education programs with research and analyses intended to enable the development of gender and cultural competencies in senior officers. It includes findings and recommendations that enhance interoperability, the effectiveness of NATO-led missions, and relevant national-level objectives with focus on how to effectively mainstream gender and cultural perspectives across curriculum, pedagogy, and the learning environments.

Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations. *Military Gender Analysis Tool*, 2022: <https://www.forsvarsmakten.se/siteassets/english/swedint/engelska/swedint/nordic-centre-for-gender-in-military-operations/ncgm-mgat-tool.pdf>

This military gender analysis tool by NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) assists military personnel to apply gender perspectives and analyses in operational settings, with key considerations for institutional change as well. The NCGP is an advisory committee to the NATO Military Committee – the senior military authority in NATO. The tool provides frameworks familiar to military analyses of operational environments with gender considerations positioned at the forefront of these methods.

Callum Watson. *Gender and Security Toolkit – Tool 3: Defence and Gender*. Geneva: DCAF, OSCE-UNIDIR and UN Women, 2020. <https://www.dcaf.ch/tool-3-defence-and-gender>

This tool assists defence professionals to integrate gender perspectives and promote gender equality by: "fostering leadership buy-in and gender capability, creating a legal and policy framework to achieve gender equality, fostering gender equality and broader diversity within armed forces, integrating a gender perspective into military operations, and by integrating a gender perspective into defence oversight mechanisms." It includes an institutional self-assessment checklist.

Katharine Wright, Matthew Hurley, and Jesus Ignacio Gil Ruiz. *NATO, Gender and the Military: Women Organising from Within*. London: Routledge, 2019. <https://www.routledge.com/NATO-Gender-and-the-Military-Women-Organising-from-Within/Wright-Hurley-Ruiz/p/book/9780367730031>

Using declassified documents, this book analyses the stories of NATO personnel who have organized within NATO on gender issues in the pursuit of transformative change. The book demonstrates how NATO itself is “an institution of international hegemonic masculinity, with gender norms and values learned by member and partner states through socialisation and the engagement of a masculinist protection logic.” The book demonstrates how personnel are integrating Women, Peace and Security as well as gender perspectives to counter these issues.

Endnotes

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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)

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1. Introduction¹

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

Based on numerous theoretical publications on adult learning and transformative learning, this chapter gives an overview of the principles of adult learning, their application in teaching gender to the military and transformative learning theory assumptions relevant to such teaching. The chapter follows the framework set out in the introductory chapters, that is an intersectional approach to gender. All women, men, boys and girls are to be included, especially from minoritised groups.

2. Application of adult learning principles in teaching gender

The end of the twentieth century witnessed the 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 as a synonym for adult learning, and even higher education pedagogy (see Box 5.1).

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 learners’ attitude to learning, the role of the learners’ experience, the learners’ readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation for learning.³

Knowles⁴ 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.

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 (see 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	✓ Analyse and break stereotypes about gender with real-life examples ✓ Underline relevance of gender for operational effectiveness ✓ Connect gender awareness to mission success through concrete operational examples ✓ Present evidence-based research showing how gender perspective improves security outcomes ✓ Share testimonials from respected military leaders who have applied gender perspectives in operations ✓ Highlight NATO and UN requirements for gender integration to establish institutional relevance

Adult learning principles	Adult learning principles in teaching gender to the military
Adult learners learn experientially and are interested more in learning something that has immediate relevance to their job and/or life	✓ 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 ✓ Incorporate gender analysis into tactical decision-making exercises ✓ Design scenario-based learning that requires gender considerations for mission success ✓ Use after-action reviews from recent operations to identify gender-related successes and failures ✓ Develop hands-on exercises for culturally appropriate interaction with local populations
Adult learners prefer problem-based learning rather than content-oriented	✓ 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 ✓ Present complex ethical dilemmas that require gender analysis to resolve effectively ✓ Use collaborative problem-solving for gender-related challenges in operational environments ✓ Implement flipped classroom approaches where learners research gender issues before a discussion ✓ Create decision-making exercises that integrate gender considerations into standard military planning processes ✓ Develop peer teaching opportunities where learners become subject matter experts on specific gender topics
Adult learners need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their learning	✓ 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 ✓ Conduct pre-course surveys to identify specific gender-related challenges in learners' current roles ✓ Create mentorship opportunities with gender advisors in the field ✓ Implement peer assessment for gender integration in planning exercises ✓ Create a cooperative climate in the classroom ✓ Develop practical application projects where learners apply gender analysis to their specific unit or role ✓ Establish ongoing communities of practice where learners continue to share experiences after formal training

From the adult learning perspective, teaching gender to the military should be based on the principles that learners understand 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.

It should be mentioned that contemporary approaches to adult learning highlight the importance of taking an intersectional approach to gender. Adult learners bring with them diverse identities shaped not only by gender, but also by age, ethnicity, class, language, ability and other social factors that intersect and influence their learning experiences. Recognizing these intersections prevents one-dimensional assumptions about learners and encourages the creation of inclusive learning environments that value diversity and multiple perspectives. An intersectional approach to gender in adult education ensures that structural inequalities and power relations are acknowledged, and that equity, representation and meaningful participation are promoted for all learners.

3. The role of the facilitator in adult learning for military gender training

When teaching gender to military personnel, the facilitator's role becomes critical to the learning process. 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. Rather than acting as a content expert who delivers information, the facilitator focuses on creating conditions where adult learners can construct meaningful knowledge through experience and reflection. Thus, the facilitator uses the process-focused facilitation.

Creating psychological safety forms the foundation of effective facilitation in gender training. The facilitator establishes ground rules that encourage open discussion while maintaining respect, which is particularly important when addressing potentially sensitive gender topics in military contexts. This safety allows service members to examine their assumptions without fear of judgment.

Managing group dynamics requires constant attention from the facilitator. They must actively monitor participation patterns to ensure dominant voices don't control discussions and that diverse perspectives receive fair consideration. This becomes especially important when gender representation may be unbalanced within the training group, reflecting the demographics of military units. You can find more on gender dynamics in the classroom in Chapter 6 of this handbook.

A skilled facilitator poses thought-provoking questions rather than providing answers. Through Socratic questioning, they guide learners toward their own insights about gender integration in operations. This approach honours the extensive experience that military personnel bring to the learning environment while challenging them to examine situations through new lenses.

Remaining neutral on contentious points allows the facilitator to serve as an impartial guide during debates about gender roles in military operations. While ensuring discussions remain evidence-based, they avoid positioning themselves as the arbiter of "correct" perspectives, instead helping learners evaluate different viewpoints on their merits. Box 5.3 suggests practical facilitation techniques for teaching gender.

Box 5.3. Practical Facilitation Techniques

Practical Facilitation Techniques	Realization
Scaffold learning experiences	Start with low-risk activities before progressing to more challenging gender scenarios that may challenge military cultural norms.
Provide real-time feedback	Offer observations about group process without judgment, helping learners recognize how gender perspectives affect their decision-making.
Model perspective-taking	Demonstrate how to consider multiple viewpoints when analyzing gender-related operational challenges.
Adjust in response to group needs	Remain flexible to modify activities when encountering resistance or when learners show readiness for deeper exploration of gender concepts.
Connect learner experiences	Help participants identify patterns across their varied operational experiences where gender considerations were relevant.

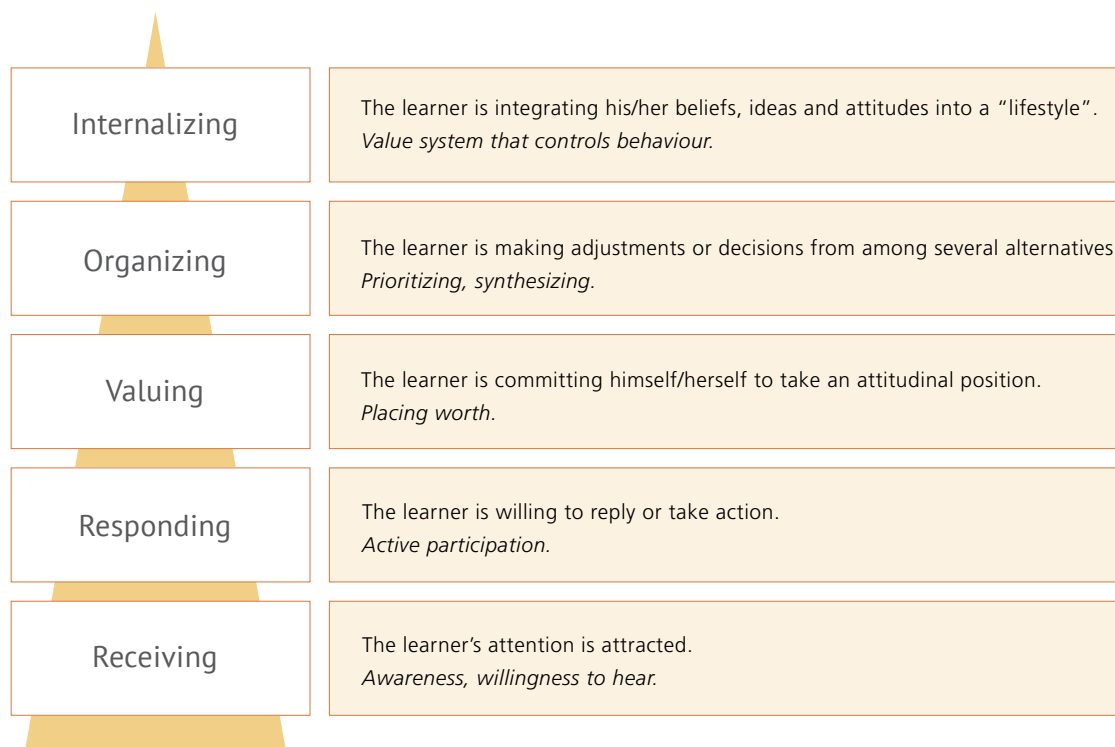
In military gender training, effective facilitators serve as curators and guides rather than content creators, selecting high-quality materials and directing learners to appropriate resources while acknowledging the multidisciplinary nature of gender integration. They consistently prioritize practical application over theory, ensuring abstract concepts translate into concrete operational benefits, and create structured reflection opportunities with targeted questions that help connect training to professional responsibilities. Ultimately, these facilitators function as bridges between gender concepts and operational realities, guiding learners toward discoveries that enhance mission effectiveness through improved gender awareness rather than delivering prescriptive content. Chapter 6 suggests how to optimize the learning environment in teaching gender.

Facilitators in military gender training should integrate an intersectional approach into their practice. By weaving intersectional awareness into facilitation, instructors strengthen inclusion, deepen reflection, and make gender training more relevant to the complexity of military contexts.

4. Changing learners' attitudes when 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).⁵ 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 (see Box 5.4).

Box 5.4 Krathwohl's affective domain⁶

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 internalising gender equality in their value system.

For instance, at the *Receiving* (Awareness, willingness to hear) level, military learners simply acknowledge the existence of gender considerations in operations. For example, a service member attentively listens during a briefing about gender-based violence in conflict zones without dismissing the topic. They might show basic curiosity by asking what gender integration means in military contexts or demonstrate openness by reading assigned materials about gender differences in security needs. This stage is characterised by receptivity without judgment – the learner is willing to consider that gender might affect security operations.

Moving beyond passive reception, at the *Responding* (Active participation) level, learners engage voluntarily with gender concepts. A military officer might actively participate in discussions about local women's security concerns during mission planning or voluntarily share observations from past deployments where gender awareness affected outcomes. Service members might complete optional gender analysis exercises for upcoming operations or raise thoughtful questions about gender implications in tactical scenarios. The key shift is from merely hearing about gender to actively engaging with the concepts.

At the *Valuing* (Placing worth) level, learners recognize the operational utility of gender perspectives. A commander might explicitly include gender considerations in mission planning not because it's required, but because they believe it improves operational effectiveness. A soldier might defend the importance of mixed-gender teams when conducting searches or interacting with local populations based on their conviction that diverse teams yield better results. Learners at this stage can articulate why gender matters beyond policy compliance—they've internalized its value for mission success.

As learners organize their values around gender at the Organization (Prioritizing, synthesizing) level, they begin integrating these concepts with their existing professional identity. A military leader might reconcile traditional combat effectiveness metrics with newer gender-sensitive approaches, developing a cohesive leadership

philosophy that embraces both. They might prioritize gender training for their unit alongside traditional tactical training rather than treating it as an administrative requirement. This stage involves resolving conflicts between competing values—such as between speed of military action and comprehensive engagement with diverse population groups—to form a coherent value system.

At the highest level – *Characterization* (Value system that controls behaviour), gender awareness becomes so integrated into the military professional's identity that it consistently guides behaviour without conscious deliberation. A senior officer naturally includes gender advisors in operational planning at every phase, not as a special consideration but as standard practice. A field commander instinctively considers gender-differentiated security needs when assessing civilian protection requirements or consistently models respectful behaviour that challenges gender stereotypes. These behaviours emerge naturally from the learner's integrated value system rather than from external requirements or conscious effort.

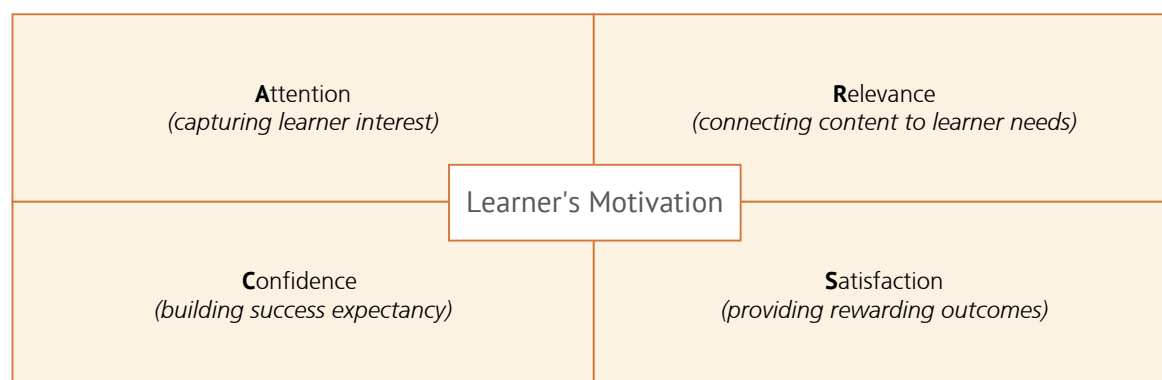
To reach these higher stages of internalization, facilitators should deliberately design learning that moves learners through the affective domain. This can be achieved by linking gender concepts to operational realities, creating opportunities for reflection on lived experiences, and reinforcing behaviours that align with gender-responsive practice. Importantly, this process should also account for intersectional realities, recognizing that gender does not operate in isolation but intersects with rank, age, ethnicity, class and other identities that shape military experiences. By embedding these strategies, gender training goes beyond awareness and equips military personnel with the attitudes and value systems needed to consistently integrate gender considerations into their professional conduct.

5. Keller's motivation model in teaching gender

Motivation is the best tool to make learners willing to hear about gender perspectives. Adults learn best when they are convinced of the need to know the information. Motivation to learn can be stimulated by a life experience or real situation. This fundamental insight into adult learning psychology aligns perfectly with Keller's ARCS model of motivation⁷ (see Box 5.5).

Keller's ARCS model of motivation is an instructional design framework that enhances learning engagement by addressing four key components: Attention (capturing learners' interest), Relevance (connecting content to learners' needs), Confidence (building success expectancy), and Satisfaction (providing rewarding outcomes).

Box 5.5 Keller's ARCS model of motivation



Incorporating Keller's ARCS model of motivation into teaching gender in the military is crucial because gender-related topics often face resistance, scepticism, or a lack of perceived relevance in such highly structured and environments traditionally dominated by men scepticism, or a lack of perceived relevance in such highly structured helps to overcome barriers to engagement, enhance learning retention, and promote meaningful behavioural change.

Gaining and maintaining learners' *attention* is crucial. This can be achieved through engaging instructional methods such as sensory stimulation, thought-provoking questions, and varied exercises that keep the learning environment dynamic. For instance, to capture learners' interest in gender topics, facilitators can use provocative questions or scenarios that relate to real-life situations in the military. Starting a session with a case study about a gender-related incident in a military context can stimulate curiosity and engage learners from the beginning. Additionally, incorporating multimedia elements such as videos or testimonials from service members discussing their experiences with gender dynamics can further enhance attention.

Relevance means that learners see the connection between training and their personal or professional goals. Clearly articulating the benefits of understanding gender perspectives can foster a sense of relevance, making learners more invested in the material. For instance, facilitators can connect gender concepts to operational effectiveness by discussing how diverse teams improve decision-making and mission outcomes. Presenting statistics or research findings that demonstrate the impact of gender-inclusive practices on unit cohesion and performance can help learners understand why this knowledge is essential for their careers.

Building learners' *confidence* is essential for motivation. This can be accomplished by ensuring that learners feel capable of achieving the learning objectives through supportive feedback and manageable challenges. Building confidence in learners involves providing them with opportunities to practice and apply their knowledge in a supportive environment. Role-playing scenarios where learners navigate gender-related challenges can help them develop skills and feel more prepared to handle similar situations in real life. Offering constructive feedback during these activities reinforces their ability to succeed and encourages them to engage more deeply with the material.

Finally, ensuring that learners find *satisfaction* in their achievements will encourage ongoing motivation. To ensure that learners feel satisfied with their learning experience, instructors should recognize achievements and provide positive reinforcement. Incorporating reflective activities where learners can assess their growth and understanding of gender issues will help solidify their learning experience and foster intrinsic motivation.

The *volition* component (sometimes considered part of Keller's extended ARCS-V model) refers to self-regulation, persistence, and effort in learning. In the context of teaching gender in the military, volition ensures that learners stay engaged and apply their knowledge beyond the classroom, even when faced with challenges or resistance. For example, the preparation of a back-home action plan allows military personnel to translate their learning into concrete, actionable steps that sustain motivation and commitment over time. A well-structured back-home action plan, grounded in volition, includes strategies for self-regulation, persistence, and effort in implementing gender-awareness principles in daily military operations.

The 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 further promote gender equality within the learners system of values which, in turn, will influence their behaviour, attitudes and priorities.

By applying Keller's ARCS model in the context of teaching gender, educators can create a more engaging and effective learning environment that not only informs but also empowers learners to internalize gender equality as part of their value system. This approach not only enhances motivation but also promotes lasting behavioural change regarding gender perspectives in military settings.

Motivation is further enhanced when facilitators weave in an intersectional perspective, showing that gender is never experienced in isolation. By framing gender learning within the layered realities of military life, facilitators avoid abstract generalisations and instead spark personal recognition, making the content harder to dismiss and easier to internalise.

6. Transformative learning in teaching gender to the military

Transformative learning is a dynamic educational process that fundamentally alters how learners perceive themselves and their environment. It involves a profound shift in consciousness, enabling individuals to critically reflect on their beliefs and assumptions, leading to significant changes in their worldview and behaviour.

Initially, transformative learning was introduced as an attempt to link education with democracy and the moral dimension of individuals and societies.⁹ 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.¹⁰

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.⁸

Recent developments in transformative learning theory emphasize the importance of emotional processes in facilitating transformation. Research highlights that addressing “edge emotions”—intense feelings associated with disorienting dilemmas—can help learners navigate their emotional responses more effectively. This emotional engagement is crucial for moving through the phases of self-reflection and critical reflection, which are essential for successful transformative learning outcomes.¹¹

Transformative learning assumes that the learner is prepared to develop high-level critical thinking skills, show the ability to apprehend different views and interpretations, be open-minded and 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 worldview 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 the learner, 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 also 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. Boxes 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8 suggest examples of transformative learning activities.

Box 5.6 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 the 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.

Trainer: Nikolina Marčeta, EUFOR¹⁵

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 5.7 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.

Box 5.8 Example of transformative learning – Recommended reading and discussion

Participants: Any

Time: 20-30 minutes of discussion based on the reading

Supplies: Recommended reading

Learning objectives: To discuss thought-provoking reading that supports the topic

Recommend literature to your learners that makes them reflect on gender perspectives, e.g. memoirs and/or biographies of prominent women 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.

Criado-Perez, Caroline, *Invisible Women: Data Bias in a World Designed for Men* (Chatto & Windus, 2019)

Holvikivi, Aiko, *Fixing Gender: The Paradoxical Politics of Training Peacekeepers* (New York: online ed., Oxford Academic, 2024), <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780197774045.001.0001>, accessed 21 Feb. 2025.

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

Transformative learning about gender perspectives in military contexts requires a sustained, carefully structured approach to be effective. The process typically unfolds over months or even years, as military personnel need time to examine deeply ingrained cultural norms and institutional practices related to gender. Traditional military culture, with its historically masculine orientation, presents unique challenges that resist quick-fix solutions. Effective gender education in this setting moves beyond simple awareness training to facilitate a critical examination of how gender shapes operational effectiveness, unit cohesion, and leadership dynamics. Programs that achieve lasting impact generally incorporate multiple touchpoints throughout a service member's career, creating opportunities to revisit concepts at different ranks and responsibility levels. This extended timeline allows personnel to progress from initial resistance or scepticism through stages of reflection, contextual application, and, eventually, integration of gender-aware perspectives into their professional identity and leadership approach. The most successful military organizations recognize that transformative gender learning is not a one-time training event but rather a developmental journey that parallels and enhances broader professional military education.

An intersectional perspective strengthens transformative learning by pushing learners to recognize that gender is always entangled with other dimensions of identity and power. When service members confront not only gender stereotypes but also how these intersect with rank, culture, or operational context, the disorienting dilemmas become sharper, the reflections deeper, and the dialogue more grounded in lived realities. This layered approach accelerates the shift from surface awareness to genuine transformation, making gender learning both more challenging and more enduring.

7. Conclusion

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. Teaching gender in the military requires an approach that goes beyond simply transmitting information – it must engage adult learners, challenge existing attitudes, and encourage long-term behavioural change. By applying adult learning principles, facilitators can create an educational environment that acknowledges military learners' experiences, fosters critical thinking, and ensures that gender perspectives are understood as relevant to operational effectiveness. Keller's ARCS model of motivation enhances this learning process by ensuring that attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction are addressed, overcoming resistance and making gender education more engaging and applicable. Likewise, transformative learning provides a framework for deeper reflection, encouraging military personnel to critically examine their assumptions about gender and integrate new perspectives into their professional identity. A learner-centred, participatory, and reflective teaching approach is essential for fostering a deeper understanding of gender perspectives in military contexts. Within this, an intersectional approach adds depth by ensuring that gender is not treated in isolation but understood in relation to the broader social and institutional dynamics that shape military life. Facilitators should create an environment where military personnel can discuss, question, and apply gender concepts in a way that resonates with their real-world experiences. By integrating these educational strategies, gender training can become a powerful tool for enhancing operational effectiveness, promoting inclusivity, and strengthening mission success.

8. Annotated bibliography

Baumgartner, Lisa M. "An update on transformational learning". In *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, special issue, No. 89 (2001), 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, Benjamin S. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. 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, Katherine E., and Victoria Syme-Taylor. "Women academics and feminism in professional military education". *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion*, Vol. 31, No. 5/6 (2012), 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. Carolyn. "Transformational learning". *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 57 (1993), 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, Patricia. *Understanding and Promoting Transformative Learning*. 2nd ed. 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), 359–374.

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

Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*. Free Press, [1916] 1966.

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

Henschke, John. 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*. 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.

Holvikivi, Aiko. *Fixing Gender: The Paradoxical Politics of Training Peacekeepers*. Online ed. Oxford Academic, 2024. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780197774045.001.0001>.

Fixing Gender is a book about the epistemic life of the term ‘gender’ and the political work that this lively concept does. In recent years, gender training has become the go-to solution for any number of institutional issues. Among others, it has become a requirement for soldiers and police officers deploying overseas as peacekeepers. Through such training, ‘gender’—a term with critical feminist lineage—is taken up by martial institutions shaped by hegemonic masculinity. This conceptual travel poses important questions for feminist theorizing and political advocacy: What epistemic and political work does ‘gender’ come to do in these spaces? Fixing Gender sets out to explore what meaning the term is imbued with in this practice and, consequently, what political work gender training does. Drawing on extensive textual analysis of training materials and participant observation across varied geographic regions, this book follows the concept into institutions of state power, investigating how gender is framed as an analytical category and operational problem. It explores how knowledge about gender is produced in gender training settings, and what dynamics of translation, negotiation, and resistance are involved. This inquiry sheds new insight into the political potential and dangers associated with travelling concepts. Drawing on queer and postcolonial feminist thought, Fixing Gender argues for attending to contradiction and complexity in endeavours such as gender training, highlighting the urgent need to develop feminist conceptual vocabulary to contend with paradoxical politics.

Ignelzi, M. “Meaning-making in the learning and teaching process”. In M. B. Baxter Magolda (ed.), *Teaching to Promote Intellectual and Personal Maturity: Incorporating Students’ Worldviews and Identities into the Learning Process*. 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.

Keller, John, M. “Motivation, Learning, and Technology: Applying the ARCS-V Motivation Model”. *Participatory Educational Research (PER)*, Vol. 3, No 2 (2016), 1-15. http://www.perjournal.com/archieve/issue_3_2/1-per_16-06_volume_3_issue_2_page_1_15.pdf

The ARCS-V model (an acronym for attention, relevance, confidence, satisfaction, and volition) contains a synthesis of motivational and volitional concepts and theories that provide a foundation for a motivational design process that has been validated in many contexts (Keller 2010). This paper begins with a listing of many of the technology applications and delivery system options that are now available to instructional designers and teachers, but then goes on to describe learner motivation challenges that still occur despite these innovations. Part 2, the major part of the paper, describes the ARCS-V motivational synthesis and how to apply it to identify motivational characteristics and problems of learners together with a systematic process for designing and implementing motivational solutions. This design approach includes a 10-step process as well as a simplified version of the process to aid in lesson and module planning. It also includes a self-reflective checklist that an instructor can use to identify which aspects of motivation are satisfactory and which require strengthening. The final part of the paper provides examples of motivational strategies and a case description of the motivational enhancement of an instructional module in three different delivery contexts: classroom instruction, blended learning, and eLearning.

Kitchenham, Andrew. "The evolution of John Mezirow's transformative learning theory". *Journal of Transformative Education*, No. 6 (2008), 104. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249634386>

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, Malcolm S., Elwood F. Holton III and Richard A. Swanson. *The Adult Learner: The Definitive Classic in Adult Education and Human Resource Development*. 6th ed. 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, David R., Benjamin S. Bloom and Bertram. 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). https://www.oregonschoolofmassage.com/wp-content/uploads/2021/02/SpeakingofTeaching_ResourceBkpdf.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 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, Jack. "Transformative learning: Theory to practice". *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 74 (1997), 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, Dorine. "Gender, identity, and diversity: Learning from insights gained in transformative gender training". *Gender & Development*, Vol. 12, No. 1 (2004), 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. I discuss four insights from training that have important implications for organizational transformation in relation to gender and diversity.

"Teaching with Gender" Book Series. <https://atgender.eu/category/publications/volumes/>.

The book series "Teaching with Gender" collects articles on a wide range of teaching practices in the field of gender.

Fang, Xiaoxuan, Davy Tsz Kit Ng, Jac Ka Lok Leung, and Huixuan Xu. "The applications of the ARCS model in instructional design, theoretical framework, and measurement tool: a systematic review of empirical studies". *Interactive Learning Environments*, Vol. 32, No. 10 (2023), 5919–5946. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2023.2240867>

The Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction or ARCS model is an effective motivational model that has been widely accepted by education practitioners. Literature on the ARCS model has focused primarily on aspects of educational settings, research methods, and outcomes. However, few studies have addressed the applications of the ARCS model based on its role in educational research. This review study investigates what and how the ARCS model has been adopted in existing literature from 2011 to 2022. 55 empirical studies were identified and analyzed in three dimensions: instructional design, theoretical foundation, and measurement tools. The instructional design sums up pedagogical approaches, learning outcomes, and effects of the ARCS model. The theoretical framework outlines the roles and other theoretical frameworks integrated with the ARCS model. The measurement tools report versions and reliability of the Instruction Materials Motivation Survey (IMMS). This study contributes to strengthening our understanding of the ARCS model applied in the three dimensions. Lastly, a set of limitations and recommendations for future research are summarized.

Endnotes

1. This second edition is an update to the version published in 2016. The authors would like to thank Miriam Fugugosh for providing written comments on an earlier version of 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 ed. (Kidlington: Elsevier, 2005).
3. Knowles et al., note 2 above.
4. Ibid.
5. Benjamin S. Bloom, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1956).
6. David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom and Bertram B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Book II: Affective Domain* (New York: David McKay, 1964).
7. John M. Keller, *Motivational Design for Learning and Performance: The ARCS Model Approach* (Springer US, 2009).
8. M. Carolyn Clark, "Transformational learning", in *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 57 (1993), 47–56.
9. John Dewey, *Democracy and Education. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education* (New York: Free Press, [1916] 1966).
10. 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), 24–38.
11. Patricia L. Carter, Aliko Nicolaides, "Transformative learning: An emotional (r)evolution", in *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education: An Update on Transformative Learning*, No. 177 (2023), 1-133, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.20476>.
12. Jack Mezirow, "Transformative learning: Theory to practice", in *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, No. 74 (1997), 5–12.
13. Sharan B. Merriam and Barbara Heuer, "Meaning-making, adult learning and development: A model with implications for practice", *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 15, No. 4 (1996), 243–255.
14. Ruth Deakin Crick and Kenneth Wilson, "Being a learner: Virtue for the 21st century", *British Journal of Educational Studies* 53, No. 3 (2005), 359–374.
15. Analee Pepper, "Gender Training for the Security Sector: Lessons Identified and Practical Resources" (Geneva: DCAF, 2012), 44–45.
16. Kelly McGonigal, "Teaching for transformation: From learning theory to teaching strategies", *Speaking of Teaching: The Center for Teaching and Learning* 14, No. 2 (2005), 1–5.

Optimizing the Learning Environment: Addressing Gender Dynamics in the Classroom

Callum Watson (Small Arms Survey)¹

CONTENTS

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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 gender-diverse individuals 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 identify, adapt and leverage 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;
- outlining how gender dynamics can serve as course content in the form of ‘teachable moments’;
- 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 aspects of the classroom environment, namely teaching content, language, learner participation, appraisal and access to faculty, educational resources and online teaching. Good practices for promoting a gender-equal learning environment are outlined under each of these six 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 between learners in all their diversity 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 their age, rank, service history, race, religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity (i.e. the degree to which learners conform to socially ascribed gender roles), as well as how others perceive these factors in a specific learning environment.

Instructors working in the field of military education need to consider the gender dynamics of their classroom because it can have lasting impacts on both learners and the institution itself. By shaping perceptions of gender-related behaviours, norms and expectations, they can influence the institution’s culture, the individuals and skills that are most valued, and ultimately the allocation of ranks and roles in the military. They also play a critical role in operational effectiveness by preparing – or not – personnel to work in diverse teams, which is especially important in multilateral operations undertaken by NATO and its partners in contexts that may be very different to the home environment of personnel. Moreover, gender dynamics impact the affective domain (see Chapter 5) and thus the degree to which learners internalize the values of equality, human rights and democracy that their respective institutions are mandated to defend. Broadly speaking, by considering gender dynamics in the classroom, instructors have the power to influence several aspects of how their institution functions:

1. Ensuring fair, competency-based access to ranks and specialized roles in the military³

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, at what rank and what skills and competencies they are encouraged to develop. Thus to ensure that military roles are staffed by those who have the best command of the actual skills required to achieve operational effectiveness, learner assessment needs to reflect ability across a comprehensive range of skillsets, and must not be influenced by conscious or unconscious biases. This

is important because contemporary military missions require well-rounded personnel with multifaceted skillsets that encompass both masculine-coded skills (such as those related to combat and the use of physical strength) and feminine-coded skills.⁴

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 they are perceived and valued by their peers in these roles. Indeed, studies on barriers to women’s meaningful participation have identified that a lack of confidence coupled with a culture of gender stereotyping and social exclusion,⁵ rather than a lack of competence, can dissuade women from applying for roles they would likely excel in.

3. Preventing the reproduction of social orders characterized by gender inequality⁶

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. On the other hand, if women and men are rewarded for working together as equals, the classroom environment can help foster an inclusive *esprit de corps*, which is essential for a modern military.

4. Facilitating learner self-reflection and building awareness of inequality⁷

By openly discussing gender and diversity, and challenging gender and other forms of 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), an instructor can shape a learner’s behaviour for the rest of their career. In this way, both the classroom and the learner’s work environment serve as content for learning – both during and after the teaching itself.



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.⁸

Dr Christopher Kilmartin

5. Encouraging openness to hearing the different perspectives of women, men, girls and boys⁹

An instructor can influence how the learners perceive the subject they teach. For example, if classes on 'security' primarily reflect traditional notions of state security, learners may have the impression that it pertains largely to controlling territory, critical infrastructure and supply routes. If classes on 'security' incorporate human security dimensions and perspectives of civilians who have lived through conflict, 'security' can be understood as also preventing threats such as sexual violence, violent crime, food insecurity and health epidemics. In other words, instructors can ensure that both men's and women's voices are heard in the classroom – including those of their own learners – and can demonstrate to others the value that this brings (see Box 6.1).

Being aware of classroom gender dynamics can therefore enable instructors realize the power they have in shaping gender norms in the institution for the better. Small changes to promote gender equality in their immediate classroom environment 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 instructors to make their classroom environments more “democratic” and inclusive of all learners.

Box 6.1 Women in peace processes – a relevant lesson for educators¹⁰

Studies show that “women’s direct participation in peace negotiations with voice increases the quality and durability of peace” and that “peace processes with broad societal support, agreements with a high number of provisions that represent a socio-political reform agenda, and high implementation rates for agreement provisions during the post conflict period most likely result in durable peace.”¹¹

This is not an indication that women are inherently more peaceful. Rather, it highlights that the perceptions of insecurity by many military leaders, such as physical security threats to the state, are not always widely shared by large parts of the population who may be more concerned by injustices and the lack of access to food, land, health and education in their daily lives. Ensuring that women, especially those from civil society, meaningfully participate in security discussions can lead to a better understanding of the underlying security needs of the population – civilian and military women, men, girls, boys and gender-diverse individuals – and thus their motivations to support conflict or to engage in peace efforts. Changing the nature and format of policy discussions in a way that encourages diverse participation, respect for different opinions and unconventional topics to be raised can also shift the kinds of topics men feel comfortable raising in security-related settings. Classroom settings also provide an opportunity to simulate inclusive discussions and facilitate experiential learning on the benefits of a more holistic and multifaceted approach to complex, topics such as those related to conflict.

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

Gender dynamics in the classroom influence participation, engagement, and learning experiences. Six aspects can be highlighted in this respect: educational content, the language used in the course delivery, class participation, learner appraisal, access to faculty and educational resources, and online teaching and learning space.

3.1 Educational content

The content that is chosen for a course reflects what the instructor, and others who designed the curriculum, feel that a learner ought to know on a given topic in order to achieve a given objective. What resonates most with instructors and curriculum designers, however, is based on their prior knowledge, assumptions and experiences which, in turn, are determined by their gender and other intersecting aspects of privilege and oppression.

Educational theorists have explored how content – and especially literature – can include or exclude learners using the metaphor of “mirrors”, “windows” and “sliding glass doors”. A “mirror” describes books that learners can identify with, because the stories, contexts and characters reflect aspects of their own lives. A “window” describes books where the stories, context and characters reflect the lives of people different to that of the reader. A “sliding glass door” describes books that invite the reader to pass through a window in their imagination and find a connection with a world they were not previously familiar with.¹² In military education, if content is illustrated with examples that only reflect the experiences of groups that have traditionally dominated the military, this is likely to create divisions. The “in-group” will be those for whom these examples are “mirrors” and the “out-group” will be those for whom these examples are “windows”.

An inclusive learning environment would ensure that, for each individual learner, the content reflects a balance of “mirrors” that resonate with learners, and “windows” that allow them to learn about people who are different to them. When it comes to teaching gender, ensuring that the content includes cases that resonate with different groups of women, men and gender-diverse individuals can provide a more enriching learning experience that engages everyone. Better still, content that includes “sliding glass doors” can challenge learners (especially from dominant groups) to imagine living the lives of others, thus fostering empathetic connections and allowing them to identify commonalities and appreciate differences.

Box 6.2 Women in the Canadian military



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 women as 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 texts, 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 6.2). For example, it is often the case that pictures of military personnel portray predominantly or exclusively men who adhere to stereotypical masculine norms, and the civilians depicted are all women or children. This can hide the long history women have as combatants in conflict settings,¹³ 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.

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 6.3). 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.¹⁴ Instructors should therefore only assume their participants know what is in prerequisite courses. Learner-centred and participatory learning approaches (see Chapter 5), active learning and formative

assessment techniques (see Chapter 7) can be used to ensure that the whole class has reached the learning outcomes before introducing new content.

Box 6.3 Women in the engineering classroom¹⁵

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 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.”

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.¹⁶
- ✓ Instructors educate themselves about their learners’ different cultural backgrounds.
- ✓ Learner-centred and participatory learning approaches, active learning methods and formative assessments encourage knowledge sharing between the learners and ensure that the whole class has reached the learning outcomes.

3.2 Language used in course delivery

Box 6.4 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 6.4 The gender dimensions of language

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

	Example	Observations
Gender-biased	<i>When a soldier goes into battle, his primary concern is to protect women and children.</i>	<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.
Gender-neutral/blind	<i>When soldiers go into battle, their primary concern is to protect civilians.</i>	<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.
Gender-inclusive	<i>When a soldier goes into battle, his or her primary concern is to protect civilian women, men, girls and boys.</i>	<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.
Gender-transformative	<i>The women and men commanding this mission identified that civilian men were primarily at risk of being killed; the primary concern for women is losing access to their land as they may not inherit it if their husbands are killed.</i>	<i>Introducing complexity:</i> This example demonstrates the necessity of a comprehensive approach that addresses actual physical and human security threats identified through a gender analysis. It explores how conflict inevitably disrupts gender relations, yet seeks to instil empathy in learners with familiar narratives that many may identify with.

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 generic 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 feminine language as a generic form.¹⁷ 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 referred to as “girls” (i.e. 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” causes 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 6.5). 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. A study of peacekeepers found that women and men who had deployed, contrary to those who had not, listed the ability to communicate with the local population as the most important skill.¹⁸ Box 6.4 explores the more nuanced dangers of seemingly positive stereotypes.

Box 6.5 “Benevolent” sexism¹⁹

“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 women personnel the day off before a national holiday 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 (reward-and-punishment) 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”²⁰ 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 dominated by men and also followed more closely by groups of men from particular racial, class and geographical backgrounds.

Moreover, in multinational training contexts, instructors (especially those who do not speak a second language or who lack experience working under commanders from other countries) may inadvertently exclude learners by using slang, colloquialisms, metaphors or military jargon. Expressions like “cock-up” or “snafu” to mean a disruption, “chow hall” or “mess” to mean dining room, or “bog”, “dunny”, “jacks” or “washroom” to mean a toilet are difficult to understand for some English native speakers, let alone those who speak English as a second language. Providing glossaries, definitions and materials in advance can allow learners new to a given context to prepare. Instructors can create learning opportunities by asking learners to explain terminology that others may not understand.

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 men’s and women’s 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, women and men *but not* “men and girls” (e.g. men are adults and women are children).
- ✓ 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.
- ✓ Instructors create a “call-in” culture where learners agree to intervene if they find language discriminatory, but in a constructive way that assumes that the speaker did not intent to offend.
- ✓ Instructors identify terms that may be unfamiliar to some learners, and provide explanations as well as materials in advance so that learners can prepare.

3.3 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.²¹ Where gender is concerned, this may tend to turn men in the classroom into “knowers” and their women counterparts into “listeners” irrespective of their relative level of knowledge or academic performance.²² 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.²³

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 class. 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.²⁴

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.²⁵ Moreover, female learners tend to make shorter statements that are often prefaced in a more hesitant way (e.g. by using words like “perhaps” and 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.²⁶

When divided into small groups and given a set task, research has indicated that female learners often take on more leadership roles (as long as the group is relatively gender-balanced or a majority are women). While such learning environments can be positive for both genders, it was found that in woman-dominated groups, men often demand attention and additional support from the rest of the group in order to complete their individual contributions to the group task. Where men 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.²⁷ 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

An additional aspect to consider is the division of classroom tasks. In both full-class and small group work settings, more male learners end up doing demonstrations that involve equipment while the female learners are pushed into more “secretarial” roles.²⁸ 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. On the other hand, assigning dominant characters in the classroom with “secretarial” roles can be a way to encourage them to observe gender dynamics and foster self-reflection.

Learners not working in their native language

Courses on gender or that mainstream gender benefit greatly when women and men from diverse backgrounds participate. Learner-centred participatory learning environments can however be intimidating to non-native speakers of the language of instruction, especially for learners more accustomed to lecture-style formats. For some learners, working in pairs or in breakout groups can be easier. Others prefer to read prepared statements

that have been checked by an instructor beforehand. Instructors who find creative ways to include diverse voices in their classes will better achieve the learning outcomes when compared to those who assume that non-native speakers are naturally quiet, or that they cannot participate until they improve their language skills.

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.²⁹
- ✓ The ground rules are reviewed periodically, discussed by the class and modified if necessary.³⁰
- ✓ 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.³¹
- ✓ 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.³²
- ✓ Learners represent their own opinions, and are not permitted/expected to representative the views of groups they are perceived to belong to.
- ✓ 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.³³ 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.³⁴
- ✓ Instructors refer back to (especially quieter) learners’ written or spoken comments later on.³⁵
- ✓ 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.³⁶ It can also involve providing especially non-native speakers alternative ways of expressing themselves.
- ✓ 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).³⁷
- ✓ Instructors prevent learners from being interrupted when they are speaking; failing this, learners are given the opportunity to finish making their point.³⁸
- ✓ If a learner dominates the discussion, instructors can assign them with a task that involves listening, such as a class rapporteur or observer.
- ✓ 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.³⁹
- ✓ 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).⁴⁰
- ✓ 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 outcomes for the lesson/session, the statement/behaviour is flagged for future discussion.

3.4 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 6.6).⁴¹ 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.⁴² 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 institutions 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.⁴³

There is also evidence of gender bias in formal assessment. If there is an overreliance on assumed knowledge (see Section 3.1) or gender bias in the educational content (see Section 3.2), then there is a risk of examinations assessing untaught information, terminology and skills.

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.⁴⁴ Box 6.8 provides an overview of current research into the actual reasons why women and girls have begun to outperform men and boys academically.

Instructor appraisal

Studies examining instructor appraisal have noted that female and male instructors are often evaluated differently by their learners (see Box 6.6). 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, women 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 6.6 The different appraisals received by male and female instructors

Recent studies suggest that the tendency for women to be judged more harshly in student appraisals may be fading, possibly because having a female instructor has become more normalised. In addition, learners seem to rate their own gender slightly more favourably and the gender balance of students has become more equal.⁴⁶ There are persistent differences, however, on what women and men are assessed on. For example, Benjamin Schmidt tested this by creating a database using millions of reviews from the website, Rate My Professor, and coding them based on the gender of the instructor.⁴⁷ He found that men were more likely to be judged (positively or negatively) on whether they were “smart” or “dumb”, “boring” or “interesting” and “cool” or “weird”. Women, on the other hand, were more likely to be judged on whether or not they were “helpful”, “organized” or “friendly”.⁴⁸ While many female instructors have complained that their evaluations refer to clothing rather than their teaching⁴⁹, Schmidt’s study (which uses a database of reviews by students for students) found that women and men were equally likely to receive comments on their looks, such as “hot” and “sexy” in equal measure.⁵⁰

These differences may sound trivial at first, and formal evaluations may show different results, student appraisal can affect an instructor’s prospects of gaining promotions and being given tenure. In particular, Schmidt highlights that the criteria women are judged on (such as helpfulness) often require greater investments in time meaning that women may have to work harder to achieve the same level of positive feedback as men.⁵¹

Another factor is that learners may perceive women and people from minority groups 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 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.⁵² 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 active steps to ensure that men and women 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 a variety of ways 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 knowledge presented in the class and prerequisite classes, or research undertaken as part of the course, 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.⁵³
- ✓ 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).⁵⁴

3.5 Access to faculty and educational resources

Unequal access to faculty



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.”⁵⁵

Professor Lynn Weber Cannon

The access an individual learner has to teaching staff as well as to mentors will have an impact on their academic performance and also the subject areas, specialisms and careers that they ultimately pursue. 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.⁵⁶ 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 ranging from subject-matter specialists in educational assignments, mentors and perhaps being able to facilitate 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.⁵⁷ 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.⁵⁸ A study of peacekeepers also found that extra-curricular activities were vital to ensuring social cohesion within units and teaching personnel how to trust and cooperate with each other. Those institutions that encouraged mixed-gender activities such as sports and problem-solving games demonstrated a higher level of cohesion between women and men within units.⁵⁹

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 6.7).⁶⁰ In some cases this may be formalized, but in many situations, socialization means that dominant social groups (which tend to be dominated by men) 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 6.7 Gender inequality in educational sport spending: The case of higher education in the USA

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.⁶¹ This should also apply to sporting activities. Despite significant improvements over the last fifty years, and even though women make up 58% of college students overall⁶², inequalities persist (figures from 2019-20):⁶³

- 86% of National College Athletic Association institutions offer a disproportionate rate of athletic opportunities to men.
- men received US\$252 million more in athletic scholarships than women.
- 30% of the funding for recruiting talented athletes to compete at college level targeted women.
- on average, coaches of women’s teams are paid between 19 and 49% of the salary of coaches of men’s teams (depending on the sport).

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 world⁶⁴ (see Box 6.8). In response, these young men develop an alternative value system where they are able to earn the respect of their peers through other means (such as acting up in the classroom or owning status symbols like new phones). 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.⁶⁵ 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".⁶⁶ For example, those with privilege tend to have "unmarked" identities ("pilot"), whereas those who lack it have marked identities ("black woman pilot").⁶⁷ 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.⁶⁸

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 6.8 Why do women and girls outperform men and boys academically?

More women have university degrees than men in all but one member state of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and in 2023, there were 1.4 women graduates at bachelor or master's level for every man graduate.⁶⁹ Although there are variations in specific countries, boys in secondary school still outperform girls in mathematics by an average of nine per cent whereas girls outperform boys in reading by 24 points.⁷⁰ Overall, however, girls outperform boys in both core subjects and in creative thinking, and boys' performance is disproportionately affected by their socio-economic background.⁷¹

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.⁷² It is also true that women are underrepresented in higher-paid 'masculine' STEM fields, whereas men are underrepresented in lower paid 'feminine' fields related to education, arts and humanities.⁷³ Girls' higher educational attainment does not translate into workplace equality: men who graduated from tertiary education are still 7 percentage points more likely to be in full-time work, which is partly attributed to women being pressured to take more parental leave and partly because women need to be overqualified for the jobs they want to apply for to compete on an equal basis with men.⁷⁴ Consequently, young women working full time earn around 85% of what their equally qualified men earn.⁷⁵

Alternative explanations for women's higher attainment 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.⁷⁶ 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.⁷⁷

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 – and especially creative thinking. 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.

3.6 Online teaching and learning spaces

Teaching using online platforms and video conferencing services (e.g. Zoom, Microsoft Teams) grew rapidly during the COVID-19 pandemic. Its enduring legacy provides new opportunities for learners who might otherwise be prevented by financial limitations, family constraints or immigration restrictions from pursuing courses in other countries. There is evidence that gender balance in online education is rapidly moving towards parity as women in particular find it more accessible from the perspective of travel, safety and balancing caregiving roles.⁷⁸ Online learning, however, has particular gender dynamics that instructors need to be aware of.

Participation

Many of the points on class participation in section 3.3 of this chapter also apply in virtual settings, although the dynamics and available tools are different in the online classroom. For example, it can be harder to prevent interruptions by dominant learners if instructors have not established protocols such as using the 'raise hand' function to take the floor. At the same time, in large groups where individual video windows are small or instructors cannot see all participants, it can be more difficult for less confident learners to indicate that they would like to speak using nonverbal cues like gestures and eye contact.⁷⁹ Studies also suggest that instructors are (unconsciously yet significantly) more likely to react to written comments from men and people from dominant ethnic groups.⁸⁰

Another issue affecting participation is that screen-based teaching methods can draw greater attention to how a person presents themselves. As video conferences are often taken in domestic settings, participants gain a glimpse into the personal lives of learners and instructors. This can be especially problematic for women as both learners and instructors. If they are interrupted by their children (as mothers in heterosexual couples take on up to 20 hours more housework than fathers⁸¹), they risk being seen as unprofessional or uncommitted. Conversely, they may be judged poorly if laundry or dishes are visible in the background.⁸² Men, on the other hand, seem to be viewed positively if they are interrupted by children as engaging in caregiving roles in addition to professional work is often seen more as a virtue than a responsibility.⁸³

Moreover, as mentioned earlier, women receive a disproportionate amount of unrequested feedback on their appearance, and this can be amplified when videoconferencing software is used.⁸⁴ This can be made worse by “mirror anxiety”, whereby learners’ insecurities about their own appearance are triggered by spending significant amounts of time seeing themselves in the “self-view” video (which they may be afraid to disable as they want to monitor whether anything is happening behind them).⁸⁵ This, coupled with a tendency to put more effort into analyzing and producing nonverbal cues (such as smiling and other forms of body language), seems to contribute to women experiencing more virtual meeting fatigue than men.⁸⁶

Use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT)

In many circumstances, learners and instructors are expected to use their own personal equipment to connect to online classes. The unequal distribution of resources as well as expectations over who has priority when it comes to shared family-owned equipment influence levels of educational access. In addition, in countries with lower rates of Internet access, there may be a digital divide resulting in men having far greater access than women.⁸⁷

Conversely, while men and boys engage more with computers in general and have more confidence in their skills in information and communications technology, some studies suggest that women and girls demonstrate a higher level of engagement when it comes to online learning.⁸⁸ The reasons for this may include a tendency for female learners to be more forthcoming in engaging with their instructors in the online environment, and for instructors to more proactively assist female learners due to stereotyped assumptions that they are less able to use ICT.⁸⁹ Other studies suggest that due to gender roles, women are better at independent, self-regulated learning and can better adapt to virtual learning environments than men.⁹⁰ Studies showing that male students and low achievers tend to evaluate female instructors more harshly than their male counterparts may suggest that some male learners are less willing to adapt their learning methods and instead blame instructors when they shift from an in-person to a virtual classroom.⁹¹

*Practical tips: How can educators take these gender dynamics into consideration and remove barriers to learners in online classrooms?*⁹²

- ✓ Intentionally communicate respect and value individual differences in online spaces.
- ✓ Set expectations for equitable and inclusive engagement in online classrooms and define protocols (such as using the ‘raise hand’ function to take the floor).
- ✓ Use icebreakers to both encourage participants to speak at the beginning of the class, but also to test microphones and to allow instructors to identify them (e.g. by changing any generic usernames so that they reflect the learner’s preferred name).
- ✓ Use software features such as chat, breakout rooms and polls to encourage participation; test these at the beginning of the class to ensure that all learners can use them.
- ✓ Track participation (with support from fellow instructors or designated observers) and encourage silent participants to participate if possible (ideally giving them a few moments to prepare); amplify interventions that have been ignored or claimed by someone else.
- ✓ Be explicit on the utility of videos to help track verbal cues while being flexible if users cannot or prefer not to turn on their videos.

- ✓ Avoid referring to someone's physical appearance or surroundings, anticipate and welcome the presence of children, and be ready for other audio-visual interruptions.
- ✓ When team-teaching, be prepared to teach all parts of the lesson in case one instructor experiences a technical issue or interruption. (E.g. all instructors should have copies of presentation files and teaching resources.)
- ✓ Honour scheduled meetings times and do not schedule meetings outside of working hours without clear consensus of all potential participants.
- ✓ Distribute agendas and other materials early enough for participants to prepare.
- ✓ Actively ensure that all learners receive support in using and accessing ICT equipment and adapting from in-person to virtual classroom environments, where necessary.

4. Conclusion

Addressing the gender dynamics in the classroom gives credibility to instructors teaching gender, as learners will see that they practice what they preach. Moreover, it has the potential to transform the classroom into a living case study where learners can experience first-hand an example of how an instructor has used their gender analytical skills and applied it to their specific area of work – which is one of the ultimate objectives of teaching gender in the military. At the same time, considering the gender dynamics in the classroom prompts instructors to refocus on using proven, active learning techniques such as those mentioned in other chapters of this handbook. In particular, by reflecting on their learners as diverse, gendered individuals, each shaped by different knowledge, assumptions and experiences, instructors can better cater to the educational needs of their students in both the cognitive and the affective domains.

5. Annotated bibliography

5.1 Academic publications related to the gender dynamics of the classroom

Brown, Vanessa. "Feminism is a bad word: Towards a Heutagogic Approach to Learning about Gender in Professional Military Education". *AOD Network (blog)*. August 27, 2018. <https://aodnetwork.ca/feminism-is-a-bad-word-towards-a-heutagogic-approach-to-learning-about-gender-in-professional-military-education/>

This blog article provides some useful background by exploring the linkages between teaching gender, and considering gender dynamics with the classroom in a military context. It highlights the importance of "heutagogy", a teaching strategy based around critical thinking that is designed to foster dialogue, self-reflection and exchange.

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), 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*. 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 ed. 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". New York, NY: Columbia University. 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.

Farid, Huma, Marcella Luercio, Zahir Kanjee, Mihir Parikh, Kristina J Liu, Ariane M Fraiche and Grace Huang. "Promoting Gender Equity in Virtual Meetings". *The Permanente Journal*, Vol. 26, No. 3 (2022), 157 – 163. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC9676690/pdf/tpp_22.016.pdf

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This two-page reference sheet was developed by DCAF and improved based on the comments of military, gender and education experts of the PfPC SSR 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.

Endnotes

1. The author would like to thank Miriam Fugugosh and Christopher Kilmartin for providing written comments on an earlier version of this chapter, and Aiko Holvikivi and Iryna Lyschikina for suggestions on updating it.
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Lesson Plans: Backward Design and Active Learning in Teaching Gender

Olha Lysychkina (Ukraine), Andreas Hildenbrand (Germany), and Kristine St-Pierre (Canada)

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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. It is thus critical that instructors have the knowledge and the tools to develop well-structured lesson plans. A backward design approach for lesson planning has proved to be effective. It starts with deciding on the learning outcomes, and then aligning these with appropriate assessment tools and learning activities.

Planning is crucial in the context of teaching gender, given that the topic is often faced with resistance and limited in timeframe. Additionally, gender perspectives apply to 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.

A well-structured lesson plan serves multiple purposes: it maintains teaching focus, ensures logical progression, and enables progress tracking. It also provides a framework for instructor self-reflection and curriculum evaluation, allowing for analysis of the learning process and curriculum improvement. The greatest effect is gained if gender perspectives are 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 demonstrates how backward design enhances educational planning through a practical, question-based approach. It examines the methodology's core principles, stages, and implementation steps, offering concrete examples incorporating revised Bloom's taxonomy and active learning strategies. The content is organised around eight key questions commonly encountered during lesson preparation, providing instructors with clear guidance through the planning process.

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 backward design moves 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.

While backward design strategies have a long history in education – going back at least as far as the seminal work of Tyler¹ in the 1940s – the educators and authors Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe are widely considered to have popularised “backward design” for the modern era in their book *Understanding by Design*.² Since its publication in the 1990s, *Understanding by Design* has evolved into a series of popular books, videos and other resources.

Backward design enhances the direct route to learning outcomes and ensures that learners learn 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 clearly understand what they are doing and why they are doing it, as well as what they are supposed to know and be able to do 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.

It is important to point out that in most cases, an instructor starts 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 requirements and training needs analyses are important steps in setting learning outcomes for gender curricula and course documents.

3. What is the revised Bloom’s taxonomy?

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 provide feedback on learners’ work.

Box 7.1 Origins of Bloom’s taxonomy

Bloom’s taxonomy was originally published³ 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.⁴ 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 7.2).

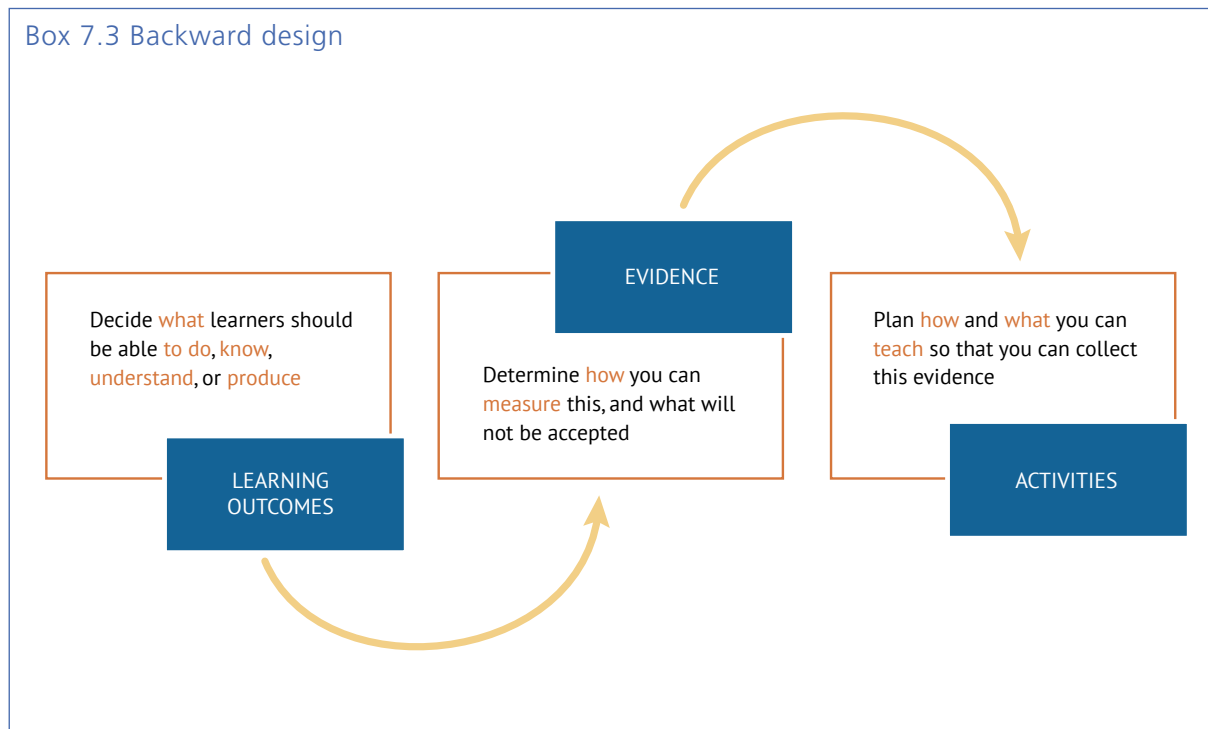
Box 7.2 Revised Bloom's taxonomy levels with verbs



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).

4. What are the stages of backward design?

These are three main stages of backward design (Box 7.3).



Stage 1: Learning outcomes. The instructor begins by reviewing the learning outcomes based on the curriculum or course documents, and breaks those final learning outcomes into smaller objectives. In gender-related curriculum and course control documents, knowledge, skills and competence that the learners need to acquire are mapped in accordance with the revised Bloom’s taxonomy (See Box 7.2). In some cases, these required learning outcomes do not yet exist, and therefore, some basic principles of setting learning outcomes are addressed in 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 and measure 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 asking learners to identify practical examples of integrating gender perspectives into their day-to-day work. The instructor facilitates the discussion and observes how learners respond to the question and debate.

Stage 3: Learning activities. In the final stage, the instructor decides what activities learners need to achieve the required learning outcome. The instructor 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 of what it means to integrate a gender perspective in their day-to-day work, the learning activity may include readings on gender perspectives in different contexts and learners identifying key considerations for integrating gender perspectives within their own context. The learners' presentation of examples from their own day-to-day work becomes the assessment tool whereby instructors can observe learners' understanding of the concept and its application. In this case, learners' sharing of examples also serves as an additional learning method as they will learn more on the topic and further develop their knowledge and skills.

5. How does one set good learning outcomes?

A learning outcome statement describes in specific and measurable terms what the learner should know or be able to do as a result of engaging in a learning activity. The learning outcome follows a specific learner-oriented structure:

When	Who	Expected action	How
the oriented timeframe	audience	an action verb based on Bloom's taxonomy – Box 7.16	context or condition + criterion (desired level of performance)
By the end of the lesson	learners	will be able to explain what it means to integrate a gender perspective into their day-to-day work	through practical examples from their professional environment, demonstrating at least three specific ways gender considerations can be incorporated into their regular tasks.

Good learning outcomes statements 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 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 several 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 and training.

Box 7.4 Learning outcomes should be SMART (TT)⁵

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, including “learners will be able to explain what a gender perspective means”, “learners will be able to list situations where gender perspectives should be integrated” (for example, patrolling or when engaging with the local population); and “learners will be able to explain how to apply gender perspectives in their day-to-day work”.

Box 7.5 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.

Bloom’s Taxonomy Level	Possible Learning outcomes <i>By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:</i>
Creating	Produce concepts for assessing, evaluating and reporting the effectiveness of integration of a gender perspective and performed activities.
Evaluating	Compare woman voter turnout at elections from previous years’ turnouts to assess the success of new security provisions for women.
Analysing	Differentiate the security threats for men, women, boys and girls in the specific area.
Applying	Use a gender perspective when engaging with the local population in a culturally sensitive manner.
Understanding	Explain how insecurity or conflict can affect men, women, girls and boys differently.
Remembering	Repeat key definitions of gender.

6. How does one get evidence of learning? What assessment tools can help?

Assessment strategies should align directly with learning outcomes to effectively capture evidence of learner mastery. A good learning outcome identifies the most appropriate assessment method for gathering this evidence⁶. 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 orally or in a test. 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 must successfully integrate gender perspectives into their decision-making and actions, providing tangible evidence of their ability to apply these concepts in practical contexts.

The key is that each assessment method must be carefully chosen to generate specific evidence that demonstrates whether learners have achieved the intended learning outcomes. This evidence-based approach⁷ to assessment ensures that we can accurately measure and document learner learning progress.

Diagnostic, formative, and summative assessments are all crucial tools used in the educational process, each serving a distinct purpose⁸:

- *diagnostic assessment* is conducted at the beginning of a learning cycle to define the learners’ current level of understanding, identify any prior knowledge or misconceptions, and uncover the specific areas where they may struggle⁹;
- *formative assessment* is an ongoing process used to get evidence of learner progress, provide feedback throughout the instruction, and make necessary adjustments to teaching;
- *summative assessment* occurs as the final measurement of a learner’s overall achievement of the learning outcomes and mastery of the material at the end of a learning cycle, it is often used to assign grades or make decisions about promotion to the next level of education.

Box 7.6 suggests examples of assessment tools.

Box 7.6 Examples of assessment tools

Type of Assessment	Tools	Examples
Diagnostic	• Pre-tests • Surveys • One-on-one interviews • Observations	Possible questions to be used in a pre-test, survey, or as part of an interview: • How familiar are you with international and national legal frameworks for gender equality? • How familiar are you with gender-related policies within NATO or in your military context? • How relevant do you think gender perspectives are to your work? • How confident are you in conducting a gender analysis as part of your work? • Can you share your previous exposure to gender-related training? • Can you describe any challenges encountered regarding gender issues during your mission(s)?

Type of Assessment	Tools	Examples
Formative	- Quizzes - Group discussions - Self/peer assessments - Classroom observations - Anonymous classroom assessment techniques¹⁰ (cats)	Muddiest Point: Learners identify the most confusing aspect of a lesson, allowing the instructor to address misunderstandings directly. Think-Pair-Share: Learners think about a question individually (e.g.: <i>Why is gender analysis crucial for your work?</i>), discuss it with one other learner and afterwards within smaller groups of four or six and then share their insights with the class. Self-assessment scale (1-5): - Comfort level discussing gender issues - Confidence in applying gender perspective in operations - Familiarity with gender-related policies in military context
Summative	- Final exams - End-of-term projects - Standardized tests - Portfolio review	The learning outcome – <i>By the end of the lesson, learners will be able to explain what it means to integrate a gender perspective into their day-to-day work.</i> Final Task with two components. Written Component: - Develop a detailed action plan (1500 words) that: - Analyzes their current work responsibilities through a gender lens - Identifies specific opportunities for gender integration - Proposes concrete changes to existing procedures - Anticipates challenges and provides mitigation strategies - Oral Presentation – 10-minute presentation to peers and instructors where learners: - Summarize their key findings - Present one specific example of how they will modify a regular task to better integrate gender perspectives - Respond to questions from the audience

Evidence of learning can be collected through both direct and indirect measures.

Direct measures include tangible assessments such as quizzes, exams, projects, and performance tasks that provide clear insights into learning outcomes. Indirect measures may involve feedback mechanisms like course evaluations, learner surveys, or retention rates that offer contextual information about the learning environment and learner experiences.

Gathering evidence of learning is a multifaceted process that involves various assessment strategies and tools. A strong approach to assembling evidence enhances the educational experience for instructors and learners. Every learning outcome must be assessed, allowing learners to demonstrate what they are required to know and do. Box 7.7 provides an example of the summative assessment.

Box 7.7 Example of assessment of learning outcomes

Extract from gender analysis session (5 x 45 minutes) in “Gender field Adviser” course.

Session learning outcomes

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

1. conduct a gender analysis
2. Use gender-disaggregated data
3. 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 scenario.

Tasks

- Study the Atlantica scenario and fill in the “Men/boys” and “Women/girls” columns in the gender analysis matrix. (Note: the third column – intersectional – can be added to emphasize the intersectional approach).
- 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 from 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.
- Observe how their colleagues in other syndicates have thought.
- Reassess and remain critical of their own gender analysis.
- Explain 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 correct 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.

7. 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 choice of learning methods is not only defined by the learning outcomes but also the audience’s size, level and motivation, as well as the timeframe, classroom 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. It includes:

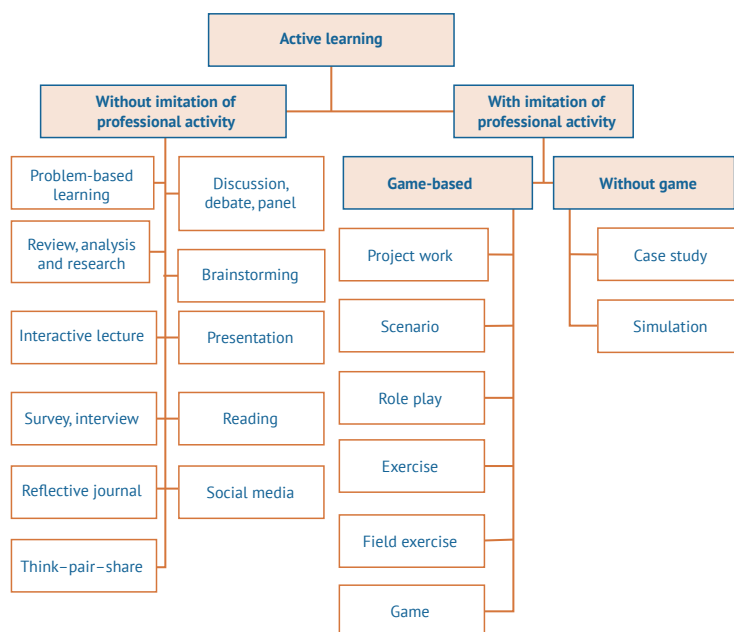
- Lecture
- Compare and contrast
- Demonstration
- Guided and shared (reading, listening, viewing, thinking).

Interactive instruction relies heavily on discussion, collaboration 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 numerous methods is heavily dependent upon the expertise of the instructor in structuring and developing the dynamics of the group. It includes:

- Debates and discussion
- Brainstorming
- Think–pair–share
- Problem solving.

The numerous active learning methods and strategies can be grouped in different ways, for example as shown in Box 7.8.

Box 7.8 Active learning methods classification



In this section, we discuss a few active learning methods that could be used in teaching gender in the military.

Pro and Con Discussion. Holding this type of discussion as part of a lesson can be a great way to explore a topic. It fosters active learning, enhances critical thinking and communication skills, and allows for diverse perspectives to be shared. In doing so, it can also help foster cooperation and team building among the learners. However, discussions surrounding gender can be polarizing and may inadvertently reinforce harmful stereotypes about women, men, girls and boys if not addressed carefully. To ensure the success of this type of discussion, it is important to create a safe space where learners feel comfortable sharing their perspectives. It is also important for facilitators to be comfortable managing classroom dynamics and to ensure that the discussion remains on-topic.

Here are key considerations when holding a pro and con discussion.

1. Set ground rules for a respectful discussion.
2. Introduce the topic clearly and concisely so the learners understand the issue being discussed.
3. Assign each learner to take either the pro or the con position (or allow them to self-select their positions).
4. Allow time for outside research.
5. When holding the pro and con discussion, managing the clock is crucial.
6. Invite contributions from all participants and ensure that a wide range of viewpoints are heard.

Box 7.9 Example of topics for a pro and con discussion or a debate

Gender equality prevents violence against women and girls.

Gender: operational effect or political soft talk?

Women make better military officers; men make better soldiers.

Should women be allowed in combat positions?

Implementing quotas is a crucial way to help increase the number of women from diverse background) in the military.

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 an end in themselves. The ultimate purpose of asking your learners those questions is for them to develop better answers. Though all thoughtful learner responses are valued. The instructor is responsible for clarifying these distinctions during the course of instruction.

Box 7.10 Example of corners statements

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

- Women live an average of 5.4 years longer than men¹¹. Why?
- In the last decade, of the landmine/unexploded ordinance casualties whose gender is known, 13 per cent were women and girls and 85 per cent were men and boys. Why so many of the victims are 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 remaining gaps. 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 the following chart 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 7.11 Example of a KWL for a gender lesson for military planners

What do you already *know* = what a gender perspective means. gender perspective is the ability to detect when individuals might be differently affected by a military activity due to their gender identity and/or expression r

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.

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 their 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.

Box 7.12 Example of questions to use for think–pair–share

Target audience: military planners at the strategic or operational level.

Learning outcome: learners will be able to identify 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 neighbours and discuss how and why their reasons were similar or different. Then compare the results with the whole class.

After these think–pair–share discussions, explain 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.

Role-play. It is an educational technique where learners act out scenarios to understand different perspectives or practice skills in a controlled, simulated environment. Learners assume specific roles or characters. Scenarios are typically based on real-life situations. Role-playing encourages empathy and perspective-taking which is crucial in teaching gender, and it can be improvisational or scripted.

Box 7.13 Role-play “Gender Analysis in Military Operations”

By the end of this activity, the participants will be able to apply gender analysis in operational contexts, realizing its impact on mission effectiveness.

Scenario:

A multinational military task force is preparing for a peacekeeping mission in a conflict-affected region. Intelligence reports indicate that gender dynamics in the region significantly influence security, community relations, and operational effectiveness. The task force must integrate gender analysis into their operational planning to ensure mission success.

Roles (5-6 participants):

Mission Commander – Responsible for overall mission planning and decision-making. Open to gender perspectives but focused on operational priorities.

- Gender Advisor – An expert in gender analysis advocating for integrating gender perspectives into military planning and operations. Engages with task force members to help them identify gender-related data and information.
- Intelligence Officer – Provides intelligence on threats and community structures, including gendered security risks.
- Civil-Military Liaison Officer – Engages with local communities, NGOs, and civilian authorities to ensure mission effectiveness and cooperation.
- Platoon Leader – Concerned about practical implications of gender-sensitive approaches on unit operations and security.
- (Optional) Local Community Representative – Shares insights on gender roles, power structures, and security concerns from a civilian perspective.

Task & Discussion (30-40 min):

- Briefing (5 min): The commander presents the mission objectives and asks for input on gender considerations.
- Discussion & Strategy Planning (20-25 min): Each role presents their perspectives and challenges, leading to a debate on how to integrate gender analysis into military operations. Topics include:
 - How gender roles affect security risks and intelligence gathering.
 - Gender-specific needs in humanitarian aid and civil-military relations.
 - Risks of sexual violence and exploitation in conflict zones.
 - Impact of gender-blind strategies on operational effectiveness.
- Decision & Action Plan (10 min): The team develops a brief action plan outlining how gender considerations will be incorporated into operations.
- Debrief (5 min): Facilitator guides a reflection on key takeaways, challenges, and real-world applicability of gender analysis in military operations.

Case study. It is an in-depth analysis of a real-life situation, event, or issue to illustrate principles, challenges, and solutions in a specific context. This is an excellent active learning method for teaching gender in the military because it immerses learners in real-world scenarios, encouraging critical thinking, problem-solving, and discussion on gender dynamics, biases, and operational challenges, thereby fostering deeper understanding and practical application of gender analysis in military contexts.

Box 7.14 Case Study. Gender Dynamics in a Peacekeeping Mission – The Case of Kundu Province

By the end of this activity, participants will be able to analyze and apply gender perspectives in military operations by identifying gender-specific security concerns, evaluating the impact of gender roles on mission effectiveness, and integrating gender analysis into strategic decision-making.

Background

Kundu Province, a conflict-affected region, is home to multiple ethnic groups with distinct gender roles. Recent instability has led to displacement, increased gender-based violence, and heightened security concerns, particularly for women and children. The local culture assigns leadership and decision-making roles to men, while women primarily handle domestic duties and informal conflict resolution. Reports indicate that armed groups exploit traditional gender norms, using women as informants or shields and limiting access to humanitarian aid for households headed by women.

A multinational military task force has been deployed to stabilize the region, protect civilians, and facilitate humanitarian efforts. However, local communities have resisted early operations due to a lack of women engagement teams and an inadequate understanding of gendered security risks. Additionally, previous patrols failed to identify women's security concerns, leading to ineffective intelligence gathering and mistrust.

Key Issues for Analysis

Gender-Specific Security Concerns:

- Women and girls face higher risks of gender-based violence but are often excluded from security discussions.
- Men and boys are at risk of forced recruitment into armed groups.
- The exclusion of women soldiers from community engagement limits access to critical information.

Impact of Gender Roles on Mission Effectiveness:

- Gender-blind security strategies lead to ineffective patrol routes that fail to address real threats.
- Lack of gender diversity in the task force reduces trust and cooperation with local women.
- Gender-sensitive intelligence gathering is essential for mapping power structures and threats.

Integrating Gender Analysis into Strategic Decision-Making:

- How can the task force adjust its operations to incorporate gender perspectives?
- What policies or practices can be implemented to improve community engagement?
- How can military leaders ensure gender considerations are included in mission planning?

Discussion & Decision-Making Task

Participants will act as military decision-makers tasked with adjusting their operational strategy to integrate gender analysis effectively. They must develop an action plan that:

- Addresses gender-specific security concerns.
- Incorporates gender-sensitive intelligence and engagement strategies.
- Enhances mission effectiveness through gender-informed decision-making.

Debrief Questions:

- How did gender perspectives change the operational approach?
- What were the challenges in integrating gender analysis?
- How can these insights be applied to real-world military operations?

Teaching gender requires learner-centered active learning methods. Only active learning leads to gender transformative education and encourages equal participation of women and men. Learning methods should address both cognitive and affective domains, as defined in the revised Bloom's taxonomy.

Box 7.15 Line exercise – What is gender?¹²

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 explain the meaning of gender and how it relates to security issues and 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 women 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, including people who identify as part of minorities (e.g. LGBT+ people)
- 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 7.16 Tips for using effective learning methods and strategies in teaching gender¹³

- ✓ 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.

8. 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 workplan 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 a training 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 training 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 7.17 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

9. 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 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 are the learners 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 the learners be able to demonstrate that they know and can do what they were supposed to be able to know and do? How is the instructor going to make sure that the 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 they will use them.

Step 5. Document your backward design process by linking learning outcomes to assessment tools and learning strategies and methods.

Box 7.21 Step 5 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
<i>Write down learning outcomes.</i> <i>Write down standards: how well/under what conditions learners need to be able to do required outcome.</i> <i>This should have a direct link to the curriculum as well as to the needs analysis.</i>	<i>How are you going to assess that the required learning outcome and standard has been met?</i> <i>What kind of assessment tools are you going to use?</i>	<i>Write here all the "assessments" you are going to use (for example, write down the exact question you are going to ask).</i> <i>Write down when you are going to ask this question.</i>	<i>Write down what learning strategies you as an instructor are using to help learners to achieve required learning outcomes and standards.</i>
By the end of the lesson the learners should be able to define and explain the meaning of the terms <i>gender</i> and <i>sex</i> with support from reference material.	Diagnostic assessment to begin the lesson – to check the starting level of knowledge. Formative assessment during the lesson using questioning techniques (asking questions and observing). 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.	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. 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.	Interactive instruction • 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" 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 7.22 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. ¹⁴	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 ¹⁵ 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 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.

The key elements of the backward design for developing a lesson plan – learning outcomes, evidence (assessment tools), learning activities (methods) – can be summarized according to the levels of Bloom's taxonomy as in Box 7.20).

Box 7.23 Link between revised Bloom's taxonomy, learning outcomes, assessment tools and learning activities

1 Stage: Learning outcomes			2 Stage: Evidence	3 Stage: Learning activities
Taxonomy level	Description	Examples of learning outcomes	Possible assessment tools	Possible learning strategies and methods
Creating	Creating a new meaning or structure. 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. Appraise, critique, hypothecate, select, check, experiment, judge	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to compare woman voter turnout at elections in previous years to assess the success of new security provisions for women.	Appraisals, recommendations	Discussion, collaboration Project-based learning Simulations, case studies, evaluative exercises
Analysing	Breaking down material into parts. 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. Implement, carry out, use, execute, solve problems	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to use a gender perspective when engaging with the local population in a culturally sensitive manner.	Project, performance, presentation	Practice, practice, practice Discussion, collaboration Simulations, exercise, games

Understanding	Grasping the meaning of material. Interpret, summarize, paraphrase, classify, explain, identify	By the end of the lesson the learner will be able to explain how insecurity and conflict can affect men, women, girls and boys differently.	Writing, presentations, objective or essay tests	Lecture, reading, audio/visual Courseware, examples Discussion, dialogue, role playing
Remembering	Recalling basic information. 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 7.24).

Box 7.24 Example of lesson schedule where gender mainstreaming has been integrated into the topic of QIPs

Note: The following lesson schedule assumes that the concept of gender mainstreaming has already been covered in a different lesson. As such, the current lesson looks at how gender mainstreaming can be integrated in other lessons, in this case, QIPs.

Lesson schedule: Quick-Impact Projects (QIPs) 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		<i>Taxonomy level</i>	Assessment tools Writing, presentations, objective or essay tests			
	Courseware, examples		APPLY				
			<i>Description</i>				
	Discussion, exercise (role play)		Applying information to produce some result. Implement, carry out, use, execute, and solve problems				
10 mins	Introduction, motivation, learning outcome	Presentation/lecture (direct instruction) Remark: The method is a lecture with audio-visual aid (video clip).	Learners will be able to explain the aim of the lecture.	Explain the scope of the lesson. Introduce military peacekeepers to QIPs and explain how gender perspectives are essential considerations when designing and implementing QIPs. Also, explain how QIPs provide an excellent opportunity for engaging and empowering local women.	Learning outcome and agenda. QIPs are an essential part of contemporary operations taking place in 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=ud5JBbGwJEg	Instructor

Time	Topic	Learning strategy/method	Related learning outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content resources	Faculty
30 mins	QIP	Discussion (interactive instruction)	Learners will be able to explain what a QIP is. Learners will be able to explain how 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 here 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 QIP? Explain QIP and why learners need to understand what a QIP is. Ask class How do 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..	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. They may also inadvertently reinforce gender inequalities. An example of QIP is e.g.. installing washing machines in a local hospital, as opposed to building a clinic which would require training people and is more of a long-term project. Other examples include improving clean water access to a local community, infrastructure repair, or supporting community initiatives.	PowerPoint Examples of QIPs conducted by the military in different missions/operations. J1–J9 Functions Handouts	Instructor

Time	Topic	Learning strategy/method	Related learning outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content resources	Faculty
60 mins	Gender Mainstreaming	Discussion (interactive instruction) Small group exercise (can be with role play)	Learners will be able to identify key considerations for gender mainstreaming as part of the planning and implementation of QIPs. Learners will be able to apply a gender perspective while planning a QIP.	Introducing military peacekeepers to the concept of gender mainstreaming as it applies to QIPs. Ask the class What it means to integrate gender mainstreaming in QIPs. Remark: This learning activity is in line with methods recommended for the taxonomy: applying. Ask learners to consider the examples of QIPs presented previously. In small groups, ask learners to plan their QIP for gender mainstreaming. Ask them to discuss the following questions: How can you ensure the project is appropriate and relevant to the local population? Who should you include in the discussion and the planning?	Gender mainstreaming is cost-efficient and easy to do but requires a broader view of security. Point out benefits of using servicewomen on patrols to local villages – they can talk to men and women. Emphasize the importance of taking suggestions from both men and women in the village.	PowerPoint Examples of QIPs conducted by the military in different missions/operations.	Instructor

Time	Topic	Learning strategy/method	Related learning outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content resources	Faculty
				What are ways to engage diverse members of the communities? What are key considerations for engaging local women? (timing, access, safety, women-only meetings) Who can the military collaborate with to ensure the successful implementation? Ask each group to present based on their discussion, 2 to 3 key considerations for gender mainstreaming in QIPs.			
5 mins	Summary	Discussion Feedback	Motivate learners to integrate a gender perspective in their QIPs. Learners share their feedback on the lesson	Make sure that learners have reached the required learning outcomes. "Exit ticket" – Ask learners to provide their written anonymous feedback on the lesson – "How useful was this lesson for you?", "What is your main take-away".	Summary of learning outcomes and opportunity for learners to ask questions.	PowerPoint	Instructor

10. Conclusion

A lesson plan is not a universal remedy that ensures success in every lesson but rather an important 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 keep these outcomes in mind at every lesson preparation and conduct stage.

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. Practicing 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 Educators' resources

DCAF. "Gender and Resources". DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance. <https://www.dcaf.ch/resources?type=publications&id=2805>

DCAF is known for developing comprehensive resources on gender and security sector reform, including materials specifically designed for military contexts.

Valasek, Kristin and Agneta M. Johannsen. "Guide to integrate Gender in SSR training". In *Gender and Security Sector Reform Training Resource Package*, edited by Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek. Geneva: DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance, 2009. <https://www.dcaf.ch/sites/default/files/publications/documents/0.%20Guide%20to%20Integrating%20Gender%20in%20SSR%20Training.pdf>

The Gender and SSR Training Resource Package is designed to provide you with a wide range of exercises, discussion topics and examples from the ground that you can adapt and integrate into your SSR training. In addition to having a specific exercise or session on gender and SSR, taking a few moments to look through this guide can help you to mainstream gender issues throughout your training. It provides practical tips on integrating gender into the entire SSR training cycle—from conducting a training needs assessment to monitoring and evaluation.

NATO Library. "Women, Peace and Security". [Natolibguides.info](https://natolibguides.info/women/documents). <https://natolibguides.info/women/documents>

This LibGuide is intended to provide a few starting points to assist with the research on issues related to women, peace and security, in particular within the NATO context.

ESDC Secretariat. European Security and Defence College gender standard curriculum for course on "A comprehensive approach to gender in operations". European Security and Defence, ESDC/2024/031, February 9, 2024.

11.2 Publications

Beattie, Mary. *Constructing Professional Knowledge in Teaching: A Narrative of Change and Development*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1995.

This is a story of 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.

Beghetto, Ronald A. *Uncertainty X Design: Educating for Possible Futures*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2023.

It describes how students can benefit from opportunities to develop their confidence and competence in taking creative action in the face of uncertainty by design. It introduces a framework for educators, researchers to understand, design, and examine efforts aimed at helping young people learn how and when to unleash their creative potential, now and into the future.

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.

Campbell, Audrey. "Backward design: How can meaningful assessment empower students?". *Turnitin* (blog). July 27, 2023. <https://www.turnitin.com/blog/backward-design-how-can-meaningful-assessment-empower-students>.

It is a valuable resource for understanding Bloom's taxonomy and active learning.

Cole, A. L. and J. G. Knowles. "Teacher development partnership research: A focus on methods and issues". *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 30 (1993), 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, Alan, Wendy Saul, Samuel R. Mathews and James 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".

Stapleton-Corcoran, E. "Backwards Design." Center for the Advancement of Teaching Excellence at the University of Illinois Chicago. January 25, 2023. <https://teaching.uic.edu/cate-teaching-guides/syllabus-course-design/backward-design/>

It provides a summary of backwards design and its implementation for active learning environments.

Wiggins, Grant, and Jay McTighe. *The Understanding by Design guide to creating high quality units*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD, 2011. <http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/109107.aspx>.

The Understanding by Design® framework (UbD™ framework) offers a planning process and structure to guide curriculum, assessment, and instruction. Its two key ideas are contained in the title: 1) focus on teaching and assessing for understanding and learning transfer, and 2) design curriculum "backward" from those ends.

Annex 1: 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 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	
Learners will be able to demonstrate how gender can enhance operational effectiveness. Learners will be able to explain what a gender perspective is. Learners will be able to explain that gender is a cross-cutting theme in military tasks. Learners will be able to integrate a gender perspective into the branch or unit's functional responsibility. Learners will be able to enhance operational effectiveness.	Ask questions and observe.	Recall definition of gender perspective; ask a learner to provide the definition. Give examples how gender perspective enhances operational effectiveness.	Presentation Interactive instruction • Discussion

Learning outcomes and standards	Assessment		Strategy and method
By the end of the lesson...	Assessment tool	Type and timing of assessment	
Learners will be able to explain how gender as a core competence will improve decision-making.	Ask questions and observe.		
Learners will be able to explain how a gender-balanced force will improve operational effectiveness.			
Learners will be able to explain what is a core competence.		Ask the class what are the core competencies that military personnel need in an operation or mission.	Interactive instruction • Discussion
Learners will be able to explain how gender is a core competence.		Ask how can gender as a core competence improve operational effectiveness.	Interactive Instruction • Discussion
Learners will be able to review how gender as a core competence will 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?	Interactive instruction • Discussion
Learners will be able to explain how a gender-balanced force will improve operational effectiveness.		Give examples and explain how to evaluate effect.	Presentation
		Give examples of integrating a gender perspective into core documents (and how this is supported by a gender analysis).	Presentation
		If possible, provide examples from the host nation and deployment area.	Interactive instruction • It is recommended to add a practical scenario-based exercise

Learning outcomes and standards	Assessment		Strategy and method
By the end of the lesson...	Assessment tool	Type and timing of assessment	
Learners will be able to examine a gender perspective related to security force assistance. Learners will be able to explain security force assistance. Learners will be able to demonstrate the integration of a gender perspective in security force assistance. Learners will be able to demonstrate application of equal opportunities within security force assistance. Learners will be able to practice internal and external methods of security force assistance.	Ask questions and observe.	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.	Presentation Interactive instruction • Presentation and practical exercise
Learners will be able to 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. Learners will be able to explain the importance of liaison and coordination with external actors (including IOs, GOs and NGOs). Learners will be able to demonstrate consultation with external actors (including IOs, GOs and NGOs).	Ask questions and observe.	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.	Presentation Interactive instruction • Practical exercise

Lesson schedule

Time	Topic	Strategy 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) 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 effect.	PowerPoint See slides 5–10	Instructor

Time	Topic	Strategy method	Related outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content Resources	Faculty
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? Give examples and explain how to evaluate effect. Give examples of integrating a gender perspective into core documents (and how this is supported by a gender analysis). If possible, provide examples from the host nation and the deployment area.	Having 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

Time	Topic	Strategy method	Related outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content Resources	Faculty
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 is gender balance, and is gender balance of our own forces 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 gender perspective. Having a gender perspective is thus not dependent on having women in the force.	PowerPoint See slides 21–25	Instructor

Time	Topic	Strategy method	Related outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content Resources	Faculty
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

Time	Topic	Strategy method	Related outcome(s)	Related assessment(s)	Content guidance	Content Resources	Faculty
30 mins	Liaison and coordination with external actors	(Indirect instruction), 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) Feedback	Motivate learners to integrate a gender perspective in their work when deployed. Learners should be able to translate the operational impact of gender. Ask learners questions on the lesson's efficiency, usefulness, and ways to improve.	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, 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.

Endnotes

1. **Ralph W. Tyler**, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1949).
2. **Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe**, *Understanding by Design* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1998), <http://edglossary.org/backward-design/>.
3. Benjamin S. Bloom, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain* (Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon, 1956).
4. Lorin Anderson and David Krathwohl, *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, and Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1st ed.)* (Pearson, 2001), <http://edglossary.org/blooms-taxonomy/>.
5. Adapted from Ken Blanchard and Spencer Johnson, *The One Minute Manager* (New York: HarperCollins, 1981).
6. Barbara E. Walvoord, *Assessment clear and simple: A practical guide for institutions, departments, and general education (2nd ed.)* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2010).
7. Learning Corner, "Understanding Evidence-Based Learning", Learning Corner (Accessed January 19, 2024), <https://learningcorner.co/knowledge-base/glossary/evidence-based-learning>.
8. Teachers Institute, "Differentiating Diagnostic, Formative, and Summative Evaluation in Education", Teachers Institute (January 21, 2024), <https://teachers.institute/assessment-for-learning/diagnostic-formative-summative-evaluation-education/>.
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Assessment and Evaluation as Tools For Improvement

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1. Introduction¹

Evaluation is the systematic determination of the merit, worth, and significance of a learning or training process, typically by using criteria against a set of standards. Evaluation is an ongoing phase throughout the design of curricula, ensuring learning outcomes align with the required educational needs.

Educational and training evaluation can be approached from multiple dimensions, each serving a different purpose. When *evaluating the learners*, the focus is on individual performance and growth. This includes assessing knowledge acquisition and skill development, measuring behavioural changes or competency improvements, identifying areas where learners struggle or excel, determining readiness for practical application, and comparing performance against established benchmarks. *Evaluating learning objective achievement* concentrates on whether the training accomplished what it set out to do. This involves measuring the gap between intended and actual outcomes, assessing knowledge retention over time, determining if participants can apply what they've learned, evaluating skills transfer to real-world contexts, and analyzing if performance improvements meet predetermined targets. The dimension of *evaluating the learning objectives themselves* represents a meta-level examination of whether the right goals were established. This encompasses assessing alignment with organizational needs and strategic priorities, determining relevance to actual job requirements, evaluating if objectives address root causes of performance gaps, examining if objectives deliver meaningful business impact, and considering if objectives remain relevant amidst changing conditions. These dimensions aren't mutually exclusive but rather complementary. A comprehensive training evaluation generally incorporates all three, using frameworks like Kirkpatrick's Four Levels to structure the assessment approach. The most effective evaluations clarify which dimension is being emphasized at each stage and establish appropriate metrics that align with that specific focus.

This chapter focuses on the evaluation of a gender-related curriculum, exploring modern evaluation methods that enhance the assessment process.² Through this chapter, the theory behind evaluation is illustrated with practical application examples. Several modern evaluation mechanisms and models are described aimed at helping instructors to improve the quality of gender-focused training programs.

2. The essence and role of evaluation

2.1 Evaluation

Evaluation serves as more than a culminating activity. It constitutes an essential component within a continuous improvement cycle. When properly integrated, evaluation creates a feedback loop that systematically informs program refinement, adaptation, and strategic decision-making. In educational and training contexts, evaluation establishes crucial linkages between learning outcomes and organizational objectives, ensuring curricula remain relevant, cost-effective, and conducive to knowledge transfer.

Evaluation, when viewed through the lens of gender studies and educational practices, emerges as a powerful tool for understanding and transforming systemic dynamics of power, representation, and opportunity. At its core, evaluation becomes more than a technical process – it is a critical methodology for uncovering how gender intersects with institutional practices, learning experiences, and social structures.

In educational contexts, evaluation serves as a nuanced lens through which we can examine how gender operates within learning environments. It goes beyond simple measurement, instead revealing the often invisible ways that gender influences educational experiences, opportunities, and outcomes. A gender-oriented evaluation might explore how curriculum design, teaching practices, institutional policies, and interpersonal dynamics either reinforce or challenge existing gender inequities.

The essence of such an approach is to make visible what is often hidden, namely the subtle mechanisms of gender inequality that persist in educational settings in the military context. It asks profound questions: How do different genders experience military learning spaces? Whose perspectives are centered in curriculum? What implicit biases shape assessment practices? How do institutional structures either perpetuate or dismantle gender-based barriers to military education?

Evaluation becomes a transformative practice when it moves beyond neutral observation to critical analysis. It is not just about collecting data, but about understanding how gender operates as a fundamental organizing principle of social experience. By carefully examining educational programs, teaching methodologies, and institutional structures, evaluation can uncover the complex ways that gender shapes learning, opportunity, and social mobility.

This approach recognizes that evaluation is never truly neutral. It is always conducted from a particular perspective, with particular assumptions and interests. A gender-sensitive evaluation seeks to make those perspectives explicit, to challenge taken-for-granted assumptions, and to create possibilities for more equitable educational experiences.

In practice, this means developing evaluation methodologies that are attentive to the diversity of gender experiences, that listen to minoritized groups, and that see gender not as a fixed category, but as a dynamic and complex social process. It is about creating evaluation practices that do not just describe the world, but help to reimagine and reconstruct it in more just and inclusive ways.

2.2 Significance of evaluation

Evaluation is crucial for several important reasons. In environments with limited resources, organizations need to show that their investments are worthwhile and produce meaningful results. Systematic evaluation helps maintain high-quality standards by identifying areas that need improvement and ensuring that programs meet expected benchmarks.

Organizations use evaluation to check whether their educational initiatives actually support their broader goals. This means regularly examining whether their actions align with their mission and strategic plans. Additionally, ongoing evaluation allows organizations to be flexible and responsive. As needs change and new challenges emerge, evaluation provides insights that help teams make timely adjustments and improvements.

2.3 Evaluation and assessment

Assessment and evaluation are related but different processes that organizations use to understand their work and progress. While people often use these terms interchangeably, they actually serve distinct purposes.

Assessment is primarily about measuring individual performance and characteristics. It focuses on documenting specific details like a person's knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs relatively objectively. The main goal of assessment is developmental, i.e., to help individuals understand their current capabilities, identify their strengths, recognize areas for improvement, and track their personal growth.

Evaluation, on the other hand, takes a broader view. Instead of focusing on individual performance, evaluation examines entire programs, interventions, or approaches. Evaluation seeks to make systematic judgments about a program's overall value, effectiveness, and impact. Where assessment asks, "What has this person learned?", evaluation asks more comprehensive questions like, "Is this program truly effective?", "Are we getting a good return on our investment?", and "Should we continue, expand, or modify this approach?"

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.

2.4 Evaluation frameworks and approaches

Evaluation requires a comprehensive approach that combines different types of measurement to truly understand program success. Measures of Performance (MOPs) and Measures of Effectiveness (MOEs) work together to provide a full picture of what's happening in an initiative.

MOPs focus on the nuts and bolts of program implementation. They answer the fundamental question: "Are we doing the right things?" This involves tracking how closely a program follows its original plan. In practical terms, this means looking at whether activities are completed as scheduled, how resources are being used, and whether the program is meeting its basic compliance requirements.

When it comes to gender-related programs, MOPs become particularly insightful. They might examine concrete details like demographic representation, how often gender-inclusive practices are implemented, or whether structural accommodations are being created as intended. These measures provide a snapshot of the program's operational realities.

MOEs take a deeper, more nuanced approach. They ask the critical question: "Are we doing things right?" This goes beyond simple tracking to examine the real-world impact of a program. These measures require a more complex investigation, often following the program over time to understand its deeper consequences.

For gender-related initiatives, MOEs dive into more profound changes. They might explore how inclusive practices improve organizational operations, track shifts in workplace culture, or analyze how diverse perspectives enhance decision-making. Unlike MOPs, which are more quantitative, MOEs often involve more qualitative, long-term assessments of genuine transformation.

Together, these two types of measurement provide a comprehensive view of a program's journey. MOPs ensure the program is running as planned, while MOEs reveal whether the program is actually creating meaningful change. It is the difference between checking that a boat is sailing smoothly and determining whether it is actually reaching its intended destination.

2.5 Methodological considerations

Robust evaluation employs diverse methodologies to capture the multidimensional nature of educational outcomes:

- Quantitative approaches provide standardized metrics that facilitate comparison across contexts and time periods. These include performance tests, standardized assessments, demographic analyses, and statistical indicators of various outcomes.
- Qualitative approaches capture nuanced dimensions that resist simple quantification, including shifts in attitudes, improvements in critical thinking, and changes in organizational culture. These approaches employ interviews, observations, document analysis, and case studies.

Mixed-method designs integrate both approaches to develop comprehensive understanding. Such integration allows evaluators to answer not only "what" questions but also crucial "why" and "how" questions that explain observed outcomes.

Box 8.2 Evaluation within the learning cycle

Rather than functioning as an afterthought, evaluation should be conceptualized within a continuous improvement cycle:



This cyclical approach ensures that evaluation findings actively inform subsequent iterations, creating a responsive, evidence-based educational system.

2.6 Challenges in educational evaluation

Despite its importance, evaluation faces several persistent challenges, four of which require special attention:

- Methodological rigour since educational outcomes often involve complex human and social variables resistant to simple measurement approaches.
- Political dynamics because evaluation findings may threaten established interests or reveal uncomfortable truths, leading to potential resistance or manipulation of results.
- Resource limitations, as a comprehensive evaluation requires significant investment of time, expertise, and financial resources that may compete with program delivery.
- Timescale discrepancies because while programs require immediate assessment for administrative purposes, significant educational outcomes may emerge only over extended timeframes.

A literature review suggested there is widespread underevaluation of education programmes, and what is being done is of uneven quality⁴. 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 met⁵, and ensures training and education's continuing ability to produce qualified workers. A follow-up evaluation can be conducted for 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.

2.7 Evolving approaches to evaluation theory

Contemporary evaluation theory has moved beyond simplistic input-output models toward more sophisticated approaches that recognize *contribution rather than attribution* where multiple factors influence outcomes, *learning-oriented evaluation*, *participatory approaches* involving stakeholders throughout the evaluation process because it enhances relevance, utilization, and commitment to findings, and *values-explicit frameworks* since evaluation inevitably involves value judgments rather than pretending complete objectivity. Effective evaluation ultimately serves dual purposes – providing accountability for resources invested while simultaneously generating insights that drive continuous improvement in educational programs and outcomes.

3. Evaluation in the ADDIE model

The curriculum design process is often based on the ADDIE (analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation) model (See Chapter 4). 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. Although evaluation is part of the review cycle, each phase now integrates continuous evaluation and adaptive methods.⁶ 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.⁷

Table 8.1 Assessment and evaluation focus within ADDIE model

Phase	Purpose	Key Assessments and Evaluation
A – Analysis	Identify training needs and define the learning problem	- Needs assessment (surveys, interviews, focus groups) - Task and skill gap analysis - Stakeholder consultations for contextual understanding - Learner profiling (prior knowledge, roles, culture, gender sensitivity in context like military)
D – Design	Establish learning goals and plan instructional strategy	- Learning objective alignment checks (SMART criteria) - Storyboards/mockups reviewed by SMEs (subject matter experts) - Assessment blueprinting – mapping what is taught to how it will be tested - Prototype scenario creation for early evaluation
D – Development	Create content, materials, and assessments	- Formative assessments embedded in content - Alpha testing of materials (internal trial runs) - Peer reviews of lesson plans and learning tools - Accessibility and inclusivity audits (especially for programs like gender training)

I – Implementation	Deliver the program and support learners	• Pilot testing with sample learners • Trainer/facilitator evaluations (using observation rubrics) • Real-time feedback tools (pulse checks, exit slips, micro-polls) • Readiness checklists for materials, logistics, and tech platforms
E – Evaluation	Measure effectiveness of the learning solution	• Summative evaluations (post-tests, projects, final performance tasks) • Participant satisfaction surveys • Outcome analysis linked to performance metrics or behavioral change • Longitudinal follow-ups (especially important in gender mainstreaming programs)

4. Using the Kirkpatrick model to integrate gender perspective 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*.⁸ 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.⁹

The four levels of evaluation consist of reaction, learning, behaviour and results.

Level 1: Reaction – This level focuses on the learner's satisfaction with the learning process. 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:¹⁰

- 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:

- Polls with the help of special software like Mentimeter, Slido, Poll Everywhere etc.
- Open-ended questions by the instructor
- Action-Impact-Development (focus on the specific action or behavior; discuss the impact of that action on others or the learning process; suggest ways for development or involvement)
- Sandwich Method with three elements: positive feedback, constructive criticism, positive reinforcement

- 5 A's (Ask learners for their self-assessment; Affirm their strengths and positive behaviors; Advise on areas for improvement; Assist with resources to help them improve; Arrange a follow-up to discuss progress and provide ongoing support)
- "Exit ticket" as a one-minute paper written at the end of the session/course 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.

Level 2: Learning – This level focuses on learner competencies gained in the learning process. What did they learn (how much did the learners gain knowledge and skills)? Steps in these assessment methods include:¹¹

- 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, and end-of-course feedback.

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 of gender-related topics. Pre – and post-assessments using online quizzes, tests, and surveys can measure how learners gain knowledge and skills related to gender. Virtual simulations and role-playing exercises can also assess learners' ability to apply new knowledge.

Box 8.3 Modern assessment and evaluation methods

In recent years, modern assessment and evaluation methods have been introduced, incorporating technology and data analytics to improve accuracy and engagement. These methods complement traditional approaches, fostering a more comprehensive evaluation process. The evolution of assessments methods has been marked by a transformative journey from traditional paper-based practices to the integration of digital solutions¹².

Digital Portfolios and Real-Time Feedback

Digital portfolio is a collection of examples of learner's work that is all accessible online. Typically, learners only include their best work in their portfolio so it can showcase their professional competencies and creativity.¹³

Digital portfolios for tracking student growth and providing individualised assessment (can be via Learning Management Systems (LMS)) and real-time feedback tools enable continuous tracking of learner progress, enhancing formative assessment. In a military setting, for example, gender-focused learning activities can be recorded in a digital portfolio, allowing learners to reflect on their experiences and instructors to provide timely feedback.¹⁴

Peer and Self-Assessment

Peer-to-peer evaluations encourage collaborative learning and allow learners to reflect on their understanding and application of gender concepts. Self-assessment tools, such as surveys on personal beliefs and attitudes towards gender roles, help learners evaluate their own progress and understanding.¹⁵

Learning Analytics

With the rise of online learning platforms, data analytics now play a significant role in assessment. By tracking learner interactions, participation, and performance in real-time, learning analytics provides a data-driven approach to evaluate engagement and outcomes, offering immediate insights into areas for improvement. Learning analytics can track various data points such as clicks, navigation patterns, time on task, social networks and concept development.¹⁶

Level 3: Behaviour – This level focuses on the learner's job performance. What changes in job performance resulted from the learning process? Does the learner (graduate) have the capability to perform the newly learned skills while on the job? How have the learners (graduates) 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.¹⁷

- Using a control group, if possible.
- Allowing enough time for a behaviour change (such as six months, enough time for the learning to be implemented to cause any change).
- Survey or interview one or more of the following groups: learners (graduates), their bosses (leadership), their subordinates and others who often observe the learners' (graduates') 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. To assess changes in behaviour, data from performance tracking tools, post-programme surveys, and interviews with supervisors can help determine if the learners adopted gender-sensitive practices in their military work. Using modern techniques like follow-up interviews or analysis of real-time performance data can provide deeper insights.

Level 4: Results – This level is the most difficult to assess, as it requires continuous follow-up with the learners (graduates) and a measurement of the results of any actions they perform. In gender training, the results could be measured by observable changes in how graduates integrate gender considerations into their work. For example, this might include: How consistently do they incorporate gender analysis into planning processes? Do they develop more gender-sensitive policies and programs? Do they allocate resources more equitably across genders? Overall, the tangible results of the learning process are evaluated in terms of reduced cost, improved quality, increased production, efficiency, etc. Points to consider include the following:¹⁸

- 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.

At the final level, evaluators can use key performance indicators (KPIs)¹⁹ such as operational effectiveness, mission success, and personnel engagement to determine the broader impact of gender perspectives training. Data-driven evaluation tools like performance dashboards can aggregate and visualize these results to make them actionable.

Kirkpatrick's concept is quite important as it makes an excellent planning, evaluating and trouble-shooting tool, and be applied to gender-related education. Table 8.2 summarizes the evaluation focus for each of the levels of Kirkpatrick's model.

Table 8.2 use of Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation with the focus of gender training and mainstreaming in military education

Level	Level 1 – Reaction	Level 2 – Learning	Level 3 – Behaviour	Level 4 – Results
Main question	Did they value the gender content?	Did they gain gender-related knowledge and awareness?	Are they applying gender concepts in practice?	Is there institutional change or impact?
Purpose	Gauge participants' initial response to gender-focused programs	Measure knowledge and skills gain around gender norms, integration, and policy	Assess behavioural changes in leadership, planning, and daily conduct	Evaluate organisational-level progress in gender mainstreaming
Assessments and evaluation	Post-course satisfaction surveys on relevance of gender topics Feedback on inclusiveness, sensitivity, and trainer effectiveness Reflections on perceived importance of gender in operational contexts	Pre/post-tests on gender theory, UN Security Council Resolution 1325, and national policies Scenario-based assessments on gender-sensitive decision making Written assignments or essays analyzing gender in military operations	Observations during field training or mission planning with gender integration components Peer/superior evaluations on inclusive leadership or planning practices Case study analysis during exercises (e.g., inclusion of women in peacekeeping roles)	Tracking gender representation in leadership and operational units Monitoring gender-aware policy adoption across PME curricula Measuring impact on mission effectiveness or community relations in deployed settings Gender audit outcomes or institutional gender scorecards

5. Conclusion

Evaluation is critical in ensuring that gender-focused training in military curricula leads to meaningful change. By systematically assessing learning outcomes, instructional methods, and practical applications, evaluation provides valuable insights into the effectiveness of gender education. The integration of models like ADDIE and Kirkpatrick's four-level evaluation framework allows educators to measure not only knowledge acquisition but also behavioural transformation and operational impact. These assessment tools help identify gaps, refine training strategies, and enhance the overall effectiveness of gender-sensitive practices in military settings.

Evaluation must go beyond immediate learning outcomes to achieve lasting progress and focus on long-term behavioural shifts and institutional changes. This requires ongoing assessments, follow-up evaluations, and the inclusion of diverse perspectives, particularly those of women in military and civilian roles. By embracing modern evaluation techniques – such as digital feedback tools, learning analytics, and scenario-based assessments – military organizations can ensure that gender awareness training translates into real-world improvements in inclusivity, operational effectiveness, and human security. Ultimately, rigorous evaluation strengthens the integration of gender perspectives in military operations, fostering a more equitable and effective defense environment.

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Endnotes

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Digital Technologies to Support Gender Teaching in the Military

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1. Introduction

Today, digital learning tools have evolved from primarily being used as a strict pre-learning tool to various e-learning approaches and models. New ways of course design and teaching provide instructional 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 along with the self-studies and self-directed professional development.

The chapter focuses on four main objectives: to provide an overview of digital e-learning capabilities in support of teaching gender in the military; to outline main online teaching models; to highlight instructional design considerations for online delivery; and to highlight existing online learning opportunities on gender perspectives in the military.

This chapter outlines how various digital education tools, as well as online and e-learning¹, can be used efficiently to support teaching gender, especially in the military. It explores how various digital technologies can integrate gender-related topics into educational curricula, enhancing the learning experience. It offers practical approaches to demonstrate the effectiveness of e-learning and outlines future directions and recommendations for further implementation.

2. E-learning terms and definitions

Before starting the discussions about the various learning technologies that can be used to enhance the learning experience and the training and education opportunities concerning gender perspectives for the military worldwide, it is essential to clarify some of the terms related to the topic.

Digital learning, eLearning (e-learning) and online learning are often used interchangeably (Table 9.1). However, there is a clear definition of each of the terms despite a variety of options to combine the different technological approaches with each other.

Table 9.1: Comparison table: digital learning vs. e-learning vs. online learning

Feature	Digital Learning	E-learning	Online Learning
Definition	Any learning using digital tools	Structured learning via digital platforms	Learning conducted entirely over the internet
Scope	Broad (includes e-learning & online learning)	More focused on structured training	Specific to remote internet-based education
Internet Requirement	Not always needed	Sometimes needed	Always needed
Format	Can be blended (classroom + tech)	Self-paced or structured courses	Fully remote, live or recorded
Examples	Digital textbooks, Virtual Realities (VR) learning	Corporate training modules, interactive courseware	Virtual classrooms, university online programs
Best for	Enhancing education with tech	Training and professional development	Distance learning and virtual education

For this chapter, the different approaches are defended as follows:

1. Digital learning refers to any type of learning that uses digital tools and technology to enhance education. It is a broad term that includes e-learning, online learning, and other technology-enhanced instructional methods. It can be online or offline (e.g., learning apps, educational games, interactive simulations). It supports blended learning, combining face-to-face teaching with digital resources and includes multimedia content like videos, infographics, and animations to improve engagement. Digital learning is the broadest concept, encompassing all forms of education involving technology, whether fully online or blended with traditional classroom teaching.
2. E-learning (eLearning, electronic learning) refers specifically to learning conducted via electronic devices and digital platforms, often through structured courses or training programs. It is a subset of digital learning focusing on educational experiences delivered electronically. Typically, it is self-paced and structured. The content is delivered through learning management systems (LMS) like Moodle, Blackboard, or Coursera. E-learning is a specific type of digital learning that focuses on structured courses delivered electronically, usually through an LMS. Unlike online learning, it may not always require internet access (e.g., downloaded lessons).
3. Online learning refers to education that occurs entirely over the Internet, where learners and instructors interact remotely. It includes synchronous (live) and asynchronous (pre-recorded) learning experiences. One main characteristic is that it requires internet access for participation, for example, virtual classrooms using Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Google Meet, etc. Online learning is a specific type of e-learning that requires an internet connection, whereas e-learning can sometimes include offline digital resources.

4. Synchronous teaching refers to real-time instruction where instructors and learners interact simultaneously, either in person or online. This type of learning and teaching often involves live lectures, discussions, or group activities that require immediate participation, usually enabled by video conferencing systems. Asynchronous teaching allows learners to access course materials and complete assignments independently without real-time interaction via learner management systems. This method is often used in online courses where flexibility is a priority. Both methods have their benefits and drawbacks, and many educational programs use a combination of both (blended learning²) to provide a more effective learning experience. (Table 9.2):

Table 9.2 comparison of synchronous and asynchronous teaching

Feature	Synchronous Teaching	Asynchronous Teaching
Interaction	Real-time	Delayed / Recorded
Flexibility	Low	High
Engagement	Immediate	Self-directed
Examples	Live lectures, webinars	Pre-recorded videos, discussion boards
Best for	Interactive learning, real-time Q&A	Self-paced study, flexible learning

3. Digital capabilities in support of teaching and learning

Online learning has transformed education and training by removing traditional barriers, offering flexibility, and allowing learners to access content anytime and anywhere. This flexibility is particularly valuable in military contexts, where personnel face unpredictable schedules and operational demands. Online education now extends far beyond basic video lectures or discussion forums. Advanced platforms support personalized learning paths, interactive simulations, and real-time collaboration – increasingly vital tools for delivering complex topics such as gender integration in military operations. What was seen as innovative ten years ago is now referred to as traditional training. Modern learners no longer rely solely on libraries and printed books; e-readers, e-magazines, and e-journals have already become vital research, training, and education resources.

Modern technologies have evolved into powerful training enablers. Artificial Intelligence (AI)³ and machine learning now drive adaptive learning systems that tailor content to each learner's role, experience level, and progress. AI-powered tools can help educators, instructors, and learners navigate and challenge gender stereotypes through tailored content, dynamic feedback, and adaptive learning systems.

One major application of AI in gender training is its ability to analyse and adapt course content to meet diverse learner needs. For instance, by leveraging natural language processing (NLP), AI can identify biased language in educational materials and provide neutral or inclusive alternative recommendations. This ensures that training resources are free from gendered assumptions and stereotypes, fostering a learning environment that reflects diverse perspectives.

AI-driven platforms can also generate personalised learning pathways, allowing participants to engage with content relevant to their knowledge level, interests, and professional roles, ensuring that everyone benefits equally from the training. AI can analyse participation patterns to identify and mitigate instances of dominant voices overshadowing others, ensuring that all learners contribute equitably.

Another innovative use of AI in gender training is virtual role-playing and simulations. AI-driven avatars and scenarios can simulate real-life challenges related to gender biases in various professional and social contexts. Learners can practice navigating these scenarios, receiving feedback from AI systems that analyse their responses and suggest improvements. This hands-on approach deepens understanding and builds critical skills for addressing gender-related challenges in everyday life.

Data analytics is another area where AI shines in gender training. By analysing large datasets, AI can uncover patterns and trends in learner engagement and outcomes, providing insights into the effectiveness of training programs. These insights enable educators to refine their approaches, addressing gaps and ensuring that the training meets its objectives.

Additionally, AI can track progress on individual and group levels, identifying areas where additional support or resources might be needed. AI-powered tools can offer 24/7 support, providing learners with instant feedback and guidance, which is particularly valuable in self-directed professional development.

Virtual reality (VR)⁴ and Augmented Reality (AR)⁵ enable military learners to experience realistic operational scenarios – including those involving gender-related challenges – without the risks of real-world training. Gamified platforms enhance motivation and retention, while mobile learning apps and microlearning modules allow personnel to train on-the-go, even in deployment environments.

In military education, these tools are not just supplementary but becoming essential. For example, simulation-based training allows military personnel to practice gender-sensitive decision-making in conflict zones, peacekeeping missions, or leadership roles. LMS centralizes access to these resources, tracks individual progress, and enables real-time feedback. Collaborative platforms, including secured social networks or institutional portals like the NATO School Members Portal⁶, foster peer-to-peer and community-based learning – important for nuanced topics like gender dynamics that benefit from discussion and reflection. Table 9.3 summarises the technological tools used in education and training and emphasises their capabilities to support teaching and learning.

Table 9.3. Technological tools in education and training

Technological Tool	Functions to Support Training
Learning Management Systems (LMS)	- Centralized platform for delivering, managing, and tracking training. - Facilitate online courses, assessments, and progress monitoring.
Virtual Reality (VR)	- Creates immersive simulations of real-world scenarios. - Allows for practicing skills in a safe, risk-free environment. - Useful for training in fields like healthcare, manufacturing, and safety.
Augmented Reality (AR)	- Overlays digital information onto the real world. - Provides on-the-job support and guidance. - Enhances practical training by providing real-time instructions.
Mobile Learning Apps	- Deliver training content to smartphones and tablets. - Offer flexible, on-the-go learning. - Can include microlearning modules, quizzes, and interactive content.
Microlearning Platforms	- Break down training into short, easily digestible modules. - Fit into busy schedules and increases knowledge retention.
Gamification	- Incorporates game elements into training (points, badges, leaderboards). - Increases engagement and motivation. - Makes learning fun and competitive.
Online Learning Platforms	- Facilitate collaboration and knowledge sharing among employees. - Provide discussion forums and chat features.
Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML)	- Personalize training content based on individual needs and progress (adaptive learning). - Provide insights and recommendations for optimizing training.
Video Conferencing and Webinar Software	- Enable live, interactive training sessions. - Support remote training and collaboration.
Simulation Software	- Allows for practising skills and procedures in a virtual environment. - Provides hands-on experience without the risks or costs of real-world training.

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”⁷. Concerning gender perspectives, 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, further influencing how content is transmitted to the learner.⁸ Peer-to-peer learning has a special relevance in adult education and vocational training. It differs from collaborative learning, where learners work together in small groups to solve a problem; peer-to-peer learning is where one learner leads another through a problem.⁹

4. Online models of teaching and learning

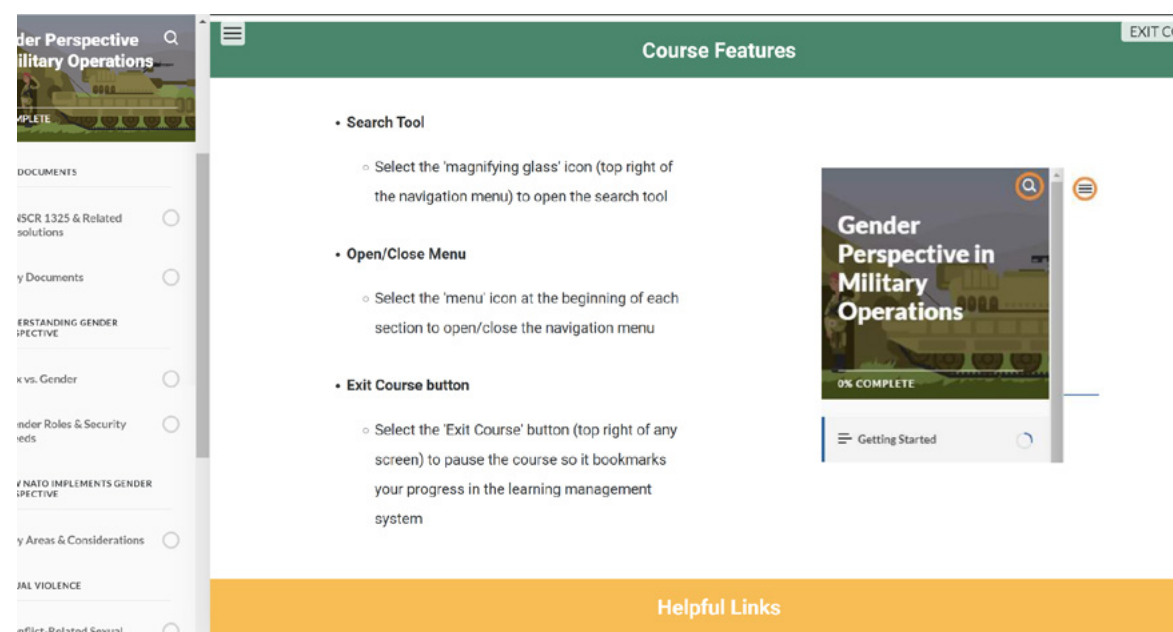
Selecting the right tool for online learning might be challenging. It depends on the audience and the course aim. The three options discussed here – stand-alone, tutor-in-the-loop, and blended – are today’s main online learning models. In some cases, a combination of them is found most effective, depending on the individual instructor and the needs of learners.

4.1 Stand-alone

Stand-alone e-learning courses and modules are often used to reach as many learners as possible. The advantage of this form of asynchronous e-learning¹⁰ 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.¹¹

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. Changing a 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. 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 9.2 Screenshot of gender perspective online course hosted on NATO e-learning LMS



There are advantages and disadvantages using stand-alone online course as a teaching method. Table 9.4 highlights some of the aspects which should be taken into consideration before choosing this specific model.

Table 9.4 Pros and Cons of Stand-Alone Online Courses

Aspect	Pros (Advantages)	Cons (Disadvantages)
Flexibility	Learn anytime, anywhere, and set your own schedule.	Requires strong self-discipline and time management.
Accessibility	Available worldwide with an internet connection.	Limited access for those without reliable internet or devices.
Affordability	Often more affordable than traditional education.	Some high-quality courses can still be expensive.
Variety of Courses	Covers a wide range of subjects and skills.	Course quality varies; some may lack depth or credibility.
Self-Paced Learning	Allows learners to progress at their own speed.	No structured deadlines can lead to procrastination.
Certification & Credentials	Some courses offer certificates for career advancement.	Not all certificates are accredited or valued by employers.
Learning Resources	Includes videos, readings, quizzes, and interactive tools.	Some courses lack real-world applications or hands-on practice.

When addressing a multinational military audience, some of the points should be considered:

- Stand-alone online courses are great for self-motivated learners who need flexibility.
- They work best when paired with structured goals and active engagement in learning communities.
- Not all courses are recognized professionally, so research accreditation before enrolling.

Stand-alone courses also offer a good opportunity to address gender aspects of the military by offering additional training opportunities. Still, there is also a need to give learners extra time within their weekly schedules to complete the course. Adding on top of a weekly schedule some more courses for self-studying is not enhancing the knowledge. Enough study time must be given to the learners to ensure successful learning by using a stand-alone course.

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 for learners to attend courses beyond the curriculum and offer additional learning resources for those wanting to study more¹².

4.2 Instructor/tutor-in-the-loop

An instructor or tutor-in-the-loop¹³ allows learners to interact with the content and 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 the instructor will answer regularly.

Box 9.3 Screenshot of the online classroom setup on an LMS

The tutor-in-the-loop model helps to facilitate learning communities and offers learners online spaces where they can exchange their ideas and thoughts. This online teaching model allows learners to focus on the content and encourages them to reflect on the studied topic. The instructor can facilitate online discussions and answer open questions to engage with the learners on specific topics and intensify the discussion level. Using this model, the learning moves from receiving information to engaging and interacting with the topic. The tutor-in-the-loop model also encourages participation in communities of practice and peer-to-peer learning¹⁴. The facilitator can moderate the communities. Still, collaborative learning is the driving agent since the facilitator is in an observing position and helps generate new ideas rather than actively contributing to online discussions.

This model requires assigning a subject matter expert (SME) willing to moderate and drive the discussions. As a result, the course can be more interactive, and the learner gets deeper knowledge of the topics. However, if the instructor/tutor plans to schedule online sessions, they must be mindful that it will limit the learner's freedom since it requires being online at a certain time. It also might limit the amount of people who will be reached.

4.3 Blended learning

"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."¹⁵

The blended learning model has proven successful within professional military education (PME) and training (national and multinational). Various training and education facilities widely use a combination of online courses (mostly stand-alone) and classroom instruction. The "blending" of these two models allows learners to prepare more thoroughly before 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.

Table 9.5 Which online teaching and learning model to choose?

Model	Specificity	Example related to teaching gender in the military
Stand-alone	- Learners interact with pre-prepared digital content independently, with no real-time support from an instructor. - Common in self-paced e-learning or Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs, www.mooc.org).	Completing a recorded gender training module on an LMS without instructor feedback.
Tutor-in-the-loop	- Learners engage with digital content with ongoing support from a tutor or instructor, who may intervene asynchronously (e.g., via forums or email) or synchronously (e.g., via live sessions). - Adds a human guidance layer to digital learning.	Military learners complete a gender module and receive personalized feedback from an SME.
Blended (or hybrid)	- Combines online learning with face-to-face sessions or synchronous virtual sessions. - Tries to use the best of both worlds – flexibility of online with interactivity of in-person.	A course on gender in military operations where learners first complete online units and then participate in an in-person role-playing simulation.

Thus, 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 a subject-matter expert (SME).

5. Instructional design for online courses

Instructional design is a critical foundation for any successful online course, especially when teaching complex and sometimes sensitive topics such as gender perspectives in the military. Unlike traditional classroom settings, where instructors can adjust their approach in response to immediate learner feedback, online learning environments demand a structured approach to ensure clarity, engagement, and impact. These design choices are even more consequential for military learners who may be participating from different locations, under tight schedules, or with limited internet access. Instructors must, therefore, adopt an instructional design approach that is not only pedagogically sound but also adapted to the realities of military learners and institutional culture.

At the core of effective online instructional design¹⁶ lies the clear articulation of learning outcomes (see Chapter 7). In the context of gender perspectives, this includes both cognitive and affective objectives as learners should not only acquire knowledge about gender norms, legal frameworks, or operational relevance, but also reflect on their own perceptions and attitudes.

When designing for an online environment, the course format significantly affects how much guidance and structure learners will need. A stand-alone course must be self-explanatory, with clear navigation, detailed instructions, and built-in feedback mechanisms. This includes the use of self-check quizzes, reflection prompts, and concise explanations that help the learner stay oriented and on track. On the other hand, if the course follows a tutor-in-the-loop model, instructors can plan for periodic interaction, feedback, and clarification. In

blended learning formats both components must be designed in concert. The online content should lay the foundation and be directly relevant to face-to-face instruction, with consistent terminology and conceptual flow.

Instructors must also pay attention to the selection and design of multimedia elements. A common mistake is overloading the course with too many visual or audio components to make it more engaging. However, more is not always better. Effective multimedia use is about balance and intention. Instructors should ensure coherence and alignment between words and visuals, avoid redundancy, and support learners in forming mental models through carefully integrated graphics, narration, and text¹⁷. In the case of teaching gender, multimedia can play a powerful role in illustrating abstract concepts or bringing real-world examples to life. Videos depicting operational scenarios involving men and women personnel or animations that walk learners through policy frameworks can be especially effective. If the course includes expert testimonials, instructors should strive to include women's voices and perspectives. This enriches the content and models gender balance for the learners.

One of the most practical ways to integrate a gender perspective into online instruction is through carefully and consistently using inclusive language (see Chapter 6). Instructors should avoid generic male pronouns or terminology that unconsciously reinforces gender stereotype or power imbalances. An intersectional perspective further encourages attention to cases where language might marginalize learners in overlapping ways – for instance, by ensuring examples do not default to middle-class, Western, or able-bodied experiences when discussing professional roles or family structures.

Case studies and scenario-based exercises are another key component of online instructional design that offer opportunities to integrate a gender perspective. Instructors should ensure that case studies present balanced viewpoints, exploring how different genders might experience or respond to a situation. These scenarios should be grounded in realistic operational settings that military learners can relate to, enhancing both relevance and engagement.

Box 9.4 Leveraging advances in technology to provide new training opportunities

Online training opportunities, including now also AI, have 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 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 applications in distributed simulation. Social networks, wikis, blogs, web page 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 similar potential, which is not generally recognized. It is up to the instructors and users to determine how useful the application of these technologies is within the interactive simulation community.¹⁸

Assessment is also an area where design decisions can reinforce gender sensitivity. Whether through multiple-choice quizzes, written reflections, or interactive exercises, the language and content of assessments should reflect the same inclusive principles as the rest of the course. Whether automated or tutor-provided, feedback should avoid defaulting to assumptions about the learner's gender or background.

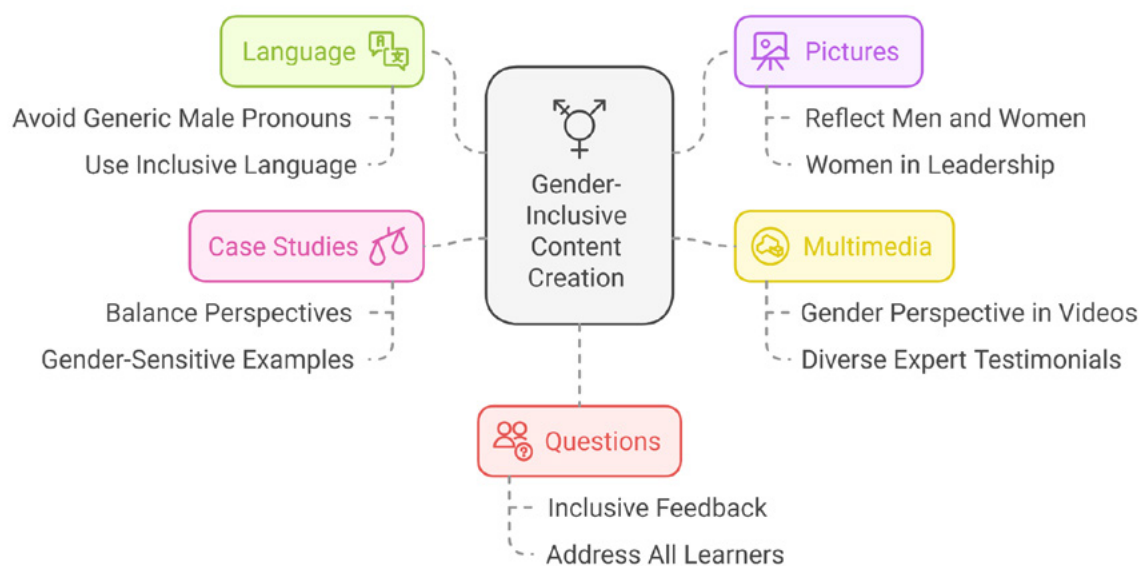
Teaching gender in a military context is not simply about transferring knowledge. It is about influencing attitudes and perspectives. This requires instructors to think critically about how the course environment itself can foster reflection and dialogue. Online platforms can support this through moderated discussion forums, chat features, or peer-review assignments. Even in stand-alone courses, opportunities for self-reflection can be built into the design through journaling prompts or branching scenarios that challenge learners to consider different outcomes based on gendered experiences.

Military learners bring their own professional norms, values, and experiences to the learning process. Instructors must be mindful of this context and frame gender not as an abstract social issue, but as an operationally relevant consideration that can affect mission success, team cohesion, and leadership. Positioning gender in this way, i.e., supported by real examples from operations, policy, and field experience, makes the topic more tangible and meaningful for the audience.

Finally, instructional design is never static. Instructors should build in course evaluation (see Chapter 8) and feedback mechanisms, allowing for iterative improvements. This includes collecting user feedback, monitoring engagement patterns, and staying up to date with both technological developments and evolving military policies on gender integration.

Thus, instructors are not content developers but facilitators of critical reflection and change. Box 9.5 summarizes the key elements of creating gender-inclusive content. By combining sound instructional design principles with a commitment to gender inclusivity, instructors can create online learning experiences that are accessible, relevant, and transformative for military learners.

Box 9.5 Gender inclusive content creation



6. Online learning opportunities on gender perspectives in the military

Courses on gender perspectives in the military, especially when delivered online, are no longer confined to general awareness modules. Instead, they now span a wide range of formats and levels from foundational Advanced Distributed Learning (ADL) programs to specialized modules focused on gender in operational planning, leadership, peacekeeping, or civil-military cooperation. Many of these are offered through institutional platforms such as NATO's Joint Advanced Distributed Learning (JADL) portal¹⁹, the UN's e-learning programs²⁰, or national defence education systems.

Several years ago, the NATO Allied Command Transformation (ACT), NATO School Oberammergau, and three working groups of the Partnership for Peace Consortium (PfPC) (Security Sector Reform, Education Development, and ADL) designed and developed the basic course on gender which is not only a good example of interdisciplinary and interagency collaboration but also an example of how NATO can deliver education and training on various topics to thousands of potential learners by using technology. Table 9.6 lists online courses, websites, and social media groups that focus on gender.

Table 9.6 Online resources on gender²¹

Delivery mode	Name	URL	Registration	Open access
Online course	ADL 168: Role of gender advisers and gender field advisers in operations	https://jatl.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://jatl.act.nato.int/	Registration needed	Unlimited access to the course (once registered to the LMS)
Online course	ADL 171: Gender focal point	https://jatl.act.nato.int/	Registration needed	Unlimited access to the course (once registered to the LMS)
Online course	ADL 135 Gender perspective	https://jatl.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 need for the free online courses	Some courses require a tuition fee
Online courses	UNITAR: Military Gender Advisor Course [2025]	https://event.unitar.org/full-catalog/military-gender-advisor-course-2025	Registration needed	Free accessible
Online resources	UN Military Gender Advisor – Reinforcement Training Packages (MGA-RTP)	https://peacekeepingresourcehub.un.org/en/training/rtp/mga	United Nations Peacekeeping Resource Hub	Free accessible
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. Conclusion

Digital technologies and online learning formats offer powerful tools to support gender education within the military. As this chapter has shown, these tools are increasingly essential for reaching different learners, adapting to operational constraints, and embedding gender perspectives into both curricula and military culture. Online platforms allow instructors to deliver content at scale, in a flexible and accessible format, while also supporting reflection, interaction, and the development of critical thinking. Stand-alone modules, tutor-supported learning environments, and blended learning offer different advantages, and should be chosen based on the training goals and learner needs.

Incorporating a gender perspective into online instruction involves thoughtful attention to language, representation, case materials, and assessment. Multimedia content and emerging technologies such as AI and virtual simulations further enhance learning, offering personalized, immersive experiences that promote deeper engagement. Moreover, online communities of practice and collaborative tools provide critical spaces for peer-to-peer learning and continued dialogue.

Ultimately, online education on gender in the military must be designed not only to inform, but to transform. As digital tools continue to evolve, so too must the instructional strategies used to teach with them. The ongoing development of innovative, accessible, and pedagogically sound online training will be vital to advancing gender equality and operational effectiveness in military settings.

8. Annotated bibliography

Swartz, Stephanie, Belem Barbosa, Izzy Crawford, and Susan Luck. *Developments in Virtual Learning Environments and the Global Workplace*. United States: IGI Global, 2021.

Although institutions of higher education have recognized the need for preparing their graduates for a digitalized, global workplace, these efforts have been sporadic, individualized, and varied from discipline to discipline. Nevertheless, over the past 10 years, trends such as “double classrooms,” “inverted classrooms,” and “collaborative online international learning” (COIL) have gained traction at universities across the globe.

Mazohl, Peter, Michail Filioglou, Nikos Tsimopoulos, Akrivi Anagnostaki, Katia Chaton Østlie, Juan Carlos Álvarez Cortés, Daniel Vertedor Ruiz, Harald Makl, and Kathrin Zehrfuchs. “Flipped Adult Education: A guide to implement Adult Education Trainings based on the Flipped Learning 3.0 Framework”. Ed. Peter Mazohl. FADE, 1 September 2021. https://www.fade-in.eu/download/Flipped-Adult_Education_Guide-Ver_6.2-Web.pdf

This publication is a guide to implement Flipped Learning 3.0 in Adult Education. It aims to provide support for adult education organisations or adult educators to creating courses using the Flipped Learning 3.0 Framework.

Chigona, Agnes, Helen Crompton, and Nyarai Tunjera. *Global Perspectives on Teaching with Technology: Theories, Case Studies, and Integration Strategies*. United Kingdom: Routledge, 2024.

This book resents a wealth of current research on how teacher education and training programs around the world are preparing teachers to integrate and apply learning technologies across subjects, grade levels, and regions. Digital tools are more integral than ever to an accessible and well-rounded education, although their rapid evolution and proliferation necessitate new guidance into their effective integration and intended outcomes. This book provides graduate students, faculty, and researchers of teacher education, as well as trainers of in-service teachers with field-tested frameworks, evidence-based theories and models, and real-world examples of the complexities and affordances of teaching with technology. Internationally sourced to reflect today's richly diverse and globalized learner populations, the case studies collected here offer fresh approaches for teacher educators and a springboard for education researchers studying how practitioners can thrive in their classrooms and foster equity among students.

Mejia, Madeleine and, Joshua M. Sargent. "Leveraging Technology to Develop Students' Critical Thinking Skills". *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, Vol. 51, No. 4 (April 3, 2023). <https://doi.org/10.1177/00472395231166613>.

This article describes the nexus of the Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework, principles of the Backward Curriculum Design process, and the Education 1.0, 2.0, & 3.0 communication flows working together to help TK-12 educators leverage technology tools to support the development of students' critical thinking skills. We offer the addition of the Backward Curriculum Design and Ed 1.0–3.0 communication flow to the TPACK framework to provide educators with a roadmap that evaluates the use of technology tools to reinforce higher levels of student learning and thinking. As well, we contextualize our additions to the TPACK framework with examples demonstrating how to assess, select and effectively incorporate technology, inclusive of artificial intelligence applications, into classroom instruction. A set of guiding questions using the principles of this new framework are included.

Shepherd, Clive. *More Than Blended Learning: Designing World-Class Learning Interventions*. Lulu Press, Incorporated, 2015.

Blended solutions combine contrasting learning methods and media in order to maximise effectiveness and efficiency. The More Than approach goes a step further to ensure the blend results in application to real-world tasks and the learner is supported along the whole length of their learning journey. In this book, Clive Shepherd, one of the world's leading experts on the design of adult learning interventions, describes a simple design process that can be applied successfully by any learning professional. Using storytelling, case studies and compelling analysis, Clive describes how and why the More Than approach can transform adult learning.

Stodd, Julian, Sae Schatz and, Geoff Stead. *Engines of Engagement – A Curious Book about Generative AI*. Sea Salt Publishing, 2023.

Engines of Engagement traverses a broad landscape of change, with deep consideration of how these powerful systems will impact our familiar mechanisms of creativity and productivity, artistry and education at individual, organisational, and societal levels. Generative AI technologies act as our new Engines: things that give us evolved forms of power and surface emergent abilities; things capable of driving prolific change but that also spew out significant uncertainty, discomfort, ambiguity, and risk. This discussion considers how we arrived at where we stand today, and it explores the varied paths that lie ahead, littered as they are with ethical, social, and technical hurdles.

Roushan, Gelareh, Martyn Polkinghorne, and Uma Patel. *Teaching and Learning with Innovative Technologies in Higher Education: Real-World Case Studies*. United Kingdom: Taylor & Francis, 2025.

This book provides a wealth of expertly curated case studies demonstrating how educators and technologists can leverage emerging digital technologies to enhance students' experiences. As university staff integrate transformative digital learning tools into their pedagogical practices with a mix of excitement and consternation, new insights are needed into the opportunities, success and limitations of these fast-evolving tools. This book presents real-world examples of effective, digitally enriched approaches to teaching delivery and standards, student engagement and inclusivity, immersive simulations and environments and beyond. Spanning a diverse, comprehensive range of digital technologies deployed in higher education, these practical case studies will guide novice and experienced academics across disciplines in updating their instructional skills and course content for new generations of learners.

Keane, Therese and Susanne Garvis. *Technological Innovations in Education: Applications in Education and Teaching*. Germany: Springer Nature Singapore, 2023.

This book provides a snapshot of technology and innovation in teacher education and teaching, highlighting innovations from the field and gaps in student learning. Case studies showcase the importance of social media and virtual reality to support teacher education students during their learning, which allows continued opportunities for scaffolding and building a strong foundation of teacher pedagogy. This book also explores topics for future research and the theoretical and practical development of future technological advances to support all students in educational settings. It discusses practical advice for teachers and teacher educators to implement technology and innovative practices in their classrooms to support and expand learning.

8.1 Online resources

Psico-smart Editorial Team. "How can technology be leveraged to enhance gender inclusion initiatives?". *psico-smart.com* (blog). August 28, 2024. <https://psico-smart.com/en/blogs/blog-how-can-technology-be-leveraged-to-enhance-gender-inclusion-initiatives-152442>.

This article summarizes several cases on using technology to enhance gender inclusion.

University of Colorado Boulder. "Leveraging Technology for Effective Teaching". Center for Teaching & Learning. University of Colorado Boulder. Accessed on 31 March 2025. <https://www.colorado.edu/center/teaching-learning/teaching-resources/teaching-technology>.

The Center for Teaching & Learning (CTL) recognizes the growing role of technology in higher education and its power to transform learning. By integrating tools like learning management systems, multimedia, virtual simulations, or remote communication platforms, educators can enhance engagement, promote collaboration, personalize learning, and improve accessibility.

NATO eLearning. "Joint Advanced Distributed Learning – Learning Management System". <https://jadel.act.nato.int/>.

NATO's joint advanced distance 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.

NATO Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) eAcademy. "NATO DEEP ADL Portal". <https://deepportal.hq.nato.int/>.

The platform has a wide variety of free courses available to partners. All online courses are free to join.

NATO. "ADL Working Group: Celebrating 10 years serving NATO/PfP", *NATO School Today*, slideshare.net. Accessed March 31, 2025. <https://www.slideshare.net/slideshow/nato-school-magazine-adl-10-years-special/2557291>.

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.

Geiss, Tanja and Roman Gigi. "Building communities of practice through collaborative learning at NATO School". *National Defence University Publishing House*, No 2 (2013). <https://www.cceol.com/search/article-detail?id=204454>.

The *Journal of Advanced Distributed Learning Technology* aims to make a significant contribution to the exchange of information on ADL topics, enhance knowledge-sharing processes and stimulate progress of scientific research on technology-enhanced learning. The articles published in the journal will provide insights on the current state of the art and the emerging trends in multidisciplinary environments that involve universities, companies, civil society and institutions. Through these articles, the journal promotes the development and implementation of the ADL principles for learning in Romania and other countries.

"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.

Defence Support Services Center, "The NATO Advanced Digital Learning Handbook" (2023), <https://adlnet.gov/publications/2023/02/The-NATO-Advanced-Digital-Learning-Handbook/>.

This handbook provides practical guidance to organizations for the creation and/or the procurement, implementation, and evaluation of Advanced Digital Learning (ADL). This handbook is not meant to be all-encompassing. It is an overarching look at ADL concepts and some of the tools used to develop ADL. Nations are intended to use this handbook as a starting point and supplement it with additional guidance that is applicable to their own policies and procedures.

Endnotes

1. E-learning is learning done by studying at home using computers and courses provided on the internet. https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/e-learning#google_vignette.
2. Blended learning is an educational approach that combines traditional face-to-face instruction with digital and online learning components. It integrates the best aspects of in-person teaching with the flexibility and accessibility of digital tools, creating a hybrid learning environment.
3. Artificial intelligence (AI) is a broad field of computer science concerned with building machines capable of performing tasks that typically require human intelligence. For more on AI please see the part 7. of this chapter.
4. Virtual reality (VR) is a technology that creates simulated experiences. In essence, virtual reality seeks to trick the user's senses into believing they are in a different environment. The UN and NATO online course "Children in Armed Conflict" can be used as a simple e-learning course or used as a VR version.
5. Augmented reality (AR) is a technology that enhances the real world with digital overlays. In essence, AR aims to make the real world more informative and engaging by adding layers of digital information.
6. NATO School Members Portal: till 2020 NATO School used besides a Learning Management System (LMS) portal technology, the so-called NATO School Members Portal. Meanwhile the portal is retired.
7. Flipped Learning Network, "Definition of flipped learning", Flipped Learning Network, (March 12, 2014), www.flippedlearning.org/definition.
8. Annette M. Sauter, Werner Sauter, and Harald Bender, *Blended Learning* (Munich: Luchterhand, 2004), 67.
9. Itworx Education, "Collaborative learning versus peer-to-peer learning" (November 27, 2014), www.itworx.education/collaborative-learning-vs-peer-to-peer-learning/.
10. Stefan Hrastinski, "Asynchronous and Synchronous e-learning", *Educause Quarterly* 31, No. 4 (2008), 51–55.
11. Josh Bersin, *The Blended Learning Book: Best Practices, Proven Methodologies, and Lessons Learned* (San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer, 2004), 3.
12. For further information on the benefits of online courses: <https://extension.harvard.edu/blog/going-the-distance-why-online-learning-works/> (Accessed: 09.02.2024)
13. This means the course is an online or blended learning program where a human instructor actively participates in the teaching process. Unlike fully self-paced courses, these courses integrate real-time or scheduled instructor interaction for guidance, feedback, and support.
14. Students can deepen their understanding of a topic through Communities of Practice and Peer-to-Peer Learning by actively engaging in discussions, sharing experiences, and collaborating on problem-solving. These methods leverage social learning to build expertise in a subject.
15. Bersin, note 9 above, XV.
16. For further information on how to create online course please refer to: Defence Support Services Center, "The NATO Advanced Digital Learning Handbook" (2023), <https://adlnet.gov/publications/2023/02/The-NATO-Advanced-Digital-Learning-Handbook/>.
17. Roxano Moreno and Richard E. Mayer, "Cognitive principles of multimedia learning: The role of modality and contiguity", *Journal of Educational Psychology* 91, No. 2. (1999), 358–368.
18. Roger Smith, "Web 2.0 and warfighter training" (December 18, 2014), <http://docslide.us/business/web20-and-warfighter-training.html>.
19. NATO Joint Advanced Distributed Learning (URL see table 9.6).
20. UN learning portal (URL see table 9.6).
21. This list does not claim completeness. The online courses and online resources are special focusing on the topic of gender in a military context, e.g. military Gender Advisors.

Mentoring and Coaching in Professional Development

Nathalie Levesque (Canada) and Maka Petriashvili (Georgia)¹

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1. Introduction

Over the last decade coaching and mentoring programmes, as developmental activities, 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 (CAF) published a mentoring handbook to increase the number of mentoring programmes in its organization.² Similarly, the Georgian Ministry of Defence (MoD) has developed a Mentoring Handbook³ and established a Mentoring Programme, which it paired with the Women in Defence programme.⁴ A good example of military coaching comes from the Swedish Armed Forces, which ran a programme as part of a national framework. (see Annex 2 of this chapter). The coaching Program from the Swedish Armed Forces was considered so important that the South-Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SEESAC) decided to conduct the Programme with decision-makers and high-level military commanders in the Ministries of Defense and Armed Forces in the Western Balkans.⁵

Mentoring and coaching are not new concepts in training and education and have existed in some form throughout history in most militaries. They are increasingly being recognised as informal yet effective approaches for personal and organisational learning⁶ as well as the further application and sustainability of knowledge and skills gained through training and education.

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 1980,⁷ in which the learner takes responsibility for his or her own learning such that it becomes more motivating.⁸

As covered in chapter 5 of this handbook, the adult is more independent, learns from experience, is ready to learn when it is directed towards growth and development in their work, wants their learning to be applicable to their everyday lives, and learns how to solve problems and work better. Finally, their motivation to learn is that they have a reason to learn.⁹ Transformational coaching incorporates adult learning principles based on the following six core assumptions: 1. Learning must be relevant and goal-oriented because adults learn best when they know why they are learning. 2. Adults learn best when they are self-directing and in control of their learning because they have a formed self-concept and identity of who they are—respecting the individuality of the adult. 3. Adults come with life experiences they can use to reflect on and learn from. 4. Adults come to learn when they need it and use it to solve real-life problems. 5. Adults prefer practical applications focused on life, tasks, and or problems rather than subject or content-centered. 6. Adults are motivated.¹⁰

Because of these principles, it is crucial that the key leaders and Gender Advisers (GENADs) apply their mentoring and/or coaching skills to educate the people within and outside their organization on gender integration. By doing this, they will better influence everyone in all aspects of their work.

Adult learning and education play a fundamental role in fostering social justice, embracing diversity and promoting inclusion, which would directly impact gender integration per se. To reinforce the importance of integrating mentoring and coaching for leaders and gender advisors, the European Association for Education of Adults (EAEA) makes recommendations to European and national policymakers, which are, among other: Recognize the benefits of non-formal adult learning and education for individuals, communities, and society – for democracy, labour markets, health systems, and other key areas and Support peer learning networks and mentorship programmes to share best practices and innovation in Adult Learning and Education.¹¹ These recommendations could also apply to policymakers within all NATO allies and partners in order to support the implementation of the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 Women, Peace and Security and would contribute to gender integration.

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. For instance, Clutterbuck argues that “mentoring might look at individuals’ careers and self-development, whereas coaching might focus on a particular task, competence or behaviour”.¹²

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 of teaching gender in the military. 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.”¹³ It is also a dynamic developmental relationship in which a mentor shares his or her own knowledge and experience.¹⁴ Usually, a mentor/mentee relationship is based on four developmental pillars:

- leadership development;
- professional development;
- career development;
- personal development.

Box 10.1 Perceptions of mentoring

Mentoring is an unselfish, altruistic, interpersonal process. 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. It is a phenomenon that appears in almost every large corporation.¹⁵

Mentoring is widely regarded as positively impacting military careers, but men and women perceive its role differently, according to research conducted in the US Army. Men emphasized mentoring as a tool for career advancement. At the same time, women primarily see it as a means of surviving in an organization dominated by men, where gender shapes the perceptions of them and their actions.¹⁶

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 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 workplace challenges, whether those are specific to gender or more related to management.¹⁷

Renowned leaders in military organizations have often taken on informal mentoring roles, establishing relationships with one or more subordinates and providing guidance.¹⁸ 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.¹⁹

Currently, every service component in the US military has either a formal or informal mentoring system. This is especially the case within the officer corps, where a well-paired mentor can help fast-track a younger officer towards a successful career.²⁰

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.²¹

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."²²

Box 10.3 Mentoring and Women Empowerment Programs in the Ministry of Defence of Georgia

The mentorship program has been established in the Georgian MoD with the support of its international partners. Two parallel projects complemented each other to establish mentoring programs and promote gender equality. The European Union Public Administration Reform (EU PAR) program has supported in the development of Mentorship guidelines and mentor training. UN Women and DCAF have implemented the Women in Defence Program to empower women and support women leaders' professional and personal development through various mechanisms, including Mentorship. Further, to strengthen women's capacities, the program provided educational and training sessions on gender psychology and gender bias, as well as practical leadership and mentoring skills. The program gathered senior service men and women to serve as mentors.²³

The female Lieutenant Colonel project participant discussed her aspiration as a mentor: "I felt a strong desire to share my experiences with the newcomers, helping them navigate potential obstacles more smoothly than I did."²⁴

The mentoring program started in 2023 in Georgian MoD. Mentorship lasts six months and can be prolonged up to twelve months. Mentorship goals are the following:

- Develop mentee's personal, professional, and leadership competencies;
- Support the mentee's adaptation/integration to the organizational culture and values, new position or team;
- Acquire/develop new skills/competencies for further career advancement for mentees and for mentors.

There are two types of mentoring programs:

- The Field Mentoring Program aims to acquire new knowledge on various topics, including gender equality and women, peace, and security agenda.
- The Management and Leadership Mentoring Program focused on leadership and management skills development.²⁵

Ministry of Defence of Georgia, 'Handbook on Mentoring Program', 2023.

Everyone in a military institution has a clear responsibility to contribute to the development of their subordinates.²⁶ Many personnel working in gender-related roles, 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.²⁷

2.2 How is mentoring relevant to teaching gender in the military?

In modern organizational and teaching contexts, mentoring has three conceptual dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and social. The cognitive dimension focuses on providing technical knowledge and expertise; the emotional dimension offers personal care and support, fostering trust and connection; and the social dimension facilitates interpersonal interactions and relation-building. Unlike old-fashioned hierarchical learning, such three-dimensional mentoring focuses on constructivist-oriented learning where mentors work as co-learners to collaborate with mentees for developing pedagogical understanding and capabilities."²⁸

Many educational institutions, including Professional Military Education, use mentoring as a faculty development tool. US National Defense University states that mentoring is part of its Education Transformation Plan and employs mentoring as a developmental tool for faculty and for Master and Doctoral students. Faculty mentors help students understand and perform academically according to their needs and monitor the progress throughout the study. The mentor's role for doctoral students is focused on research planning and development, constructing research questions and methodologies. Such hybrid teaching is proven to be effective in adult learning, especially when the institution is developing a new program and supports the development of multiple education tracks. Educational institutions also use mentoring for new instructors to foster their navigation and expand their teaching expertise. The Transformation plan brings an individualized approach and embraces diversity.²⁹

Mentorship is referred to as a "developmental relationship"³⁰ is a powerful tool for transferring knowledge and experience on various topics, including gender equality, gender biases, and stereotypes. Increasing gender awareness among younger and less experienced servicemen and women fosters a better understanding of gender perspectives in military organizations and operations. Gender mentoring can be incorporated within leadership development mentoring or stand-alone.

Gender awareness integrated into leadership development mentoring programs can shape emerging military leaders' leadership styles and behavior. Leadership development mentoring focuses on developing the mentee's communication, strategic and critical thinking, and team management skills, which intersect with gender-conscious leadership. The success of organizations, including the military, depends on the diversity of talents, and mentorship plays a critical role in ensuring such diversity.³¹

Men and women see and respond differently to mentoring, and these differences must be considered in planning and implementing mentoring within the organization. Mentors' training should include information and discussions on how gender differences affect the mentorship relationship. Gender-responsive and gender-sensitive mentoring preparation helps mentors transfer knowledge and encourages mentees to understand gender biases and stereotypes they may have experienced from others.³²

While gender-specific topics such as women's health or maternity could be better mentored within the same sex, military organizations exercise cross-gendered mentoring. Cross-gendered mentoring can be a valuable tool in military organizations where the majority of the workforce and leadership are men, and military women may face difficulties in finding women mentors for long-term and impactful mentorship.³³ In addition to that, the high-ranked women mentor's pool is smaller, and military women have less access to "influential colleagues with whom to network as a major barrier to advancement," and women's networks are less likely to help each other in career advancements informally.³⁴

Mentoring also plays an important role in the retention and promotion of personnel in the military. Chapter 6 notes that 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 tend to choose those with similar interests and backgrounds. In this way, those from dominant groups within the armed forces are given an unfair advantage regarding moral and educational support. They also have greater access to knowledge, 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.³⁵

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 men 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 men 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.,³⁶ 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.³⁷ 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 reduces the time it takes for someone to become effective and efficient in the new role.

In 2017, the Department of National Defence and the CAF have piloted and then implemented The Defence Team Coaching Program to foster leadership development and promote behaviour that facilitates creating and maintaining inclusive environments.³⁸

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 have not 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 to analyse 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 the first edition of this handbook³⁹. 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”.⁴⁰ 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 identifying and preventing discriminatory behaviour and promoting an environment where all personnel are valued based not on their identity or appearance but rather on their contribution to the unit.

Coaching to students and instructors are also employed in Professional Military Education. In addition to instructors and student mentoring, professional military Education employs Peer Coaching as a leadership development tool. “Peer coaching is a guided relational process between two colleagues of relatively equal status. Each person coaches the other utilising defined coaching dialogues to improve ways of thinking, being, and learning.”⁴¹ US Naval War College teaches a one-week peer coaching course integrated into a 10-week academic trimester in a year-long leader development program. They also arrange coaching-related professional development events. Professor Liz Cavallaro, whose portfolio includes coaching to students, has coached women on how to seek mentors and develop negotiation and persuasive skills. “Regardless of how successful we’ve been, how competent and capable we are, we all have things internally that hold us back,” she said. “And the coaching skill set to identify those and bring those to the surface, I find, really transfers (here.)”.⁴²

However, it should be mentioned that coaching and mentoring are still limited for faculty or student development, as “professional military education programs at all levels are also under pressure to cram additional subject material... or further, crowd out faculty time and energy to devote to coaching and mentoring.”⁴³ Therefore, gender perspectives of mentoring and coaching are less researched and practiced.

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. 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.

The mentoring handbook of the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute highlights some of the major distinctions between mentoring and coaching.⁴⁴

Table 10.1 Mentoring versus coaching

Mentoring	Coaching
- 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. Mentors are sought when individuals: - 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.	- 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. Coaches are sought when individuals: - Are concerned about some aspect of their performance. - Want to make specific changes in behaviour. - Want to acquire some specific skills.

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.

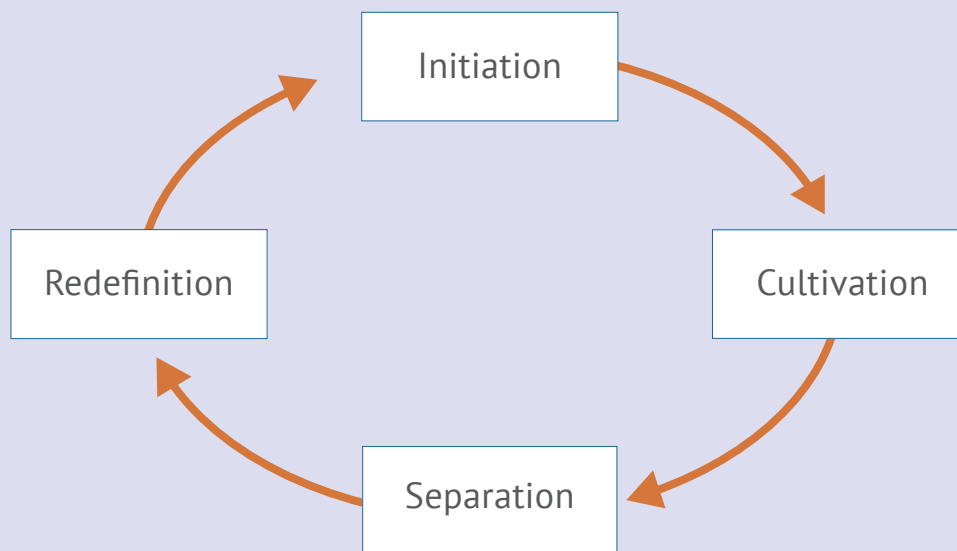
Gray's⁴⁵ model (Box 10.4) of mentoring processes examines changes in the mentee that are observable from the outside, and how these affect the kinds of activities undertaken by the mentor. It highlights the importance of the mentor's diminishing role in the work of the mentee (or "protégé(e)", to use Gray's terminology) in order to achieve the objectives of the mentorship programme.

Box 10.4 Gray's five-phase mentoring model⁴⁶

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 characteristic	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(e)s.

On the other hand, Kram's model (Box 10.5) 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.⁴⁷

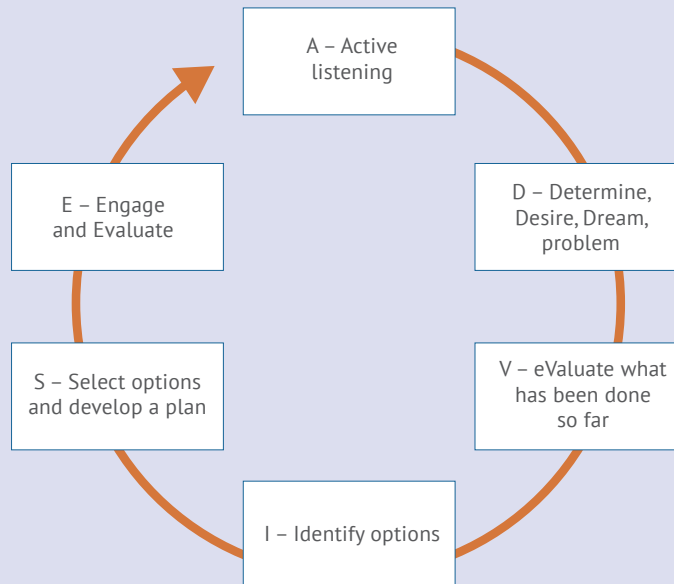
Box 10.5 Kram's phases of the mentor relationship⁴⁸



Stage	I	II	III	IV
Main theme	Initiation	Cultivation	Separation	Redefinition
Type of activity ⁴⁹	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.

There are many different coaching process modes suggested and defined in the literature but the vast majority include training, developing a plan and making the coachee 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).⁵⁰

Box 10.6 A practical approach to advising as coaching⁵¹



One of the key distinctions of the coaching process (compared to mentoring) in 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.

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.⁵²

Table 10.2 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
✓ 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)	✓ 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
✓ Raise self-awareness ✓ Provide feedback ✓ Increase motivation ✓ Build self-confidence and are not 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	✓ 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

“... 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 Army⁵³

The importance of coaching and mentoring is widely accepted within senior military circles.⁵⁴ 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.⁵⁵ 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”.⁵⁶ 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.⁵⁷ Indeed, the CAF 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.⁵⁸

In addition, The Department of National Defence (DND) CAF launched a pilot of the Canadian Forces Coaching Program in 2017 to support Defence Team managers to build upon their leadership capability, confidence and capacity. The program helps grow a leader's capacity. The coaching program is still available to senior CAF and Defence Team leaders and it is designed to align leadership behaviour with organisational objectives in a way that is relevant to those they lead and considerate of the realities of a modern workforce.⁵⁹ In 2020, the CAF created a new organization, the Chief of Professional Conduct and Culture, to address challenges, and the Chief of Defense staff tasked one of its organisations to "accelerate the implementation and update the Defence Team coaching program, which would contribute to the transformational change of DND and the CAF.

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.⁶⁰ 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.⁶¹ 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.

To reinforce the importance of coaching in the military, the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations holds its annual NATO-approved Key Leader Seminar on Gender in Military Operations with the aim to increase key leader's knowledge on how to integrate gender perspectives into operations planning, execution and evaluation at strategic and operational level and how to argue in favour of integrating gender perspectives at political – and military strategic level..⁶²

In June 2024, the Polish Lieutenant General Janusz Adamczak shared his vision with the participants: "As senior leaders, we have a responsibility first, to ensure that we understand what the gender perspective is ourselves [...], then we must take responsibility for building understanding among our people, showing them how gender perspective relates to their specific roles or functions – from intelligence analysis of the battlespace, to resilience planning or cross-governmental stakeholders' engagement".⁶³

This statement reinforces the fact that the Swedish coaching program is key for gender integration into all operational domains. Getting better understanding, key leaders will be able to mentor their staff at every level. They cannot be doing this alone, the role of GENADs is also crucial since they can mentor and provide guidance at every level and in all aspects mentioned above. In addition, GENADs' support and analysis capacity contribute to enhancing both the fighting power and operational effectiveness, therein creating effects which contribute to achieve, not only the political objectives of WPS agenda in promoting gender equality, but also, when fully aligned with the commander's intent and priorities, contribute to achieving the military strategic, operational and tactical objectives, to reach the desired end state.⁶⁴

To boost the gender responsiveness of the military leadership, in 2024, SEESAC completed the eighth cycle of the Gender Coach Program (GCP). GCP is a mentorship program aimed at enhancing skills and nurturing the commitment of the senior military leadership to tackling gender equality within their institution. As a follow-up of the regional baseline study on integrating a gender perspective in military education, the Network of Gender Military Trainers with SEESAC's support completed and promoted the online course on gender equality among

their respective Ministries and Armed Forces staff. The online gender course is intended for all personnel aiming to increase and standardize their knowledge on the importance of gender equality in defence.⁶⁵

SEESAC facilitates regional cooperation among relevant security institutions to strengthen gender equality mechanisms, combat gender-based discrimination, implement evidence-based policies, and strengthen gender-responsive leadership.⁶⁶ In November 2024, SEESAC completed the ninth Gender Coaching Programme cycle with decision makers and high-level military commanders in the Ministries of Defense and Armed Forces in the Western Balkans. The Programme is tailored and aims to advance the knowledge and skills of key military leaders to integrate a gender perspective into their everyday jobs effectively. In September 2024, The Secretary general released the 2024 report on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) underline the Western Balkans' contribution to implementing the WPS Agenda. "...how to integrate gender perspective, and change military education and training material, thereby contributing to a steady increase in the share of women in uniform."⁶⁷ This recognition confirm the importance of this kind of programme in fostering gender equality in the Defense.⁶⁸

It is important to mention the roles of the key leaders in the development and the integration of gender within the complexity of military organizations because that requires prioritizing and making decisions on the core objectives, practices, methods, recruitment and working culture, and resource distribution of an organization⁶⁹ but the importance of GENADs and Gender focal points at every level of the organizations is also crucial. The Bi-Strategic Command Directive 040-001 on Integrating Gender Perspective into the NATO Command Structure that was revised in 2021 highlight the roles of the Gender advisor and Gender focal points, that are responsible for providing advice and support on the integration of gender perspective and gender mainstreaming to the NATO Commanders, leadership and staff.⁷⁰ It is also important that GENADs and Gender focal points receive education on how to coach and/or mentor at every level of their organization. These functions are crucial for the continual integration of gender perspective into a multi-domain organization. Their skills and abilities to coach and mentor will contribute to facilitate the processes in which gender perspectives have to be integrated from political to policies, to planning activities and all daily work.

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.⁷¹ 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 a mentor and a mentee to use together to guide the process.⁷² 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.⁷³

6. Conclusion

Mentoring and coaching make an important contribution to efficient teaching of gender in 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 cases in this chapter, coaching and mentoring become more and more significant in every organization 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. It is vital that such programs should be gender-responsive. It is crucial that there also exist special tailored mentoring programs focusing on gender perspective in the military.

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 ensuring 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 GENADs.

Mentoring and coaching are instrumental in leader development and are key to improving organizations, especially in terms of promoting gender equality. While more work may still be needed to define 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.

7. Annotated bibliography

Cavallaro, Liz, and Olenda E Johnson. "Peer Coaching as a Leader Development Tool in Professional Military Education". *Journal of Military Learning* (October 2023). <https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Portals/7/journal-of-military-learning/Archives/October-2023/Peer-Coaching/Cavallaro-Peer%20Coaching%20and%20PME.pdf>.

This article explores the use of peer coaching in professional military education (PME) as a structured method for leadership development. The authors outline its benefits—such as enhancing peer relationships, fostering critical thinking, and promoting self-reflection—while addressing common obstacles like scepticism and resistance within military culture.

DCAF. "Changing Mindsets for Gender Equal Security Institutions: Georgia Case Study". DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance. Accessed January 2, 2025. <https://www.dcaf.ch/changing-mindsets-gender-equal-security-institutions-georgia-case-study>.

One cannot change what has yet to be measured. It is with this in mind that DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance (DCAF) undertook a structured, purposefully designed evaluative exercise to understand the impact of select activities implemented in 2022 and 2023 as part of the Ministry of Defense's Women in Defense program, under UN Women's Accelerating the Implementation of the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Agenda in Georgia program. This change story was designed to highlight progress by the Georgian Ministry of Defence (MoD) and the Georgian Defense Forces (GDF) toward gender equality and DCAF's contribution to this journey.

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 ed. 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>.

Department of Defense, Human Resources Functional Community. "Coaching and Mentoring". Volume 3, No 5 (September, 2022). <https://www.dcpas.osd.mil/sites/default/files/HRFC%20Newsletter%20Volume%203%20Issue%205%20-%20September%202022.pdf>.

In this issue, the authors feature two equally valuable, yet distinct, forms of employee development: coaching and mentoring. The terms "coaching" and "mentoring" are often used interchangeably, but they do not embody the same relationship. While each approach shares specific goals leading to peak performance and realizing one's full professional potential, the focus, roles, definitions, and approaches of coaching and mentoring are different. It is important that we create a workforce and culture that encourages and offers coaching and mentoring opportunities to empower our HR practitioners. As such, several articles in this issue provide information on the various coaching and mentoring programs established within the Department.

European Association for the Education of Adults. "EAEA Manifesto for Adult Learning in the 21st Century: The Power and Joy of Learning". European Association for the Education of Adults. Accessed January 19, 2025. <https://eaea.org/our-work/influencing-policy/manifesto-for-adult-learning-in-the-21st-century/>.

The new EAEA manifesto 2024 demonstrates how adult learning and education (ALE) can help change lives and transform societies. EAEA proposes, with this manifesto, to create a Learning Europe: a Europe that can shape its future positively and with all the necessary skills, knowledge, and competences. EAEA and its 120 members, in 43 European countries, propose a Europe-wide effort to develop a society that can deal with the challenges of our time through adult learning and education.

Felix, Kristyn, Ebony Thomas. "The Power and Pitfalls of Gender-Specific Mentorship". AUSA. June 23, 2020. <https://www.ausa.org/articles/power-and-pitfalls-gender-specific-mentorship>.

This article explores the role of mentorship in the Army, emphasizing its necessity for leadership development and inclusion. Villamizar critically examines gender-specific mentorship programs, weighing their benefits in addressing unique challenges faced by women soldiers against the potential drawbacks of segregation and trust erosion within the ranks.

Galvin, Thomas, and Charles Allen. "Professional Military Education Mentoring Has Value When Your Soldiers Want for Experience". *Army* (July 2015). [https://ssl.armywarcollege.edu/DCLM/pubs/professional-military-ed_Mentoring%20\(Galvin%20Allen,%20ARMY,%20July%202015\).pdf](https://ssl.armywarcollege.edu/DCLM/pubs/professional-military-ed_Mentoring%20(Galvin%20Allen,%20ARMY,%20July%202015).pdf).

Counselling, coaching and mentoring are analysed as three important leader development activities.

Kimball, Raymond A. *The Army Officer's Guide to Mentoring*. West Point, New York: The Center for the Advancement of Leader Development and Organizational Learning, 2015. <https://athena.westpoint.edu/bitstreams/1424bbbf-78e0-4741-bdef-4b3f77f789a4/download>.

This is a comprehensive study into the US Army Mentoring practices and definitions. As a well-researched academic read, the author provides lots of personal examples and stories which keep readers engaged and thinking about the topic being illustrated.

Lagacé-Roy, Daniel and Janine Knackstedt. *Mentoring Handbook*. Ottawa: Department of National Defence, Canada, 2007. http://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2013/dn-nd/D2-317-2007-eng.pdf

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.

Merriam, Sharan B., and Laura L. Bierema. *Adult Learning: Linking Theory and Practice*. 1st edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2013. <https://www.amazon.com/Adult-Learning-Linking-Theory-Practice/dp/111813057X>.

Solidly grounded in theory and research, but concise and practice-oriented, *Adult Learning: Linking Theory and Practice* is perfect for master's-level students and practitioners alike. The authors have infused each chapter with practical applications for instruction which will help readers personally relate to the material.

National Mentoring Resource Center. "Mentoring Fact Sheet: Gender-Specific Approaches in Mentoring". Accessed January 18, 2025. <https://nationalmentoringresourcecenter.org/resource/mentoring-fact-sheet-gender-specific-approaches-in-mentoring/>.

This Mentoring Fact Sheet from the U.S. Department of Education's Mentoring Resource Center explains how mentoring practitioners can help mentors understand gender difference and the potential impact of gender on their mentoring relationships. It reviews tips and strategies for providing ongoing training and support on gender-informed mentoring approaches that are intended to help mentors develop effective and positive relationships with their mentees.

Riley, Brandon S. "Mentorship: More than a buzzword?". Force Modernization Proponent Center. June 18, 2018. <https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Portals/7/nco-journal/docs/Mentorship-More-Than-a-Buzzword.pdf>.

Leadership and mentorship are connected, and quality mentorship occurs naturally from engaged leadership. To be a quality mentor, you must understand the qualities, attributes, and different aspects of leadership.

Portillo, Shannon, Amy E. Smith, and Alesha Doan. "Up the Chain: Gendered Mentoring in the U.S. Army". *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, Vol. 43, No. 2 (February 21, 2022). <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X221076770>.

While mentoring is recognized as important for career advancement, less is known about the nature of mentoring in public sector organizations dominated by men. In this paper we explore how mentoring functions in the U.S. Army—a public service organization dominated by men. Using data from a mixed method study, including survey data from approximately 1,200 Army personnel and analysis of 27 focus groups with 198 participants, the authors find that mentoring quality matters for all employees, but it matters more for women. The authors also find that mentoring is gendered, shaping the career trajectories of women and men in different ways.

Richard, Dan. "The Importance of Cross-Gender Mentorship in the Army". Military Mentors. January 1, 2025. <https://www.militarymentors.org/post/the-importance-of-cross-gender-mentorship-in-the-army>.

Research shows mentorship can have an immense impact on individuals and has a direct correlation to overall organizational performance. In an environment where men make up nearly 84% of the workforce, it is unsurprising that women have difficulty identifying someone who can provide a long-term relationship needed for impactful mentorship. The fact men routinely create roadblocks that prohibit mentor/mentee relationships only increases the stigma of cross-gender mentorship in the military.

SEESAC. "Good Practices from the Western Balkans Featured in the UN Secretary-General Annual Report on Women, Peace and Security". Seesac.org. Accessed January 19, 2025. <https://www.seesac.org/News-Gender-in-Security-Sector/Good-Practices-on-Women-Peace-and-Security-from-the-Western-Balkans-Featured-in-the-UN-Secretary-General-Annual-Report-on-Women-Peace-and-Security/>.

Since 2012, UNDP SEESAC has supported the four Ministries of Defence to further strengthen the gender perspective in security sector reform in line with the Women, Peace and Security and Sustainable Development Goals Agenda. Apart from tailor-made activities at the national level, SEESAC facilitates regional cooperation among MoDs, strengthening their capacities to implement gender-responsive and evidence-based policies and increasing the participation of uniformed women in the armed forces in the Western Balkans.

DCAF. "Strength through Unity: The Power of Networking for Women in Security Forces." DCAF – Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance. Accessed January 19, 2025. <https://www.dcaf.ch/strength-through-unity-power-networking-women-security-forces>.

Since women's full participation at all levels in the defense sector is necessary to promote gender equality and enhanced military effectiveness, efforts to recruit, retain and promote women are fundamental for success. One of these efforts – creating special networks among women – has proven to be an excellent method to support women and encourage their progression and promotion to leadership roles. Successful networking isn't just about connecting with people on a personal level; it's about building a community to share experiences and ideas, shape collective thinking, solve problems, and create opportunities for each other.

Government of Canada. "The Evolution of Culture: An Update from CPCC". Government of Canada. December 15, 2022. <https://www.canada.ca/en/department-national-defence/maple-leaf/defence/2022/12/evolution-culture-update-cpcc.html>.

The world is changing at an increased rate and complexity for our leaders, teams, and DND/CAF. We must replace dysfunctional conflict with a healthy exchange of ideas and solutions to enable our teams to adapt, innovate, and perform at their best. Chief Professional Conduct and Culture (CPCC) is committed to leading and enabling DND/CAF on the path of continuous improvement. To do so, CPCC works top down, bottom up and horizontally. You will find an update on some of the initiatives CPCC is leading to enable culture evolution.

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AUSA. "The Power and Pitfalls of Gender-Specific Mentorship". AUSA. June 23, 2020. <https://www.ausa.org/articles/power-and-pitfalls-gender-specific-mentorship>.

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Annex 1: Why should individuals and organizations engage in mentoring?⁷⁴

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 Programme⁷⁵

Best practice example

As introduced in Chapter 5 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 domain 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 individual 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 (FBA), 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).⁷⁶

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 7.2 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.⁷⁷

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 4). 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.

Endnotes

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Conclusion

Editorial Board

It proved to be an invaluable experience to bring together most of the original co-authors a decade later to update this handbook. The opportunity to reflect on progress, revisit core ideas, and reassess challenges from today's perspective added depth to the project. Equally important was the inclusion of new expert contributors, whose fresh perspectives, diverse experiences, and up-to-date knowledge significantly enriched the handbook. We believe this blend of continuity and renewal strengthened the overall quality of the content and underlined the evolving collaborative nature of advancing gender perspectives in the military context.

As this handbook has demonstrated, in today's complex security landscape, teaching gender in the military remains a core component of PME and operational effectiveness. This handbook has explored *what, why, and how to teach* gender in the military. By linking global commitments under the WPS agenda with practical approaches to training and education, it illustrates how gender is not simply a matter of representation or ethics, but a critical factor in mission readiness, strategic effectiveness, and sustainable peacebuilding.

The first part of the handbook – What to teach – has reinforced a central message: the concept of gender is essential to military operations. The WPS agenda, upheld by institutions such as the UN, NATO, and the EU, provides a normative and operational framework that demands the integration of gender perspectives across all military functions and operations. The successful implementation of gender perspectives depends on both structural transformation and leadership commitment. Military forces must move beyond token representation and embrace systemic recruitment, retention, and promotion changes, ensuring an inclusive environment where women and minority groups can thrive and lead. A critical mass of women in the armed forces is not only a matter of fairness, since it creates a more robust recruitment pool for international deployments and enriches the military's capacity to respond effectively to complex, multidimensional operations.

Education and training are conduits through which these perspectives must be embedded. The handbook underscores the necessity of integrating gender considerations into the very foundations of military education – doctrinal documents, curricula, and command-level decision-making. This includes robust legal education that equips personnel with the knowledge to uphold international human rights standards, especially those related to UNSCR 1325 and subsequent resolutions in the WPS framework.

In addition, intersectional approaches mark a necessary evolution of gender perspective. It is increasingly understood that intersecting forms of inequality increasingly shape modern conflict zones, and that armed forces must be prepared to address these complexities. As military education evolves, trainers and leaders must practice ongoing reflexivity, recognising how multilayers and diverse identities influence both the experience of conflict and the implementation of peace and security measures. This section of the handbook affirms that equipping military personnel with the tools to understand and act upon gendered realities is indispensable for achieving sustainable peace, operational success, and global security commitments.

Embedding gender-sensitive practices across curricula, faculty development, and institutional structures is essential for cultivating military professionals equipped to critically engage with complex security environments through a comprehensive understanding of gender dynamics.

The second part of the handbook – How to teach – has highlighted that teaching gender in the military goes beyond policy compliance or curriculum design as it is a transformative educational endeavour that demands a holistic, learner-centred approach. This handbook has demonstrated that equipping military personnel with gender perspectives requires more than imparting information – it calls for engaging adult learners through principles of motivation, critical reflection, and long-term behavioural change.

Grounded in adult learning theory and supported by the transformative learning framework, effective gender education must activate learners' prior experiences, challenge entrenched assumptions, and foster new insights relevant to military effectiveness. Thus, the classroom becomes a space where gender dynamics become part of the lesson, and instructors lead by example in creating inclusive, critically reflective learning environments.

Evidence-informed pedagogical tools, such as backwards design, active learning, and outcome-based lesson planning, support effective lessons on gender. Evaluation ensures that training efforts are measured and continuously improved. In today's rapidly changing operational and technological landscape, digital tools extend the reach and depth of gender training through online modules, virtual simulations, and collaborative platforms that enhance access, engagement, and reflection.

Beyond the classroom and digital environment, mentoring and coaching are vital components of professional development, especially for GENADs and others leading gender integration in military contexts. These interpersonal and institutional mechanisms build leadership capacity, offer ongoing support, and ensure that gender awareness is sustained and embedded across military structures.

The insights and strategies presented throughout this handbook underline that effective gender education in the military is an evolving practice that requires sustained institutional commitment, pedagogical innovation and the willingness to engage with complexity. Teaching gender must be understood as an ongoing process of reflection and transformation that prepares military personnel to lead with awareness, empathy, and effectiveness in all aspects of their service.

Way Forward

Teaching gender in the military: Where do we go from here?

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 taught in its own right and embedded across the curriculum, and *how* an instructor might teach 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 GENADs, may have an explicit mandate to implement gender perspectives into an area of their work. Most readers are probably 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 gender integration into military education might look like over time and what an individual reader's role might be in this process.

Challenging and changing deeply rooted gender norms in the military may still seem daunting almost ten years after the first "Teaching Gender in the Military" Handbook was published in 2016. 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).¹ This suggests that while top-down policies and hierarchical chains of command can effectively shape norms that support gender equality, meaningful change can also emerge from the ground up with the leading role of 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.² 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 if many individuals work to change mindsets in their immediate workplace than through purely top-down changes in policy. Indeed, many contributors to this Handbook can point to a single moment or person who played a pivotal role in helping them recognise the value of integrating a gender perspective into their daily work and lives.

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 NAPs on UNSCR 1325³ and WPS.⁴ NAPs serve as policy roadmaps for ensuring that WPS commitments are implemented through legislative, institutional, and operational measures, fostering greater accountability among security actors. This may include policy instruments for integrating gender perspectives into military operations, peacekeeping, diplomacy, conflict prevention strategies, and education and training.

In addition, the readers might consider the following suggestions for different activities that can be undertaken in the short, medium and longer term.

What can be done now?

There are wide number of small but effective tasks that can be implemented immediately upon reading this Handbook. 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 willing to integrate gender into their teaching but do not know how to, as well as those who need to be convinced to give permission for this to happen, such as superiors. Disseminating this Handbook and the relevant documents mentioned in the annotated bibliographies of each chapter 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 broader scope of other activities currently being undertaken by NATO members and partner countries. Considering who would need what materials 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, colleagues may have relevant knowledge on the topic or are similarly interested in collaborating. In other instances, they may be 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 encountered 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 gender inclusion into these kinds of courses at the early stages. In some cases, there may even be 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 discusses 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 each classroom, instructors can make subtle changes that yield significant benefits. Very merely, recording how often learners of different genders 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 can be informative. Giving a few extra seconds before taking a learner’s response can encourage those 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 working practices. While it is unlikely that all the actions on this list could be accomplished in one year, having some of them in mind should help prepare readers to use 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 recognised 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, looking for opportunities to implement them is important. To facilitate the use of identified potentially relevant articles, case studies, pictures and videos, they should be stored in a way that gives access to all faculty who wish – or are mandated – to address gender within their educational programmes. Pictures of women and men working in non-traditional roles can be particularly useful for improving publications and PowerPoint presentations. Most institutions will have a few employees 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 mission. Writing up these experiences and turning them into classroom resources (e.g. as case studies) can facilitate their implementation. 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 women in 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 men personnel). Keeping this in mind when checking content or explicitly offering to apply a "gender lens" to existing content, can be a first step.

4. Invite guest speakers to talk on gender-related topics

Guest speakers can play several important roles by talking about gender-related topics. First, 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 sometimes bring like-minded faculty and learners together and help identify 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, several opportunities may likely present themselves over 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 annually. At the very least, highlighting all-men panels or indeed all-men conferences can serve as a wake-up call to those who consider themselves 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 personnel changes 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. However, one of the most important roles is to monitor progress so that the effectiveness of all gender-related activities can be measured later. In some cases, activities can be formalised, 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, data proving 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 formalised positions and programmes. While some activities may have been ineffective, a larger pool of interested and increasingly experienced faculty should now be available to help shape innovative new approaches.

1. Evaluate and revise content and approaches

After three years, it should be possible to start level 4 evaluation by Kirkpatrick's model, which indicates 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, new insights 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 will likely 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 a 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, with 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 creating these roles. In some situations, it may also be desirable and feasible to formalise 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. Those can coordinate these with up to three years' experience of integrating gender in their work. Still, it may also be possible to draw upon existing national or regional networks such as universities and organizations involved in drafting NAPs on WPS or networks within the PfPC. 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, to empower instructors to apply a gender perspective to their 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 curriculum areas, 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 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 5) 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 and 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 relevant to others. Documenting institutional good practices is an effective way to share these practices. It can be used to adapt, validate or perhaps challenge current approaches advocated at national and regional levels. Creating a pool of evidence can also support 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 able 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 Chapters 7 and 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 examine whether learners who had completed a curriculum that incorporates a gender perspective throughout 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 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, the professional experience of graduates must feed back into the curriculum development cycle. These good practices and lessons identified can then be shared across the organization and with its strategic partners.⁵

In closing

This handbook began 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 PfPC 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 reach out to the authors and their various institutions should they need further assistance. Moreover, we look forward to seeing the pool of experts develop in terms of number, diversity, and level of knowledge. We therefore welcome any comments, criticisms and suggestions on how to build upon the content of this Handbook at gender@dcaf.ch.

Endnotes

1. 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), 12, 16; Olli Harinen, "Knut Pipping's forgotten study of a WWII infantry company and his results about soldiers' informal group norms", in Salo and Sinkko (eds), above, 70; Mikael Salo, "Import of vertical cohesion and the linking pin function in the military", *Tiede ja ase* 66 (2008), 54; Elisabeth Jean Wood, "Armed groups and sexual violence: When is wartime rape rare?", *Politics & Society* 37, No. 1 (2009), 136–142.
2. Wood, *ibid.*, 142.
3. UN Security Council, "Resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security", UN Doc. No. S/RES/1325 (October 31, 2000).
4. For country-specific information on the existence of national action plans and other relevant activities, see www.peacewomen.org.
5. 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), 2, 4, 9–12, 15.

