

Defence and Gender

Callum Watson



About the author

Callum Watson works in DCAF's Gender and Security Division, partnering with national and regional defence and justice institutions on a wide array of research and educational activities related to gender equality and security. His thematic specializations include transformative education on gender equality, domestic violence, sexual and gender-based harassment, gender bias, the participation of uniformed women in peace operations, and men and masculinities. Callum has a master's degree in international affairs from the Graduate Institute of International and Development Studies in Geneva and an undergraduate degree in international relations from the London School of Economics and Political Science.

Editor

Megan Bastick, DCAF

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DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women Gender and Security Toolkit

This Tool is part of the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women *Gender and Security Toolkit*, which comprises nine Tools and a series of Policy Briefs.

Tools:

1. Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender
2. Policing and Gender
3. Defence and Gender
4. Justice and Gender
5. Places of Deprivation of Liberty and Gender
6. Border Management and Gender
7. Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
14. Intelligence and Gender
15. Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector

Policy Briefs:

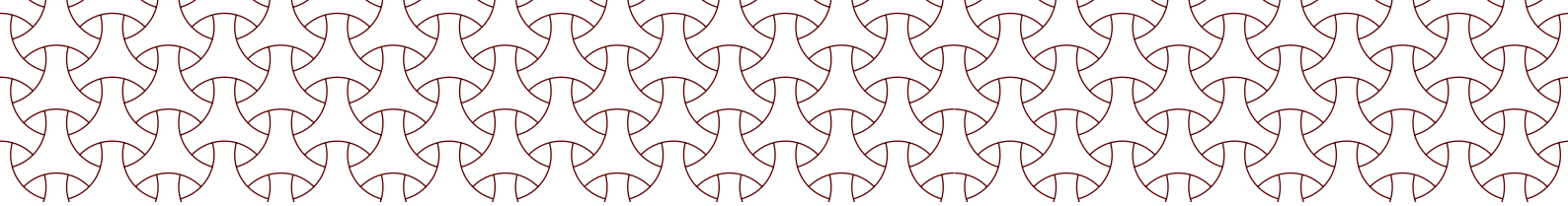
The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Security Sector and Gender Equality
 A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security
 Gender, Preventing Violent Extremism and Countering Terrorism
 Gender and Private Security Regulation

Additionally, a Compendium of International and Regional Laws and Instruments Related to Gender Equality and the Security and Justice Sector is available online.

The *Gender and Security Toolkit* builds upon the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit* that was first published in 2008. The following Gender and Security Sector Reform Tools can be used alongside this Toolkit:

8. National Security Policy-Making and Gender
9. Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
11. Security Sector Reform Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender
12. Gender Training for Security Sector Personnel
13. Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform

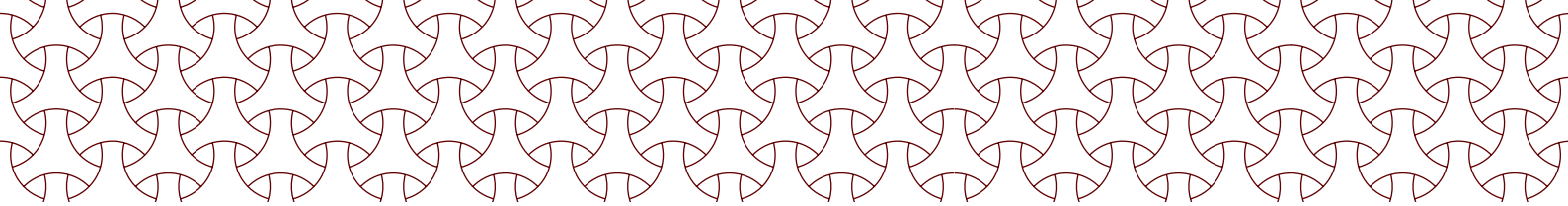




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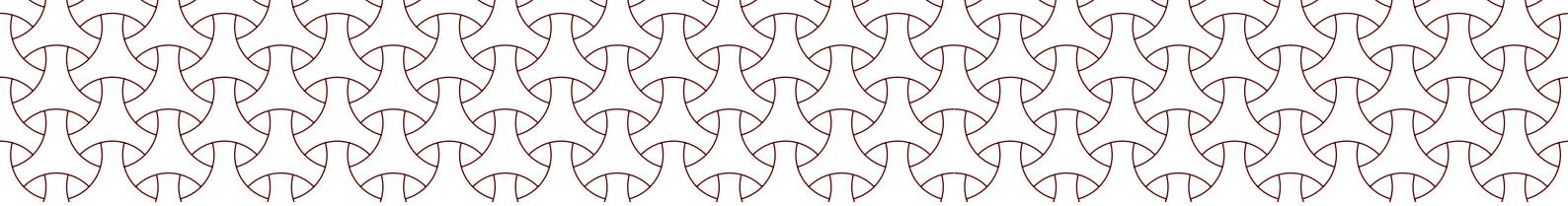




Acronyms

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIMIC	civil–military co-operation
CSO	civil society organization
FET	Female Engagement Team
GBV	gender-based violence
JAF	Jordanian Armed Forces
LGBTI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex
NAP	National Action Plan
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NHRI	National Human Rights Institution
SEA	sexual exploitation and abuse
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
US	United States of America
WPS	Women, Peace and Security





1. Overview

1.1 Background

More than a decade has passed since the publication of the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*, including its Tool on “Defence Reform and Gender”. Since then a stream of UN Security Council resolutions on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) have been adopted. These reflect an increasingly nuanced understanding of the linkages between women’s participation, gender equality, security and development. In parallel, understandings of gender have widened, moving beyond a focus only on women to consider also men and masculinities, and the relationships between gender discrimination and discrimination based upon sexual orientation or gender identity. Gender inequality and the negative effects of conflict on women, men, girls and boys are recognized not as *inevitable*, but as a consequence of inadequate laws, policies and practices.

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. Over the last decade there has been increasing use of gender specialists within armed forces and other defence institutions, such as Gender Advisers, Gender Focal Points, Women’s Protection Advisers and Female Engagement Teams (FETs). In some armed forces, as well as in other parts of the defence sector^ and a number of key security organizations, women are achieving leadership roles.

Striving towards gender equality in armed forces and other defence institutions requires shifts in institutional culture and reorienting how defence contributes to promoting gender equality more broadly in society. It requires reconsidering insecurity, and how the defence sector is equipped to respond to gendered threats to the state and to the individual. It also involves reconsidering what kind of people, skills and values modern defence forces need. While this may seem ambitious, many defence institutions are already undertaking innovative and potentially transformative activities to advance gender equality and integrate a gender perspective – which would have been unimaginable ten or twenty years ago.

This new DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women *Gender and Security Toolkit* draws together the key lessons of the past decade in promoting gender equality in security and justice, and this Tool focuses on the defence sector. The aim of the Toolkit is to share new and emerging good practices, reflecting on how they have been developed. It is designed to help security and justice sector institutions, including armed forces and other defence institutions, to

* In this Tool “armed forces” refers to all branches of the armed forces, including civilian personnel (see the DCAF SSR Backgrounder, *The Armed Forces*); and “defence institutions” refers to armed forces, defence colleges and academies, ministries of defence and national-level defence agencies.

^ In this Tool “defence sector” refers to armed forces, their political leadership (commander in chief, ministry of defence), the executive controlling authorities (president, prime minister) and other state agencies permanently or occasionally involved in defence matters (see the DCAF SSR Backgrounder, *Defence Reform*). This Tool does not address commercial service providers within the defence industry; for this, refer to the Policy Brief on “Gender and Private Security Regulation”.

Image: National Air Force personnel at a military parade in Dominican Republic, 2017
© Presidencia de la República Dominicana/Alejandro Santos.

integrate a gender perspective. The defence sector needs to move beyond simply increasing the numbers of women and become more aware of and responsive to the different gendered needs of the entire population. In doing so, a key priority must be to pay attention to the often-neglected security needs of women and girls.

The *Gender and Security Toolkit* will, we hope, be used by many different audiences in many ways. It can be, for example, a resource of good practices and lessons learnt to inform new policies, programmes, strategies or procedures for the justice sector; a source of ideas for monitoring and oversight activities; and a reference for arguments and evidence to support advocacy and training.*

1.2 Audiences for this Tool

This Tool is intended for practitioners engaged on topics related to gender, peace and security with a focus on the defence sector. This includes staff of armed forces, ministries of defence, regional security institutions, international organizations and multilateral field missions who are looking to learn more about applying a gender perspective to their work. It is also intended for individuals working on topics related to gender and diversity or supporting implementation of the UN Security Council resolutions on WPS, including developing and implementing national action plans (NAPs) on WPS.

Furthermore, the Tool provides an accessible introduction to the relevance of a gender perspective and gender equality to defence institutions for civilian actors engaged in defence oversight. These include parliaments, ombuds institutions, national human rights institutions (NHRIs), academia and civil society organizations (CSOs).

1.3 Outline of this Tool

Section 2 looks at why it is important for armed forces and other defence institutions to integrate a gender perspective and promote gender equality. It explains how understanding conflict and security requires gender conflict analysis. It highlights the need for armed forces to apply a gender perspective both within their institution and externally to maximize their operational effectiveness. It also outlines some of the key legal and policy frameworks that require armed forces to prohibit discrimination, prevent gender-based violence (GBV) and promote the equal participation of women. The section concludes by exploring the potential that armed forces and other defence institutions can play to empower women, men and LGBTI people in their countries.^

Section 3 describes a vision of what a defence sector that advances gender equality and integrates a gender perspective looks like. First, it describes how the ability of armed forces and other defence institutions to provide security will be optimized through sound gender analysis and giving the most talented people the best possible work environment. Second, it outlines how defence management practices work to eliminate discrimination and promote gender equality. Third, it details how monitoring and oversight mechanisms ensure that armed forces and other defence institutions continue to improve and evolve to changing needs.

Section 4 provides practical guidance on how armed forces and other defence institutions, supported by effective external oversight, can achieve gender equality and effective integration of a gender perspective. It focuses on key enabling and cross-cutting priorities: leadership and legal and policy frameworks. It then focuses on personnel: fostering gender equality and broader diversity through recruitment and career development, while eradicating discrimination, harassment and abuse. It describes how personnel in each of

the staff branches of the armed forces, J1 to J9, can integrate a gender perspective in the context of military operations. The section then focuses on external oversight mechanisms, and how parliament, ombuds institutions and NHRIs, as well as civil society, can monitor and guide armed forces and other defence institutions in regard to gender equality and a gender perspective.

Section 5 sets out some guiding questions for an institutional self-assessment to establish priorities and next steps in integrating a gender perspective and promoting gender equality.

Section 6 lists other useful resources to support work on gender equality and a gender perspective within armed forces and in the wider defence sector.

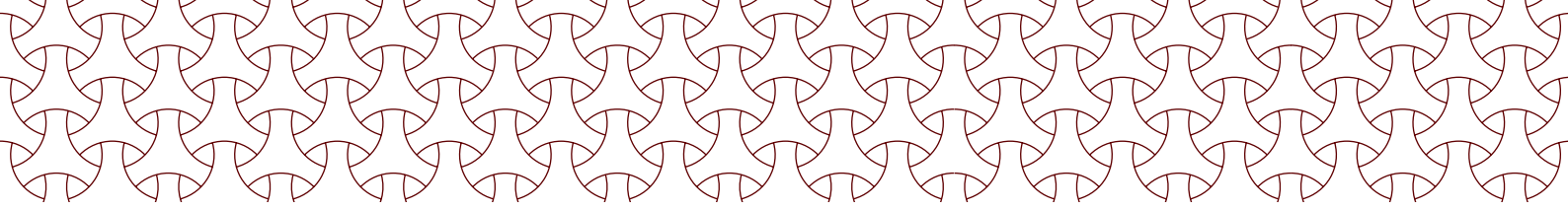
* The other Tools and Policy Briefs in this Toolkit focus on specific security and justice issues and providers (see p. i). It is intended that the Toolkit should be used as a whole, with readers moving between Tools and Policy Briefs to find more detail on aspects that interest them.

^ For the purpose of this Toolkit, the phrase “gender-based violence” (GBV) is used to refer to all harmful acts inflicted upon someone because of normative assumptions about their gender. GBV is an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person’s will and is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between females and males. The nature and extent of specific types of GBV vary across cultures, countries and regions. Examples include sexual violence, including sexual exploitation/abuse and trafficking for sexual exploitation; domestic violence; forced/early marriage; harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation; honour killings; widow inheritance; and homophobic and transphobic violence.

See UN Women (2019) “Gender equality glossary”, <https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36>; UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (2011) “Discriminatory laws and practices and acts of violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity”, UN Doc. A/HRC/19/41, 17 November, para. 20.

The acronym LGBTI, meaning lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex, is discussed in detail in Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.





2. Why are gender equality and integrating a gender perspective important in the defence sector?

This section outlines why it is important for those working in the defence sector to apply a gender perspective to their work from an operational, legal and moral standpoint. Firstly, it argues that it is the *right thing to do*. International, regional and national laws stipulate that women and men should be given an equal right to serve in armed forces, and that the human rights of women and men and LGBTI people must be protected and promoted. Armed forces and other defence institutions have the potential to make a positive contribution to gender equality in the societies they serve by challenging gender stereotypes and discrimination. Secondly, it argues that it is about *doing things right*. Maintaining the highest levels of operational effectiveness entails harnessing the full potential of diverse workforces, women and men, with different perspectives and skillsets. Furthermore, the defence sector needs to be able to apply a gender perspective to understand fully and respond to threats to state and human security.

Many nations and international organizations have committed to increase participation of women in the armed forces and international missions, and to integrate gender into military operations, including through NAPs on WPS.*

2.1 Conflict and security are gendered

During the Cold War era, when people thought about international security most would think of wars between different countries, armaments and physical violence. Many of the major global security threats that marked the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century did not fit this model, however. Conflicts tended to involve large numbers of armed non-state actors. Terrorism and extremist violence, health crises, natural disasters, cybercrime and climate change have emerged as major security issues.

Dissatisfaction with traditional, state-centric definitions of security led to the emergence of the complementary concept of “human security”. This helped to illuminate the connections between different forms of insecurity. For example, climate change (an environmental security threat) may cause droughts that result in famine (health security) and loss of livelihood for farmers (economic security). As people migrate in response to climate change, this can create tensions with new host communities (community security) and leave people at greater risk of violent crime (personal security). These insecurities, individually or in combination, can in turn threaten national security.

* Lessons learned in relation to NAPs on Women, Peace and Security are discussed in Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.

Image: Malawi defence force soldiers during a deployment training organised by the U.S. Army Africa, 2013 © U.S. Army Africa/Brad Copas.

Analysis of development, security and conflict through a human security lens reveals that levels of insecurity vary greatly between women and men, globally as well as in the same community.¹ For example, men are paid, according to the International Labour Organization, on average 19 per cent more than women;² men tend to have more economic security. On the other hand, men tend to do more dangerous jobs, which can make them less secure than women when it comes to health and personal security.

Women and men

Situations of armed conflict and state fragility affect women, men, boys and girls differently. A gender analysis of conflict therefore needs to identify the differential risks to women and men, and understand how these risks also differ between different groups of women and men in relation to class, race, disability, poverty level, ethnicity, religious background, sexual orientation, age and other markers of difference (referred to as “intersectional” analysis).*

In general, during conflict men are more likely to be affected by forced or coerced recruitment, imprisonment and other direct short-term consequences. Women are more likely to be affected by mid- and long-term impacts caused by the combined effect of food shortages, the scarcity of medical care and sexual violence. This is evidenced by data comparing how conflict affects the life expectancy of women and men. Due to a combination of sociological and biological factors, women live on average 4.4 years longer than men.³ Studies show that this “gender gap” may initially widen during an armed conflict, as more men than women die on the battlefield or otherwise as a *direct* result of conflict. But in the longer term, if one measures *indirect* conflict deaths, conflict reduces the life expectancy of women more than that of men. Conflict amplifies the effects of gender inequality: it lowers incomes and increases prices, especially for essentials such as food, clean water and medical care, and women have even less access to food in times of scarcity. Conflict tends to increase maternal mortality due to the lack of access to contraception, safe abortions and obstetric care, while the prevalence of sexual violence increases. The situation can be aggravated where a population is displaced into camps and faces shortages in essential services and higher rates of disease, as well as heightened risk of violence.⁴

Moreover, during armed conflict traditional social orders, including gender roles,[^] are disrupted. As such, conflict can provide different opportunities for women, who might take on new roles in the labour market or become more socially and politically active. While the prevention of conflict is always preferable, post-conflict settlements can provide a window of opportunity for preserving these advances in women’s empowerment, thus increasing prospects for peace and development. Conversely, such advances may not be sustained unless they are actively safeguarded in post-conflict peace agreements.⁵ (See Box 1 for an example of such dynamics in El Salvador.)

In addition, understanding the root causes of conflicts involves paying attention to gender norms. For example, young men in internal displacement camps in northern Uganda who have few employment opportunities, and thus little social standing, have reportedly joined armed groups in order to access women or earn money to pay a dowry.⁶ In several conflicts, such as in Nepal and Colombia, women report having joined armed groups with revolutionary ideologies to escape restrictive gender norms at home and the GBV that comes with them.⁷

* “Intersectionality” is discussed in more detail in Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.

Tool 15, “Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector”, explains how to conduct gender analysis in an intersectional manner.

[^] “Gender” and “gender roles” are discussed in detail in Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.

Box 1: Gender analysis of the civil war in El Salvador

During the Salvadoran Civil War between 1979 and 1992 many men left their homes to fight or to escape the threat of extrajudicial killing. This elevated many women to become heads of household. Consequently, women increasingly engaged in civil society movements demanding that the government address economic issues, human rights abuses and laws that discriminated against women. Some women took up armed positions in rebel movements.

The war undoubtedly acted as a catalyst to women's empowerment but at the cost of placing a huge additional burden on women's physical and economic welfare. Despite the presence of female commanders at the peace table, the eventual Chapultepec Peace Accords neither sought to safeguard advances in gender equality nor to address discriminatory attitudes towards women. Salvadoran women today face levels of murder and sexual and domestic violence that exceed those during the conflict, largely because perpetrators – including family members – are able to commit GBV with impunity. These learned violent behaviours are a legacy of the conflict.

Sources: K. Webster, C. Chen and K. Beardsley (2019) "Conflict, peace, and the evolution of women's empowerment", International Organization 73(2), pp. 255–289 at pp. 276–277; Initiative on Quiet Diplomacy (2010) "SCR 1325 and women's participation: Operational guidelines for conflict resolution and peace processes", Colchester: Initiative on Quiet Diplomacy, p. 30; K. Musalo (2019) "El Salvador – A peace worse than war: Violence, gender and a failed legal response", Yale Journal of Law and Feminism 30(1), pp. 3–97, at pp. 37–46.

LGBTI people

Armed conflict can also heighten the risk of violence against LGBTI people and communities. An example is violence perpetrated by the so-called Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant. When Syria began to enforce compulsory military service more strictly during the conflict, Syrian gay and transgender men faced the difficult choice of serving in an environment with a high risk of harassment, going into hiding or fleeing the country. In some cases their families cut ties with them or were at risk of government reprisals.⁸ LGBTI individuals are particularly at risk when displaced from their homes and support networks, and might be forced to flee to countries where they face criminalization.⁹ In 2015 the UN Security Council held its first meeting on the rights of people of diverse sexual orientation and gender identity.¹⁰

The Women, Peace and Security and Sustaining Peace Agendas

Gender analyses of conflicts and their impact have a long history. The outcome document of the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, the *Beijing Platform for Action*, included a chapter on women and armed conflict. It demanded recognition that conflict affects women and men differently, and that the management of armed conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction must take into account the protection of women's rights and bodies, the prevention of gendered and sexualized violence, and the participation of women in peacebuilding. The adoption in 2000 of UN Security Council Resolution 1325, in which CSOs played a crucial role, was a landmark, establishing the link between gender and security and affirming women's role throughout the conflict cycle. Security Council Resolution 1820, adopted in 2008, specifically condemned sexual violence as a tactic of war. These resolutions were the basis of the WPS Agenda (see Box 2).¹¹

Box 2: The Women, Peace and Security Agenda

In 2000 the ground-breaking UN Security Council Resolution 1325 was adopted. It recognizes that women and men have different experiences in conflict, different needs after conflict, different perspectives on the causes and outcomes of conflict, and different contributions to bring to a peacebuilding process. Subsequently, the UN Security Council has adopted a further nine resolutions (at the time of writing) addressing women and conflict, together comprising the WPS Agenda. The goals of the WPS Agenda are to:

- ✦ promote gender equality and strengthen the participation of women in all aspects of conflict prevention, peace processes, peace operations and peacebuilding
- ✦ improve the protection of women in conflict-affected environments, and end conflict-related sexual violence and impunity for these crimes
- ✦ ensure that international engagement in conflict-affected environments addresses the specific needs of women and improves the protection of women's rights.

See the Policy Brief on "A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security" for further discussion.

While the WPS Agenda focuses largely on women and girls, it recognizes the need to involve men and boys in combating violence against women, and that men and boys too are victims of sexual violence during conflict (as has been documented in, for example, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Syria and Libya).¹² Gender analyses of conflict have moreover investigated how social understandings of masculinity can be manipulated by warring parties to encourage men to fight, or to ostracize those who refuse to fight.

In 2018 UN Secretary-General António Guterres reiterated the links between security, development and human rights – and specifically between gender equality and resilience to and prevention of conflict – in the Sustaining Peace Agenda.* Women's full participation in society and at all levels of decision-making in security, development and human rights is essential to ensuring peace and prosperity. First, women's security, economic empowerment and protection from human rights abuses cannot be achieved without women's voices being heard and women being involved in peacebuilding. Second, failing to harness the political and economic energies of all sectors of society threatens the sustainability of any efforts to build peaceful societies. As such, all activities related to peacekeeping, peacebuilding, promoting human rights and sustainable development need to be underpinned by a robust gender analysis (discussed in subsection 4.4). In this recognition of the links between gender equality, security and peace, the Sustaining Peace Agenda builds upon and reinforces the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development^ and the WPS Agenda.

2.2 Defence institutions need diverse skills, including those of both women and men

Defence institutions have new roles, including the protection of civilians

The threats to which today's militaries must respond are complex, often involving large numbers of uncoordinated non-state actors, including terrorist groups. Traditional battlefields are becoming increasingly rare as armed forces are instead deployed and employed in complex terrain and complex operational contexts with many disparate actors, including non-combatants. The spread of misinformation, for example to influence elections, and the risk of cyber attacks on essential infrastructure pose threats such that defence sectors are increasingly focused on psychological and cyber warfare.**

* See United Nations (2018) "Peacebuilding and sustaining peace", report of the UN Secretary-General, UN Doc. A/72/707–S/2018/43, 28 January.

^ See Policy Brief on "The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Security Sector and Gender Equality".

** For general discussion on the changing roles of armed forces, see DCAF (2015) *The Armed Forces, SSR Backgrounder Series*, Geneva: DCAF.

Additionally, many armed forces play a role in civilian security, in collaboration with other state institutions. These domestic roles can include assisting law enforcement, responding to national emergencies and natural disasters, protecting vital infrastructure, and education, research and development. In some countries in Latin America, Southeast Asia and Africa, this auxiliary role has a long history. In most European and North American countries deploying the armed forces domestically is becoming more commonplace, but it is still considered the exception rather than the norm.¹³

A third role, and a very significant one in major troop-contributing countries such as Bangladesh and Ethiopia, is the deployment of armed forces to humanitarian, peace support and stabilization missions. This includes peacekeeping missions led by the UN or by regional organizations such as the European Union and African Union, and missions to prevent illegal activities at sea, such as the European Union naval forces in Somalia (countering piracy) and the Mediterranean (countering migrant smuggling). Many countries also support capacity building and defence institution building in partner countries, either bilaterally or through organizations such as NATO.

Protection of civilians has been included in most UN mandates for peacekeeping since 1999.¹⁴ Furthermore, the UN General Assembly's endorsement of the Responsibility to Protect in 2005 was an explicit statement of the fact that statehood entails a responsibility to prevent mass atrocities, and that the international community has a responsibility to act collectively to do so, where the sovereign state fails to.¹⁵ Both these trends are indicative of, and contribute to, shifts in the role of armed forces and other defence institutions, away from only the protection of sovereignty and towards the protection of people and their rights.

Defence institutions need new and diverse skills

The increasing complexity of military operations demands personnel with specialized skills in a wide range of areas, such as languages, psychology, information technology and engineering. Recruiting personnel with these diverse skills requires candidates who may not have considered a military career in the past, in a job market where the defence sector must compete with other government departments and the private sector. Even in more traditional war-fighting roles, technological advances mean that fewer infantry soldiers are needed, and upper-body strength has less of an impact on combat effectiveness.¹⁶ Teamwork, communication skills and the ability to work in diverse cultural settings are important.

These new strategic and operational demands, as well as changes in broader society, are leading many armed forces to review their recruitment and selection criteria comprehensively. Part of this transition is, for many armed forces, a recognition that they have underrecruited women and have, moreover, historically recruited from a relatively narrow section of society.

LGBTI people too have been excluded from serving in many armed forces.* At least 50 countries' armed forces have explicit policies confirming that lesbian, gay and bisexual people can serve. Eighteen countries (including eleven NATO members) allow transgender people to serve in their armed forces, namely Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Israel, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Still, there remain armed forces where *all* positions are closed to LGBTI people.¹⁷ In countries where homosexuality is illegal or armed forces personnel are not permitted to enter into same-sex relationships, members of the armed forces have at times been subject to highly intrusive investigations into their personal lives, pressured to confess under threat of having the results of these investigations made public and being prosecuted.¹⁸

* Guidance on policies to support inclusion of and equal opportunities for LGBTI personnel can be found in J. Polchar, T. Sweijts, P. Marten and J. Galdiga (2014) *LGBT Military Personnel: A Strategic Vision for Inclusion*, The Hague: The Hague Centre for Strategic Studies.

Arguments based on fears that women or LGBTI people in the armed forces might undermine military unit cohesion are now widely discredited. Rather, it is increasingly recognized that where diverse individuals with different skillsets and viewpoints share a commitment to achieving a common goal and have the skills to work collaboratively towards this objective, cohesion follows.¹⁹ Indeed, studies demonstrate that diverse and gender-balanced teams deliver better outcomes, particularly where innovation and problem solving are important.²⁰ Moreover, unit cohesion and military readiness are strengthened when “hazing” and other discriminatory and abusive practices are confronted and eliminated.²¹ Studies show, for example, that LGBTI-friendly work environments are more supportive of *all* staff and better at promoting equal opportunities for women and ethnic minorities.²²

Beyond more diverse recruitment, armed forces and other defence institutions recognize the need for new capabilities – including doctrine, education and training – to meet the demands of contemporary and future operations. The capacity to conduct gender analyses of operating environments and integrate a gender perspective into all aspects of an operation is a skill that is now recognized as indispensable in defence institutions.

2.3 Women are needed but underrepresented in armed forces

The full integration of both women and men is necessary for armed forces to draw upon all the available skills and talents of service personnel and of the country. Women can also bring particular operational advantages to military operations. Experience has shown that having teams composed of both women and men can increase force security. In Afghanistan, for example, the engagement of female personnel with local women allowed armed forces to access information that was otherwise unavailable. Likewise, employing female personnel to search and engage with local women created less hostility towards the mission.²³

Table 1: Percentage of female troops, military observers and staff officers in the contingents of the top 12 troop-contributing countries to UN missions, November 2019

		% female troops	% female military observers and staff officers
1.	Ethiopia	8.6	23.9
2.	India	0.8	12.7
3.	Bangladesh	1.5	16.9
4.	Rwanda	4.1	9.2
5.	Nepal	3.4	12.1
6.	Pakistan	0.7	15.9
7.	Indonesia	2.8	9.9
8.	China	3.0	7.3
9.	Ghana	12.6	27.7
10.	United Republic of Tanzania	7.3	18.9
11.	Egypt	0.0	12.4
12.	Morocco	1.6	24.0

Source: UN Peacekeeping (2019), 30 November, https://peacekeeping.un.org/sites/default/files/operational_effect_and_women_peacekeepers_november_2019.pdf

It is, moreover, an important principle that armed forces should be representative of the society they serve. The right to serve in the armed forces is an aspect of a person's right to full participation as a citizen, as well as other human rights. A diverse defence sector that reflects the demographic composition of the country it represents enjoys greater public legitimacy.

However, women have traditionally been and remain underrepresented in armed forces. In most armed forces there are relatively few women at senior levels, and women are often concentrated in combat support, logistics, administration and medical positions.²⁴ (See Tables 1 and 2 and Figure 1 on p. 12).

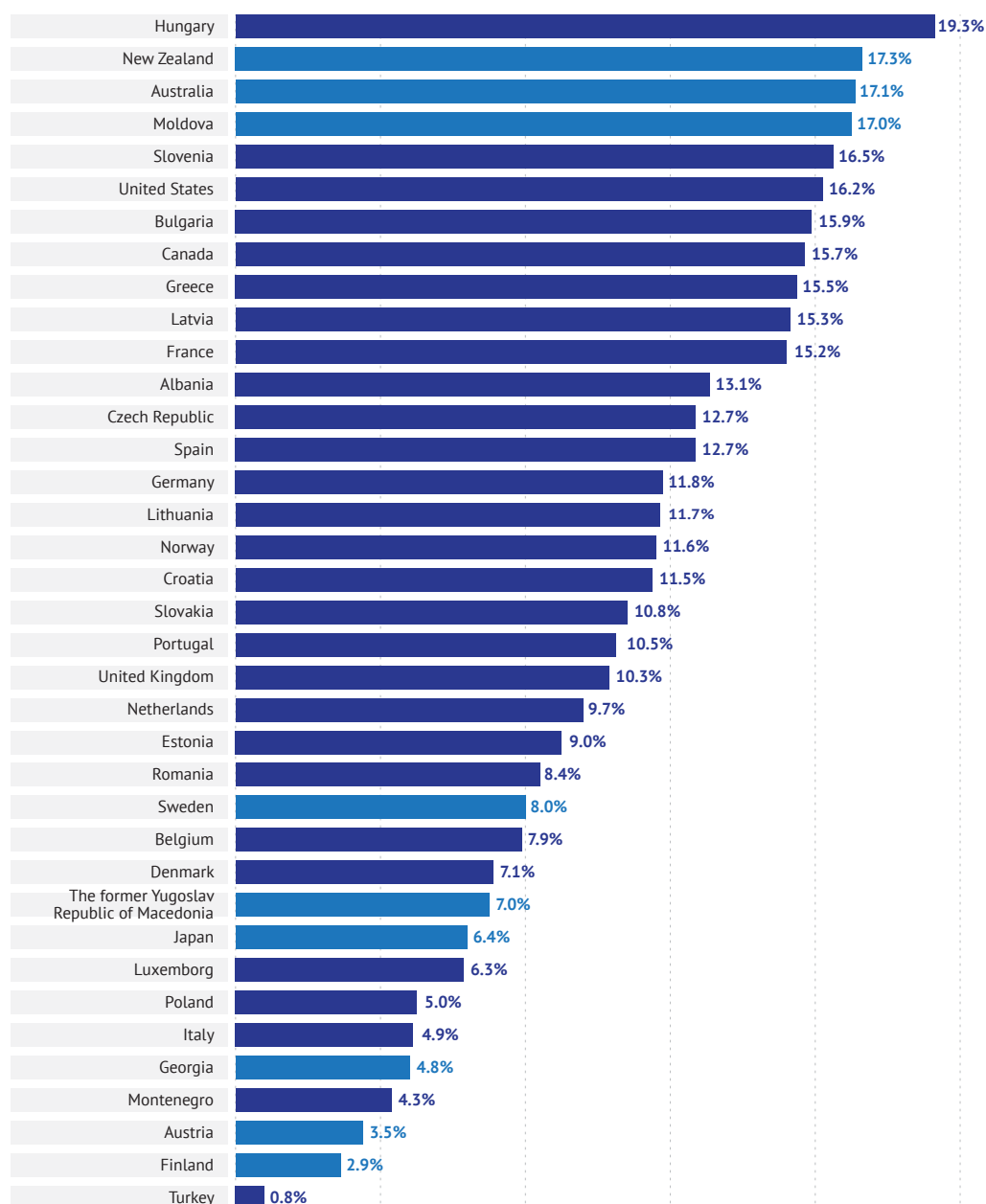
Table 2: Percentage of female service personnel on active duty in selected OSCE participating States

State	% female service personnel
Albania	14
Armenia	13
Azerbaijan	3
Belgium	8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	6
Canada	15
Denmark	7
Estonia	10
Finland	2
Georgia	10
Germany	12
Greece	15
Latvia	17
Lithuania	10
Netherlands	9
Norway	11
Poland	6
Portugal	11
Serbia	7
Spain	13
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	9
United Kingdom	10

Source: S. Atkins (2018) "Baseline study report: Women in the armed forces in the OSCE region", Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR, pp. 19–20.

There remain barriers to the full, active and meaningful participation of women in armed forces and other defence institutions. Some of these barriers are easily identified: sexual harassment, sexual abuse, refusing to assign women to certain units, inadequate infrastructure or other logistical arrangements during training or operations, etc. Other barriers are more subtle – for example, working conditions that make it impossible for a person who is a primary caregiver to advance professionally, lack of appropriate mentors for women, biased promotional procedures, gender-blind deployment procedures, ineffective complaint and reporting systems for harassment, including sexual harassment and other abuse, etc. In many cases the barriers to women's advancement within the military are also barriers to achieving wider diversity within the armed forces.

Figure 1: Percentage of all Active Duty female military personnel of NATO member and partner nations in 2017



Source: NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (2017) "Summary of the national reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives", Brussels: NATO, p. 18.

2.4 National, regional and international legal frameworks require defence institutions to respect and promote gender equality

In most countries women's rights to equality and/or non-discrimination clauses are written into the respective constitutions. Furthermore, numerous global and regional conventions, commitments and norms address equality and non-discrimination (see Box 3). Article 21(2) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights guarantees everyone the right to equal access to public service in their country – which includes service in the armed forces. (For example, in 2006 Argentina abolished laws dating back to the military dictatorship that banned married women and mothers from serving in the military, following a Ministry of Defence review which found that the laws contravened the norms of gender equality inherent in a constitutional democracy.²⁵)

Some restrictions and limitations may be applied to the full enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms by armed forces personnel, but these must be kept to a minimum and based on a demonstrated necessity rather than a historical legacy. Restrictions or limitations must be provided for by law, be consistent with international obligations, exceptional, and applied consistently and in a non-discriminatory manner.*

As such, international legal frameworks oblige armed forces and other defence institutions to:

- ◆ be equal, fair and non-discriminatory employers
- ◆ be equal, fair and non-discriminatory in carrying out their duties
- ◆ appropriately prevent and respond to sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA), GBV and gender-based discrimination, harassment or abuse within their institutions.

Box 3: International instruments relevant to gender and armed forces and other defence institutions

A range of national, regional and global legal obligations are relevant to and/or oblige states to integrate a gender perspective in defence institutions. More general overviews are included in Tool 1 and Tool 4, and a compendium of international and regional legal instruments is published online as part of this Toolkit.

A selection of key provisions regarding gender for defence institutions are listed below.

International human rights law

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) 1979 obliges states parties to take all appropriate means to eliminate discrimination against women without delay (Article 2). The CEDAW Committee's General Recommendation No. 28 highlights that in implementing CEDAW states must legally recognize other forms of discrimination that intersect with discrimination based on sex and gender, "such as race, ethnicity, religion or belief, health, status, age, class, caste and sexual orientation and gender identity" (para 18). CEDAW contains a number of obligations directly pertinent to armed forces, such as:

- ◆ prohibiting discrimination in employment (Article 11)
- ◆ taking measures to eliminate prejudices and practices based on the superiority or inferiority of sexes or on stereotyped roles for women and men (Article 5)
- ◆ taking measures to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution of women (Article 6).

Reiterating that an important objective of CEDAW is to ensure the protection of women's rights before, during and after conflict, the CEDAW Committee has made a range of more specific recommendations that are relevant to defence (see General Recommendations 30, 33 and 37).

- ◆ Ensure women's equal representation in decision-making in national institutions and mechanisms, including in the armed forces.
- ◆ Conduct gender-sensitive training and adopt codes of conduct for the military as part of a preventive, zero-tolerance approach to GBV and human trafficking, including when committed by state actors and peacekeepers.
- ◆ Ensure that female combatants and women and girls associated with armed groups are included as beneficiaries in disarmament, demobilization and reintegration programmes, and that these programmes address their gender-specific needs.
- ◆ Take steps to ensure that military courts comply with international standards and uphold the provisions of international human rights law, and that women have an equal ability to access these courts and participate in and oversee proceedings.

* See H. Born and I. Leigh (eds) (2008) *Handbook on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of Armed Forces Personnel*, Geneva: OSCE/ODIHR and DCAF.

- ✦ Ensure gender balance among military personnel responsible for the reception of migrants, and train them on gender-specific harm faced by migrant women.

Application of international human rights law in relation to sexual orientation and gender identity

The 2007 Yogyakarta Principles, drafted by a distinguished group of human rights experts, are based on norms of international human rights law from the perspective of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities. They affirm:

- ✦ everyone is entitled to all human rights and equal protection before the law irrespective of their sexual orientation or gender identity (Principle 2)
- ✦ everyone has a right to life and to protection by the state against violence or bodily harm irrespective of their sexual orientation or gender identity (Principle 5).

The principles are anchored in the universality of human rights, and specifically in non-discrimination and recognition before the law; rights to human and personal security; economic, social and cultural rights; rights to expression, opinion and association; rights to freedom of movement and asylum; rights to participation in cultural and family life; rights of human rights defenders; and rights of redress and accountability. The 2017 Yogyakarta Plus 10 Principles strengthen the recognition of intersectionality, and better integrate the needs of intersex persons and those with diverse gender expressions and sex characteristics. While the Yogyakarta Principles do not constitute binding law, they are distilled from the text and legal interpretation of a number of international human rights treaties that are binding on state parties.

International labour law

Conventions of the International Labour Organization are of direct relevance to defence institutions as public employers. International Labour Standards on gender equality include those on equal remuneration, non-discrimination, workers with family responsibilities and maternity protection.

International humanitarian law

Additional Protocol I to the Geneva Conventions 1977 obliges states to protect women against rape, forced prostitution or any other form of indecent assault during conflict (Article 76).

Resolutions of the UN Security Council

The UN Security Council resolutions on WPS, Resolution 2272 on UN peacekeeping operations and Resolution 2331 on the maintenance of international peace and security include the following calls.

- ✦ For countries contributing troops to UN peacekeeping to deploy a greater percentage of women, as well as Women's Protection Advisers and Gender Advisers; to ensure all personnel receive comprehensive gender training; and to include readiness to respond to sexual violence and GBV in performance and operational readiness standards.
- ✦ For all parties to armed conflict to implement specific time-bound commitments to combat sexual violence, including through codes of conduct and military field manuals, and for civilian and military leaders to demonstrate commitment and enforce accountability.
- ✦ For security sector reform processes to encourage more women in the security sector and implement effective vetting to exclude anyone responsible for sexual violence.
- ✦ For all states to take actions to prevent and combat impunity for SEA by members of UN peace operations or non-UN forces with a Security Council mandate; and to investigate and potentially repatriate units where there are allegations of widespread or systematic SEA.

Regional organizations

Many regional organizations have incorporated these standards. For example, OSCE Decision No. 7/09 on “Women’s Participation in Political and Public Life” calls on participating States to:

- ✦ consider providing specific measures to achieve the goal of gender balance in all legislative, judicial and executive bodies, including security services such as police services
- ✦ consider possible legislative measures which would facilitate more balanced participation of women and men in political and public life, and especially in decision-making
- ✦ consider taking measures to create equal opportunities within the security services, including the armed forces where relevant, to allow the balanced recruitment, retention and promotion of men and women
- ✦ allow the equal contribution of women and men to peacebuilding initiatives
- ✦ encourage shared work and parental responsibilities between women and men to facilitate women’s equal opportunities to participate effectively in political and public life.

For more information on legal frameworks for military operations from a gender perspective, see S. Longworth, N. Miteva and A. Tomić (2016) “Gender training and the military: The legal and policy framework”, in DCAF and PfPC, Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook, Geneva: DCAF and PfPC.

2.5 Armed forces have the potential to champion gender equality and inclusion in broader society

Armed forces have historically played a role in nation building. In countries such as Switzerland and Singapore, conscription brings together men from diverse social and linguistic backgrounds and helps to forge the collective identity of the state. When armed forces have the diversity to represent all communities within their nation, they are more trusted at home and have greater credibility when it comes to promoting democracy and human rights abroad.²⁶

Although often viewed as conservative, armed forces can be well placed to further gender equality as well as the acceptance of LGBTI people in broader society. The ways in which armed forces work create conditions which, according to research across a range of institutions, can reduce prejudice between members of different groups. This is because members of armed forces:

- ✦ interact on a personal level (in a shared workplace or living quarters)
- ✦ are equal in status (when they have the same rank)
- ✦ share common goals that can only be achieved with input from two or more people or groups (as in teams where individuals perform different specialized functions)
- ✦ have the support of authorities, law and customs that they respect (through military structures).²⁷

Armed forces can, by upholding the equal right of all citizens to serve, demonstrate how to leverage the full potential of diverse teams that include men, women, LGBTI people and others of diverse backgrounds. Leaders within armed forces can be role models for inclusion that positively influence the military and civilian society alike.

Armed forces have the potential to provide women with an environment where they are less bound by the social constraints of civilian life (such as pressure to have children), where

they are supported in achieving their full potential and where they will be rewarded fairly based on merit. Those who remain in the armed forces for their entire careers can continue to challenge social stereotypes that women are incapable of achieving certain tasks. Those who choose to take the skills they learn in the armed forces and reintegrate back into civilian life can help shape attitudes in the private sector and circles of family and friends, and serve as mentors for future generations.

Men from minority backgrounds have long benefited from the opportunities and structure provided by armed forces. The armed forces provide them with an opportunity to win respect, learn skills, earn an income and fulfil masculine social expectations. In some countries ethnic and other minorities are overrepresented in the armed forces: in the US armed forces, for example, there is a higher proportion of African Americans than in the general population and three times as many Native Americans (although few reach the higher ranks), and transgender people are twice as likely as the rest of the population to enlist.²⁸ In other countries, in contrast, armed forces tend to be dominated by the majority group and in some cases sport a reputation of discriminatory and non-inclusive attitudes, thus becoming unappealing to other segments of society.

Promoting gender equality within the armed forces involves addressing discrimination against women while simultaneously questioning dominant norms of masculinity. (See Box 4 for an example of a masculinity training programme in the US military.) For example, eradicating hazing, preventing sexual harassment, challenging those who ridicule men for being “feminine” and instituting paternity leave are essential for promoting gender equality, but all also provide positive outcomes for men. When inclusive norms, such as having the courage to challenge sexism and discrimination, are successfully internalized by men in the military, this can have a positive effect on society overall.

In some of the countries where they can serve openly, the proportion of lesbians and transgender people in the armed forces exceeds the proportion in the population. While every individual’s reason for joining will be different, a recurring theme is that the armed forces provide support and opportunities that civilian life does not.²⁹ Also, because people tend to join the military at a young age (and some are conscripted), many of those who are LGBTI only come to realize and accept their sexual orientation or gender identity once they are already within the armed forces.

Armed forces are therefore in a pivotal position. If they are unsupportive of or discriminate against LGBTI personnel, they can put individuals at great risk. In the US, for example, transgender veterans are *seven times as likely* to have attempted suicide than other veterans.³⁰ Conversely, armed forces can support LGBTI personnel and help them lead healthy lives and have prosperous careers. Moreover, by celebrating the achievements of LGBTI personnel (see Box 10 on p. 38), the armed forces can leverage national prestige to foster greater social acceptance of LGBTI people more broadly.

Box 4: Calling masculinity by its name in the US military

Responding to veteran, citizen and Congressional advocacy, the US military is paying close attention to sexual assault within its ranks, and the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office was founded in 2005. The three main pillars of the Department of Defense's prevention campaign involve promoting bystander intervention, leadership training and instituting changes in the professional environment.

In 2013 the US Air Force Academy saw an opportunity to pilot an innovative approach to bystander interventions by offering cadets a course on men and masculinity. The course acknowledged the fact that men find it challenging to call out sexist and other forms of degrading behaviour, such as hazing or bullying, not because they personally support it but because of the pressure to conform to the masculine codes that condone it. In the words of the course instructor, Dr Christopher Kilmartin, "it's very difficult to resist a pressure that you cannot name".

The first step to overcoming this pressure is to recognize it as "masculinity". Kilmartin suggests that some forms of masculinity seem to place contradictory demands on men. For example, a soldier must be aggressive on the battlefield, but caring with a wounded comrade. At the heart of this contradiction is the myth that men and women are opposites; in other words, that to be masculine means to be anti-feminine. Forms of masculinity that do not stigmatize "feminine" behaviour allow men to express themselves more freely, overcome contradictory pressures and oppose sexism more easily.

The second step of the training programme was to explore how masculine codes are constructed. Even though most men have the potential to be allies of gender equality, there are two common barriers that prevent men from intervening as bystanders to oppose sexist behaviour. First is the "false consensus effect", when *a small proportion of men* believe their sexist attitudes are widely held by the rest of the group because no one speaks up to contradict them. Second is the "pluralistic ignorance effect", when most men privately reject sexist attitudes but incorrectly assume that they hold a minority view. Uncovering the false consensus and pluralistic ignorance effects can empower men to speak out when they witness discriminatory behaviour. Not only does this benefit victims of sexist behaviour, but it helps to foster a more positive working environment for the bystander himself and his team overall. This "enlightened self-interest" approach is used by instructors to overcome some of the traditional resistance to discussing gender – and masculinity in particular – within a military context, and to encourage more bystander intervention.

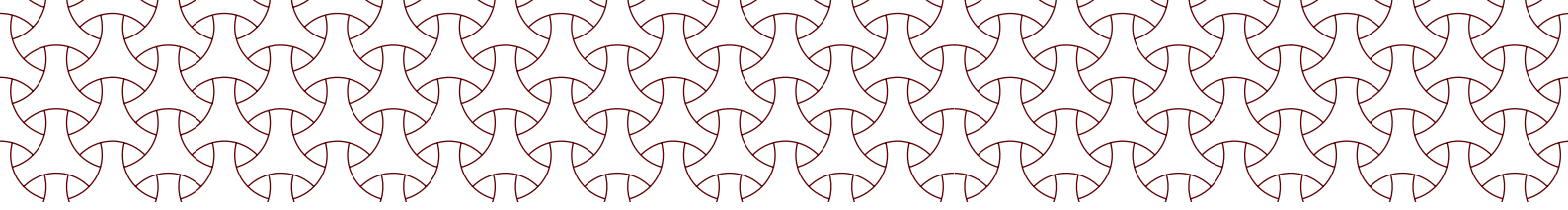
Source: C. Kilmartin (2017) "Men as allies", in J. Schwarz (ed.) Counseling Women Across the Life Span: Empowerment, Advocacy and Intervention, New York: Springer, pp. 225–242 at p. 232.

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3. What would a defence sector that advances gender equality and integrates a gender perspective look like?

This section outlines a vision of what a defence sector that advances gender equality and integrates a gender perspective would look like.

The principles of good security sector governance lie at the heart of this vision, namely representativeness, accountability, transparency, the rule of law, participation, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, all of which require gender equality as a central element.* Armed forces cannot maintain these principles on their own. Rather, good security sector governance relies upon appropriate relationships between *security providers* (such as the armed forces), those that *manage* armed forces (such as ministries of defence) and those that *oversee* armed forces and other defence institutions from the outside (such as parliamentarians, NHRIs and civil society.) This section explores each of these three sets of actors in turn.

* See Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”, for discussion of these principles of good security sector governance and why gender equality is a central element of each.

3.1 Provision of security

This section sets out a vision for armed forces and other defence institutions as providers of security.

Operational effectiveness is optimized

Armed forces and other defence institutions provide an optimal environment for the country’s best and brightest women and men to work collaboratively. Their successful track record has made armed forces and other defence institutions role models for other sectors and countries on how to maximize the potential of diverse teams. The government and the population trust the defence institutions to fulfil their mandate efficiently and effectively.

^ Integrating gender in intelligence processes and institutions is the subject of Tool 14, “Intelligence and Gender”.

Intelligence gathering and operational planning incorporate comprehensive gender analysis

Diverse teams of women and men collect operational intelligence from a wide variety of sources based on their different networks, access and knowledge. Information is gender disaggregated and evaluated by teams trained in gender analysis.^ Operational planners then incorporate a gender perspective, considering how a military intervention may impact on different groups of women, men, girls and boys in different ways so that operational effectiveness is maximized and any negative effects are mitigated to the greatest extent possible.

Image: Women serving in the Afghan Border Police and members of NATO’s Resolute Support Mission conducted a shura (a consultative council or assembly) at the Kandahar International Airport to discuss issues related to airfield security and gender integration in the Afghan security forces, 2015 © Resolute Support Media.

All military units have the capacity to integrate a gender perspective into their work

All educational and training curricula are designed with input from qualified Gender Advisers* and gender subject matter experts. Where relevant, they include guidance on how to apply a gender perspective to the subject matter as a learning objective and assessment criteria. As a result, all defence personnel have the capacity to apply a gender perspective to their specialized areas of work. Military exercises are conducted in a way that highlights the benefits of working in diverse teams and requires teams to apply a gender perspective to succeed. A network of Gender Focal Points supports the continuous integration of a gender perspective by their respective teams, while identifying knowledge gaps and lessons learned to Gender Advisers and senior leaders.

Military units interact positively with diverse civilian populations on operations

Militaries deploy diverse mixed-gender teams that have the cultural awareness and practical skills to engage positively with different groups of people, including women and men, in the mission area. There are sufficient numbers of qualified women and men working in all roles and functions that may involve contact with local populations, at home or abroad. (See Box 5 for an example from Jordan, noting how female personnel are seen as integral to military effectiveness.) SEA does not occur, and any allegations are handled quickly, transparently and justly.

Gender equality is a central component in all training and support missions

Sharing good practices in promoting gender equality and/or discussing how to integrate a gender perspective is part of any collaborative military engagement with partner defence institutions. Women and men participate in all collaborative activities, such as joint military exercises, educational exchange, advisory support and practical assistance programmes. Where necessary, technical assistance is provided to ensure that a gender perspective is applied throughout activities related to security sector reform and disarmament, demobilization and reintegration. At the end of any collaboration, partner institutions know why and how to apply a gender perspective in their own working contexts.

3.2 Defence management

This section sets out a vision for the institutions that manage how the armed forces are run – in most countries this is primarily the ministry of defence, although some of the below management functions are also (or instead) undertaken within the armed forces themselves.

The workplace is free of barriers related to gender, sexual orientation and gender identity

No one is prevented from serving in any position in the armed forces on the basis of their gender, sexual orientation or gender identity. Personnel challenge stereotypes by serving in significant numbers in roles and functions that are not stereotypically associated with their gender. Managers have identified and removed informal barriers that prevent different groups of women and men, including LGBTI people, from working in particular positions or ranks. Female and male personnel have equal access to coaching and mentoring.

Institutional culture enables all women, men and LGBTI people to excel

Historically underrepresented groups of women and men, including LGBTI people, are actively recruited into the armed forces. Family-friendly work policies, role models, mentors and the development of varied career models ensure that diverse women and men remain in

* Gender Adviser and Gender Focal Point roles are explained in subsection 4.4. Lessons learned in using these types of gender expert functions are also explored in Tool 1, "Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender".

the institution and reach high levels of seniority. The ability to create working environments in which mixed, diverse teams thrive is a criterion for promotion into senior ranks and leadership roles.

Box 5: Increasing the participation of women in the Jordanian Armed Forces

Until the 1990s women in the Jordanian Armed Forces (JAF) were limited to nursing and administrative roles. Following lobbying of the king by Princesses Aisha Bint Al-Hussein and Basma Bint Ali Bin Nayef, the Directorate of Women's Military Affairs was established in 1995. Princess Aisha Bint Al-Hussein subsequently became a major general and was the first Arab woman from the Middle East to attend the Royal Military Academy at Sandhurst in the UK. She serves as a role model for women in the JAF – alongside former army dentist Major General Falak Jamaani, who served for 27 years before being the first woman elected to parliament outside the quota system.¹

The JAF has sought to remove barriers to women serving by introducing, for example, maternity leave, measures to remove discrimination in pay and promotions, and the possibility of wearing a hijab with the uniform. Arguments for increasing the number of servicewomen in the JAF have largely been framed around operational effectiveness. Female involvement in a suicide bombing in Amman in 2005 led to calls for more women to work in counter-radicalization, counterterrorism and intelligence. Later, FETs were seen as critical for Jordan's contribution to the International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan. More recently, the JAF has been engaged in the response to Syrian refugees entering Jordan.

Progress on increasing the number of women (in non-medical roles) from 0.7 per cent in 2006 to a target of 3 per cent was initially modest (NATO, 2014). Things began to change in 2017, however, when Jordan became one of the first countries in the Middle East to adopt a NAP on WPS. The NAP was the result of a consultative process involving representatives of civil society and government agencies, including security actors such as the JAF. It highlights the need to advance the participation of women in the armed forces and to improve the JAF's gender responsiveness, especially towards women's specific security needs.

Drawing on NATO support, the JAF has played its part in the NAP process by drafting and implementing a three-year action plan. The JAF plan is primarily focused on improving education and training on gender awareness and enhancing the infrastructure of the Military Women's Training Centre. In addition, in 2018, women from the Canadian forces trained the JAF's Quick Reaction Force FET, JAF's first all-female platoon. The JAF is thus taking a comprehensive approach to increasing the number of women: incorporating changes in policy, promoting role models, allocating funds, improving training and infrastructure, and forging partnerships within the country and internationally.

Sources: J. Kavar (2017) "Jordanian women's evolving role in the armed forces", Women in International Security blog, 28 November, www.wiisglobal.org/jordanian-womens-evolving-role-in-the-armed-forces; I. Alharahsheh (2015) "Jordanian contributions to Afghanistan", UNIPATH Magazine, special edition, <http://unipath-magazine.com/jordanian-contributions-to-afghanistan>; M. Cabrera-Balleza and A. Fal Dutra Santos (2016) "NAP costing and budgeting workshop in Jordan: Bringing the NAP one step closer to effective implementation", Peace Women; National Coalition for 1325 and Jordanian National Commission for Women (2017) "Jordanian national action plan for the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, 2018–2021", 3 December, p. 15, <http://jordan.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2017/12/jordanian-national-action-plan>; NATO (2014) "The growing role of Jordanian servicewomen", iKnowPolitics, 12 August, <http://iknowpolitics.org/en/learn/knowledge-resources/multimedia/growing-role-jordanian-servicewomen>; NATO PfP Trust Fund (2017) "Jordan III", September, https://salw.hq.nato.int/Content/factsheets/Factsheet%20Jordan%20III_en%20Sep%202017.pdf; A. Connolly (2018) "A few good women: Female Canadian soldiers to train first all-female platoon in Jordanian army", Global News Canada, 4 July, <https://globalnews.ca/news/4310223/canada-female-engagement-team-jordan-armed-forces>.

Strong leadership ensures a working environment free of sexual and gender-based discrimination

All those in leadership positions, from the smallest units to the highest ranks, maintain a consistent message to personnel that the armed forces and other defence institutions do not tolerate sexual and gender-based discrimination, bullying, harassment, hazing and abuse. Leaders are proactive in preventing and responding to any such behaviour. All staff feel they can express themselves freely, irrespective of their gender, sexual orientation or gender identity, and can join staff associations that represent them.

Staff trust and know how to access both formal and informal and internal and external complaint and support mechanisms should they have any concerns. Complainants do not face any negative consequences in terms of reprisals or obstacles to career progression if they use complaint mechanisms in good faith.

Institutional gender structures promote gender equality and support the implementation of a gender perspective

Gender is seen as a specialized competency that is essential to the military, with financial resources allocated and earmarked to support this. Qualified Gender Advisers are assigned to each command, and work with networks of trained Gender Focal Points. Both Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points have allocated work time to dedicate to this function. There are also gender structures within human resources and personnel structures which promote gender equality and diversity in recruitment and equal opportunities for women and men, including LGBTI people. Leadership and personnel divisions have positive relationships with staff associations representing women and men, LGBTI people and other diverse groups.

3.3 Defence oversight*

This section sets out a vision for the role played by the individuals, institutions and organizations that oversee armed forces and other defence institutions to ensure activities are carried out in an effective and accountable way. Oversight of defence institutions must operate both externally (from outside) and internally (within). External oversight actors include the civilian authorities that maintain the democratic control of the armed forces. Formal oversight bodies include parliamentary defence committees, NHRIs and ombuds institutions that monitor military barracks and the conditions for service personnel. Informal oversight bodies include CSOs, women's groups, academia and the media. Internal oversight actors include commanders and/or civil servants charged with ensuring that missions' objectives are achieved; education, training and disciplinary standards are maintained; and human and financial resources are allocated correctly. Some might work within specialized internal oversight bodies such as audit offices, disciplinary tribunals or thematic taskforces or units. Robust oversight processes are needed for armed forces and other defence institutions to uphold standards of conduct and ensure their values are aligned with those of wider society.

Defence institutions regularly undertake gender self-assessments and internal reviews

Procedures, doctrine, directives and practices are systematically evaluated with a gender perspective and revised to ensure that armed forces and other defence institutions support the needs of male and female personnel and a gender perspective is applied in all operations. Evaluation processes include regular institutional climate surveys and gender audits and/or assessments. Ministries of defence, ministries working on equal opportunities and parliamentary committees are involved in these reviews, and monitor implementation

* A complementary resource on integrating gender into internal oversight of armed forces is DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR (2014) *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Internal Oversight within the Armed Forces*, guidance note, Geneva: DCAF.

Tool 7 addresses in more detail how parliaments can integrate a gender perspective and promote gender equality through security sector oversight, including oversight of armed forces.

of recommendations. Input is also provided periodically by external gender experts and CSOs, such as those engaged in any WPS NAP.

Defence institutions regularly monitor internal practices from a gender perspective

Sex-disaggregated statistics are routinely collected to measure the career progression of female and male personnel at every stage of their careers. Data trends are measured over time, and used to set gender-related recruitment targets and review selection, deployment and promotion criteria, retention levels, family policies and work/life balance measures, as well as to identify areas where there may be discrimination.

Complaints mechanisms are gender-responsive and monitored with a gender perspective*

A range of internal and external complaints mechanisms are available to personnel, including options that do not require a person to complain through their chain of command. Complaints mechanisms are victim-centred, with special attention paid to being accessible to victims of gender-related discrimination and harassment, and minority groups within the military. Complainants are treated with respect and referred to appropriate medical and support services, and complaints are dealt with swiftly and transparently. Staff working within military justice and disciplinary mechanisms have training in handling gender bias and gender-based crimes. Anonymized statistics on the frequency, nature and outcomes of different types of complaints are made available to external oversight actors and used to determine priorities for prevention, education and awareness-raising activities.

Civilians can hold armed forces accountable through external complaints mechanisms

The armed forces publicly disseminate information on behaviour by their personnel that would violate the law or its internal policies, and how members of the public can make complaints. There are multiple ways in which the public can make a complaint, developed in consultation with civil society to ensure that the complaints mechanisms are widely accessible, including to women and LGBTI people. Complainants are offered physical protection if warranted. Complaints are handled swiftly and transparently, and the public are informed of their resolution and follow-up.

Defence institutions are open to active and effective external oversight^

Armed forces and other defence institutions engage positively with external oversight actors. National security committees and councils and parliamentary defence committees regularly scrutinize the military's capacity to apply a gender perspective in its operations and promote gender equality and diversity internally. Adequately funded ombuds institutions and NHRIs have a statutory right to monitor the defence sector's activities, as well as to receive complaints from personnel and the public, launch investigations and provide recommendations. Defence institutions have a culture of openness to discussion, debate and learning, and engage collaboratively with academics and CSOs on gender-related topics.

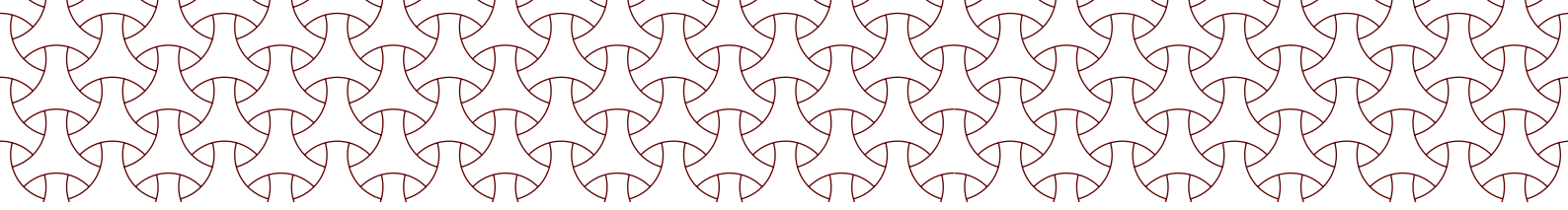
* More detailed guidance for armed forces on complaints mechanisms can be found in DCAF (2015) *Gender and Complaints Mechanisms: A Handbook for Armed Forces and Ombuds Institutions to Prevent and Respond to Gender-Related Discrimination, Harassment, Bullying and Abuse*, Geneva: DCAF.

^ Further details on how ombuds institutions and NHRIs can integrate a gender perspective in their oversight of armed forces and other security sector institutions can be found in DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR (2014) *Integrating Gender into Oversight of the Security Sector by Ombuds Institutions & National Human Rights Institutions*, guidance note, Geneva: DCAF.

Endnotes

1. Women's UN Report Network (2007) "Jordan – Parliament Member Falak Jamaani celebrates election victory beyond quota", 26 November, <https://wunrn.com/2007/11/jordan-parliament-member-falak-jamaani-celebrates-election-victory-beyond-quota>.





4. How can the defence sector advance gender equality and integrate a gender perspective?

The previous section set out the vision of a defence sector that advances gender equality and integrates a gender perspective. This section provides evidence-based practices on how this can be achieved. It is divided into five subsections that explore building leadership support and capability, the law and policy framework, strategies for fostering gender equality and broader diversity within armed forces, a gender perspective in military operations, and external oversight.

An ability to assess the *status quo*, identify problems and develop new solutions is key to defence institutions making progress on gender. A range of comprehensive assessment tools for militaries are highlighted in Box 6. Additionally, section 5 provides a self-assessment guide that can help to identify entry points for promoting gender equality in each of these areas.

4.1 Foster leadership buy-in and gender capability*

Leaders at all levels play a key role not just by issuing orders but as role models who shape armed forces' institutional culture. They establish what kind of behaviour will be rewarded, what will be tolerated and what will be punished. They set the tone of an institution's culture by the way in which they interact with other staff. For example, if unit commanders or non-commissioned officers refer to men as "girls" or "gay" when they fail a task or show weakness, this implies that there is an "in-group" (certain "masculine" men) and an "out-group" (women, LGBTI people). If female personnel are excused from difficult or unpleasant tasks or described as having special qualities (e.g. beauty, maternal instincts) that warrant extra protection, this reinforces the idea that women are less capable than men and place an unnecessary burden on the rest of the group.¹

For gender equality and gender mainstreaming measures to be given due attention and resources, active commitment is required from senior leaders as well as support from leaders and influencers at lower levels. Several innovative initiatives have been used to enhance leadership buy-in to gender equality in defence institutions. The UK Ministry of Defence designates one of its most senior members of staff as the Armed Forces' WPS Champion to promote visibility for its commitments. The Under Secretary-General responsible for the UN Department of Peace Operations has made several commitments to promote gender equality in his position as a member of the International Gender Champions network. Leadership commitment to gender equality and inclusion can be demonstrated by defence institutions' participation in public campaigns related to, for example, International Women's Day, Pride Parades (see Box 11 on p. 41) and minority religious and cultural festivals, as well as military commemorations and celebrations where the contribution of women and underrepresented groups is highlighted.

* Building leadership on gender equality is also addressed in DCAF (2015) *Gender and Complaints Mechanisms: A Handbook for Armed Forces and Ombuds Institutions to Prevent and Respond to Gender-Related Discrimination, Harassment, Bullying and Abuse*, Geneva: DCAF.

Image: Colombian Air Force personnel test an altitude chamber for aircrew, 2010 © Samuel Bendet.

Box 6: Assessment tools for armed forces

Over the last decade a number of assessment methodologies have been developed for armed forces, with a specific focus on identifying barriers to gender equality and integration of a gender perspective.

Gender Self-Assessment

Conducting a gender self-assessment is an excellent first step for an armed force to identify which laws, doctrine, directives and practices are in place and which are needed.

DCAF's *Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector* sets out an eight-stage process to conduct an assessment of an armed force, create an action plan to move the organization forward, and monitor and evaluate the plan's implementation. The assessment collects information across 16 "dimensions of gender responsiveness", grouped into the following themes.

- ✦ Performance effectiveness
- ✦ Laws, policies and planning
- ✦ Community relations
- ✦ Accountability and oversight
- ✦ Personnel
- ✦ Institutional culture

It is available in seven languages.

See DCAF (2011) *Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector*, Geneva: DCAF, <https://www.dcaf.ch/gender-self-assessment-guide-police-armed-forces-and-justice-sector>.

Organizational Climate Assessment

An organizational climate assessment, ideally conducted periodically, enhances military capability through the provision of accessible, timely and reliable strategic people research. The process will often combine a survey, focus groups, interviews and a data review.

A DCAF handbook, *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, provides step-by-step advice to plan, conduct, report and build upon a climate survey. It explains at each step how to ensure that a climate assessment integrates a gender perspective, paying attention to the different experiences of male and female personnel and sensitively collecting information on sexual discrimination and harassment.

See DCAF (2019) *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF, <https://www.dcaf.ch/gender-responsive-organizational-climate-assessment-armed-forces>.

Barrier Assessment

This is a research study exploring institutional barriers (such as limitations on who can serve in roles that are liable for deployment), deployment barriers (such as the criteria for deployment selection) and post-deployment barriers (such as the effect that being deployed has on an individual's future career). Aside from these formal barriers, it examines informal barriers related to institutional culture.

Analysis incorporates review of existing laws, policies and protocols, as well as surveys of and interviews with decision-makers and personnel who have and have not deployed. The assessment then develops recommendations for how to overcome the identified barriers.

See DCAF (forthcoming 2020) *Measuring Opportunities for Women in Peacebuilding: A Barrier Assessment Methodology*, Geneva: DCAF.

Beyond “buy-in”, those in command at every level need the capability to apply a gender perspective to their area of work, whether in strategy, operations, personnel management or anything else. This requires applying a relatively high level of gender-related subject-matter expertise in a variety of specialized areas, and armed forces have found creative ways to meet this need (see Box 13 on page 48 for an outline of Sweden’s gender coach programme).

Strategies to build the will and capacity of senior military leaders to promote gender equality and apply a gender perspective to their work include:

- ◆ key leader seminars, gender coaching and other small-group or personalized interventions
- ◆ involving leaders in events related to the WPS NAP, including meetings with CSOs interested in defence implementation of NAP commitments
- ◆ encouraging leaders to meet regularly with staff associations that represent female and LGBTI personnel
- ◆ including the ability to manage diverse teams and integrate a gender perspective in performance evaluation and promotion criteria.

4.2 Create a legal and policy framework to achieve gender equality

Laws governing armed forces and other defence institutions and policies within them should aim to be *transformative* when it comes to gender equality, to make these institutions more supportive of both women and men through their careers and better able to meet the diverse security needs of all in their operations, at home and abroad. This means ensuring there is no formal discrimination on the basis of sex, sexual orientation or gender identity. It means ensuring laws and policies overcome informal barriers to gender equality, for example by prohibiting sexual harassment and other discriminatory behaviour, and enabling women and men to serve on an equal basis by accommodating care responsibilities.

Defence personnel, staff associations, parliamentarians, CSOs, academics and other subject matter experts all have potential roles to play in law and policy-making for defence. When developing strategies to advance gender equality and integrate a gender perspective, defence institutions should consult CSOs working on gender equality as well as their own staff associations. They should take into account existing laws, government policies, NAPs and other national initiatives related to gender equality, and look for synergies with gender equality initiatives in other parts of the public sector.

Reform laws and policies that discriminate on the basis of sex, gender, sexual orientation or gender identity

Women have historically been prevented from serving in a wide range of functions within armed forces, and especially in combat positions. Nonetheless, women have a long history of combat involvement (which, as in the case study from Ukraine in Box 7, is often not acknowledged). Many reasons for excluding women from combat and certain other roles have been put forward over time, ranging from arguments that women are not physically strong enough and mixed-gender teams risk undermining unit cohesion, to the fear that men may act irrationally to protect their female colleagues on the battlefield. The positive experiences of the countries that do allow women to serve in all roles, however, call into question the validity of these arguments, and more and more countries are removing all formal barriers to women serving in the forces.²

As highlighted in section 2, lesbian, gay and bisexual women and men are still barred from serving in many countries, as are trans people (although they have served openly since 1974 in the Netherlands – see Box 11 on page 41).

Some of the law reform that may be required to create formal equality within armed forces and other defence institutions is the responsibility of parliament – for example, providing constitutional or legislative prohibitions of discrimination on the basis of sex, gender, sexual orientation and/or gender identity, and ensuring they are applicable to armed forces. To ensure that internal regulations and policies promote gender equality, armed forces and other defence institutions can take various steps.

- ◆ Undertake an assessment to review their regulations and policies to identify any formal or informal restrictions upon women (or particular groups, including LGBTI people) serving in the forces, or in particular roles and functions.
- ◆ Document the rationale for any such restrictions and re-evaluate the evidence that underpins them. Consult with subject-matter and legal experts, and look at the experiences of other armed forces in integrating these groups.
- ◆ Commit to evaluating all regulations and policies from a gender perspective on a regular basis.

Use codes of conduct to promote gender equality

Codes of conduct (some forces use statements of values and standards) state and shape the values of an armed force. It is important that they highlight the institution's commitment to gender equality as well as to non-discrimination more broadly. The Code of Conduct for the South African National Defence Force states: "I will treat all people fairly and respect their rights and dignity at all times, regardless of race, ethnicity, gender, culture, language or sexual orientation."³ To be effective, the code of conduct should be widely publicized, well known to all staff members and referenced in disciplinary hearings should staff fail to abide by it.

To ensure codes of conduct promote gender equality, armed forces and other defence institutions can:

- ◆ add commitments to gender equality, respect, diversity and/or inclusion into their code of conduct
- ◆ consult with diversity committees, staff associations and CSOs to ensure that the language used is inclusive, understandable and adapted to the national context
- ◆ ensure that education and training refer to the place of gender equality in the institution's values.

Ensure that human resources policies support gender equality

Human resources policy, and especially family policy, is critical to gender equality within the armed forces, for several reasons. First, poor work/life balance and a lack of support to pregnant women and parents of young children are among the most common reasons for people to leave the armed forces. So, failure to attend to these issues undermines capability. Second, in some forces women are overlooked for deployments and promotions solely because they are of childbearing age; again, potentially undermining capability. Gender equality means both that men have the same rights as women to look after their children, and that the burden of doing unpaid care is shared equally between women and men.⁴

Box 7: The “Invisible Battalion” in Ukraine – Challenging perceptions of women’s role in conflict

Whether or not women should be allowed to engage in the conflict in Donbas in eastern Ukraine became the subject of political debate. Yet thousands of women were already engaged in combat operations in self-financed volunteer battalions, often buying their own equipment despite receiving no salary or benefits. The media generally portrayed women as either victims or made-up and manicured “bunker ladies” providing moral support to their husbands, thereby perpetuating sexist and inaccurate stereotypes. As a consequence, women in volunteer battalions faced a multitude of obstacles from their own side, especially when most of the volunteer battalions were eventually integrated into the Ukrainian National Guard.

Legal barriers based on outdated health and safety legislation prohibited women from working with explosives or in roles that involved carrying more than seven kilos. As a result, the women were often unregistered, or lied and said they were serving in one of the roles open to women when in fact they were in full combat roles. In one example, a woman registered as an accountant actually served as a rocket launcher operator. The lack of formal status meant that many women were not provided with uniforms, or services such as gynaecological care. In addition, these women continuously had to confront the sexist and stereotyped attitudes of many of the men serving alongside them.

In response, a group of civil society activists and female combatants established the Invisible Battalion Project to publicize the role that women played in the conflict and demand that the Ministry of Defence make legal and policy changes to promote gender equality. The accompanying media campaign featured a film documenting the personal stories of six women (including two snipers and a battlefield medic) during and after serving in the conflict, and coincided with the launch of Ukraine’s WPS NAP in 2016.

The campaign ultimately resulted in the adoption of a law on gender equality in the armed forces that expanded the number of military roles and ranks open to women and recognized their right to serve on equal employment terms. Shifts in public perceptions were reinforced by more accurate reporting from the government, which granted combatant status to 7,000 women who had served in Donbas (Interfax-Ukraine, 2018). Following the campaign, a surge in female recruitment resulted in the Ukrainian armed forces employing 24,000 women, including 3,000 officers.



Image: Members of the Ukrainian Armed Forces, 2010
© Ministry of Defence of Ukraine/Назар Волошин.

Sources: G. Grytsenko (2018) “Invisible battalion”: How Ukrainian women secured the right to fight on a par with men”, openDemocracy, 20 February, <https://www.opendemocracy.net/od-russia/ganna-grytsenko/invisible-battalion-ukraine>; G. Grytsenko, A. Kvit and T. Martsenyuk (2016) “The invisible battalion”, Kiev: Ukrainian Women’s Fund; UN Women (2016) “Women are changing the face of the armed forces in Ukraine”, 1 November, <http://eca.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2016/10/women-are-changing-the-face-of-armed-forces-in-ukraine>; Interfax-Ukraine (2018) “About 7,000 Ukrainian women have status of participants in hostilities”, Kyiv Post, 7 March, <https://www.kyivpost.com/ukraine-politics/7000-ukrainian-women-status-participants-hostilities.html>.

See Tool 1, Box 11, for a further example from Ukraine of work within the armed forces on gender bias and domestic violence.

While all armed forces need to develop family-friendly and other human resources policies, the actual provisions in these policies will vary significantly based on cultural norms and the nature of the work being undertaken by the military. For example, armed forces engaged in long deployments abroad may consider establishing family duty stations, as the US has done at its bases in Japan, or allowing single deployments to be shared between two people, as is the case in the Norwegian forces.⁵ Childcare may be important in some contexts; in others, it may be that parents prefer to leave their children with their extended family.

To ensure family and other human resources policies promote gender equality, armed forces and other defence institutions can take various steps.

- ◆ Conduct research into how existing family policies promote or undermine gender equality, consulting with women and men (including parents within a range of different types of family structures). See Box 6 on page 28 for assessment methods.
- ◆ Trial, develop, monitor and continually review innovative policy solutions to meet staff needs.
- ◆ Consider options for both women and men to work flexibly so they can balance work with their care-giving roles.
- ◆ Adopt family policies that support both mothers and fathers to deploy on longer missions should they wish to do so (by either supporting the non-deployed parent or creating family duty stations), but never require both parents be deployed at the same time to non-family stations.
- ◆ Adopt policies to promote work/life balance for both women and men.

Be part of WPS NAP processes*

At the national level, WPS NAPs are key tools for translating the UN Security Council resolutions on WPS into concrete actions. NAP drafting processes are commonly co-ordinated by ministries of foreign affairs or ministries for women or gender, but ministries of defence should also be involved. A number of ministries of defence have developed WPS action plans or strategies specifically for themselves and the armed forces. Participation in a NAP process in many countries has helped armed forces and other defence institutions to build relationships with civil society. The coalitions involved in drafting NAPs can also play a useful advisory and oversight role to support defence institutions in implementing their recommendations.

At regional and international levels, the WPS Agenda has shaped shared language and common goals between defence institutions, development and foreign affairs agencies and CSOs. This has facilitated new mechanisms for co-operation and sharing of good practices. (See Box 8 for an example of information sharing across the Western Balkans.)

To realize the potential of the WPS Agenda to promote gender equality and the integration of a gender perspective, armed forces and other defence institutions can take several positive actions.

- ◆ Ensure they are represented at senior levels within the government structures that draft and monitor implementation of WPS NAPs.
- ◆ Detail concrete commitments for armed forces and other defence institutions in WPS NAPs, and ideally also in WPS action plans for the Ministry of Defence and the armed forces.
- ◆ Allocate sufficient resources to implement WPS NAP commitments, including establishing structures for monitoring and evaluation.
- ◆ Engage in regular dialogue and information sharing with WPS civil society networks, other ministries and other armed forces.

* For further discussion about how WPS NAPs and their national implementation processes can support gender equality and integration of a gender perspective in the security sector, see the Policy Brief on "A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security".

Box 8: Regional co-operation in the Western Balkans on gender mainstreaming in the security sector

The Ministries of Defence of Bosnia and Herzegovina, North Macedonia (as now named), Montenegro and Serbia agreed in 2012 to co-operate in improving gender equality in their respective militaries. The co-operation focused initially on three areas: raising the gender awareness of armed forces' staff, strengthening gender equality mechanisms and drafting of more gender-responsive human resource policies. The nations involved saw this as an opportunity not only to implement their commitments under the WPS Agenda but also to democratize further, modernize and develop the full potential of their armed forces, with a view to furthering Euro-Atlantic integration.

The main activities within the co-operation framework included the following.

- ◆ Creating a regional network of 33 internationally accredited gender trainers who subsequently trained over 4,000 military and civilian personnel in the Ministries of Defence and armed forces.
- ◆ Regular meetings, workshops and study visits to learn about and exchange good practices on practical aspects of gender mainstreaming in the military.
- ◆ A comparative study on the position of women in the armed forces in the Western Balkans, and development and implementation by each Ministry of Defence of recommendations based on this study. These included:
 - gender-sensitive monitoring of staff career development
 - measures to improve work/life balance
 - introducing and promoting the use of gender-sensitive language
 - encouraging and training more women for multinational deployments.

As a result of the regional co-operation programme, the four Ministries of Defence remain engaged in gender-related exchanges and activities with partners from across Europe and North America. In 2017 the regional trainers shared their skills further afield by delivering a gender "training of trainers" to officers from Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda and Rwanda, in collaboration with the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations.

Sources: This case study is based on information provided by Radmila Đakonović, Gender Co-ordinator, Ministry of Defence of Montenegro, and staff of the UNDP Southeast Europe Small Arms and Light Weapons Clearing House (UNDP-SEESAC). Other sources include B. Balon (ed.) (2014) "The position of women in armed forces in the Western Balkans", Belgrade: UNDP-SEESAC; UNDP-SEESAC (2016) "Overview of project results: Strengthening of regional cooperation on gender mainstreaming in security sector reform in the Western Balkans – Gender equality in the military in the Western Balkans project", 13 June, Belgrade: UNDP-SEESAC; J. Gustafsson (2017) "NCGM supports gender training of African officers in Serbia", 12 January, <https://www.forsvarsmakten.se/en/news/2017/01/ncgm-supports-gender-training-of-african-officers-in-serbia>.

4.3 Foster gender equality and broader diversity within armed forces

To achieve a vision of modern, diverse armed forces, able to recruit and retain talented personnel from across society, requires new initiatives and a level of cultural transformation in all areas. Priorities must be addressing barriers to the recruitment, retention and advancement of women and other groups traditionally underrepresented in armed forces, and confronting gender-related harassment, discrimination and abuse.

Leadership for gender equality, as outlined in subsection 4.1, is imperative. Subsection 4.2 addresses formal barriers, and this subsection focuses on informal barriers.

Recruit diverse talent

Overcoming formal barriers by amending laws or policies that restrict the recruitment of certain groups is discussed in subsection 4.2. Vetting should exclude anyone who has committed any serious act of GBV or hate crime.

Informal barriers to diverse recruitment include selection criteria that disproportionately exclude women or particular groups. It is important to review these criteria regularly to ensure that they fit the actual requirements of the job. For example, strength-based fitness tests may be needed for infantry soldiers, but not for positions in intelligence, logistics or more technology-focused roles. Adjusting fitness standards to facilitate more diverse participation does not “lower” standards; rather, it applies standards more appropriate to the military’s needs. Indeed, fitness standards are already adjusted as military personnel get older, and promotions are instead determined by experience, leadership skills, education and competence.⁶ Beyond fitness, selection criteria for any role should include intercultural communication skills, the ability to work in diverse teams and commitment to the underlying values of the armed forces, including as regards respect.⁷

Informal barriers also arise from stereotypes, especially ideas about what men and women are respectively able to do and good at. To achieve gender equality and wider diversity in armed forces, it is necessary to challenge informal barriers to men working in roles traditionally dominated by women, as well as to women working in roles traditionally dominated by men. The South African National Defence Force took actions to increase the number of men in military nursing.⁸ The Indian Air Force developed a recruitment video challenging stereotypes that women cannot be fighter pilots (see Box 9). A number of forces have trained those involved in recruitment and selection to overcome implicit gender bias: this is the idea that, subconsciously, everyone makes positive and negative assumptions based on gender (as well as other factors).

In positions requiring specialist skills the eligible pool of women or men may be small, and within this pool women (or men, in some roles) may be underrepresented due to the pervasive influence of gender stereotypes and bias. For example, fewer women are likely to apply for engineering roles within the armed forces as they are typically underrepresented in science, technology, engineering and mathematics courses at university level. Active outreach to girls encouraging them to study these subjects, and then to female students, can help to overcome women’s underrepresentation in such areas in the defence sector.*

Special temporary measures including gender quotas and other forms of affirmative action have been used to increase the number of women in the armed forces of, for example, Lebanon, Nepal and South Africa.⁹ These kinds of initiatives are not about lowering standards or providing special treatment. Rather, they recognize that underrepresented groups have had to work harder than others even to get to the application stage, and that diverse recruitment is a precondition for higher organizational performance. Quotas can motivate institutions to make rapid changes, as the onus is shifted to military leaders to achieve a target set by the ministry of defence, government or parliament. In Nepal, for example, as well as legislative changes, a women’s directorate was established and two directives adopted, one on zero-tolerance for GBV and one on enhancing women’s career prospects.¹⁰ Lebanon opened further roles to women to meet its quota.¹¹ At the same time, female personnel themselves often oppose gender quotas, fearing this implies women’s positions are not merit based. Some female military personnel in Australia felt pressured into positions with historically low numbers of women, where they felt unwelcome and the work did not match their interests and skills.¹² Quotas are therefore not appropriate in all contexts. They should only be used with caution, on a temporary basis, and within wider

* See Tool 14, “Intelligence and Gender”, for an example of British intelligence services reaching out to women studying science, technology, engineering and mathematics courses to encourage them to consider careers in intelligence.

programmes aimed at improving working conditions and creating opportunities for women and other diverse groups by changing policies, infrastructure and attitudes within defence institutions.

To promote diversity in recruitment, armed forces and other defence institutions can take the following actions.

- ◆ Collect and analyse detailed statistics on who is applying for what roles, and who is accepted. Data should be disaggregated by sex, and as far as possible by other indicators of diversity in one's national context, such as language, race, religion and geographical origin (see Box 6 on page 28).
- ◆ Analyse the disparities between the national population and the successful recruits, to understand barriers to certain groups at each stage. Gender balance should be examined across all categories. Examine how under-recruitment of certain groups is influenced by:
 - any formal barriers
 - selection criteria
 - gender stereotypes and gender bias, such that women or particular groups do not consider themselves as potential candidates, or those involved in recruitment screen them out.
- ◆ Review eligibility and selection criteria to ensure they meet contemporary needs and avoid gender bias.
- ◆ Target underrepresented groups in recruitment and outreach campaigns, ideally developed in consultation with staff associations and CSOs.
- ◆ Train all involved in recruitment and selection in diversity and gender bias, so they understand the organizational need for diversity and their own likely biases.
- ◆ Consider time-limited quotas, recruitment targets and other affirmative action measures as part of wider programmes and activities addressing institutional culture.

Box 9: Challenging gender stereotypes in recruitment for the Indian Air Force

Thirteen per cent of officers in the Indian Air Force are women – far higher than the 4 per cent female officers in the Army and 6 per cent in the Navy. India's first three commissioned female combat pilots (who hail from three different states: Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan) were featured in a YouTube video as part of a high-profile advertising campaign for the Air Force. The video challenges stereotypes that women fear loud noises and heights, and cannot take on such high-profile roles. This campaign comes within a series of press releases promoting advances made by women in the Indian Air Force. In 2019, for example, the Indian Air Force announced that an all-female crew had for the first time flown a Mi-17 V5 helicopter as part of a battle training mission.



Image: Suman Sharma, first Indian woman to fly a F-22 fighter jet, 2009 © Annechira Shiva.

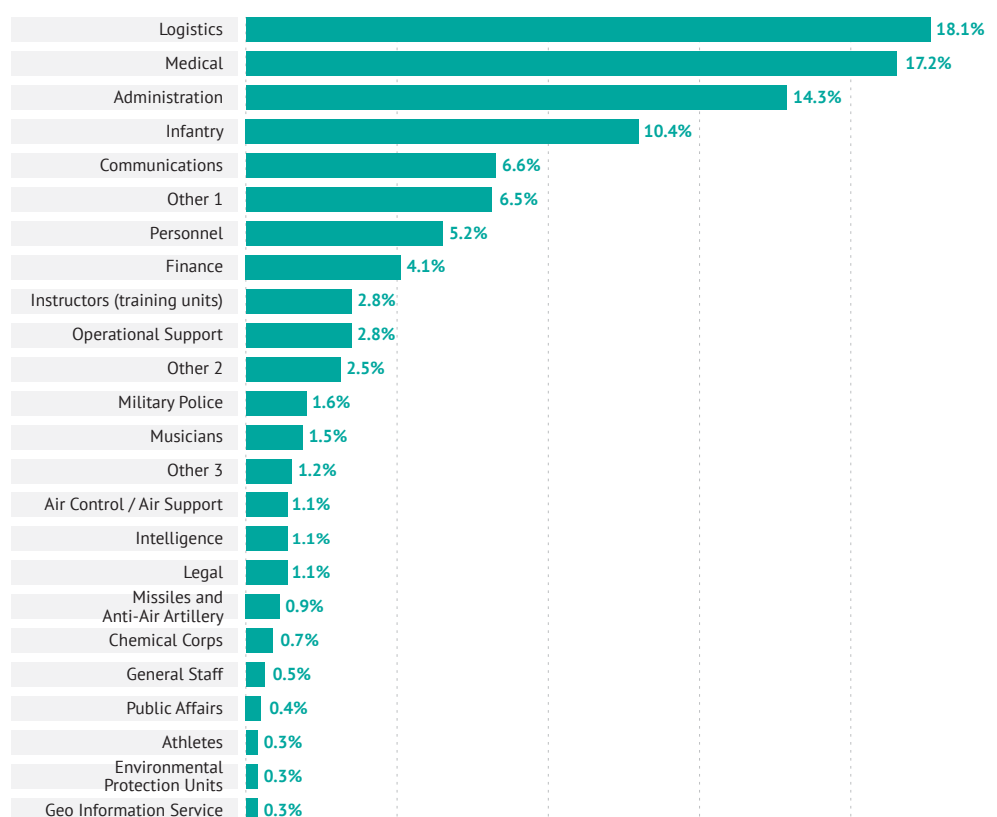
Sources: YouTube (2017) "Indian Air Force – A cut above", <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JSbOiExdx0U>; Press Trust of India (2018) "Air Force has 13 per cent women officers, highest among 3 armed forces", NDTV, 13 December; U. Sudhir (2016) "Meet the trio who will be India's first women fighter pilots", NDTV, 9 March; Press Trust of India (2019) "First all-women IAF crew fly Mi-17 helicopter in battle training mission", NDTV, 27 May.

Ensure equitable career development, promotion and deployment

The workplace environment, salary, benefits and perceived future prospects influence whether personnel stay in the armed forces. Armed forces and other defence institutions need to adapt continuously to the evolving needs and expectations of each new generation of recruits. For example, men are today more likely to expect paternity leave and flexible working hours, and staff in same-sex relationships expect equal benefits to heterosexual couples.

As well as maintaining personnel satisfaction and morale, the operational need for diversity and the legal obligation to prevent discrimination demand careful attention to whether women, LGBTI people and other groups that are in a minority within the armed forces have equal opportunities in career development. It is common in armed forces for roles to be relatively segregated by gender, with women overrepresented in jobs related to medicine and administration that have lesser access to the most senior ranks (see the NATO data in Figure 2, for example). It is particularly important to examine whether there is direct or indirect discrimination at key points when individuals are eligible for education, training or promotion and decisions around deployment. For example, units where women tend to be heavily represented, such as the medical corps, are in certain contexts exempted from some elements of basic training, such as handling firearms. These skills may be prerequisites for deployments abroad, transfers or promotions, resulting in *de facto* exclusion of women service members.

Figure 2: Main areas of employment in the armed forces of NATO member states where women served in 2017



Source: NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (2017) "Summary of the national reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives", Brussels: NATO, p. 37.

As with recruitment, it is important to collect and analyse information to uncover bias and informal discrimination, so as to be able to address it. Many armed forces also consult and/or survey specific groups of personnel to identify issues particular to them. In the Jordanian Armed Forces, for example, an assessment identified that some women were reluctant to serve in positions where uniform regulations do not offer them the possibility of wearing a hijab. Engaging with staff associations can be helpful (discussed below). “Organizational climate assessments” and other forms of workplace satisfaction studies can be useful for identifying “quick wins” as well as long-term objectives for human resources and personnel departments (see Box 6 on page 28).

The WPS Agenda created pressure for greater deployment of women in UN peacekeeping operations, and this has spread to other multilateral missions, such as those of the European Union and NATO. After India deployed the first all-female Formed Police Unit to a UN peacekeeping mission in 2007, the Philippines, Nigeria and Bangladesh followed suit. Ghana and Rwanda, too, increased the number of women in their troop contributions (see Box 11 on page 41).¹³ One way to identify why certain groups of women and men lack equal opportunities to deploy is to conduct a “barrier assessment” (see Box 6 on page 28).

Mentoring – the voluntary passing of knowledge, insights and wisdom from a more experienced to a less experienced person – is another area that requires attention. Although usually informal and voluntary, it nonetheless can play a critical role in advancement. Mentoring usually happens between like-minded people with shared values, hence it can be difficult for women, and men from traditionally underrepresented groups in the armed forces, to find mentors. Effective mentoring can help promote retention of underrepresented groups, level the playing field when it comes to promotions and ensure greater diversity at the senior levels of institutions.¹⁴

To promote equal opportunities in career development, including deployment, armed forces and other defence institutions can take a variety of supportive actions.

- ◆ Analyse barriers to equal opportunities (see Box 6).
- ◆ Assess whether women and men have equal access, in practice, to training and educational opportunities. It may be that the nature of the accommodation or the lack of family support facilities prevents disproportionate numbers of women from attending.
- ◆ Review promotion criteria to ensure they reflect the values and standards of the organization and avoid gender bias. Include as promotional criteria competencies in working in and managing diverse teams, such as preventing and appropriately handling any gender-related complaints.
- ◆ Ensure that panels making decisions about access to training, education, promotion, deployment and other key career opportunities are diverse. Panels should include women and men. Decision-makers should be trained in diversity and gender bias, so they understand the organizational need for diversity and their own likely biases.
- ◆ Consider time-limited quotas, promotion and deployment targets and other affirmative action measures.
- ◆ Create dedicated women’s mentoring networks of senior women (where possible) from diverse backgrounds, and proactively encourage senior staff to mentor more junior individuals from backgrounds that are different to their own.
- ◆ Take active steps to ensure that the working culture is inclusive, by, for example, highlighting that sexist or discriminatory language or images are unacceptable.

Support staff associations*

Staff associations and networks within armed forces and other defence institutions can play an important role in promoting well-being and retention for women, ethnic minorities and LGBTI people. They provide information on services, moral support, social opportunities, and opportunities for mentoring and professional networking (see Box 10, where an LGBTI staff association was part of moves towards inclusion).

Staff associations can also provide input into institutional policies and practices to help ensure that they respond to the changing needs of personnel. They should in particular be consulted in shaping gender equality and diversity strategies and action plans. International partnerships between staff associations can enable them to draw upon experiences from other countries that could benefit their own institutions.

Box 10: LGBTI people in the Dutch armed forces

In 1974 the Netherlands became the first country explicitly to allow homosexual, bisexual and transgender personnel to serve openly in the armed forces. A scandal rocked the nation in 1987, however, when it emerged that, at the request of the US Department of Defense, the Dutch Marechaussee (gendarmerie) had investigated and later arrested and deported a US sergeant for having a same-sex relationship with a Dutch soldier. Once in the US, the American was detained, subjected to degrading treatment, court martialled and discharged. A subsequent investigation led to the dismissal of a senior member of the gendarmerie and an ill-conceived survey of military leaders asking them to report how many homosexuals were in their units and whether this led to any tensions. The commanders recorded 58 gay men, no lesbians and 12 incidents of violence or bullying in a workforce of 85,000 personnel – a clear indication that homosexuals did not feel comfortable in the workplace and leaders were unable or unwilling to address homophobic bullying and harassment. That same year, Stichting Homoseksualiteit en Krijgsmacht (Foundation for Homosexuality and the Armed Forces, SHK) became the world's first military staff association for LGBTI people.

Things began to change when Relus ter Beek became Minister of Defence in 1989. The Social Council for the Armed Forces highlighted that the forces would not be able to recruit the best talent if acceptance of homosexuals did not improve, and that on an individual level those who did not serve openly would be susceptible to blackmail and other psychological consequences. Ter Beek took it upon himself to demonstrate that the armed forces could take active steps to recruit and promote gay men and lesbians into key positions to bring about institutional change. He increased funding to SHK, published a brochure on homosexuality in the armed forces and commissioned further regular studies. The plan worked, and by 1998 60 per cent of homosexual personnel stated that there was no employer more supportive of gay and lesbian staff than the armed forces.

Today there are open homosexuals at the rank of general and admiral. The armed forces have paraded in uniform on their own boat at Amsterdam's Canal Pride since 2011 with the endorsement of the top leadership, including those who do not identify as LGBTI. While there are still some branches where few or no LGBTI people serve openly, many recruits now do so from day one. As a result, leaders at all levels have a better understanding of their needs. For example, after meeting a transgender service member, a training officer created a role-play as part of a leadership course whereby an officer tells their commander that they are starting the process of transitioning to their true gender.

The Dutch experience exemplifies the importance of both visibility and leadership support to bring about the kinds of shifts in institutional culture necessary for LGBTI people to excel on a personal level, to the benefit of the armed forces.

Sources: J. Polchar, T. Sweijts, P. Marten and J. Galdiga (2014) LGBT Military Personnel: A Strategic Vision for Inclusion, The Hague: Hague Centre for Strategic Studies.

* See also DCAF (2011) "Female staff associations in the security sector: Agents of change?", Geneva: DCAF.

To leverage the support of staff associations to promote gender equality and diversity, armed forces and other defence institutions can do the following.

- ◆ Support staff associations by formally recognizing and resourcing them, and encouraging personnel to participate in them.
- ◆ Draw on research by, consultation with and advice from staff associations when developing institutional policies.
- ◆ Involve staff associations in education and training on diversity and equality.

Prevent and respond to gender-related complaints*

Most armed forces struggle with problems of sexual discrimination, sexual harassment, sexual abuse and discrimination or harassment on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity. Hazing, bullying and mobbing also often have gendered aspects, for example where the victim's real or imagined masculine identity is devalued. Most armed forces, however, find that gender-related problems are grossly underreported. Women serving in traditionally male-dominated roles may be reluctant to complain for fear of fuelling sexist attitudes that their presence undermines cohesion. Men may not report sexual abuse for fear of being labelled as homosexual. LGBTI people may fear being labelled as weak. Men who suffer sexual abuse within the context of hazing rituals may not even realize that they have grounds to complain. Commonly, part of the problem is a lack of confidence in armed forces' mechanisms for handling gender-related complaints fairly and confidentially. As well as damaging team effectiveness and morale, a culture of tolerance for gender-related harassment, discrimination or abuse critically undermines work towards gender equality and diversity.

Armed forces need to provide a variety of different ways to make gender-related complaints. Options should include formal and informal paths: online, via a telephone hotline, or in person; and to one's commander or outside the chain of command, such as via a chaplain, medical professional, equality and diversity officer or designated external organization. Policy should recognize that gender-based discrimination and harassment are often perpetrated by a superior against a subordinate. It is important that armed forces actively promote and build trust in their complaints mechanisms, including through measures to protect a complainant from retaliation.

Restricted and informal complaint options should enable a complainant to access support services without having to make a full, open complaint. These services are especially important when it comes to sexual abuse. In the US for example, a survivor of sexual assault can make a confidential ("restricted") report whereby neither his/her name nor the perpetrator's name is recorded. This allows them to access medical, psychological, advocacy and legal services. They can if they wish later choose to make the complaint unrestricted, which activates an official investigation. In 2014, 20 per cent of restricted complaints were later converted into unrestricted complaints, allowing official investigation.¹⁵ Due to the specific nature of sexual discrimination, abuse and harassment, countries such as Australia, France and the US have created dedicated institutions to receive these kinds of complaints.

Ministries of defence should monitor the number and types of complaints made, disaggregating them by gender and other diversity indicators. A lack of complaints should be taken as a failure in the reporting mechanisms and not a lack of any underlying problems. Independent oversight by parliaments, ombuds institutions and/or NHRIs is, moreover, critical to the protection of military complainants (discussed further in subsection 4.5).

* For more detailed guidance on this issue refer to the DCAF (2015) *Gender and Complaints Mechanisms: A Handbook for Armed Forces and Ombuds Institutions to Prevent and Respond to Gender-Related Discrimination, Harassment, Bullying and Abuse*, Geneva: DCAF.

To ensure that gender-related complaints are handled well, armed forces and other defence institutions can provide various forms of support.

- ◆ Use an organizational climate assessment, anonymous surveys and/or third-party research to collect gender-disaggregated data on the nature and frequency of gender-related discrimination, harassment and abuse (see Box 6 on page 28). Such studies can also examine whether and how a victim reported, and personnel's willingness to report. With this information, conduct further research to assess the barriers to women and men (or specific groups) in using the armed forces' complaints mechanisms and/or the quality of individuals' experiences when they do so.
- ◆ Provide a variety of formal and informal ways to make a complaint, within and outside the chain of command, including mechanisms to protect and support a complainant.
- ◆ Demonstrate leadership support for making complaints. Commanders can actively communicate the message that it is discrimination, harassment and abuse against a member that degrades capability, not a victim's act in bringing a complaint.
- ◆ Ensure that complaints processes are subject to both internal and external oversight. External oversight mechanisms include, for example, an NHRI or independent ombuds institution.

4.4 Integrate a gender perspective into military operations*

For many armed forces, efforts to integrate women have a long history. Integrating a gender perspective into military operations is a newer focus, but all military operations have gender dimensions. For a land operation to monitor its force security, patrols need to be able to collect information in ways that do not antagonize the local population.¹⁶ For targeting in an air campaign, a gender perspective is needed to calculate the likely secondary impact of a strike – for example, the potential for damage to infrastructure to affect women and men in different ways. At sea, ships increasingly need to provide emergency care to families, including young children, and victims of sexual and gender-based violence. Military personnel need to integrate a gender perspective at strategic, operational and tactical levels. This requires a holistic and comprehensive approach.

To facilitate this, many militaries have developed staff with specialized gender expertise (discussed below). But specialized gender roles should not be allowed to detract from the responsibility of each branch and each member of staff in the armed forces to integrate a gender perspective. To illustrate this, the rest of this subsection is structured around the general staff system used by many countries and widely understood by others (see Table 3).[^]

Table 3: Key to general staff system

	Responsible for:
J1	personnel
J2	operational intelligence
J3	current operations
J4	logistics
J5	deliberate planning
J6	communication and information systems
J7	education and training
J8	finance and procurement
J9	civil–military co-operation

* Further guidance can be found in the OSCE handbook (2018) *Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical Level in Peace Support Operations*, Vienna: OSCE; and DCAF and PfPC (2016) "Why and how gender is vital to military operations", in *Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook*, Geneva: DCAF.

[^] The terminology and classification of branches varies between countries. This subsection refers to the joint (J) divisions found in military headquarters, but is also relevant to the equivalent staff branches in the air force (A), army (G), navy (N), staff sections (S) and United Nations (U), for example.

Staff with specialized gender expertise*

Many states, multinational forces and peacekeeping missions have appointed Gender Advisers (sometimes referred to as “GENADs”) to support the command in implementing the provisions of the WPS Agenda at strategic, operational and sometimes tactical levels. A Gender Adviser is ideally a full-time position held by someone with gender subject-matter expertise who has received additional education and training for this purpose. Gender Advisers usually give guidance to a network of Gender Focal Points serving in the different branches. Gender Focal Points are “dual-hatted”, allocating a proportion of their work time to supporting the inclusion of a gender perspective in the daily activities of their branch while performing other military duties with their respective unit.¹⁷

FETs are a model wherein female soldiers are assigned and trained to engage with the local population. Developed primarily in operations in Afghanistan, the purposes of FETs are to increase local support for a mission and understand better how it could respond to the security needs of the local population. FETs should not be used to collect intelligence from women, although their input may help to improve the overall understanding of the mission environment. Use of Mixed Engagement Teams has subsequently become more widespread, with several peacekeeping missions adopting the practice (see Box 11).¹⁸

For these gender structures to be effective, it is important that they have support from leadership: responsibility for ensuring the integration of a gender perspective must ultimately rest with those in command. It is also important that colleagues understand their role. To ensure this, and that gender specialists have necessary access to information and planning and decision-making processes, their role should be formally institutionalized, for example through a standard operating procedure. Personnel should receive training to perform gender-specialist roles and be supported by a network of gender colleagues. In mission, they need access to female interpreters when engaging with local women, and resources to conduct outreach.¹⁹

Box 11: Challenging gender stereotypes within UN peace operations

The number of women deployed in UN peacekeeping has been increasing, albeit slowly. Women constituted approximately 4.9 per cent of military contingents in 2019, as opposed to about 1.6 per cent in 2005 (United Nations, 2011, 2019). Many of the deployed women serve in stereotypically feminine non-combatant roles, such as nurses and administrative assistants. In some cases this is because women are barred from combat training at the national level;

in others, combat-trained women are not deployed or are assigned to administrative roles while in mission because the mission environment is deemed too dangerous by military commanders and decision-makers. While it may seek to protect women, this form of “benevolent sexism” undermines women’s meaningful participation. It also undermines operational capability: all-male patrols are less able to engage with civilian women and lack the diversity of perspectives that comes with mixed-gender teams.



MONUSCO peacekeepers at International Women's Day celebrations in Goma, DRC, 2019 © MONUSCO/Michael Ali.

* Lessons learned in using these types of gender expert functions are explored in Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.

UN peace missions, however, provide opportunities to challenge the gender stereotypes of troop-contributing countries. Mission mandates reflect aspects of the WPS Agenda, potentially introducing new concepts to participating armed forces, and troop-contributing countries that deploy combat-trained female personnel demonstrate their capabilities to nations that do not.

South Africa, for example, deploys one of the highest proportions of female military personnel to peace operations (13 per cent, according to June 2019 UN data), some of whom serve in infantry contingents. While deployed in the UN Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, a South African officer persuaded the force commander to allow female medical officers from other nations to join a patrol seeking to engage with local women. Although this involved a steep learning curve for the women involved, the experience boosted their confidence and sense of purpose. The experiment also demonstrated to senior leaders that women could be incorporated into patrols and highlighted the important role of mixed-gender engagement teams in achieving the mission's objectives, particularly in a context with high levels of conflict-related sexual violence and other violations of women's human rights.

*Sources: United Nations (2011) "DPKO/OMA statistical report on female military and police personnel in UN peacekeeping operations, prepared for the 10th anniversary of the SCR 1325", https://peacekeeping.un.org/sites/default/files/gender_sres1325_chart.pdf; United Nations (2019) "Summary of troop contributions to UN peacekeeping operations by mission, post and gender", 30 June, <https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/gender>; S. Karim and K. Beardsley (2017) *Equal Opportunity Peacekeeping*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 34–36.*

Personnel (J1)

Staff concerned with personnel and human resources are responsible for implementing many of the measures mentioned in subsections 4.2 and 4.3 for fostering diversity in the armed forces.

The following non-exhaustive list provides examples of how staff working in personnel branches can place a greater focus on integrating a gender perspective in operations.

- ◆ Ensure that both women and men are included in all units that will have direct contact with the civilian population and meet more specific operational staffing ("manning") needs that require female personnel, for example in engagement teams, checkpoint and search operations, interpreting, detention operations, providing emergency medical care, and in liaising with local organizations.
- ◆ Ensure that specialist gender roles (Gender Advisers, Gender Focal Points, FETs) can be filled by qualified personnel, both female and male.
- ◆ Ensure that deployments include servicewomen and servicemen trained to respond to male, female and LGBTI survivors of conflict-related sexual violence.
- ◆ Ensure that personnel are made aware of standards of behaviour towards the local population, including a zero-tolerance policy towards paying for sex.
- ◆ Implement a zero-tolerance policy towards sexual harassment and violence between service members.
- ◆ Monitor the use of disciplinary measures for transgressions of zero-tolerance policies to ensure that they are being implemented appropriately and proportionately.

Operational intelligence (J2)*

Including women and men in the teams that collect and analyse intelligence, plus training all relevant staff to apply a gender perspective, will increase capabilities to identify security threats to women and men, as well how women and men contribute to insecurity. Intelligence-gathering teams from diverse backgrounds will have greater collective knowledge when it comes to identifying where and how to collect information, and what this information means. For example, a Muslim serviceperson is more likely to know how and why local women and men change their daily schedules during the month of Ramadan. In mission, men and women might have differential access to men and women in the local population.²⁰ More specifically, changes in gender norms can be an early-warning indicator of violent extremism or a slide into conflict.²¹

While demographic diversity (defined in terms of gender, race, age, etc.) benefits intelligence gathering, armed forces should also strive for cognitive diversity: different personalities and thinking styles. Cognitive diversity can overcome “groupthink”, whereby a tightly knit group develops a shared yet inaccurate view of reality, and the members begin to trust the group consensus to such an extent that they suppress any personal doubts. Groupthink has been blamed for several military fiascos, such as the failed US invasion of the Bay of Pigs in 1961 and the failure of the US Navy to heed intelligence warnings that Japan was planning to attack Pearl Harbor in 1941.²²

While demographic diversity will not automatically lead to cognitive diversity, it is unlikely that cognitive diversity can be achieved *without* demographic diversity. If a group is not diverse, this is partly because leaders recruit members “in their own image” in terms of both demographic and cognitive characteristics.²³

The following non-exhaustive list provides examples of the kinds of actions staff working in information and operational intelligence branches can take to integrate a gender perspective.

- ◆ Ensure that a gender analysis is applied to data to integrate a gender perspective in the intelligence provided to commanders, including those working in the field.
- ◆ Ensure that diverse women and men are involved in collecting and analysing intelligence, consciously striving for both demographic and cognitive diversity.
- ◆ Collect intelligence from diverse women and men, ensuring that data are disaggregated by gender and age.
- ◆ Establish activity profiles for different groups of women, men, girls and boys in the mission area. In other words, who generally undertakes what activities, when, where and what routes and modes of transport do they use to get there? These activities may vary by day (e.g. market days), date (e.g. festivals) or season (e.g. harvests).
- ◆ Create a resources profile to establish who controls key resources (land, food, water, fuel, finance, etc.), and who has access to these resources and under what conditions (e.g. does accessing water put women at risk of sexual assault?)
- ◆ Apply gender analysis[^] to risk and security assessments by, for example, monitoring shifts in gender roles, gender-related patterns of movement and GBV.

It should be noted that the goal of integrating a gender perspective into J2 activities is to facilitate the work of J5 (planning) and J3 (operations) branches in applying a gender perspective in their work (see Box 12).

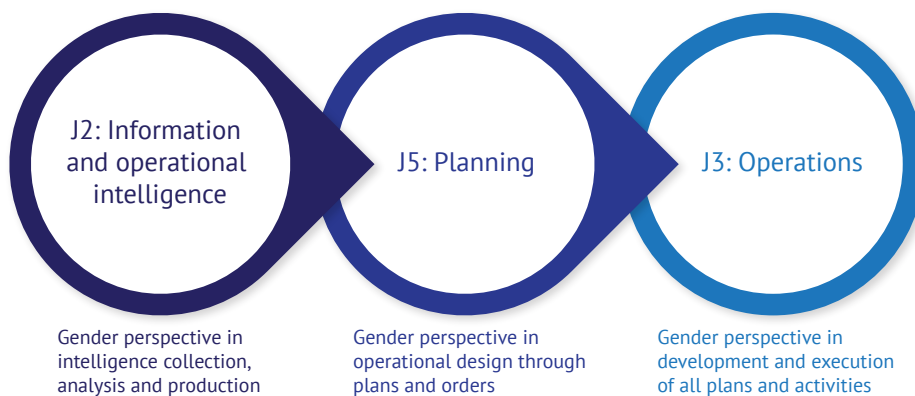
* For more detail on integrating a gender perspective in intelligence processes, see Tool 14, “Intelligence and Gender”.

[^] Tool 15, “Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector”, goes into detail on how to conduct gender analysis.

Gender analysis tools for the military are also included in the OSCE handbook (2018) *Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical Level in Peace Support Operations*, Vienna: OSCE.

Section 6 lists a number of other gender conflict analysis tools that could be adapted for military operations.

Box 12: Ensuring an integrated approach to incorporating a gender perspective



In considering the roles of the staff branches, it is important to ensure an integrated approach to incorporating a gender perspective into the analysis, planning, execution and assessment of operations. Gender, as a theme, should flow throughout these activities. J2 (information and operational intelligence) should include a gender perspective in developing an understanding of the operational environment and the human terrain, including incorporating gender-disaggregated data in intelligence analyses, products and assessments. J2 should also address the gender perspective of intelligence collection, analysis and production, taking care to involve a diversity of data sources and perspectives. J5 (planning) should include consideration of gender in operational design and planning activities and products; the gendered intelligence products produced by J2 will inform these activities and flow through into plans, orders and other J5 documents. J3 (operations) will include a gender perspective in the development and execution of plans, orders and activities, including all types of patrols, search operations, information operations and psychological operations, both kinetic and non-kinetic. It is important that a gender perspective is applied in targeting and engagement activities. The Gender Adviser will provide subject-matter expertise, advice and assistance in these activities, but should not be solely responsible for them.

Source: Personal correspondence with Lieutenant Colonel Bradley Orchard, UN Women.

Current operations (J3)

The following non-exhaustive list gives examples of the kinds of actions staff working in operations branches can take to integrate a gender perspective.

- ◆ Ensure that units are ordered to conduct mixed patrolling as often as possible, and that there are servicewomen working on cordon and search operations and on checkpoints.
- ◆ Ensure missions using gendered interface units (FETs, cultural support teams, women's initiative training teams, mixed patrols) are tracked in the joint operations centre.
- ◆ Create templates for reporting that include headings to provide information relating to the gender dynamics of the area, the different threats to civilians on the basis of age, gender, sexual orientation and gender identity, and reports of conflict-related sexual violence or other human rights violations. Provide assessments of these topics in post-patrol briefs.
- ◆ For information operations, the following points are relevant.
 - Is a gender perspective considered in the planning and conduct of all patrols, including considering how the patrol may be perceived by, and should engage with, different groups of women, men and LGBTI people?

- Are products communicating with the local population inclusive?
- Has the force considered whether its messages reinforce cultural mores of the society that undermine the human rights of women, men, girls and boys, including LGBTI people?
- Ensure the use of mixed-gender teams in search operations, and conduct searches as respectfully as possible by, for example, alerting inhabitants before entering homes (to allow them to dress appropriately), ensuring that body searches are conducted by a person of the same gender, and involving local witnesses (such as religious or community leaders). Does key leader engagement include dialogue with women and marginalized men?
- ◆ When engaging with the local population, ensure that key leader engagement includes dialogue with women as well as with men.
- ◆ Consider the timing, location and security of meetings to enable different groups of women and men, including LGBTI people and those who are primary carers of children, to be able to attend. Use FETs where necessary, as well as both male and female interpreters in patrol teams.

As detailed in Box 12, J3 staff should be able to draw on the gender perspective applied to planning documents produced by J5, which in turn draw on gender analyses undertaken by J2.

Logistics (J4)

Logistics impact upon the ability of women, men and LGBTI people to serve equally in armed forces through what is supplied. Small oversights can have serious consequences. The UN did not supply feminine hygiene products to female peacekeepers serving in the UN–African Union Mission in Darfur, so they had to undertake long journeys in unfamiliar areas to buy them in their free time, often relying on male colleagues to accompany them due to local restrictions on women's freedom of movement.²⁴

The following non-exhaustive list provides some illustrative examples of how logistics branches can integrate a gender perspective.

- ◆ Consult with different groups of personnel and/or staff associations to meet the needs of all staff, including women, men and LGBTI people. This should include consideration of accommodation, laundry and bathroom facilities, uniforms, equipment and medical services. Special attention should be paid to sexual and reproductive health, to ensure that all staff can access all services safely and without fear of stigma.
- ◆ Ensure that medical teams include specialists in obstetrics and gynaecology as well as sexual and reproductive health.
- ◆ Ensure that medical teams have the equipment and skills to respond to sexual violence against women, men and LGBTI people, such as post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP) kits.
- ◆ With J1 and military police, ensure that civilians employed on camp are protected from sexual exploitation, trafficking and prostitution.
- ◆ Award contracts to companies with a strong and transparent human rights record on treatment of women, men, girls and boys, including LGBTI people, and to businesses that are run by women or support women in the local society.

Deliberate planning (J5)

Applying a gender perspective in planning involves drawing on a thorough gender analysis* of the mission area, ideally undertaken by the J2 branch (see Box 12). This usually requires support from Gender Advisers, and potentially from other subject-matter experts. For example, operational planning for the UN Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

* Tool 15, "Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector", goes into detail on how to conduct gender analysis.

Gender analysis tools for the military are also included in the OSCE handbook (2018) *Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical level In Peace Support Operations*, Vienna: OSCE.

drew on the advice of gender and protection specialists, with due regard to the high levels of conflict-related sexual violence. Operation Sophia (the European Union Naval Force Mediterranean) used cultural advisers and experts in human trafficking.²⁵

A gender perspective should be integrated throughout the objectives and tasks set out in operational plans. It might be appropriate (as in NATO missions in Afghanistan) to include a “gender annex” in the operational plan.

Including a thorough gender analysis as the basis of operational planning can involve some of the activities included in the following list, which is not exhaustive.²⁶

- ◆ Apply a gender perspective throughout operational plans. Some examples are as follows.
 - Identify the different groups of women and men, including LGBTI people, who are present in the mission area and the characteristics influencing their threat or vulnerability, for example age, religion, ethnicity, social class, disability, marital status, parental status and sexual orientation.
 - Identify the different conflict-related roles that women and men play as combatants, suppliers of weapons, food and other forms of support, political actors, activists, human rights defenders and social influencers.
 - Establish activity profiles for different groups of civilian women, men, girls and boys in the mission area. In other words, who generally conducts what activities, when, where and what routes and modes of transport do they use to get there? These activities may vary by day (e.g. market days), date (e.g. festivals) or season (e.g. harvests).
 - Create a resources profile to establish who controls key resources (land, food, water, fuel, finance, etc.), who has access to these resources and under what conditions (i.e. does accessing water put women at risk of sexual assault?).
 - Analyse local gender norms and how they are being affected by the (potential, current or former) conflict. Identify opportunities for peace.
- ◆ When developing and implementing plans from this gender analysis, it is important to:
 - draw on the expertise of Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points
 - train other specialists to apply a gender perspective to their areas of expertise
 - identify gender-related indicators, and monitor activities and impacts against them
 - maintain regular communications with women’s groups and CSOs working on gender equality, either directly or through intermediaries.
- ◆ Review the host-nation gender architecture, such as its WPS NAP, human rights commitments and structures, and frameworks concerning GBV, and identify authorities responsible for these areas.

- ◆ Ensure that women and men are fully included in security sector reform activities, disarmament, demobilization and reintegration programmes and post-conflict negotiations. Ensure that these efforts consider the needs of women, men, girls and boys, including LGBTI people.

Communication and information systems (J6)

Communications systems and the cyber world remain male-dominated fields within both military and civilian contexts. Like intelligence, however, high performance requires collaborative teams with high levels of cognitive diversity. This is in part because cyber attackers are diverse, and more likely to succeed if they circumvent orthodox approaches to cyber defence.²⁷ On a day-to-day level, gender norms influence communication styles and the kinds of technology individuals prefer to use, so ensuring diverse perspectives are brought to their design and implementation will be an advantage. In missions, J6 needs to understand the gender dynamics of the communication environment.

This is also a field where there are significant labour shortages. Any military employer is in competition with global technology giants to recruit the best talent,²⁸ so it is necessary to attract women and others who might not have traditionally followed military careers (discussed in subsection 4.3).

A non-exhaustive list of the kinds of actions J6 branches can undertake to integrate a gender perspective could include the following.

- ◆ Apply a gender analysis to communication means and needs, understanding how women and men might differently engage with technology, and adapt accordingly.
- ◆ Apply a gender perspective when risk assessing how civilians may be affected by the placement of communications infrastructure (e.g. it should not be placed where civilian men or women congregate).²⁹
- ◆ Reach out to new audiences to attract a diverse, skilled talent pool.*

Education and training (J7)^

Integrating gender into military education, training and exercises is essential, both to ensure that all personnel can apply a gender perspective to their work and to instil commitment to gender equality as a core value into the armed forces' institutional culture.

The United Nations requires troop-contributing countries to include WPS in pre-deployment training, and the Security Council resolutions on WPS demand that all parties to armed conflict train troops on the categorical prohibition of sexual violence and debunk myths that fuel sexual violence.³⁰ Many armed forces are also obliged to train their personnel on the prohibition of gender-related harassment, discrimination and assault in line with their code of conduct or national law or policy. Beyond specific topics such as these, gender analysis skills should be developed at every level of military education, so personnel are able to apply a gender perspective in the varied and ever-changing contexts in which they work.

* As well as being discussed in subsection 4.3, Tool 14, "Intelligence and Gender", describes how British intelligence services did this to attract more female applicants.

^ Good practice in gender training for the security sector is also discussed in Tool 1, "Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender".

For more detail see DCAF and PfPC (2016) *Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook*, Geneva: DCAF and PfPC.

Box 13: Gender coach programme in the Swedish armed forces

Sweden's gender coach programme was originally a component of a larger Genderforce project funded by the European Social Fund, with the aim of increasing knowledge of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and implementing it within institutions' regular operational structures, mandates and fields of work. The programme was piloted in 2007 and has been repeated three times since, with adjustments in the methodology.

The Swedish armed forces' gender coaches are handpicked and experienced gender experts holding senior positions in partner institutions, civil society, the private sector or academia. Those coached are also handpicked from the ranks of senior military staff: the fact that coaches are assigned only to individuals being considered for high-level promotion has given the programme a degree of prestige and created demand to be "gender coached".

Over a 12-month period gender coaches support those coached to develop and implement individual action plans to promote gender equality within their particular area of responsibility. Coaching includes three to five group seminars and individual monthly meetings. Individual participants in the programme gain a high level of understanding and know-how in applying a gender perspective in their line of work.

A review of the different iterations of the gender coach programme recommends the following to maximise the effectiveness of this kind of coaching or mentoring.

- ✦ Leverage meetings of key leaders to identify common goals between the programme participants that are in line with institutional policies and commitments. This should ensure that the different actions undertaken by the participants are sustainable and coherent.
- ✦ Ensure that gender coaches consider how they can bring added value to existing gender structures (such as Gender Advisers, Gender Units and Gender Focal Points) within the institution. As an outsider, for example, a gender coach might be better placed to raise sensitive topics.
- ✦ Develop strategies to garner the support of middle management within the institution, as they have the potential to resist change, yet play a key role in supporting institutional policies on gender equality and the application of a gender perspective.

Sweden's gender coach programme has subsequently been replicated in Montenegro, and could potentially be adapted for other armed forces and senior leaders in mission, such as those serving in UN peace operations.

Sources: N. Levesque and M. Petriashvili (2016) "Mentoring and coaching", in PfPC SSRWG and EDWG, Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook, Geneva: DCAF and PfPC, pp. 189–205; R. Egnell, P. Hojem and H. Berts (2012) Implementing a Gender Perspective in Military Organisations and Operations: The Swedish Armed Forces Model, Uppsala: Uppsala Universitet, pp. 21–24; L. Olsson and A. Björsson (2017) "Gender training for leaders: The Swedish gender coach program", occasional paper, Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security; SEESAC (2019) "Gender coach programme for advancing gender equality in the Ministry of Defence of Montenegro", <http://www.seesac.org>, 11 October.

The following non-exhaustive list gives some examples of the kinds of initiatives J7 personnel can undertake to integrate a gender perspective into training and education.

- ✦ Ensure all personnel received gender education and training at every step of their careers. Relevant gender content should be incorporated into a wide range of courses, not only those on peacekeeping or stabilization. Capacity to integrate a gender perspective should be treated as a standard military competency (which is assessed) and not as a one-off "special" topic.
- ✦ Adopt transformative teaching methodologies that encourage self-reflection in learners, leading to changes in behaviour that better support institutional commitments to gender equality.

- ◆ Provide stand-alone education on gender for Gender Advisers, Gender Focal Points and any other staff involved in developing gender-related policies, plans or educational content. This should encompass normative frameworks, tools and approaches for gender mainstreaming, and how gender relates to the range of military functions that they support. The Kofi Annan International Peacekeeper Training Centre, for example, delivered a course on gender concepts and theories to its faculty ahead of a master's degrees curriculum review.³¹
- ◆ Verify that military education curricula and training standards reflect international, regional, national and institutional obligations and standards regarding topics such as SEA, sexual violence, sexual harassment and the human rights of LGBTI people.
- ◆ Educate personnel on the role played by Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points, and other ways to access specialist gender expertise.
- ◆ Provide mission-specific gender training so personnel have a good understanding of their area of operation and gender-related aspects in their standard operating procedures, mission mandates and operational and tactical plans.
- ◆ Provide gender learning opportunities to military leaders, such as coaching and key leader seminars (see Box 13).

Finance and procurement (I8)

Wherever they are stationed, armed forces have a significant impact on the local economy given their need for a reliable local supply chain for goods and services. These impacts should be considered with a gender perspective. Decisions on which companies to award contracts to and working conditions of local contractors will have an impact on gender equality in the local community. Formal contracts may also be accompanied by informal economic activities. Small-scale trading in local handicrafts near military bases, for example, may support women's economic empowerment.

Military contractors have been accused of involvement in sex trafficking in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and trafficking of human beings for forced labour in Iraq and Afghanistan.³² Hence an important role in military procurement is ensuring that private contractors do not have a history of involvement in gender-related crimes, that they have mechanisms for preventing and reporting these crimes, and that their contracts are terminated if they are found to engage in them. More generally, as a major customer for a wide range of services, the military can require the companies it contracts to have high standards in terms of ensuring the human rights of its workers, its relations with local communities and its ethics and codes of conduct.*

In addition, finance divisions in defence institutions can create specific budget lines for gender-related education, training, infrastructure, roles and initiatives. If training and provision of Gender Advisers, for example, is not included in the core budget, there is a higher chance of these positions being cut when there are budget constraints, even though they are listed on mission staffing ("manning") lists.³³ Transparent reporting (internally and, where possible, externally) on how much funding is allocated to commitments related to WPS, to gender equality more broadly, and to gender-specific infrastructure (e.g. dormitories) and equipment (e.g. body armour) is essential for effective internal and external oversight of defence spending.

One approach to applying a gender perspective to military spending is gender-responsive budgeting. This involves conducting a gender analysis of institutional, mission and programmatic budgets to assess whether resources are being distributed fairly in accordance with the different needs of women and men. For example, it could involve assessing whether spending on recreational spaces, medical care and military equipment in

* See the Policy Brief on "Gender and Private Security Regulation" for a detailed discussion of how contracting states can encourage and monitor high standards.

a peacekeeping mission benefits male and female personnel in equal measure. Ministries of defence in Japan, South Korea and France have been directed to provide gender annexes to their budget to report how their spending advances national targets related to gender equality.³⁴

To integrate a gender perspective, the following non-exhaustive list provides examples of the kinds of activities staff working in finance and procurement can undertake.

- ◆ Support local businesses that are owned by women or promote gender equality.
- ◆ Only contract companies with a transparent and good track record on human rights, including as regards sexual discrimination and SEA, and include provisions that are aligned with appropriate international labour standards and allow contracts to be terminated if company personnel commit abuses.
- ◆ Create specific budget lines for gender-related education, training, infrastructure, roles and initiatives in accordance with WPS NAP commitments and institutional work plans.
- ◆ Provide transparent financial reporting (to the extent possible) on spending related to WPS and gender equality to facilitate gender-based budgetary oversight.
- ◆ Apply gender-responsive budgeting and procurement techniques.

Civil–military co-operation (CIMIC) (J9)

When engaging with civilian communities and organizations, it is important militaries do not assume that a single CSO is able to represent all parts of the community or has a monopoly on gender (or any type of) expertise. Different groups of women, men, girls, boys and LGBTI people have varying needs and perspectives. Military engagement therefore needs to be carefully considered to involve a diverse range of civil society groups, including groups representing and engaging with different women and LGBTI communities.³⁵ More specifically, a gender perspective should be applied to building relationships with local communities and leaders (Key Leader Engagement), and women should feature among the list of community leaders whom the armed forces seek to engage.³⁶

Applying a gender perspective in CIMIC involves many of the considerations mentioned for operations (J3) and planning (J5), such as the need for a thorough gender analysis before starting any project.

Below is a non-exhaustive list of some additional CIMIC activities that could be undertaken.

- ◆ Ensure that projects do not undermine work already being undertaken by women's CSOs and international organizations on WPS, conflict resolution and peacebuilding.
- ◆ Ensure that projects are developed through close collaboration between military gender experts (e.g. Gender Advisers) and CIMIC experts in cultural awareness and governance, to conduct in-depth gender analysis and design projects that transcend gender stereotypes and “feel-good” activities. Gender Advisers should not be solely responsible for CIMIC activities that focus on women and gender equality.
- ◆ Where delivering any CIMIC project in communities, consult different groups of women and men to identify their needs and priorities, and involve different groups of men and women in implementing, monitoring and evaluating the project
- ◆ Consider how the timing, location and security of project activities affects whether different groups of women and men can participate.
- ◆ Monitor throughout the project whether women and men are equally able to contribute and participate, and apply a gender perspective to the evaluation of all CIMIC activities.³⁷

4.5 Integrate a gender perspective into defence oversight mechanisms

Defence institutions cannot be effective or efficient unless they are subject to democratic civilian control. This requires independent oversight by parliament, courts, ombuds institutions and NHRIs, as well as public scrutiny by civil society actors such as CSOs and the media, to the greatest extent possible. These systems of checks and balances are necessary to ensure that armed forces and other defence institutions uphold obligations to promote equal opportunities and prevent discrimination, and are held accountable when their personnel commit violations. For armed forces, they are additionally necessary to monitor measures to integrate a gender perspective in military operations.

The discussion focuses on three key sets of oversight actors: parliaments, ombuds institutions and NHRIs, and civil society.*

Parliamentary oversight^

Parliaments give democratic legitimacy to armed forces and other defence institutions by ensuring that they operate within the framework of the rule of law and are democratically controlled.

Parliaments can integrate a gender perspective into their oversight of armed forces and other defence institutions using a range of mechanisms. Most important is to ensure that laws and regulations related to defence require and enable defence institutions to meet the nation's commitments to achieve gender equality and avoid discrimination, in line with national, regional and international legal frameworks (as discussed in subsection 2.3). This requires close attention to, for example, restrictions on women's roles within militaries and application of anti-discrimination law. Relatedly, parliaments should ensure that ombuds institutions and NHRIs (discussed below) have robust powers, enshrined in law, to oversee armed forces and other defence institutions. These should specifically refer to the institution's responsibility to monitor gender equality.

Beyond the legislative framework, to support the integration of a gender perspective in armed forces and defence institutions more broadly, parliamentarians can take the following action.

- ◆ Solicit public input from diverse CSOs, humanitarian organizations and academics on how the defence sector can better promote gender equality and integrate a gender perspective, including through consultations, inquiries and outreach.
- ◆ Regularly ask questions in parliament and committees (including questions highlighted by CSOs and staff associations) about how defence institutions are integrating a gender perspective, promoting gender equality and/or implementing specific WPS NAP commitments.
- ◆ Pay close attention to the roles and responsibilities of armed forces and other defence institutions under a WPS NAP.³⁸
- ◆ Initiate independent inquiries into any allegations of discrimination or GBV within or by armed forces or other defence institutions. Parliamentarians across the world have pushed defence institutions to demonstrate, for example, how they are aligning with increasing public acceptance of LGBTI people and responding to the demands of the "MeToo" movement.
- ◆ Request that gender-responsive budgeting be applied to defence budgets (discussed on page 49). This could include scrutinizing whether defence budgets include sufficient allocation to meet gender-related policy commitments, such as those found in NAPs on WPS or to increase the participation of women.

* Judicial oversight is not addressed here, but Tool 4, "Justice and Gender", explains more generally the role played by courts in oversight of security sector institutions with regard to gender equality.

Tool 1, "Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender", explains security sector oversight more broadly.

^ "Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender" is the subject of Tool 7.

Oversight by ombuds institutions and NHRIs*

NHRIs and ombuds institutions for the armed forces (which can be either internal or external to the armed forces) play an important role in guiding and supporting efforts to promote gender equality in the forces. Depending upon their mandate, they can provide alternative complaints mechanisms for armed forces personnel, assess whether internal complaints processes and disciplinary systems are adequate and, more broadly, provide independent monitoring of defence institutions' progress in promoting gender equality and comment on legislation and regulations concerning the armed forces.

To be effective and credible, ombuds institutions and NHRIs should be knowledgeable about discrimination on the basis of gender, sex, sexual orientation and other diversity characteristics, and diverse in terms of their own personnel, with their own mechanisms to promote gender equality. They should take steps to build and maintain their own institutional capacity to address gender issues.

To integrate a gender perspective in their oversight of the defence sector, ombuds institutions and NHRIs can employ some of the same strategies discussed above in relation to parliaments, plus undertake the additional activities listed below.

- ◆ Regularly examine and report on progress towards gender equality within defence institutions, and monitor defence institutions' implementation of recommendations in this regard.
- ◆ Monitor and analyse the gender of all complainants and the different kinds of complaints men, women and groups such as LGBTI people raise, taking into account other factors that might affect their experiences, such as disability, ethnicity, sexual orientation and age.
- ◆ Ensure that ombuds institutions and NHRIs' knowledge management systems are able to produce data disaggregated as to, for example, the sex of complainants, alleged perpetrators and victims, and alleged grounds for discrimination or type of violation.
- ◆ Work to ensure that ombuds institutions and NHRIs' complaints processes are accessible to all women and men, including LGBTI people, and those from minority groups. Work with CSOs and staff associations to find a solution to barriers.
- ◆ Conduct outreach and information campaigns to encourage complaints of sexual and gender-related harassment, discrimination and abuse, recognizing that these tend to be seriously underreported within armed forces.
- ◆ Ensure that processes for handling and investigating complaints are gender-responsive, including being victim-centred.
- ◆ Create their own institutional structure with dedicated funding and staffing to focus on gender equality (such as a division or unit).
- ◆ Co-operate with government agencies and CSOs working on gender equality.

Civil society oversight^

CSOs, including women's organizations, and academia play critical roles in oversight of armed forces and other defence institutions, holding them accountable to legal and policy commitments. Women's organizations, for example, can be uniquely placed to highlight how the actions of the armed forces impact on women, their families and communities. Organizations representing LGBTI people and minority women play a similar role for the members of their particular communities.

In many countries, including South Korea, Uganda and the UK, processes to monitor implementation of WPS NAPs include ongoing consultation and engagement between feminist CSOs and ministries of defence.

* For more detailed guidance, see DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR (2014) *Integrating Gender into Oversight of the Security Sector by Ombuds Institutions & National Human Rights Institutions*, Geneva: DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR.

^ In relation to civil society oversight, see DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW (2008) "Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender", Tool 9 in *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*, Geneva: DCAF; Institute for Inclusive Security and DCAF (2013) *A Women's Guide to Security Sector Reform*, Washington, DC: Institute for Inclusive Security.

To support the integration of a gender perspective in the defence sector, CSOs can take various steps.

- ◆ Research and monitor the gendered impacts of armed forces on communities – for example, how armed forces protect women and men from violence or expose them to violence; how they address sexual exploitation; and how they interact with boys and girls. This can form a basis for developing recommendations and advocacy to defence institutions, parliamentarians and media.
- ◆ Independently monitor and report on defence institutions' implementation of gender-related commitments, such as those under a WPS NAP, CEDAW reporting processes or GBV strategies.
- ◆ Contribute to consultations by defence institutions, ombuds institutions, NHRIs and parliaments on defence and gender policy.
- ◆ Provide training to militaries on integrating a gender perspective and/or provide input into the gender mainstreaming of military training and education. Diaspora organizations can contribute to pre-deployment gender and cultural training, and CSOs in a mission area can support in-mission training.

Defence institutions can facilitate a constructive relationship with civil society in several ways.

- ◆ Investing time in building mutual trust and understanding through dialogue, recognizing the democratic legitimacy of civil society's involvement in oversight and monitoring.
- ◆ Inviting civil society experts to share their knowledge and expertise with senior leadership and policy-makers, and in training and education.
- ◆ Providing access to information wherever possible, rather than assuming that security prevents this in all cases.

Likewise, multilateral organizations, development donors and others can support the engagement of local civil society in defence oversight by providing support and capacity building to actors, such as women's organizations, that may not historically have had access to defence oversight processes.

Endnotes

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35. Ekvall, note 16 above, pp. 31–35, 40–48.
36. M. Lindberg and Y. Foliant, note 17 above, pp. 63–80 at p. 74.
37. G. Hoogensen Gjørsv and T. T. Kleppe (2016) "Civil-Military Interaction, CIMIC and Interacting with Gender", in G. Lucius and S. Rietjens (eds) *Effective Civil-Military Interaction in Peace Operations: Theory and Practice*, Basel: Springer International Publishing, p. 260; Civil-Military Cooperation Centre of Excellence (2018) "Women, peace and security: A CCOE fact sheet", December, https://www.cimic-coe.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/12/CCOE-Fact-Sheet_Women-Peace-and-Security.pdf, p. 5; Ekvall, note 16 above, pp. 83; Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations and Swedish Armed Forces (2015) "Whose security? Practical examples of gender perspectives in military operations", Kungsängen: NCGM.
38. See, for example, S. Ferbach and A. Reeves (2018) "The role of parliaments in NATO member countries in advancing the Women, Peace and Security agenda: A survey by the NATO Parliamentary Assembly", Geneva, DCAF.



5. Guiding questions for institutional self-assessment

These guiding questions for institutional self-assessment are intended as a starting point to assess how armed forces and other defence institutions could better integrate a gender perspective and contribute to gender equality. They outline the kinds of data that would need to be gathered and processed, and some possible steps for improvement.

This is not an exhaustive set of questions, and should be developed and adapted for any context. Users are encouraged to add further questions appropriate to how gender is currently dealt with in their institution. The guide need not be used sequentially: users can skip around and select those areas where they believe impact will be greatest or traction is most likely.

More comprehensive assessment tools for armed forces and other defence institutions are highlighted in Box 6 on page 28.

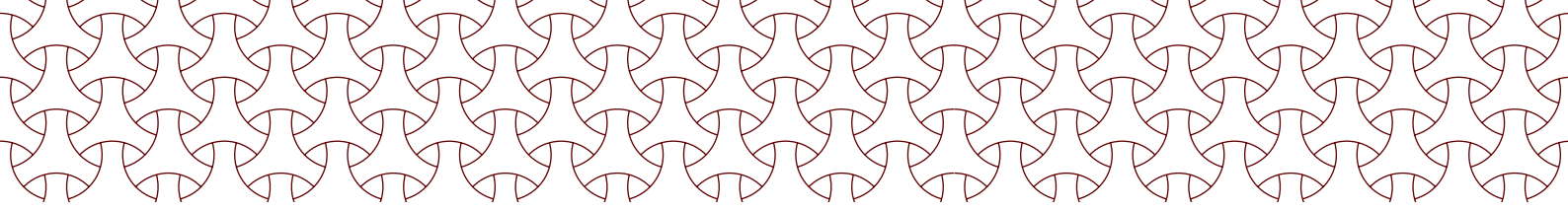
Questions	Examples of data to be collected and analysed	Examples of how to improve on weaknesses
How inclusive is the institution of women?	✦ Percentage of women and men in defence institutions, disaggregated by rank, unit, function and other relevant factors ✦ Percentage of women and men deployed to operations ✦ Complaints lodged by women and men ✦ Different groups of women's and men's perceptions as to employment equity	✦ Remove legal barriers ✦ Update codes of conduct to include express prohibition of sexual discrimination or harassment ✦ Apply gender perspective to recruitment campaigns ✦ Conduct institutional climate assessment ✦ Review deployment/ promotion criteria to eliminate gender-based discrimination or bias ✦ Ensure that diversity and inclusion are part of education and training ✦ Engage with staff associations
Do roles have different requirements or eligibility criteria for women and men?	✦ Role requirements and eligibility criteria ✦ Percentage of women and men in roles where these differ	✦ Remove legal and policy barriers ✦ Conduct institutional climate assessment ✦ Conduct barrier assessment

Image: Members of the Indonesian National Armed Forces, U.S. Navy sailors, and students and school staff celebrate the completion of a construction project at the SDN Duduk Sampeyan Elementary School, Gresik District, Indonesia, 2019 © U.S. Navy/ Candace Lightsey.

Questions	Examples of data to be collected and analysed	Examples of how to improve on weaknesses
How inclusive is the institution of LGBTI personnel?	✦ Review of laws and policies concerning LGBTI personnel ✦ Percentage of personnel willing to disclose their sexual orientation and gender identity in comparison with national statistics ✦ Complaints lodged by LGBTI personnel ✦ LGBTI personnel's perceptions of employment equity	✦ Remove legal barriers ✦ Update codes of conduct to expressly prohibit discrimination or harassment against LGBTI people ✦ Conduct institutional climate assessment ✦ Ensure that diversity and inclusion are part of education and training ✦ Engage with CSOs and staff associations that represent LGBTI people
How do defence institutions accommodate staff with families and other caring responsibilities?	✦ Review of policies on flexible working hours and childcare provision (daily and for deployed staff) ✦ Percentage of staff who take parental leave or use flexible working hours and childcare provisions (disaggregated by gender, rank, unit, etc.) ✦ Review of policies with regard to recognition of spouses and partners (e.g. Are same-sex partners recognized? Can staff designate a partner to whom they are not married?)	✦ Review and adjust policies with input from staff associations, experts and CSOs ✦ Promotion of available provisions and endorsement by leadership
Are there effective procedures for the prevention and reporting of and response to sexual and gender-based discrimination, harassment and abuse?	✦ Codes of conduct and policies concerning behaviour ✦ Training and educational materials ✦ Complaints policies and procedures ✦ Consolidated data on complaints and their handling (disaggregated by gender, rank, unit, type of complaint, resolution, etc.)	✦ Update codes of conduct, policies and procedures ✦ Strengthen training and education on respect, sexual harassment, discrimination, etc. ✦ Build leadership support for effective complaints system (with education if needed)
Are there effective procedures for the prevention and reporting of and response to SEA at home and in mission areas?	✦ Codes of conduct, standing orders, policies, etc., concerning SEA ✦ Training and educational materials ✦ Complaints policies and procedures ✦ Consolidated data on complaints and their handling (disaggregated by gender, rank, unit, type of complaint, resolution, etc.) ✦ Perceptions of communities in areas of operation ✦ Perceptions of local and international CSOs and humanitarian organizations	✦ Update codes of conduct, policies and procedures ✦ Strengthen training and education on SEA ✦ Ensure leadership buy-in (with education if needed) ✦ Build leadership support for strong action on SEA
Are all staff able to apply a gender perspective to their area of work?	✦ Curricula for training and education ✦ Job descriptions, skills and promotion criteria associated with each function ✦ Gender content in operational plans and reports ✦ Terms of reference for staff with specialized gender expertise and reports of their work	✦ Strengthen training and education on a gender perspective ✦ Update job descriptions, skills and promotion criteria to include integrating a gender perspective ✦ Update planning and reporting templates to include gender ✦ Ensure that Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points are appointed, trained and have access to those they are supposed to support

Questions	Examples of data to be collected and analysed	Examples of how to improve on weaknesses
Is there senior leadership on gender equality and the importance of applying a gender perspective?	✦ Leadership statements and decisions, including on resourcing ✦ Leadership engagement with gender-related events and activities (e.g. International Women's Day, sexual assault prevention training) ✦ Gender-related capacity-building activities that target senior leaders (e.g. key leadership seminars, coaching programmes)	✦ Targeted gender capacity building for leaders ✦ Define roles of leaders within policy documents, plans and strategies with regard to promotion of gender quality and implementation of a gender perspective ✦ Ensure that leaders have gender-related performance objectives, including prevention of sexual and gender-based harassment and SEA by those under their command
Is there effective internal and external oversight of progress on implementing a gender perspective and gender equality?	✦ Parliamentary questions and inquiries ✦ Reports to monitoring bodies (e.g. ombuds institutions, NHRIs, WPS NAP monitoring bodies) ✦ Recommendations made by monitoring bodies, and per cent implementation of recommendations ✦ Documentation of engagement with civil society organizations and academia	✦ Strengthen regular reporting to parliament and other monitoring bodies ✦ Establish structures for reviewing and implementing responses to recommendations by monitoring bodies ✦ Create forums for exchanging practice on gender equality and gender mainstreaming (or join existing ones) with civil society organizations and academia





6. Additional resources

Websites

DCAF, “Gender and security”, www.dcaf.ch/gender-and-security

NATO, “Gender perspectives in NATO armed forces”, https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_101372.htm

OSCE, “Gender equality”, <https://www.osce.org/gender-equality>

OSCE/ODIHR, “Human rights, gender and the security sector”, <https://www.osce.org/odihr/human-rights-gender-and-the-security-sector>

Peace Operations Training Institute, “Courses on gender awareness”, <https://www.peaceopstraining.org/courses/#gender-awareness>

RESDAL, “Women, peace and security”, https://www.resdal.org/wps_sp

UN Women, “Peace and security”, <https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/peace-and-security>

Armed forces’ gender guidance

Canadian Armed Forces (2019) “Integrating gender perspectives in operations: A gender aide-mémoire for the Canadian Armed Forces”, Strategic Joint Staff, Canadian Armed Forces.

New Zealand Defence Force (2016) “Commander’s guide to Women, Peace and Security”, Wellington: Chief of Defence Force.

UK Ministry of Defence (2019) “Joint service publication 1325: Human security in military operations”, London: Ministry of Defence.

US Army War College (2019) “Commander and staff guide to Women, Peace, and Security” (draft), Carlisle, PA: Peacekeeping and Stability Operations Institute.

Image: Members of South Sudan’s People’s Defence Forces discuss how they can enhance women’s participation in peace building in South Sudan, 2019 © UN/Isaac Billy.

Other guides and handbooks

Bastick, M. (2011) *Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector*, Geneva: DCAF.

Bastick, M. (2014) *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Internal Oversight within Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR.

Bastick, M. (2015) *Gender and Complaints Mechanisms: A Handbook for Armed Forces and Ombuds Institutions to Prevent and Respond to Gender-Related Discrimination, Harassment, Bullying and Abuse*, Geneva: DCAF.

Born, H. and I. Leigh (eds) (2008) *Handbook on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of Armed Forces Personnel*, Geneva: OSCE/ODIHR and DCAF.

Committee on Women in the NATO Forces (2008) *Improving the Gender Balance: A Selected List of Best Practices*, Brussels: NATO.

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Elroy, G. (2016) *Training Manual: A Gender Perspective in CSDP*, Sandö: Folke Bernadotte Academy.

Groothedde, S. (2013) *Gender Makes Sense: A Way to Improve your Mission*, Enschede: Civil–Military Co-operation Centre of Excellence.

Hague Centre for Strategic Studies (2014) *LGBT Military Personnel: A Strategic Vision for Inclusion*, The Hague: Hague Centre for Strategic Studies.

Karim, S. (forthcoming, 2020) *Measuring Opportunities for Women in Peacebuilding: A Barrier Assessment Methodology*, Geneva: DCAF.

NATO ACO (2015) *Gender Functional Planning Guide*, Mons: NATO SHAPE.

OSCE (2018) *Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical Level in Peace Support Operations*, Vienna: OSCE.

OSCE/ODIHR (2012) *Handbook for National Human Rights Institutions on Women's Rights and Gender Equality*, Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR

PfPC SSRWG and EDWG (2016) *Teaching Gender in the Military: A Handbook*, Geneva: DCAF and PfPC.

UN DPKO (2004) *Gender Resource Package for Peacekeeping Operations*, New York: UN DPKO.

UN DPKO/DFS (2010) *Integrating a Gender Perspective into the Work of the UN Military in Peacekeeping Operations*, New York: United Nations.

UN DPKO/DFS (2015) “Protection of civilians: Implementing guidelines for military components of United Nations peacekeeping missions”, New York: United Nations.

UNIFEM, UN DPKO, UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict (2010) “Addressing conflict-related sexual violence: An analytical inventory of peacekeeping practice”, New York: UN Women.

UN SSR Task Force (2012) *Security Sector Reform Integrated Technical Guidance Notes*, New York: United Nations.

Women in International Security (2016) *Combat Integration Handbook: A Leader's Guide to Success*, Washington, DC: Women in International Security.

Articles and reports

Atkins, S. (2018) "Baseline study report: Women in the armed forces in the OSCE region", Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR.

Blondin, M. (2016) "Women in the armed forces: Promoting equality, putting an end to gender-based violence", report to Committee on Equality and Non-Discrimination, Council of Europe, 1 June.

Donadio, M. (2019) "Women, security forces and peacekeeping in the MENA region", Buenos Aires: RESDAL.

European External Action Service (2016) "Report on the baseline study on integrating human rights and gender into the European Union's Common Security and Defence Policy", Brussels: European External Action Service.

Lackenbauer, H. and R. Langlais (eds) (2013) "Review of the practical implications of UNSCR 1325 for the conduct of NATO-led operations and missions", Stockholm: Swedish Defence Research Agency.

NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (2017) "Summary of the national reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives", Brussels: NATO.

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Rey Juan Carlos University, Australian Human Rights Commission and Australian Defence Force (2015) "UNSCR 1325 reload", Rey Juan Carlos University, Australian Human Rights Commission, and Australian Defence Force.

Schjølset, A. (2010) "Closing the gender gap in the armed forces: The varying success of recruitment and retention strategies in NATO", PRIO Policy Brief 4, Oslo: PRIO.

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