AN ANALYSIS OF WOMEN REPRESENTATION IN THE SECURITY SECTOR: A CASE STUDY OF THE NAMIBIAN DEFENCE FORCE

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN SECURITY AND STRATEGIC STUDIES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

BY

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SUPERVISOR: Dr. Vincent Mwange
ABSTRACT

The Constitution of The Republic of Namibia Article 10 guarantees equality before the law and the right to non-discrimination on the basis of sex. Therefore, the Namibian government through an Act of Parliament devoted all government institutions, Namibian Defence Force (NDF) included, to ensure equal opportunities of men and women in appointment to decision-making positions as well as equality of voices in committees dealing with security matters. Since the establishment of NDF in 1990, female appointment has been moving very slow. While women constituted the majority in the country, they are inadequately represented in the NDF, especially in decision-making structures to effect critical policy changes. Thus, the main objective of this study is to analyze women's representation in the NDF: to determine how gender and culture influence women military perceptions; to evaluate the opportunities and challenges encountered by women in the NDF towards training, appointment and promotion to strategic positions; and to investigate women perceptions on representation in the NDF.

The study applies qualitative method and exploratory research design to enable the study to secure qualitative information from the respondents, and allow participants to express their views and opinions. The sample size of 120 members is drawn from the NDF target population. Purposeful sampling techniques is used to sample 30 members from the population as key informants from Defence Head Quarters (DHQs), and 90 are selected randomly from all three arms of services. The study found that, if given a chance, females can play a crucial role and can do what their male counter part can do. The study therefore recommended that, education and training programs concerning equal opportunities and affirmative action needs to be employed in NDF.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I want to thank all my friends who encouraged, assisted, and supported me during the study. My special gratitude goes to my supervisor Dr. Vincent Mwange who assisted me during the duration of my study. It is because of his advise and guidance that I able to finish the study. I simply would not have survived without this continued advice. Last but not least, I want to thank all the MOD/NDF members, from the General Officers, Senior, Junior and Officers, Warrant Officers and Non-Commissioned Officers, who accepted to participate in my research through completion of questionnaires, and by availing themselves for interviews ‘May God bless you all’.
DECLARATION

I, Tangeni Shikomba, hereby declare that this thesis is my own work, and that this work, has not been submitted to any other institution of higher education. Any assistance that I have received has been duly acknowledged in the thesis. It is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Study at the University of Namibia.

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.................................  Date..............................
Tangeni Shikomba

April 2018
DEDICATION

For my beloved parents, though my father is not alive today, he built a strong foundation for me. To my mother who inspire and encouraged me to study hard during the tough time of the study. To my wife and children for their continuous emotional support and understanding, especially in times they needed my support, but circumstances could not allow me.
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<tr>
<td>AOC</td>
<td>African Union Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>BDF</td>
<td>Botswana Defence Force</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brig Gen</td>
<td>Brigadier General</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDF</td>
<td>Chief of Defence Force</td>
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<td>CLM</td>
<td>Command Leadership and Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>DPKO</td>
<td>Department of Peacekeeping Operations</td>
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<td>FMWASD</td>
<td>Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>GBV</td>
<td>Gender Based Violence</td>
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<td>GRN</td>
<td>Government of the Republic of Namibia</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICPD</td>
<td>International Conference on Population and Development</td>
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<td>IDF</td>
<td>Israel Defence Force</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organizations</td>
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<tr>
<td>MASSS</td>
<td>Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies</td>
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<td>MOD HR</td>
<td>Ministry of Defence Human Resources</td>
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<td>MOD</td>
<td>Ministry of Defence</td>
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<td>NAP</td>
<td>National Action Plan</td>
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<td>NCSC</td>
<td>Namibia Command and Staff College</td>
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<td>NDC</td>
<td>National Defence College</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>NDF</td>
<td>Namibian Defence Force</td>
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<td>PGSC</td>
<td>Post Graduate Study Committee</td>
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<td>PLAN</td>
<td>People Liberation Army of Namibia</td>
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<td>PME</td>
<td>Professional Military Education</td>
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<td>PRO</td>
<td>Public Relations Office</td>
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<td>PSO</td>
<td>Peace Support Operations</td>
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<td>PTSD</td>
<td>Post Traumatic Stress Disorder</td>
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<td>QDA</td>
<td>Qualitative Data Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>ROTC</td>
<td>Reserve Officer Training Corps</td>
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<tr>
<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern Africa Development Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>SANDF</td>
<td>South Africa National Defence Force</td>
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<tr>
<td>SWAPO</td>
<td>South West African People Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNAM</td>
<td>University of Namibia</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNSCR</td>
<td>United Nation Security Council Resolution</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United State of America</td>
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<td>WPS</td>
<td>Women, Peace and Security</td>
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**DEFINITIONS OF TERMS**

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<tr>
<td>Peacekeeping</td>
<td>Peace-keeping refers to the deployment of neutral third party forces with the consent of the conflicting parties (Ogunsanya, 2000 and Paffenholz, 2003).</td>
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<td>Conflict management</td>
<td>Refers to how different groups of people deal with the circumstances of conflict. Shelton and Darling (2003) stated that words such as “conflict management” and “conflict resolution” carry an undesirable meaning and generate the impression that conflict should be “struggled into compliance (managed) or gotten rid of altogether (resolved).”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Experiences</td>
<td>Experience is defined as an active participation in events or activities, leading to the accumulation of knowledge or skill (<a href="http://dictionary.refernce.com">http://dictionary.refernce.com</a>).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>Challenge by its nature or character serves as a call to battle, contest, special effort, etc. (<a href="http://dictionary.refernce.com">http://dictionary.refernce.com</a>).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowerment</td>
<td>Process of generating and building capacity to exercise control over one’s life.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equal opportunity</td>
<td>A balanced representation of both sexes. In this study,</td>
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</table>
equal opportunity refers to the access to and share of employment opportunities, services and resources, as well as equality of treatment by the employer.

Gender

Socially constructed roles and responsibilities assigned to men and women in a given culture or location and the societal structures that support them.

Gender mainstreaming

This is a tool that is being used to better understand the causes of inequality between women and men in a project in order to come up with appropriate strategies to tackle the situation.

Conflict

Robbins and Judge (2011) defined conflict as an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals scare resources, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals.

Female

Refers to a person bearing two X chromosomes in the cell nuclei and normally having a vagina, a uterus and ovaries, and developing at puberty a relatively rounded body and enlarged breasts, and retaining a beardless face; are usually capable of giving birth from puberty until menopause (www.dictionary.com/browse/female).
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTIONS AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Namibia, like many other African countries has a history of gender inequalities, be it economic, social, cultural or political. The Constitution of The Republic of Namibia Article 10 guarantees equality before the law and the right to non-discrimination on the basis of sex. The same constitution also considered one of the few to use gender-neutral language throughout and calls for the inclusiveness of all humans in all national development activities (Gender Links, 2012). The Namibian government has repeatedly declared its commitment to gender equality (Mkhwanazi, 2016). The Ministry of Defence (MOD) as a government institution also required to complying with these constitutional imperatives and pursues government policy (Defence Act, Act 1 of 2002). However, Article 66 of the Namibian Constitution stipulates that, both customary and the common laws in force at the time of independence will be recognised, but only if they do not conflict with the Constitution or other statutory law.

In reaction and to comply with the constitutional requirements, the Namibian government through an Act of Parliament subjected all public institutions, including the Namibian Defence Force (NDF), to ensure equal opportunities of both men and women in decision-making positions as well as equality in committees dealing with security matters (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia 1990).
The study, therefore, analyses women representation in the NDF. After this introduction, the chapter presents the, background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, and limitation of the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Being a signatory to the Millennium Declaration of 2000, Namibia is participating in the process of achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), particularly MDG 3, which promotes equal rights and intends to strengthen the rights of women (Bösl, 2000). Bösl further stated that, Namibia did not only ratify and signed International Conventions in this regard, but has also made provisions on this in the Namibian constitution. However, despite considerable efforts gender inequalities particularly in the NDF’s executive and command structures remain a challenge.

1.2.1 United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325

The United Nations adopted UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) on 31 October 2000. The Resolution reaffirms the important role of women in the prevention and resolution of conflicts, peace negotiations, peace building, peacekeeping, humanitarian response and in post-conflict reconstruction. The Resolution 1325 outlines the importance of equal participation and full involvement in all efforts for the maintenance and promotion of peace and security. Resolution 1325 urges all actors to increase the participation of women and incorporate gender perspectives in all United Nations Peace and Security efforts. The Resolution also calls on all parties to take special measures to protect women and girls from Gender-Based Violence (GBV), particularly rape and other forms of sexual abuse, in situations of armed conflict. The Resolution provides a number of important operational mandates, with implications for Member States and the entities of the United Nations System (OSAGI, 2000).
According to Peace Women (2010), there are seven UNSCR that make up the Women, Peace and Security agenda: 1325 (2000), SCR 1820 (2008), 1888 (2008), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013) and 2122 (2013). According to Security Council, Resolution 1325 (2000) is the first Security Council Resolution that deals specifically with the influence of war on women and girls, and the contribution of women to conflict resolution and sustainable peace. The United Nations Security Council recognized that the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions is an important tool for furthering the Women, Peace and Security agenda and called on member states to implement the resolution 1325 including the development of National Action Plans (NAPs) and other national level strategies such as peace policies, gender policies or medium/long term development plans. It further recommended that, Member States accelerate the development of both National and Regional Action Plans for the implementation of Resolution 1325. According to Women, Peace and Security National Action Plan toolkit, the Resolution 1325 is built on four pillars: Participation, Protection, Prevention, and Relief and Recovery:

- Participation; the Resolution calls upon member state to increase women’s participation at all levels including decision-making in the national, regional and international institutions.

- Protection; the Resolution calls on Members States to ensure the protection and respect for human rights and the rights for women and girls, particularly as relate to constitution, the electoral system, the Defence, the Police, and the Judicial.

- Prevention; the resolution calls Member States to implement preventive
measures and increasing gender awareness training.

• Relief and Recovery; the Resolution calls Member States to address the specific needs and ensure participation of women and girls in the design and implementation of all relief and recovery programs.

However, Mwange (2016) stated that, the major challenges on the implementation of UNSCR1325 in the SADC Region and Africa as a whole, is the implication in terms of peace, security and development, and how it relates to the country’s context. Mwange further said that, the NDF has increased a number of women’s recruitment in its ranks and files since its inception in 1990 and deployed women in multiple Peace-Keeping Missions, which is in line with the Namibia’s commitments. Windhoek Declaration and Namibia Action Plan on Mainstreaming a gender Perspective in Multi-dimensional Peace Support Operations. Mwange further stated that, as the number of women increase in the NDF, women continue suffering from discrimination and exclusion from full participation in decision-making, despite government’s efforts to implement the UNSCR 1325.

1.2.2 National Action Plan (NAP)

The NAP serves as a tool governments use to articulate priorities and coordinate the implementation of UNSCR 1325 at the national level (Peace Women, 2013). According to Adeyemi (2004) “The NAP reflects government’s commitment as well as accountability in ensuring the security of women and girls during armed conflicts and enhancing their active and direct participation in conflict prevention and peace
building as well as in post-conflict efforts”. Adeyemi further said that, NAP serves as a useful roadmap in defining the importance and distinct roles of implementers of UN Resolution 1325 both at the policy and enforcement levels. Hendricks (2011) quantified that, to date, there are only 63 countries in the world that have developed and adopted NAPs, whereby 19 of these countries are in Africa, 13 are in West Africa, and one country in the SADC Region, which is DRC. This includes: Cote D’Ivoire adopted in 2007; Uganda in 2008; Liberia in 2009; Democratic Republic of Congo in 2010; Ghana in 2010; Guinea Bissau in 2010; Rwanda in 2010; Sierra Leone in 2010; Burundi in 2011; Guinea in 2011; Senegal in 2011; Burkina Faso adopted in 2012; Gambia in 2012; Mali in 2012/2015; Togo in 2012; Nigeria in 2013; Central African Republic in 2014; Kenya in 2016; and South Sudan in 2016.

In the Namibian context Abdulmelik (2016) highlighted that, Namibia does not have a UNSCR 1325 NAP, but rather takes an integrative approach, and has a National Gender Policy along with Action Plan with a specific chapter on peace and security. Hendricks therefore, emphasize that, it was important to align Namibia NAP with the SADC Regional Action Plan on UNSCR 1325. However, Peace Women (2017) indicated that, as of September 2017, only 69 member states launched their NAPs on UNSCR 1325. Peace Women (2017), further stated that, it has been noted that, while the development of UNSCR 1325 NAPs have emerged as the main tools prescribed internationally, a range of other measures have been put in place for implementation of the WPS agenda in a number of countries such as in Namibia who developed the National Gender Policy and Action Plan on UNSCR 1325 in response to the mandate of the UNSC that Governments must implement UNSCR 1325.
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The MOD Code of Conduct established that, the MOD and NDF is committed to a policy of equal opportunity for all staff and potential recruits irrespective of a person's sex, marital status, colour, ethnic origin and religious affiliations (MOD Code of Conduct, 1993). According to the NDF Human Resource Policy (2010), “While women constitute the majority in the country, they are inadequately represented in the NDF especially in decision-making position to effect critical gender mainstreaming policy changes”. Irrespective of the call by the Namibian Head of State during his statement on 21 March 2015 that none should feel left out, the UNSCR 1325 that was passed in 2000 (OSAGI, 2000), and the Government efforts to resolve gender imbalances (The Namibian Constitution 1990), women are still facing unequal representation in the decision making levels in NDF.

According to Nakapipi (2014), “While few women reached the management and command level, only few held strategic and decision making positions”. Nakapipi further stated that, although gender equality policies exist in MOD and NDF, they are still not fully or systematically implemented and as a result, discrimination and equal participation still pose a major challenge. However, Shaanika (2007) indicated that, until 1995 no woman was above the rank of a major in the NDF, and that up to 2005 there was only one female Brigadier General out of 18 males, one female Colonel out of 67 males, 5 female Lieutenant Colonel out of 98, 19 female Majors out of 203 males. Morna, Dube, Makumure and Hartman (2015) also argue that, the highest-ranking female officer in NDF is a Brigadier General (1 out of 22 Generals), 16
females Colonels out of 78 and three (3) female Battalion Commanders. However, MOD Human Resources (2017) report shows that NDF consist of 22530 members of whom 17950 are male and 4580 female, 25 General Officers and 88 Colonels. Nevertheless, there is only one (1) female Brigadier General who head the Directorate of Defence Health Services, and l6 female Colonels out of 88 comparing to their 72 male counterpart. According to Minister of Defence, Hon. Penda Ya Ndakolo, women constitute 23% of the NDF, but they only hold 5% of the NDF management portfolios and the representation of women in the NDF has dropped by three percentage points.

The Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare (MGECW) report (2006) emphasized that, Namibia has confirmed and adopted many international and regional legal instruments that designed to bring gender inequality to an end. For example UNSCR 1325 that was passed in 2000. Regardless of all those efforts made by the government, they are not fully implemented, because according to Mboti (2014), women in NDF are still suffering discrimination and exclusion from full participation in the decision-making. Mboti further stated that, even though very few women are deployed in the United Nations Peace Support Mission and Defence Attachés positions, their appointment to strategic positions and decision-making levels are moving at a slow pace. Therefore, it is because of the above-mentioned problems this study is carried out to identify the appointment gaps between males and females in the NDF, to identify opportunities and challenges encountered by women in the NDF, and analyze the root cause for this scenario which prevent them from full participation in decision-making and command structure.
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study is to analyse women's representation in the NDF.
1. To determine how gender and culture influence women military discrimination.
2. To evaluate the opportunities of women in the NDF towards training, appointment and promotion to strategic positions.
3. To investigate women perceptions on representation in the NDF.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Are women fully represented in the NDF?
2. What criteria are used in the NDF during promotions and appointments?
3. Does both men and women in NDF have opportunities towards military courses?
4. Does both men and women receive the same military training fairly?
5. How do you identify potential members to attend military courses and training?
6. What can be done to reduce gender inequality in the NDF?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study will assist policy makers in the formulation and implement gender policy in the NDF. The study will also provide a greater understanding on the role of women in the NDF. The findings will further help policy makers, decision makers, and political advisors to understand challenges and opportunities faced by women in the NDF. The beliefs among NDF top management staff towards women empowerment could also be changed.
1.7 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The limitation to this study was the time and financial constraints. The other limitation was that, the NDF is a sensitive institution with top secret and classified information, therefore data were very limited to the researcher, because releasing some of the classified information will cause a grave damage to national security.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted the problem encountered by women in NDF, and how Namibia ratified and signed several conventions on gender equality, but regardless of all those efforts made by the government they are never implemented. The chapter emphasized that, inequalities in the NDF particularly in executive and command structures remain a challenge, their appointment to strategic positions and decision-making levels is moving very slow. The next chapter presents the literature review related to this study from secondary sources.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As the number of women serving in the military increase, there is a need to understanding the challenges they experienced before, during and after their time in the military and to determine the root cause of women’s underrepresentation in the security sectors. This chapter provides and reviews the related literature on women's representation in the security sector, the role women playing, opportunities, weakness and challenges encountered by women from the ancient warrior women, to the current women serving in the security sector. The literature is reviewed with the purpose to see how others conceptualized issues of women in the military and what methodology they have used during their study. The chapter starts with the definition of literature review; why gender should be integrated in the security sector; military effectiveness and fighting power; the impact of women in combat, and gender in other Defence Forces.

Aveyard (2010) define literature review as a comprehensive study and interpretation of literature that addresses a specific topic. It review the existing literature related to the selected area of study. Aveyard further said that, literature review discusses published information in a specific topic, and sometimes information in a particular subject area within a certain time period, it can be a simple summary of the sources, but it usually has an organizational pattern and combines both summary and synthesis. It might also give a new interpretation of old material or combine new with old interpretations, or
trace the intellectual progression of the field, including major debates. According to Caulley (1992), an effective review analyses and synthesizes the published work on a topic and should: Summarise and evaluate findings; compare and contrast different authors’ views and group authors who draw similar conclusions, and note areas where authors are in disagreement; highlight exemplary studies; note gaps in research; and show how the study relates to previous studies. Zeigler and Gunderson’s (2005: 4) emphasized that, an analysis of gender integration into the military divides the research into four subsets: liberal feminism (equality as sameness), Liberal feminists argue for equality under the law, equal standards and opportunities for men and women; cultural feminism (equality as recognition of difference); radical feminism (equality as anti-subordination) and postmodern feminism (rejection of unitary paradigmatic approaches). The study therefore, reviews literature by comparing and contrasting different countries global, continental, regional and national, and found out how others conceptualized issues and different authors’ views.

2.2 WHY GENDER IN SECURITY SECTORS?

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) (1998), women constitute over 50% of the world population, but have not achieved much equality in any country of the world and are underrepresented in the security sector. Jacobsson and Krister (2007) emphasized that, there are three points on why gender must be integrated into the security sector: Firstly, gender mainstreaming and equality is a global mandated requirement, instrumental in achieving the MDG; implementing the Beijing ‘Platform for Action’ from the 4th World Conference on Women (1995); the Cairo Programme
of Action (UN International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD)(1994); the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW); and the UNSCR 1325. Secondly, because it is important to use the whole pool of humanity, not just half of it: when men and women participate in decision-making, better results are achieved. Thirdly, from the practical side, involving gender perspectives and mainstreaming is operationally strategic for efficiency and effectiveness, and ensures success in the implementation of the UNSCR 1325.

However, Hendricks (2011) argues that, the focus on the number of women in military institutions can be damaging to gender mainstreaming in two important ways; Firstly, it facilitates the continued channeling of women in the military into more traditional supportive roles. Female personnel are often deployed where it seems to be less risky, which is not necessarily where they are most needed. This relegation to administrative or support roles often hinders women’s prospects of promotion, which is based on field or combat experience. And secondly, militaries cannot or do not always offer a working environment that is conducive to women such as providing separate and secure accommodation and ablution facilities, having childcare options for working mothers or single mothers, and designing equipment and uniforms that fit women. As a result, of these factors, women within militaries often survive either by adapting a self-styled masculinity to fit in, or by conforming to traditional gender roles by accepting secondary roles such as clerical works within the institution. Hendricks (2011) further argues that, increasing the representation of women in the security sectors just for gender sake does not necessarily translate into the practical and equal
participation of women, which is shifting the norms that perpetuate gender inequality in the security sector. Hendricks stressed that, women enter military to search for employment, while men choose military as career. Thus, the military represent the highest aspiration of manhood rather than motherhood. That is why, in military terminologies, acknowledgment words “gentleman or sir” is used to all members regardless of what sex they are.

There was no formal terminology such as madam, therefore females are trying to fit in one size fits all. Therefore, representation should be done based on the capability of an individual. Any framework for analyzing gender and security needs to address the challenges not only of increasing women’s access, participation and visibility and giving it equal value, but also confronting the male-dominated security and military domain.

2.3 GENDER AND MAINSTREAMING

Even today, in mainstream thinking on war and armed conflict, women and men are often positioned at opposite ends of a moral continuum, where women are considered peaceful and men aggressive, women passive and men active. As war often associated with these generalised images of masculinity and femininity, women have become associated with life- giving and men with life-taking (Elshtain 1987, Ferris 1993, and Lindestam de Vries, 2005).
The main aspects of gender mainstreaming for security and conflict areas include:
Gender Equality and Promoting Mainstreaming; addressing GBV and Sexual Exploitation (SEA); Gender Balance in decision making; Human Rights; Gender Training; Gender Perspectives for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR); Security Sector Reform (SSR); and Gender Perspective in the Rule of Law and Justice. Implementing gender mainstreaming within the security sphere, even in a civilian-military context, has not been easy. It has been necessary to tackle erroneous assumptions that women cannot perform roles equally as men, or that female personnel cannot interact with males in certain contexts. Therefore, when discussing gender mainstreaming specific to the practicalities and benefits of implementing gender-sensitive policies, it was important to understand the concepts of gender and mainstreaming, particularly in relation to security when discussing gender mainstreaming and the benefits of implementing gender-sensitive policies.

According to Egnell (2016), gender mainstreaming is the process of assessing the different implications for women and men of any plans, policies, and activities of all actors involved, and aims to address gender disparities to challenge those normative political, social and cultural structures that create inequality. Egnell further indicated that, Gender refers to the socially constructed roles of men and women. It encompasses not just women, but addressing gender issues acknowledging and understanding the bias, experiences, challenges and perspectives affecting men, women, boys and girls.
According to the report of the High Level Consultative Conference on Lessons Learned and Experiences to Develop and Implement National Action Plans for Women, Peace and Security in Namibia (2016), men need to be gender champions to mainstream gender, and to change the mindset of men to hold productive discussion to incorporate UNSCR 1325. UNSCR 1325 calls for the systematic implementation of a gender perspective in peacekeeping and peace-building by all Member States, especially in the context of peace missions under the UN. However, according to Winslow (2009) the full implementation of UNSCR1325 will require culture changes not only at the institutional level but also on the part of people in UN structures involved in the security sector and in post conflict reconstruction and in militaries around the world.

Peace Women Team (2006) emphasized that, although an important aspect of mainstreaming gender is to provide training to the troops, there must be a follow up and monitoring of training results, because gender training can only give an illusion of progress, but nothing really changes. Egnell (2016) emphasized that, the most common assumption is that, gender balancing is an easier and more implementable strategy than gender mainstreaming. However, Kronsell (2016) challenges this assumption saying that, mainstreaming has been easier than recruiting and promoting women. Kronsell further argued that, gender mainstreaming is not just about including women in decision-making, but is a means to conceptualize the policy, implementation, and evaluation process, and it goes beyond increasing women's participation by bringing the experience, knowledge, and interests of women and men in the operation. Kronsell
(2016) conclude that, gender mainstreaming and equality are therefore important aspects that need to be fully incorporated within the institutions taking part in peacekeeping and conflict management.

2.4 MILITARY EFFECTIVENESS AND FIGHTING POWER

Egnell (2016) stressed that, in general, military theorists often describe military capability or combat power as a combination of physical factors (the means, meaning the size and materiel of the organization), conceptual factors (doctrine or the way the means are employed), and morale factors (the will of the soldiers), and Women can play a role with regard to the means and the material factor. Allan, Millett, Murray, & Watman (1986) are of opinion that, to successfully combine the gender aspects of military operations with military effectiveness, it is of great importance to outline what effectiveness is in military organizations, because traditionally, effectiveness has been measured by the outcomes of the operations in the most traditional sense, victory and defeat.

However, Egnell, Hojem & Berts (2012) argues that, outcome alone is not a useful measure of effectiveness, as there are many factors that determine the outcome of war and peace operations beyond actors’ effectiveness. Egnell (2016) further argued that, implementing a gender perspective or including women in combat units simultaneously means lowering military effectiveness and fighting power, at the same time, efforts to increase military effectiveness are generally viewed as a step back for women’s rights by supporting the existing patriarchal system in which the logic of war and violence prevails.
According to Dharmupuri (2005), gender perspective improves operational effectiveness and that women can provide new insights into different situational awareness, thereby reducing uncertainty in the field. However, Hendricks (2011) claims that, bringing women in military for representation sake is viewed as compromising the mandates of the military. Egnell (2016) supported Hendricks, (2011) and challenges Dharmupuri (2005) maintains that, implementing gender perspective or including women in combat units simultaneously means lowering military effectiveness and fighting power.

Furthermore, King (2013) one of the few that have studied and compared the impact of gender integration in different countries stated that, there are challenges or concerns expressed in relation to the impact of women and gender perspectives: The first is the idea that women, in general, are not fit for war; that women often lower physical abilities and supposed lack of mental toughness risk the combat effectiveness of the units. The second is the notion that, the inclusion of women and gender perspectives will ruin unit cohesion and military culture. King (2013) supported Dharmupuri (2005) said that, “In today’s world of professional armies, it is not gender that determines cohesion, but training and competence. It is not the social cohesion of units that determines effectiveness, but rather a professional and more task-oriented form of cohesion. As long as women are competent and well-trained, they therefore do not affect unit cohesion negatively”.
2.5 WOMEN IN COMBAT

Egnell (2016) argues that, regardless of various roles women played in the armies of past societies, their role in the military, particularly in combat is controversial and it is only in the contemporary armed forces that women have begun to be given a more prominent role. Egnell further argued that, women in combat units, as well as the implementation of a gender perspective in operations, clearly have the potential to increase the information gathering and analysis capability of units. Egnell (2016) indicated that, gaining access to local women not only allows a unit to develop a better understanding of local conditions and culture, it can also improve the unit’s relationship with the community, its perceived legitimacy, and improve force protection of troops in the area of operations.

However, Eden (2013) a female Marine Iraq War Veteran who served in the combat zone supported Egnell (2016) by claiming that, men and women are different, but those pushing women into combat don’t want to admit that truth. Eden further said “We are born differently, the best woman is still no match for the best man, and that is why all the branches have different standards for females and males, is because most women wouldn’t even qualify to be in the military if they didn’t have separate standards”. Eden stated that, “we are not equal except in our rights under Constitutional Law, nature has no regard for equality, and each one of us is born differently from each other, we are diverse and dissimilar in our talents, physical aspects, intellect, emotions, and the sexes are inherently different”. Eden (2013) further highlighted that, when the navy started allowing women on ship, they were
having sex and getting pregnant, ruining unit cohesion. Eden continued that, “We are at war and if we want to win, we have to separate the wheat from the chaff, and the top priority should be military readiness and winning wars, not political correctness and artificially imposed “equality” on the military.” Wente (2013) supported Eden (2013) arguing that, one study of a brigade operating in Iraq found that female soldiers were evacuated three times, the rate of male soldiers and that 74 percent of women were evacuated for pregnancy related issues. However, Ticker (2001) maintains that, placing women in combat roles creates tension between the liberal principle of equality and the culturally embedded view of what it means to be a warrior which is the personification of violent masculinity. Ticker further claims that, although we are living in the era of technology advances in the military, the assertion that man is the foremost tool of combat remains valid and no machine, no matter how sophisticated will ever replace a human being. Therefore technology should be viewed as a complement, rather than a replacement. Beauchamp (2013) supported Ticker (2001) and Eden (2013) arguing that, women are physically unfit to serve in combat, and that women should be legally prohibited from competing with men for infantry combat positions, because to have women serving in combat could weaken the mission-essential tasks of those units. Similarly, Beauchamp (2013) stated that, it has been proven in study after study that, their nature, upper body strength, physical movements, speed, endurance, and so forth are not fit for combat.

However, Shaanika (2007) challenged Beauchamp (2013), Ticker (2001) and Eden (2013) by reviewing literature of African Queens who has immensely participated in combat to defend their kingdoms against foreign occupation: Queen Majaji of Sudan,
led her warriors in battle, armed with a shield and spear; Egyptian warrior queen Ahotep, all the seven Cleopatras and Arsinoe II & III ruled Egypt and led the army and navy through Roman times; Amina of Nigeria led her army of 20,000 soldiers into battle; Llinga, a warrior Queen of the Congo, had standing armies of women armed with axe, bow and sword, and fought the Portuguese in 1640; Nandi, the warrior mother of King Shaka of the Zulu in South Africa trained her son to be a warrior and had an all-female regiment which often fought in the front lines of his army; Nehanda (1862-1898) was a priestess of the MaShona nation of Zimbabwe, a military leader of her people when the British invaded her country, and Yaa Asantewaa (1850-1921); the Queen Mother of one of the Asante states of Ghana led her army in continuous battles against the British; while Kaipkire, warrior leader of the Herero tribe of the then Southwest Africa (Namibia) in the 18th century led her people in battles against British slave traders. Therefore, literatures of the African Queen have challenged all the negative perceptions that women in general are weak by nature and not fit for war.

2.6 GENDER IN THE DEFENCE FORCES

Grimwood and Philipson (1994) emphasized that even though the military profession has been a male-dominated profession, the number of women joining the profession nowadays has increased in various defence forces in the world. They further stated that, despite the fact that women are recruited to serve in the military, only few countries allow women to fill active combat roles. Since Caulley (1992) indicated in his definition that, an effective review should; compare and contrast, note areas where
authors are in disagreement highlight exemplary studies, and note gaps in knowledge, this sub-section reviews literatures on select countries randomly, globally, regional, and national, to see how gender policies are implemented in those countries’ defence forces.

2.6.1 International Context

According to Feldinger, Lauren, Gelfond (2008) Israel is one of a few countries in the world with a mandatory military service for women and as of now, 88% to 92% of all roles in the Israel Defence Force (IDF) are open to female candidates, where as women can be found in 69% of all positions. They further highlighted that, women had served alongside men in combat units during the war of independence in Israel. However, according to Gelfond (2011) although women have served alongside men during the war of independence and could serve in combat support roles in the IDF, they have until recently been prohibited from engaging in actual combat and many religious are opposed women to serve in the army because of religious objection. Azoulay2007) stated that the first female Major General in the IDF was appointed in 2011, as commander of the Manpower Directorate.

According to Carter (2015), The United States of America have more women in its military than any other nations. However, Carter further stated that, despite that the US has more women in its military, the U.S Defense Policy stipulated that they should not be involved in actual combat unless in combat support roles. Carreiras (2006)
emphasised that, even though women serving in the military has often been diverse, a very small number of women in history have fought alongside men in the American Civil War and there were a few women who cross-dressed like men in order to fight. Carreiras further alleged that, the experience of military women during American Civil War demonstrated that women are capable of functioning effectively in combat zones under conditions of extreme stress for the extended periods.

However, Middleton and Carlton (2012) challenges Carreiras that in the US Army women suffer from Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), sexual trauma, pre-military sexual trauma, combat exposure, substance misuse, and gender difference in the development of PTSD among women who participated in American Civil War. Middleton (2012) further stated that, women currently comprise approximately 11% of the overall services in the U.S. military, Air Force having the largest percentage, 29% and the Marine Corps the smallest, at approximately 5%. Middleton further claimed that, although the services vary considerably regarding the opportunities made available to all women, until just recently women are excluded from all combat designated positions.

However, according to Nghose (2015,) the Pentagon announced that, all the positions in military are open to women including combat positions, but as far as science and history are concern the road to combat equality may be a difficult one.
2.6.2 African Perceptions

Africa is one of the continent regarded far behind in advancing women to bring them on par with their global counterparts and many traditional beliefs shaped the laws and perceptions of African States with regard to women (Lesley, 2001). Lesley further stated that, African States named men ‘head of the household’ in census data and planning project. This alone excluded women from national and international programs, and these perceptions are still in existence in some of the African countries that are regarded as democratic by world standards.

However, Juma (2009) challenged Lesley that, like many women around the world, African women have a long history of contributing to security institutions that often seems to escape contemporary analysis of gender and security by giving examples of the ancient African women who acted as agents and actors in the security sector in the pre-colonial era: Queen Ahhotep I of Egypt played an important role in her country’s liberation struggle; The Dahomey Amazons (from modern-day Benin) formed a key group of female warriors in the national army, and their equivalents in Monomotapa (modern-day Zimbabwe) were renowned for their courage and efficiency. Similarly, the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance highlighted that, despite of various setbacks in the past, a few positive developments in Africa related to women’s empowerments have transpired in the past few years. From January 1975 until April 1976, Elisabeth Domitien was the first appointed woman Prime Minister and first black woman ruler of an independent state in Central African Republic; SilvieKinigi was appointed Prime Minister and acting President of Burundi from July
1993 until February 1994; and Ruth Perry was Chairperson of the Council of State (a six-member collective presidency) of Liberia from September 1996 to August 1997.

2.6.3 Southern African Development Community (SADC)

According to SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (2014), almost all SADC countries have women in their armed forces, as a result of their participation in the liberation struggles for independence and their involvement in the peace support operations for peace, and in most cases women play the same role as their male counterparts during the operations.

SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (2014), further indicated that, South Africa leads with 30% female representation in the South African National Defence Force, placing South Africa seventh in the world in terms of representation of women and comes third when ranked with developing countries. SANDF accepts the right of women to serve in combat roles and the highest-ranking woman is a Major General; followed by 23% of women in Namibia in which the highest-ranking woman is Brigadier General; 20% in Zimbabwe. However, SADC Gender Protocol Barometer indicated that, there are only two female Brig Gen in Zimbabwe Defence Force (ZDF) one in the Air Force, the first women in Zimbabwe to hold such rank who was promoted in January 4, 2016 and one in ZNA promoted in 2013; Mozambique started admitting women into its Defense Forces as far back as 1967 to achieve the task of the revolution; Malawi is the last African countries in SADC to embrace women in its Armed Forces despite the democratic reforms since gaining independence 37 years ago, Malawi only graduated
its first women soldiers in 2000; this situation is similar in Zambia where only in 2007, 30% of the new army entrants were females (Hafkin, Nancy, Bay and Edna, 1976). According to Thato (2008), Botswana who is acclaimed for its democratic culture and who remains an active participant in international peacekeeping operations, only started recruiting women in 2008. The Botswana Defence Force (BDF) service women make about less than 10% and occupy only four ranks from Private, 2\textsuperscript{nd} lieutenant, Lieutenant and Captain and has been a males-only club until 2007, when women were introduced into the army.

2.6.4 Women representation in the Namibian Defence Force (NDF)

The NDF is one of the government institutions of the Republic of Namibia that is required to advance its governance by implementing UNCSR1325 of gender equality (Namibian Constitution, 1990). According to Hartman (2015), NDF wants to consist of at least 30% of women to maintain and support Namibia's pioneering status in the creation of the UNSCR 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security. Hartman further quoted Hon. Penda Ya Ndakolo (2015) Namibia’s Minister of Defence when he stated that: “Women represent 5% of the NDF's management portfolios, while the entire force's women representation is 23%, we are aiming for 30% soon and eventually will have half of the force consist of women.”
2.6.4.1 Appointments

According to the NDF Promotion Policy (2016), appointment in the NDF is done in accordance with the criteria set in the Namibian Defence Force Personnel Policies and is governed by the following criteria:

- **Recommendation**: to qualify for the next rank, a commissioned or non-commissioned officer must be recommended for promotion in his/her annual confidential report.

- **Military Qualifications**: these will differ between each Arms of Service: Namibian Army, Air Force, and the Navy and will include passing applicable qualification courses stipulated in the NDF Promotion Policy.

- **Age**: an officer/soldier should be within the stipulated age bracket for promotion.

- **Selection**: although qualified and recommended, an officer/soldier must be selected for promotion. Selection will depend on the availability of vacant posts. Officers and Soldiers have no right to automatic promotion. They are to be selected/promoted by Officers/Soldiers Selection/Promotion Boards.

The NDF Promotion Policy (2016) highlighted that, the CDF must assess the recommended applicants in terms of training, qualifications or attributes which in the opinion of the CDF are required by NDF and if they meet all the requirements that qualify them for promotion. According to MOD HR Report (2017), since the establishment of NDF in 1990 only very few women have been appointed and promoted to decision-making level and military attaché, for example: Rauna Hamata became the first female Brigadier General in the Directorate of Finance in 2004; Sofia
Ndeitunga was promoted to Brigadier General and appointed as the first female to head the Directorate of Defence Health Services in 2007; Hon. Lempy Lucas was appointed as the first female Deputy Minister of Defence in 2010; Brigadier General Rauna Hamata became the first female Defence Attaché in 2011; Col Phiina Amupolo was appointed as Defence Attaché to Germany in 2015; and Col Theophilia Shaanika was appointed the representative to AU Women, Peace and Security, Special Envoy in Ethiopia in 2015. According to Nakapipi (2013), the NDF is estimated at approximately 15,000 troops in 2011, of which 4060 are female officers, but out of 4060 only two (2) Brigadier Generals and six (6) Colonels are at the management level. However, MOD HR Report (2017) indicated that, NDF consist of 22530 members, 17950 are male and 4580 female, including 25 General Officers, and 88 Colonels and currently there is only one (1) female Brigadier General head of the Directorate of Defence Health Services, and 16 female Colonels out of 88 comparing to their 72 male counterpart. However, Nakapipi further alleged that, although records on women representation shows that there are women at top management in the NDF, they are inadequately represented and the appointment and promotion are moving very slow.

Shaanika (2007) stated that, after independence in March 1990, the MOD has managed to recruit 7500 members into the NDF, including women ex-fighters from PLAN. However, Mwange (2004) argues that, after independence many women were reintegrated in various government institutions, but female ex-combatants were not employed in strategic positions. Since, Shaanika (2007) did not mention how many women were inducted in NDF in 1990, the study analyses how many women were
inducted in 1990, why are they not promoted to decision-making positions if they joined in 1990? What was their qualification? Did they join military as career or in search for employment?

2.6.4.2 Liberation movement

Mkhwanazi (2016) alluded that, after the battle of Omuguluwombashe when South West African People’s Organization (SWAPO) launched its armed struggle on 26 August 1966 in northern Namibia, women joined their male counterparts in the prolonged and bitter struggle. Mkhwanazi further stated that, the formation of the SWAPO Women’s Council facilitated women’s involvement in many spheres of the liberation struggle including the leadership of the liberation movement. For example some women were members of the Central Committee of SWAPO and the Military Council of People’s Liberation Army of Namibia.

Similarly, Namakalu (2004) argues that, Namibian women played a crucial role from the early beginning of the armed liberation struggle, and the emancipation of women from sources of oppression both colonial and traditional was central to their ambitions. According to Namakalu women were trained as soldiers in all military fields in the PLAN. The International Inter-Parliamentary Union (1998) also articulated that, Namibian women have been key actors in the liberation struggle and since Namibia’s independence in 1990, Namibian women have been contributing very actively to the country’s political and economic development.
2.6.4.3 Military Training

Defence Policy (2007) highlighted that, men and women receive the same training and there is no gender-specific training policy in NDF, although gender separation does take place during the basic training. The training involves a lot of physical activities especially during the basic training, like running, jumping up and down, and crawling. However, within the NDF, there are some differences on the impact of affirmative action on operational effectiveness. Silva (2008) indicated that, the female cadets saw military training as an opportunity to be strong, assertive and skillful and saw such training as an escape from some of the negative aspects of traditional femininity. The female cadets also believed that the Reserve Officers’ Training Corps (ROTC) program was gender-blind and gender-neutral.

The study claims that female cadets were hyper-vigilant about their status as women performing tasks traditionally seen as men's work and often felt that they had to constantly prove their capabilities. Of the female cadets Silva interviewed, 84% of women indicated that, they did not want a military career, as it would interfere with being able to get married and have children (Silva, 2008). The researcher is of the opinion that, the historical overview of women’s involvement in the armed forces indicates that given the opportunity, women can also play an active role in armed formations.
2.7 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY WOMEN IN THE DEFENCE FORCES

According to Sadie (2005), there are many challenges encountered by women in the security sector that hinder their promotion or participation in the decision-making positions. Sadie pointed out pregnancy, sexual and gender harassments as one of the biggest challenges in the armed forces during force deployment and it ruins combat cohesion. Physical and social concern is another challenges associated with female integration and a rising concern within the defence forces, However, according to Sadie (2005), the major challenges preventing women accelerating military leadership is the patriarchal ideological system of the military where the executive power and command authority is in the hands of male only.

Meade, Barbara, Glenn, Margaret, Wirth, and Oliver (March 29, 2013) argues that, women in the U.S. military are more likely to be raped by fellow soldiers than they are to be killed in combat. At least 25% of U.S. military women report having been sexually assaulted, and up to 80% have been sexually harassed. However, UNIFEM (2010) highlighted that, their families often dislike victims of sexual violence, therefore, many victims are unwilling to come forward, and are often raped continuously. Furthermore, Trego and Jordan (2010) argue that, menstruation causes a disturbance in the daily lives of women and foresee this as another challenge during deployment. They further said that, confrontations include not having insufficient time to alter menstrual hygiene products and the pre-planning required for managing menstruation throughout the day, which when it fails can end in leaking and staining.
However, Ogunsanya and Mngqibisa (2000) argues that, despite international and national policy frameworks, women worldwide face challenges regarding their contribution in military.

2.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented related literature on women representation in the security sectors, how women participated in the liberation struggle of independence of their countries, the role they played and also the challenges encountered by women during and after military service. The chapter also highlighted that, even though few women in the NDF are participating in UN missions and Defence Attachés, the system is gradual. The next chapter will focus on the research methods and techniques that used during the study.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focused on the methods used during the study, the research design, the population, the sample and sampling techniques, the measures and research instruments to collect data, the procedure of collecting data, and how data was analyzed. A brief explanation of research method was also defined. According to Irny and Rose (2005), research method is a systematic, theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study. It comprises the theoretical analysis of the body of methods and principles associated with a branch of knowledge; it encompasses concepts such as philosophical or theoretical frameworks, theoretical model, phases and qualitative or quantitative techniques.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Welman et al (2005), a research design is the plan and process used to obtain research participants (subjects) and collect information from them. The study applied qualitative methods and exploratory research design in order to achieve its goal, because according to Cameron (2002), qualitative research allows investigators to develop a deeper understanding of a topic than can be obtained through quantitative research alone. Cameron further stated that, qualitative research uses methodologies such as focus groups, in-depth interviews, and direct observation.
Qualitative research methods provide an opportunity for a systematic, in-depth evaluation of a question that may not be easily answered through quantitative methods. Similarly, Chilisa and Preece (2005) define qualitative that, it involves free-format responses in which words and observation are used, and it provides in-depth information and allow more in-depth exploration in particular issues and enable the study to ask a broad questions through face-to-face interviews. Qualitative is important as it allow more in-depth exploration in particular issues and enable the study to capture the inside viewpoints of those examined, by asking a broad questions through face to face interviews. Therefore, combining qualitative and exploratory ensured the researcher to collect higher quality of data.

3.3 POPULATION

According to MOD HR Report (2017), NDF population is 22530 (17950 males and 4580 females). The targeted population was 120, consisted of NDF management cadres and other ranks below management level. The NDF management cadres consisted of CDF and the three arms of services commanders as key informants. Other ranks below management level is from the rank of Lieutenant Colonel (Lt Col) down to Private (Pte) and are selected randomly from all three Arms of Service; Namibian Army, Namibian Air Force, Namibian Navy, and Defence Headquarters (DHQs). The study was not limited to females only, because men were also interviewed. Most of the women who were interviewed are those who have contributed in the liberation struggle of the Republic of Namibia, because they possess the relevant information.
3.4 SAMPLE

The Sample Size was 65 members drawn from the NDF Targeted Population of 120. The sampling units consisted of Chief of Defence Force (CDF); Army Commander; Air Force Commander; Chief Of Staffs (COSs) including Human Resources (HR); Defence Health Service (DHS); as well as women and men held management positions in the NDF DHQs as key informant. Purposeful Sampling was used because it is a technique widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources (Patton, 2002). Purposeful Sampling was also essential because according to Cresswell & Plano Clark, (2011) this technique identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individual with special knowledge and experienced with a phenomenon of in question.

The study applied Simple Random Sampling Techniques to sample other ranks below management level in NDF, from the rank of Lt Col to Pte. These members were drawn from the three arms of services; Army, Air Force, Navy as well as from DHQs. Simple Random Techniques was used because according to DePersio (2015) is one of several methods the researchers used to extract a sample from a larger population. It is easy to use and is accurate in representing the larger population. With simple random sample techniques, every member of the larger population has an equal chance of being selected. Therefore, out of 120-targeted populations, only 65 members were successfully interviewed and returned the completed questionnaires.
3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Research instruments are the fact-finding strategies and instrument used for data collection. The researcher used multiple instruments and techniques within the qualitative approach of data collection. The following research instruments were employed: primary sources through semi-structured interviews, face-to-face interviews, focus groups, and open-ended questionnaires; and secondary sources from books, internet, magazines, journals, annual reports, published research and archival information.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data Analysis is an explicit step in theoretical interpreting data collected by using specific strategies to transform the raw information into a processed form of data (Thorne, 1997, p. 27). The collected data were analysed and interpreted to show solutions to the research questions. This was compared with the information collected through interviews, observations and literature readings. The study analysed data descriptively, using Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) software NVivo, a computer software package. The researcher used NVivo to interpret, examine, categorise, group, summarise, itemise into appropriate theme, organise, and find insights in structured, or qualitative data like: interviews, open-ended survey responses, articles, and web content. According to Bazeley (2007), NVivo is designed to assist qualitative researcher working with very rich text-based and multimedia information, to organize and analyze non-numerical or unstructured data where analysis on small or large volumes of data are required.
3.7. **RESEARCH ETHICS**

Ethics is a discipline that deals with what is good and bad or right and wrong with moral duty and obligations (Grinnell and Williams, 1990, p.304). The researcher respects the rights of the participants. Therefore, the participants were informed about the purpose of the research and informed that participation was based on the principle of voluntary basis. The researcher informed the participants that information obtained was for research purpose only and will not be disclosed to the third parties. Therefore, during the study the aspects of ethics were taken into consideration, privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity. Informed consent were obtained from the participant whether to participate or not, as none was forced to participate.

Individual differences in age, gender, race, and educational levels of the participants were also taken into consideration during the study. The researcher obtained the approval to conduct the study in the NDF from the CDF before undertaking the study. The UNAM Post Graduate Studies Committee (PGDSC) approved the research proposal and gave the permission to conduct the study.
3.8 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 highlighted the methods used during the study, how the sample was drawn from the population, sampling size and sampling techniques. The chapter also indicated that, qualitative methods and exploratory research design were used during the study and why these methods were used. The chapter explained how the population was identified, and the instruments used for data collection and analysis. The chapter outlines the procedures applied to collect data, and the software used to analyse data. The next chapter is the discussion of the findings.
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discussed the findings from the data that was collected through in-depth interview and questionnaires during the study. The purpose of this study was to analyse women’s representation in the security sectors with the case study of the NDF. The study aimed to enhance the understanding of the challenges that prevent the realization of gender balance in the NDF. The chapter presented the evaluated findings, the challenges encountered by women, the role they played, the strength, weakness, opportunities and threats before, during and after their time in military. Different views from the respondents on inequality in the NDF are also highlighted in this chapter.

4.2 MAIN FINDINGS

This section presents the findings from the respondents and from the data that was evaluated and analysed through questionnaires and interviews. The findings are about women representation in the NDF, which is the basis of this study to investigate and describe the experiences and challenges of women soldiers in Security Sector. The collected data were evaluated, analysed and summarized to come up with the conclusion and the recommendations. The data in these findings were collected in two ways namely, questionnaires and face-to-face interview.
Table 4.1
Response from self-administered questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Targeted Population</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Officers &amp; Colonels</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lieutenant Colonels &amp; Majors</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captains – 2nd Lieutenant</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant Officers- Private</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>24</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher distributed 80 self-administered questionnaires, however, only 40 were completed and returned as illustrated in Table 4.1. This resulted in a return rate of 55% that could be considered as acceptable and the response rate was sufficient to accept the samples as a true reflection of the population.

Table 4.2
Response from in-depth interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Targeted Population</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Officers &amp; Colonels</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lieutenant Colonels &amp; Majors</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captains – 2nd Lieutenant</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant Officers- Private</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The study intended to conduct interview with 40 participants as shown in table 2 in the targeted population column above. However due to the nature of their work and busy schedule of the participants, only 25 were interviewed. The interviewees consisted of: CDF, COS DHS, Air Force Commander, Officer SSO Gender, SSO HR, SSO HS as key informants, and 19 other ranks below management.

4.2.1 Gender Integration in other Defence Forces

The study found out that women constitute the majority of the world population, but have not achieved desired equality in any country of the world and are inadequately represented in the security sector especially in decision-making positions to effect critical policies changes (International Labour Organization (ILO), 1998). The study according to ILO (1998) also found out that, when one examines defence policies with regards to gender equality, one realises that although women have been given legal equality, this has not automatically guaranteed them equal treatment in terms of promotion to high decision-making positions and command structures (ILO, 1998). The study found that, during the colonial era, African women found themselves under the structural constraints of both gender and racial discrimination. For that reason, many women joined armed struggles fighting for independences in the belief that victory would not only liberate their nation but would also provide women with more freedom and opportunities (The International Inter-Parliamentary Union, 1998). The women in many African societies are not only denied opportunities by laws and stereotypical perceptions, but are relegated to jobs that pays less. This primarily applies to women in the NDF because the majority of women in the force are having
the ranks below management. The findings are that, the level of participation of women in the NDF and other African countries remains low and moves gradual (Mboti, 2014). Therefore, the study analysed the situation that affects the opportunities of women in the security sector and in the NDF in particular. Although women’s rights have been on the UN radar screen, the translation of calls for gender mainstreaming into comprehensive action has been slow. While the important aspect of gender mainstreaming is to provide gender training to the troops, there must be a follow up and monitoring of training results, because gender training can only give an illusion of progress, but nothing really changes (Winslow, 2009). Incorporating gender sensitivity and abolishing gender blindness and assumption of gender neutrality are tools for the improvement of conflict management. This can be achieved by integrating the perspectives of the whole community both females and males. It is also common for the UN to leave the responsibility for gender mainstreaming to national governments and Civil Society Organisation (Winslow, 2009).

The study discovered that, the United Nations has also failed to lead by example as indicated by Klot (2007) that, until today there are no women that hold the United Nations Secretary General position, and pointed out the failing of the Peace building Commission concerning gender mainstreaming on the inadequacies of the UN’s own gender architecture. The study learned that, in military history no women were appointed as the Chief of the Defence Force or a Service Commander. Therefore the researcher agreed with some of the respondents that women are not given equal opportunities comparing to their male counterpart.
4.2.1.1 International Context

UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security was passed in October 2000 and it is one of the most important international mandates advocating for the full and equal participation of women in all peace and security initiatives, as well as the mainstreaming of gender issues in the context of armed conflict, peace-building and reconstruction processes (OSAGI, 2000). Some countries have successful recruitment policies into place. For instance, Hungary has a number of measures in place to increase women’s participation, retention and deployment in the armed forces (UN-INSTRAW, August 2010). Global comparison of women in combat was also necessary, to find out how other countries implemented gender policies and how they integrated women into their defence forces.

However, Kovach (2015) listed countries that providing vision for gender integration policy: U.S.A scrapped its ground combat exclusion policy for women in 2013; Canada opened ground combat to women in 1989 after a national court decision and afterward spent a decade integrating units; In Australia, more than 60 women have joined combat units such as the infantry and tanks since the lift of gender restrictions in 2013; Israel recruited both men and women into defense forces, but women are allowed to serve only two years while men serve three, and more than 90% of military jobs are open to women by 2009; Denmark opened all military jobs to women in 1988, but no woman qualified for special operations forces; Norway became the first Northern Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) nation to open all combat positions to women in 1985; New Zealand lifted all positions restrictions on women in the military in 2000;
Germany opened combat units to women in 2001 and drastically increased female recruitment; South Korea opened combat positions to women in 1990 after the integration of Service Academies. In Pakistan, women are trained in warfare since 2004, but never served in fighting formations; and Japan opened nearly all-combat positions to women in 1993 (Kovach, 2015).

### 4.2.1.2 SADC Defence Forces

The study found that, within the SADC Region, SANDF is one of the few armed forces in the world, which accepts women to serve in combat. This happened after a gender mainstreaming audit highlighted shortcomings at the command levels of the SANDF (Motumi, 1999). Motumi further stated that South Africa does not have a restricted rule for women in the military service. The study also found that, although the Africa liberation struggle opened more combat roles for women, the practice did not continue after independence and when the Namibian case is compared with other SADC Defence Forces in the region, for example in South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe and even Lesotho, it appears that gender mainstreaming in the NDF is lagging far behind, not only in women representation at the decision-making level, but also in terms of training, promotion and appointment (Motumi, 1999). The study also observed that, Botswana who is acclaimed for its democratic culture and the active participant in international peacekeeping operations, only started recruiting women soldiers in March 2007 (Masire, 2008). According to Masire, the situation is similar in Zambia where recruitment started only in 2007, with 30% of the new army entrants were females. In Malawi the Ministry of Defence policy did not approve the
employment of female soldiers until 2000 when female soldiers were recruited and graduated from the Military College. Mauritius only had its Constitution amended in 1995 to prohibit gender-based discrimination.

### 4.2.2 Gender representation in the NDF

The study found out that, the MOD and NDF Gender Plan of Action (2001-2005) didn’t produce fruits because of lack of its legal mandate to enforce and monitor gender implementation (Mboti, interview, September 2017). Respondents were asked a question: Are women fully represented in the NDF? About 80% of the female respondents claimed that gender equality in NDF is not fully or systematically put into practice, as those assigned to implement it may be have no conception of gender equality or lack of interest. However, among the respondents one female General Officer emphasised that, although the purpose of Gender Mainstreaming concept was to eradicate gender-based discrimination in policies and programs, initial indication demonstrates that women are less represented in NDF meetings or forums where strategic planning and decision take place in the NDF (Sheetekela, Interview, September 2017). The General further stated that, females need to be empowered and appointed at strategic decision-making level in order to defend issues affecting women in NDF. The study discovered that, when women succeeded or distinguish themselves men are discontented. Therefore men applied a systematic discrimination to exclude women in military decision-making and strategic positions. The study discovered that, women are limited to secondary roles in the NDF such as clerical or health care
workers. However, there are no exact policies that forbid women’s involvement in all roles in the NDF (Hamatundu, interview, August 2017). The researcher concurs with the respondent that inequality exists in the NDF. However, the study findings indicated that there are big gaps between males and females in terms of appointments, basic military training, military qualifications, and academic qualifications of female members in the NDF.

4.2.2.1 Appointments in the NDF

The MOD Human Resources Report (2017) shows that, women’s appointment in NDF is progressing well, but only at the ranks below management level. The study found that, appointment in the NDF is done in accordance with the criteria set in the NDF Personnel Policy (NDF Promotion Policy, 2016). Responding to a question: What criteria is used by NDF during appointments? About 60% of female respondents shared the same sentiments, argues that, members has to be recommended by his/her immediate commander, which in most cases is a male, provided that there is a vacant position, pass NDF promotion board, and member must at least have several military and civilian qualifications. However, a male ex combatant of Namibia’s liberation struggle who still hold a rank of sergeant said that, he is a pioneer of NDF, but still a sergeant, however all the female who joined with him are either warrants officers or commissioned officers, and this indicating that women are receiving special treatment when it came to promotion (Ndokosho, interview, August 2017).
4.2.2.2 Basic Military Training in the NDF

Basic Military Training is a recruit training which transform new members from civilian to military. It teaches the basic military training techniques such as military drill physically, technically and psychologically. This training involves a lot of physical activities especially during training, like running, jumping up and down, and crawling. After finishing basic training, many service members undergo advanced training more in line with their chosen or assigned specialties (Ndemwiimba, interview, July 2017). Respondents were asked a question: Does both men and women receive the same the training fairly? The response was, in the NDF men and women receive the same training and there is no gender-specific training policy. However, gender separation does take place during basic training, because some women are ineffective for the training.

The study found that, most women in all rank groups across all arms of services expressed that, although they are subjected to the same training with their male counterparts, they do not receive the same recognition after the training (Undjombala, interview, October 2017). However, wing commander indicated that, after the basic military training females do not progress to advance training where military technology is taught. Based on the findings the study found out that, there are needs to a clear and well-defined policy indicating the number of both male and female to be trained yearly per each slot without changing military ethics and the training programme. The study compared gender in NDF and US Army to find out how gender work during training. It is found that, the US Army has been training men and women
together since 1974, but due to complaints of sexual harassment, the Department of Defense has reviewed the concept of joint training of men and women. However, other corrective measures to prevent sexual harassment have been put in place in the US Army, including the establishment of a hotline to enable women to break the silence and report sexual harassment anytime (Assault, 2009). According to Ndemwiimba, (2017) this is similar to the case of NDF, because even though there is no gender-specific training policy, gender separation does take place during basic training (Ndemwiimba, interview, July 2017).

The study found that, unless the misperception of the difference between gender equality and the human being natural constructs is cleared, the national gender policy would not have an effect and successful implementation within the NDF( Sheetekela, interview, September 2017). The study further found out that, some females do not want a military career, because according to Sheetekela females only joins NDF because of employment and with the intention to further their studies, but once they complete their studies they resign from the force and join other institutions. Eden, (2013) a female Iraqi war veteran alluded that, military training is hard enough on men’s bodies, but it is harder on women’s body. And until women stop menstruating, there will always be an uphill battle for staying level and strong at all times, because a days before a woman’s cycle, she loses half of her strength, to say nothing of the emotional ups and downs that affect judgment.

However, the historical overview of women’s involvement in the armed forces indicates that given the opportunity, women can also play an active role in armed
formations. Therefore, for the best possible results, training on gender equality should form part of the basic training, integrated throughout all education starting from the primary educational level.

4.2.2.3 Military Training Courses in the NDF

Military courses intend to establish and improve the capabilities of military personnel in their respective roles. Table 4.3 below indicates NDF members who have attended military training and courses in NDF.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Defence College (War College)</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Command and Staff College (&quot;psc&quot;)</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Command and Staff Course</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Platoon Commander Course</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quartermasters Commissioning Course</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formative for Officers</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Cadet Commissioning Training</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Military Training</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>67%</strong></td>
<td><strong>11%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3  NDF Military Training Courses

The study found that, the ratio of males attended military courses in the NDF stands at 67% and only 11% for females NDF members. These translate to 56% deference between men and women in military training and qualifications.
The study also found out that, since its inception the NDF has been relying on training slots offered by sister countries such as, Zimbabwe, Botswana, South Africa, Kenya and China. This slot comes with set of requirements, which in most cases NDF do not meet this requirement. However, the study found out that, currently NDF have the capability to train and educate its own members through its own institution Namibia Command and Staff College (NCSC), which offer Command and Staff Courses from Junior Staff Course. The NCSC is expected to start offering Senior Command and Staff Course in 2018. In order to accommodate female members who are in most cases disadvantaged in one way or the other, NDF have adopted Human Resource Development Strategy (HRDS) program responsible of giving young potential members appropriate training in line with their career progression (Mutwa, interview October 2017).

Respondents were also asked: How do you identify potential members to attend the training courses? The response was, potential members with outstanding leadership quality and attributes required by NDF are being identified in accordance with the criteria set in the NDF Promotion Policies (Mutwa, interview, October 2017). The CDF have instructed all commanders to identify potential female members to attend qualifying courses locally and internationally (CDF Annual Directive Report, 2012). However, regardless of the CDF’s directive the study found out that only 20 women in the NDF who successful completed Junior Command and Staff Course, and 5 who have successful passed Senior Command and Staff Course (“psc”) and none of them passed the National Defence College Course (NDC) as indicated in table 3.
Based on the above findings in table 3 that, only 1% which represent 5 female members passed Senior Command and Staff Course out of 16 female colonels who are at the management levels, and 2% which represent 20 NDF female members attended Junior Staff Course. The researcher concur with Ndokosho (2017) a war veterans who stated that, women a being favored when it came to promotion, even if they do not meet the requirements they are being promoted. Therefore the researcher is of the opinion that most women only promoted because of gender and affirmative action, but not about meeting the requirements. Because to be appointed to a management positions and command structures, a member need to have at least a Degree or passed Senior Command and Staff Course, and also to successful completed the National Defence College/War College. However, based on the findings in table (3) almost all the male Generals and senior staff officers in the NDF have received necessary military training. Responding on the question: **Does female in NDF have opportunities towards military courses and if not why?** The response was ‘yes’ but very few. About 90% of females respondents claimed that, it is not by design that female did attend military training, but that training opportunities are very limited to female.

### 4.2.2.4 Academic qualifications in the NDF

The study found that, academic qualifications are very important, because there are certain branches or professional in the NDF that require specialist; for example among others; doctor, accountant, human resources, social workers, legal, information technology, engineer, and plumbers (Maanda, interview, September 2017).
The study findings confirm that, there is an opportunity to turn military experience, military training into a university degree, for example, if NDF officer undertake Command, Leadership and Management (CLM) training, like Senior Command and Staff Course have a chance to be admitted into a Master Degree Program at the UNAM (Hamukwaya, interview, October 2017). However, according to School of Military Science Prospector, UNAM, these courses are limited to commissioned officers only, from General officer down to the 2nd lieutenant. Therefore many Generals, Senior and Junior Officers who have done CLM training took advantage of this opportunity, and use it as their entry onto degree courses (Capicik, 2010).

The study also found out that, NDF has relations with UNAM, where the School of Military Science offer Postgraduate Diploma in Security and Strategic Studies; honors degree in Military Science in Aeronautical and Nautical; and Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies (MASSS). The entry requirement for MASSS is Honors degree or Senior Command Staff Course because this course is tailor made for defence and other security sectors members (School of Military Science Prospector). However, the study found that, despite all those efforts by the NDF to equip its member, female NDF member are not utilizing this opportunity. Table 4.4 below indicates the NDF members who successfully completed the MASSS Program, and the Post Graduate in Security and Strategic Studies.
**Table 4.4**

NDF members who successfully completed MASSS Program since 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brig Gen</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Col</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lt Col</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study found out that, since the inception of MASSS Program in 2007 a total of 16 NDF members have graduated as shown in **Table 4.4** above. However, out of 16, only 3 are females (School of Military Science Report, October 2017).

**Table 4.5**

NDF members who successfully completed Postgraduate Diploma in Security and Strategic Studies since 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Col</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lt Col</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maj</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.5 indicated that, since the inception of PGD in Security and Strategic Studies in 2012, there are no females graduates. However, 7 males NDF members have graduated as shown in Table 4.5 (School of Military Science Report, 2017).

The study found that, young NDF female members between the age of 21 and 40 are having tertiary qualifications, like diplomas and degrees and are excited to attend any military courses. However, these young NDF members are non-commissioned officer, therefore, chances to attend command and staff course or to be admitted to UNAM is limited (Wagner, interview, September 2017). Another respondent argued that, “We get frustrated in NDF by male domination therefore, once we get the qualifications we resign from the force and join other institutions”. The same respondent argued that, even if they have the same qualifications with men, they are not recognized (Chief Accountant, DHQs, October 2017).

However, some male respondents argued that, women are not recognized because women do not have the will power to serve in military, and only join NDF for employment purpose, where as while men join the military as careers (Hamupembe, interview, September 2017). The study confirm the findings that, although few females have tertiary qualifications they still need to have military qualifications, because civilian qualifications will only limit them to a non combat role like; clerical positions, human resource, accounting, and social workers, but not to command and control positions.
4.2.2.5 Gender Division in the NDF

The study found that, in fulfillment of gender policy, the gender division was established within the Directorate of Human Resources in the MOD, with the purpose to monitor the implementation of gender policy and to mainstream gender in the NDF. Gender division has been tasked, amongst others, to monitor the advancement of women and to ensure that they are properly represented and ensure that women have equal opportunity to participate equally with male counterparts and liaise internationally with other organizations (Mboti, interview, October 2017). However, respondent argued that, even with the establishment of Gender Division, inequality still exists, because NDF Gender Plan of Action is under the office of the Permanent Secretary and not under the office of the Chief of Defence Force where gender imbalances and all military related matters supposed to be addressed (Mboti, interview, October 2017).

4.2.3 UNSCR 1325 and National Action Plan

The study found that, the Security Council has adopted UNSCR 1325 on WPS on 31 October 2000 specifically to promote the WPS agenda and called on Member States to implement Resolution 1325 including the development of NAP. The UNSCR 1325 calls all actors to increase the participation of women and incorporate gender perspectives in all U.N peace and security efforts. It also calls on all parties to take special measures to protect women and girls from gender-based violence, particularly rape and other forms of sexual abuse, in situations of armed conflict (OSAGI, 2000).
The study indicated that to date, there are only 63 countries in the world with NAPs and 19 of these countries are in Africa, and 13 are in West Africa, and only one country in the SADC region which is DRC (Hendricks, 2011). Based on the findings the study alluded that, the UNSCR 1325 and NAP alone will not be the answer to WPS, and one needs to strategically think to identify what Namibia wants to achieve in the NAP for it to be effective, for example there are other instruments that will address specific individual issues, such as Gender Based Violence, Climate Change, Terrorist, Human trafficking. Therefore, once UNSCR1325is fully implemented and the National Action Plan put into place, the women’s stagnant to promotion or appointment to strategic and decision-making positions, or deployment to the UNPSO as commanders may change.

4.3 WOMEN AND COMBAT ROLES

The study found that, by including the large portion of women who are physically fit for military service in the combat allows forces to maximize their size and could play a role with regard to the means and the material factor. However, women in combat units, as well as the implementation of a gender perspective in operations, clearly have the potential to increase the information gathering and analysis capability of units (Egnell, 2016). Gaining access to local women is not only allows a unit to develop a better understanding of local conditions and culture, but it can also improve the unit’s relationship with the community, its perceived legitimacy, and improve force protection of troops in the area of operations (Egnell, 2016). However, the UN emphasizing that female soldiers and gender perspectives are absolutely essential for
certain tasks in combat where military and civilian aims and tasks overlap, for example, they help address specific needs of female ex-combatants during the process of demobilization and reintegration into civilian life. They can interview survivors of GBV and as highlighted above, they can interact with women in community where women are prohibited from speaking to men.

The study also found out from the respondents that, women have incredible strength and there is certainly a lot of work for women in combats. More women are willing to serve in combat roles, this was probably be attributed to the role of women in the revolutionary struggle, but opinions remain differ especially in those positions where physical demands may exceed the physiological capabilities of women and also the fact that women appear less willing to serve beyond the borders of their countries (Mkhwanazi, 2016). Women have every opportunity that males have when making the military a career although this is only the case when a woman chooses a field that is not combat oriented.

The study found that, SANDF is one of the few armed forces in the world such as USA, Canada, and Israel which accepts the right of women to serve in combat. The study found that, although the Africa liberation struggle opened more combat roles for women, the practice did not continue after independence, which is also the case in Namibia. Hence, the abilities for women to serve in combat duties may be seen as a challenge to physical and social concern of women, therefore cultural and historical background is also considered as very important factors contributing in combat exclusion between men and women in defence forces (Mkhwanazi, 2016).
4.3.1 Physical Concerns

Physical abilities is a rising concern, therefore, the study found that, women were twice as likely to suffer injuries significant enough to remove them from duty. The study also found that women's shooting accuracy is poor than that of men in simulated combat situations. A 2014–2015 experiment by the Marine Corps with a gender-integrated combat union found that female soldiers were also found to have lower performance in the basic combat tasks like negotiating obstacles and removing wounded troops from the battlefield (Military Press, 2017). The study discovers that, the female skeletal system is less dense, and more prone to breakages. There is also a concern that, in aviation, the female body is not as adept at handling the increased g-forces experienced by combat pilots (Nehru, 2015).

However, there is evidence that the male body is less able to handle the g-forces than the female body with regard to black outs and women are less likely to black out due to shorter blood vessel routes in the neck. Furthermore, health issues regarding women are argued as the reason that some submarine services avoid accepting women, although mixed-gender accommodations in a small space are also an issue. However, British Army, which continues to ban women from serving in infantry roles units, all recruits joining to fill infantry vacancies partake in a separate training program called the Combat Infantryman's Course (Center for Military Readiness, 2004).

4.3.2 Social Concerns

The study found that, social concern is the long periods of time away from family and home. This concern is centered on balancing family life with a military career. However, the study found that, there is no different from how the males felt, since men
also had families they missed as well and both sexes encountered many of the same daily stressors brought on by working and living away from a familiar setting (Soucy, 1980). Women in the military face other issues with their families, for instance, relationships in a military family can be complicated and women especially if they become pregnant during service (or shortly after) can be especially stressful. The study found that, purported disruption of a combat unit's morale is cited as another reason for women to be banned from front-line combat situations (Soucy, 1980).

Romantic relationship is also another concern on the front lines that could disrupt the unit's fighting capability and a fear that a high number of women would deliberately fall pregnant in order to escape combat duties (Gold, Philip, Solaro and Erin, 2005). The study findings confirmed that, US Army female troops suffer a much higher divorce rate than men in uniform and their marriages failed at almost triple the rate in 2008 (CNN Report, 2009). The study found that, because female service members are a minority, they are excluded from some of the highly regarded combat specialties, and felt that many of the basic troubles women encountered were similar to those faced by male coworkers (Soucy, 1980).

4.4  LEGAL FRAMEWORK

The study found out that, Namibia has signed and ratified various conventions in order to be on par with other countries. Namibia is also part of the International and Regional Instruments that are particularly relevant to GBV and women empowerment. The instruments are among others, UN Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination
against Women, General recommendation NO19, Eleventh Session 1992); UN Declaration on the Elimination on Violence against Women, which affirms that violence against women constitutes a violation of the rights and fundamental freedoms of women (General Assembly Resolution 48/104, 20 December 1993); The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, which calls on government to enact or reinforce legislation to punish and redress violence against women in homes, at work places, in the communities and societies (Fourth World Conference on Women, 1995); Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of women in Africa, which calls for a range of state measures to address violence which takes place “in private or public”, including the punishment of perpetrators, the identification of causes of violence against women and the provision of service for survivors (Assembly of African Union, 2003); The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, (1990) Article 10, Windhoek Namibia; National Gender Policy 2010-2020 and accompanying Plan of Action 2011; and the UNSCR 1325 in (2000) on WPS. However, despite all those legal instruments, which call for equal representation in all government institution they are not full implemented.

4.5 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED WOMEN IN MILITARY

The study found that, there are possible key challenges to gender equality not only in the NDF, but in other defence force as well. One of the challenges is to motivate male colleagues to become equal partners in the process of defining the visions and strategies for a more equal society. Some of these weaknesses cited by the UN Secretary General include “incoherence, inadequate funding of gender related projects,
fragmentation and insufficient institutional capacity for oversight and accountability for system performance as well as low capacity for gender mainstreaming.” This can, contributes to the gap between implementation of UNSCR1325 at the country level, global, regional, and national commitments on gender equality in peace processes and post conflict reconstruction (Ban Ki-Moon, 2007).

The study discovered that, acceptances of women in command positions in military leadership of other forces have not been smooth and that bias and stereotypes continue. The study found that, the major constraints preventing women accelerating to military leadership is the patriarchal ideological system of the military where the executive power and command authority is in the hands of male (Sadie, 2005).

4.5.1 Pregnancy

The study found that, pregnancy is one of the biggest challenges in the armed forces during force deployment and it ruins combat cohesion. International findings indicated that the impact of pregnancy on deployment is high in units with few female or understaffed. The study also discovered that, pregnancy must not be used as reason to sideline women, but must be taken into consideration when positing women to duty stations (Lucas, 2010). However, the research found out that, a military personnel member need to be very flexible, ready to be deployed anywhere and anytime. Thus, giving special treatment to pregnant women during deployment will affect military effectiveness and combat readiness (COS JOPS, interview, September 2017). As a means of comparison, during the Gulf War, it was found that, women were three times
less deployable than men, primarily due to pregnancy. The study also found that, in NDF women with infants are released from work at 12h00 to go breastfeed the babies. Thus, parenthood interferes with women’ military responsibilities in the NDF (Wagner, interview, October 2017). However, Deputy Minister of Defence, Hon. Lempy Lucas, (2010), maintained that, Human Resource issues such as pregnancy, maternity leave, breastfeeding, or separation from families due to deployment need to be addressed and codified in order to avoid superior officers or others making arbitrary decisions based on gender discriminatory attitudes.

4.5.2 Sexual harassment

The study found that, the Labour Act prohibits direct or indirect sexual harassment of an employee in any employment decision or in the course of employment (Labour Act 11 of 2007). A female respondent who participated in the DRC campaign, when asked: Do you experience sexual harassment in NDF and how does it affect your performance? She responded with a surprising response saying that, “I was sexually harassed on a continual basis, but you can’t report every situation, because some of the harassment came from high-ranking officers. Therefore, it is unconstitutional for a senior to engage in sexual relationship with junior, when a junior finds it unwelcome and unacceptable (Shigwedha, interview, October 2017). The study also found that, while senior officers in militaries are entrusted and expected to take reasonable steps to make sure that junior officers are protected from sexual harassment, instead they are the one violating their rights (Shigwedha, interview, October 2017). The study also found that, sexual and gender harassment are another challenges associated with
female integration and are rising concern within the NDF. The study also found that, not only is sexual harassment from male colleagues, but also in gaining employment and promotion, because women are expected to provide sexual favors to prospective male employers. However, corrective measures should be put in place to prevent sexual harassment in NDF, and benchmark with US Army to establish a hotline to enable women to break the silence and report sexual harassment anytime.

4.6 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

It must be understood that the NDF was not established to provide employment, but with a mission to defend the territorial integrity of the Republic of Namibia and protect its people and their properties. The NDF can only accomplish this mission if it has the right human capital and material resources in place at the right time. Those who do not meet the requirements of the NDF are therefore advised and encouraged to try other fields of their choice and interests (Shuuya, interview, October 2017).

This section discusses the findings from the study conducted between July and October 2017. The study was about the analysis of women representation in the security sectors, with the case study of the NDF. The discussion is based on the findings from the collected data; from the respondents through questionnaires and interviews; and literatures from reports, journals, books and research publications. The findings verify that, Namibia has ratified and signed several legal frameworks on gender equality, which call for equal representation in all government institutions.
4.6.1 Women in top management in the NDF

The findings confirm that, even though inequality exists in the NDF, there are some females soldiers in the top management and some are deployed in foreign mission and military attaches. The findings confirm that, throughout history the appointment of women in command positions in military leadership have not been smooth anywhere in the world and that unfairness and stereotypes continue. The findings confirm that there is no woman who was appointed as CDF, Army Commander, Air Force, Navy, Special Forces (Mboti, 2014).

4.6.2 Educational Background

Education is the key to success, therefore, it is better to be educated with no job rather then no education no job. Mboti (2014) confirm the findings in her study after she investigated and analyzed military career and training among women. Mboti noted with great concern that the majority of women have not attended military training. The majority of the respondents in the study are also concerned over women not taking up the challenge to attend military qualifying courses. However, previous researcher on the related topics Shaanika (2007) and Nakapipi (2013) did not take into consideration the educational background gaps exist between males and females in the NDF. The study confirms the findings that, there are 56% gap or different between males and females in military training and military qualifications in the NDF. The study also confirm that 67% of male officers have attended advance military training and have military qualifications comparing to 11% of their female co-workers. Therefore, these
training gaps will limit female’s progress to decision-making positions and command structures. However, about 60% of the respondents are of the opinions that, female NDF pioneers are not promotable and are now aging. They always given a chance to attend advanced military courses and advanced military training, but they declined the offers, because they know their educational background, as a result about 98% of the pioneers are only promoted because of gender, long services and affirmative action, but not about meeting the requirements. The findings confirm that, female are given chances to attend courses, and CDF have instructed all commanders during the CDF annual directive (2012) to identify potential female members with outstanding leadership quality to attend qualifying courses locally and internationally. However, that is why until 2017 only 3 female passed MASSS program and five completed Senior Command and Staff Course in the entire NDF. The findings confirm that, many women lack leadership traits, but young female will make a difference once given a chance. The finding also confirms that, about 30% of young females in NDF have tertiary and University qualifications. However, the findings confirms that, you can have a qualifications or experience, but you cannot change nature and the social cultural difference between men and women.

4.6.3 Women in military operations

The barrier that keeps women from the highest ranks is the inability to serve in combat units. Promotion and job opportunities in the NDF preferred those with battlefield leadership credentials (Carey, 2001). The results confirmed that, women in operation could equally perform the same roles effectively and under the same difficult conditions as
their male counterparts (UN DPKO, 2010). Thus, participating in operations is very important because to become a unit commander, you must have military experience, not only experience, but also attended advance military training, participating in countless operations, and in position of military qualifications. The findings confirm that, NDF women are not willing to be deployed beyond the border, because they do not want to be away from home and families for a long time. However, the findings confirm that, men also have families to care for. Therefore, females NDF members should balance the family life with a military career. The study confirm that, there are social concern facing women during operations, especially pregnancy is one problem as husbands may not trust the wife in foreign operations and become pregnant during service (or shortly after) can be especially worrying to the husband. However, this concern is also disrupt unit's morale and is cited the reason why women are less participating in front-line combat situations. The study also confirms the findings that, women become pregnant deliberately in order to escape combat. Eden said that women were relieved (3) times than man from Operation Desert Storm due to pregnancy.

4.6.4 Cause of Inequality

The findings confirm that, the main limitations avoiding women fast-tracking military leadership is the masculine ideological system of the military where the executive power and command authority is in the hands of males. The educational background, the academic education and military training gaps between males and females are the main cause of inequality in the NDF. However, another reason is that, men in NDF are still unwilling to admit the idea of females being on top and being involved in strategic
executive management positions, as well as taking professional which were previously dominated by males. The study also confirmed that about 70% of females in the NDF do not join the force as careers but for employment purposes. Therefore women are not interesting in attending military courses because they can resign any time from the force once they get a green pasture to other Institutions.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The study has compared and contrasted the current NDF policy against some SADC countries’ policies that have already facilitated the integration of women in their defence force. Through this examination, the study identify gaps in training, promotion, appointment, deployment and challenges, and found that, from the ancient warriors women until today, women has been under-represented, and face challenges in various operations. The study also confirm that, despite the fact that the Namibian females have equally participated in the liberation struggle war, after independence they were not integrated in critical positions of the NDF and only in 2004 that the first female was appointed to decision-making position. The findings confirm that regardless of efforts made by the Namibian government to address gender balance, Namibia is one of the countries that have not implemented the NAP. Therefore, the study confirms that, it is vital to implement NAP because it is a tool for governments to articulate priorities, coordinate and fast track the implementation of UNSCR 1325 at the national level. The next chapter presents the conclusion on the study and recommendations.
CHAPTER 5.
CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the research findings from the respondents and from the analysed and evaluated data conducted through interviews and questionnaires. This chapter presents the conclusion and comes up with recommendations.

5.2 CONCLUSION

Implementing gender mainstreaming within the security sector, even in a civilian environment was not easy. Therefore, it was necessary to challenge flawed expectations that women cannot play roles as men or that female personnel cannot interact with males in certain contexts. The study examined women representation in the security sector. Women are under represented in NDF comparing to their male counterpart, because after 27 years since its inception in 1990 NDF had only two female General out of 25. The study also indicated that, some women may meet the requirements but they are still inadequately appointed to high decision-making positions. The study also highlighted that, some women do not join the force as careers, but for employment purposes and once they advance in a certain professional they resign from the force. The study also found that, almost all 97% of the male generals in NDF have attended the necessary military courses, comparing to five women who attended advance military course in NDF.
The study highlighted that, while women constituted the majority in the world, they are inadequately represented in the security sectors especially in decision-making positions that effect critical policies changes. Although women’s rights have been on the UN radar screen, the translation of calls for gender mainstreaming into comprehensive action has been slow. The study revealed that, United Nations has also failed to lead by example, because until today there was no women held the post of United Nations Secretary General.

The study revealed that during the training men and women receive the same training and there is no gender-specific training policy. However, gender separation does take place during basic training, which lowers military training effectiveness. The study also indicated that, after the basic military training females do not undergo advance training where military technology is taught, but they are claiming that the selection for such military training courses are limited to women. However, women have every opportunity to make the military a career but they choose a field that is not combat oriented. In order for the study to determine how other countries globally implemented their gender policies and how they integrated women into their defence forces, global, regional, and national. The comparison of women in the security sectors was also applied. The study has also compared NDF with other Defence Forces and discover that gender mainstreaming in the NDF is lagging far behind, not only in representation at the decision-making level, but also in terms of training, promotion and appointment. However, literature indicates that, acceptances of women in command positions in military leadership have not been smooth anywhere and that bias and stereotypes continue.
MOD Gender division was also established in NDF to monitor the advancement of women and to ensure that they are properly represented. The division also aims to ensure that women have every opportunity to participate equally as their male counterparts and liaise with other internationally organizations. The study noted with a concern that, the MOD and NDF Gender Plan of Action (2001-2005) didn’t produce fruits because of lack of its legal mandate to enforce and monitor gender implementation. Namibia has signed and ratified various conventions in order to be on par with other countries. Namibia is also part of the International and Regional Instruments. However, regardless of the establishment of gender division, and all the legal instruments, inequality still exists in the NDF.

The study also highlighted the challenges encountered by women during operations, such as physical and social concerns, the major constraints preventing women accelerating military leadership is the patriarchal ideological system of the military where the executive power and command authority is solely in the hands of male only (Sadie, 2005). Pregnancy is also cited as one of the biggest challenges in the armed forces during force deployment and it ruins combat cohesion. The study emphasizes Sexual and Gender harassment as another challenges associated with female integration in NDF, not only is harassment from male colleagues, but also in gaining employment and promotion, because women are expected to provide sexual favors to prospective male employers to exchange with promotion.
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research findings and in order to implement and mainstream gender in the NDF the study comes up with five recommendations.

5.3.1 Recommendations on Training and Recruitment

Education and training on gender equality and Affirmative Action policies needs to be secured in the NDF, because these training programs are advancing military skills of the female soldiers. Therefore, it is recommended that, female soldiers should attend all military training courses effectively and be ready to overcome challenges they might encounter. Policies for structural change must include training on gender stereotypes and norms because they highlight most obstacles to gender integration. Women who are potential applicants should be informed of the actual risks which both men and women will face during the recruitment training especially in combat role to make informed decisions. There is a need to establish recruitment policies in the NDF that will ensure and introduce women in all fields.

5.3.2 Recommendations to MOD/NDF Policy Makers

The NDF should encourage women to participate in external deployments because some women do not like to be deployed beyond the border of their respective country. The invisible barriers to gender equality must also be identified by leaders in the forces in order to successfully implement gender equality in the security sectors. Military leaders must also improve the organisational culture that shapes women’s
experiences inside the security sector. MOD and NDF should encourage women to join all fields of tactical operation and undertake various specialized peace-keeping training that would empower and qualify them for appointment. Promotion and appointment of women should be done on merit, not because of gender or through affirmative action, otherwise it will lower the military effectiveness.

5.3.3 Recommendations to MOD/NDF women

Women in the NDF should be educated and strengthened, in order to uphold any change. Women in the NDF should participate effectively in all military exercises for combat readiness, to familiarise themselves with new tactics and be ready to overcome challenges they might encounter.

5.3.4 Recommendations to Gender Division in MOD/NDF

It is recommended that, Gender Division should put in place monitoring mechanisms to ensure that women have every opportunity to participate as equally as their male counterparts. Gender Division should establish gender desks across all Arms of Service in order to promote and monitor gender equality, and quarterly gender conferences should also be arranged to respond to current issues and achievements. Gender Division should also organise campaigns awareness through Public Relations Division (PRO) during career fairs to motivate women to join the military as a career choice. Gender Division should encourage leadership (political and military) to promote and take responsibility for the fast tracking of the integrating of UNSCR 1325
and Namibia’s National Action Plan. NDF women should consist at least of 50% at strategic management level and decision-making by 2020, as a realization of the SADC ProtocolonGenderandDevelopmentwhichaimedtoachievethetargeted50% representation of women in decision-making by 2015 (GRN,2010).

### 5.3.5 Recommendations to future researcher

This study was about an analysis on women representation in the security sector with the case study of the NDF. Literatures show that, women constituted the majority in the world. Therefore, it is recommended that, future researcher should assess why women in military are not attending advance military courses to determine the root cause and comes up with the recommendations.

### 5.4 CONCLUSION

The study noted with a concern that, implementing gender mainstreaming within the security sector was not easy. This chapter discussed the conclusion of the entire study and finally comes up with the recommendations. The study highlighted that, while women constituted the majority in the world, they are inadequately represented in the security sectors especially in decision-making positions that effect critical policies. The study indicated that, as a number of women increase within the military organization, there are challenges encountered by women in military. These challenges are among others pregnancy, sexual harassment and social and cultural concerns that need to be considered before deployment. However, the study indicates
that, if women are given opportunity, they can also play an active role in armed forces. Thus, the defence force of a country should not be regarded as an exclusively for males. The findings confirm that, the academic education and military training gaps between males and females are the main cause of inequality in the NDF. Another cause is that, men are still reluctant to admit the appointment of females on top positions at the strategic executive management positions. Men are unwilling to accept women in a profession, which was previously dominated by males. Therefore, men are trying very hard to discriminate women by excluding them from decision-making positions. The study recommend that women need to be empowered and should effectively participate in all military exercises for combat readiness, to familiarise themselves with new situations and be ready to overcome future challenges.
REFERENCES


The Writing Center, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/literature-reviews/.


TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

22 May 2017

This letter serves to confirm that Tangeni Shikomba (Student No: 200903918) is a final year candidate for the Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies (MASSS), Faculty of Science, School of Military Science. In this regard the student is required to conduct a research project as part of the requirement to complete the Master’s program successfully. The topic of the thesis is An Analysis of Women Representation in the Security Sector. A case Study of the Namibian Defence Force.

Therefore, the University of Namibia is requesting your good offices to grant the student all the necessary assistance for him to obtain information required to write his thesis. The research findings will be used for the masters study purpose only and the participant opinions/views will be kept confidential.

Thank you for the support

DR.V.M.MWANGE
ASSOCIATE DEAN: SCHOOL OF MILITARY SCIENCE
Appendix 2

NAMIBIAN DEFENCE FORCE

Tel: (061) 204 9111
Fax: (061) 204 2124
E-mail Address: edefence@mod.gov.na

Enquiries: Lt Col EM Mowa
Our Ref.: CDF/3/2/5/16

September 2017

Tangi Shikomba
School of Military Science
Faculty of Health Sciences
University of Namibia
WINDHOEK

PREMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE NDF


2. Your request to conduct the research at DHQ, AHQ, AFHQ and NHQ is hereby approved.

3. Counting on your usual comprehension.

J MUTWA
CHIEF OF THE DEFENCE FORCE: LT GEN
Appendix 3

QUESTIONNAIRES

This questionnaire is intended to analyze women representation in the Security Sectors: Case study of the Namibian Defence Force, therefore you are respectfully requested to answer all the questions where you can.

NB: The researcher respect the right to privacy of an individual, and the information required here, is for research purposes only, and will be treated as confidential and will not be disclosed to the third part.

1: Personal Information

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<td>How long have you been at current position?</td>
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2. Military Qualifications

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3. Academic qualifications

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4. Open ended questionnaires

4.1 Are women fully represented in the NDF?
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4.2 What can be done to reduce gender inequality in the NDF?
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4.3 How does gender and culture influence women military perceptions in NDF?
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4.4 What criteria used by NDF during appointment?
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4.5 Does female in NDF have opportunities towards military courses and if not why?
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4.6 Do you experience sexual harassment in NDF and how does it affect your performance?
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4.7 What are the challenges encountered by women that hinder their appointment to decision making positions in the NDF?
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4.8 Does both men and women receive the same training fairly?

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4.9 How do you identify potential candidates to attend courses?
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4.10 What are the causes of inequality in NDF?
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