International Humanitarian Law

PROSPECTS

Edited by John Carey William V. Dunlap R. John Pritchard

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From 1941 to 1946, he served in the British Army, first as a Japanese translator and then as Deputy Military Prosecutor at GHQ India., retiring in 1946 with the rank of major. From 1946 to 1960, he was a lecturer in law at the University of London and from 1960 to 1965, professor of international law at the University of Singapore, serving as dean from 1964 to 1965. He moved to Canada in 1965 as professor of political science at the University of Alberta. He received the title University Professor in 1969 and Honorary Professor of Law in 1985. He retired in 1991 and holds the title University Professor Emeritus. He has been a visiting professor at Kyung Hee University in Seoul, Korea, and the University of Denver College of Law. From 1996 to 1998, he was Charles H. Stockton Professor of International Law at the U.S. Naval War College, the first non-American to hold that chair. In 2000, the Naval War College published a festschrift to mark his 80th birthday.

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His principal books are Law and Society (1975), Superior Orders in National and International Law (1976), Essays on the Modern Law of War (2d ed. 1998), The Contemporary Law of Armed Conflict (2000), and The Canadian Manual of Armed Conflict Law (2000)

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He has published in the areas of public international law, human rights, development and international debt, torts, and the sociology of law. Two of his co-authored books, *The Wrongs of Tort* (with Joanne Conaghan, Pluto 1993) and A Critical Introduction to Law (with Belinda Madwort and Alan Thomson, Cavendish 1995) have been republished in new editions. A second edition of The Wrongs of Tort appeared in 1999 with a further edition expected in 2006; while a third edition of A Critical Introduction to Law appeared in 2004. He also co-authored Teaching Human Rights, now in its second edition (UK Center for Legal Education, 2002). With Joanne Scott of the Faculty of Law Cambridge, he has written on development, trade, and regional policy.

His current research is concerned with a critique of international law and North/South issues. The role of the "neo-conservatives" in U.S. attitudes to international law is the subject of an article "Goodbye to All That? The Rule of Law, International Law, the United States, and the Use of Force" in *The Journal of Law and Society* (Winter 2004), and also of another article, written with Emily Haslam, "John Bolton and the United States' Retreat from International Law" in *Social & Legal Studies* (Vol. 14(4)). All his work is concerned with the interplay of law and politics (and power) and with wider questions of distributional justice; critical legal scholarship is central in his research.

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In addition to published books on International Criminal Law and human rights law including The Tokyo Major War Crimes Trial, a new and definitive 124-volume collection on the International Military Tribunal for the Far East (1998-) and numerous contributions to collective works, such as his "International Military Tribunal for the Far East and the Allied National War Crimes Trials in Asia", in 3 Enforcement, International Criminal Law 109 (M. Cherif Bassiouni ed., 2d ed. 1998). He is the author of a number of works on political and international history including Total War: Causes & Courses of the Second World War (with Peter Calvocoressi and the late Guy Wint, 1989, 1995, 1999 & 2001 eds.): The Reichstag Fire: Ashes of Democracy (1971); and Far Eastern Influences upon British Strategy towards the Great Powers (1987). He has other works in progress on the British trials of Japanese war criminals and on all of the Allied Trials of Italian war criminals in the aftermath of the Second World War and an updated edition of Sir John Frederick Maurice's classic work Hostilities without Declaration or War: An Historical Abstract of the Cases in Which Hostilities have Occurred between Civilized Powers Prior to Declaration or Warning (1st ed. 1883).

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FOREWORD

International humanitarian law is a during-the-fact kind of law even more than it is an after-the-fact law. Although trials of alleged war criminals dominate the headlines these days, the application of IHL during a war is the most significant test of whether that body of law can achieve its purpose: to mitigate the horrors of war and reduce the number of civilian casualties.

As I write these words at the end of the month of July 2006, the terrorist organization Hezbollah has been firing rockets at Israeli population centers. While the authors of the present volume may differ about some of the finer points of IHL, it is crystal clear that they would regard the targeting of undefended civilian population centers as a war crime. Of course, even the certainty of being prosecuted for a war crime is not likely to deter a jihadist terrorist who seeks the delights of a heavenly life after death.

Israel, in turn, engaged in daily incessant bombing of Lebanon, is causing enormous damage to the civilian infrastructure and is killing many of the Lebanese people. Can Israel defend the killing of civilians on the ground that "all bets are off" in this war? Does Hezbollah's blatant disregard of the laws of war allow Israel an unlimited right of retaliation?

Again there can be no doubt that the contributors to these three volumes would come up with the same answer: One side's violation of IHL is no excuse for a violation by the other side. This is a rule set in stone. The uncertainty of some of the rules of IHL does not mean that all its rules are questionable.

To be sure, one of the earliest sources of lHL, the Hague Conventions of 1907, contained a curious qualification: that the laws of war contained therein would only apply if all the parties to a war were parties to the Conventions. At the time this qualification reflected the fear of some state officials that a war could be circumscribed by law only if all the combatants were bound by the same law. But their misgivings were buried with the judgments of the Nuremberg Tribunal after World War II: The operative provisions of the Hague Conventions of 1907 had passed into customary international law and therefore were binding on all states irrespective of whether they had signed the Hague Conventions.

What is Israel's legal defense to the extensive damage that its Air Force is inflicting upon Lebanon at the present moment? Israel's defense is that this damage is "collateral" to its targeting of Hezbollah which, unfortunately, has embedded itself in many of the Lebanese population centers. We know that the Israeli

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government is being advised by international lawyers of the first calibre. May we assume that these lawyers are sensitive to the international obloquy that Israel would face if in fact it was deliberately targeting civilian targets? For my part, this is a reasonable assumption. The term "collateral damage" can apply even if there is *extensive* damage to civilians.

But that is not the end of the legal analysis. The extent of permissible collateral damage is bounded by the IHL doctrine of proportionality. For example, is it "proportional" to bomb a civilian apartment building because Hezbollah has rented an office there (an actual reported incident)? Is it "proportional" to destroy a suburban neighborhood because Hezbollah has hidden a rocket launcher between two buildings in that neighborhood? These are difficult questions. Professor Jordan Paust, writing in this volume, explores generally the extent of war-crimes liability for collateral damage.

Terrorism by its nature tests the patience of military leaders. They desire no-holds-barred retaliation against terrorists irrespective of collateral damage. International humanitarian law pushes up against this impulse for unlimited retaliation. What is our destiny: law or anarchy? In the days ahead, no question can be more important for the civilized world than this question.

It has been my distinct honor and privilege to have been invited to write a Foreword to each of these three well-conceived and brilliantly executed volumes on international humanitarian law.

Anthony A. D'Amato Leighton Professor of Law Northwestern University Chicago, July 2006

INTRODUCTION TO VOLUME III—PROSPECTS

William V. Dunlap

When we gathered in Vienna in 1998 for the workshops that were eventually to grow into this series of volumes on the origins, challenges, and prospects of international humanitarian law, the horrendous and world-changing events of September 11, 2001, were nearly as far in the future as they are now in the past as the third and final volume goes to press.

Since that day, millions of people who had never heard of—or at least thought much about—international humanitarian law have been bombarded daily with news and commentary that impressed its existence and importance on the public consciousness and conscience. For many, for the first time, the laws of war meant something more than "name, rank, and serial number," never a completely accurate delimitation of the interrogation of prisoners of war, but close enough for popular consumption. Abu Ghraib and Guantánamo soon supplanted Tamarkan ("The Bridge on the River Kwai"), Stalag Luft III ("The Great Escape"), Stalag 13 ("Hogan's Heroes"), and the eponymous Stalag 17 as the popular images associated with prisoners of war, and these real-life images—whether of the prisoners or of the guards—were grimmer than most had expected. In the popular, sometimes comedic, representations of POW camps, the guards (invariably German or Japanese) were the villains, and it came as a shock to the American national psyche that this could be so even when the guards were Americans.

The response of the American government was swift and predictable: It never happened. If it did happen, they were just a few isolated incidents. And anyway, they did not violate international law, because the Geneva Conventions do not apply to "terrorists." By now, we know that none of that was true. The incidents are well documented and numerous, and President Bush himself has announced that the Geneva Conventions apply to all detainees in what he proclaimed as "the war on terror," now "the long war." The apparent change in direction is due in large part to the United States Supreme Court's ruling in Hamdan v. Rumsfeld, 548 U.S. ____, 126 S.Ct. 2749 (2006), which not only reinforces the role of the Congress in determining United States policy but also makes clear that the Geneva Conventions do apply, to the surprise of few outside of the United States.

One can hope that the *Hamdan* case marks the end of a brief diversion from the history of progressive development that the law of armed conflict has been enjoying for the past century and more. It was a sharply divided Supreme Court that rebuked the President and his attempts to evade his constitutional limitations and the international obligations of the United States, but it was a rebuke nonetheless. It is not at all clear whether that diversion was fueled by a misreading of the end of the cold war and America's role as the "world's sole superpower," or by a exuberance at finally being in a position to put neoconservative ideas to work, or by a misguided notion of American exceptionalism, or just by a good old Texas-style I've-got-a-job-to-do-and-nothing's-gonna-stand-in-my-way attitude. Whatever prompted it, it now appears that the political appointees in the White House who have been dictating the legal analysis to the professional lawyers at the Justice Department, the Pentagon, and the State Department Legal Adviser's Office—instead of the other way round—may be getting the message. This volume, then, is coming out at a most propitious time.

It became clear soon after September 11, 2001, that the world would be looking differently at international humanitarian law. What to do, then, with a volume—well under way—on the prospects of international humanitarian law. The regime of the Hague and Geneva Conventions was facing perhaps its gravest challenge ever, even while other developments—notably the creation of the International Criminal Court—were carrying international humanitarian law in new directions. After much consideration, we decided that the new debates over Guantánamo, "enemy combatants," and the Geneva Conventions should not draw attention away from the broad range of issues addressed in this volume—the ICC, victims' rights, sanctions regimes, and ad hoc tribunals—and that it would be a disservice to sideline these discussions while reshaping the book around the Guantánamo and Abu Ghraib phenomenon. So we retained our original structure, updated the contributions, and invited a particularly respected scholar to address the new central question raised by the United States' response—Do terrorists have rights under international humanitarian law?

Leslie C. Green, among the most distinguished commentators on the law of armed conflict, answers that question with a resounding "yes" in the opening chapter, "The Relevance of Humanitarian Law to Terrorism and Terrorists" (the only essay here to have been written entirely after the events of 2001). Professor Green, after reviewing the antiterrorist conventions, the UN principles on the treatment of prisoners, international human rights treaties, the Geneva Conventions, and judicial decisions in Canada, Britain, and the United States, reaffirms the universality of humanitarian law and its application to everyone, even terrorists. If "they" had treated "our" personnel as "we" have treated "theirs" at Abu Ghraib and Guantánamo, he reminds us, captured offenders would have been charged with war crimes and, on conviction, would have been sentenced to long terms of imprisonment or condemned to death. Meanwhile, the Bush administration, as this volume goes to press, seems to be, gradually and grudgingly,

coming around to this point of view while denying that the doctrine of command responsibility appears to lead directly to the Pentagon and the White House.

Nevertheless, in a British case that, like Hamdan, was decided too late for Professor Green to discuss, it would appear that the House of Lords has restricted the reach of international humanitarian law. The Lords held, in R. v. Jones, [2006] UKHL 16, that, in the absence of appropriate legislation by Parliament, the courts of the United Kingdom (and by extension the far-flung British Commonwealth) are powerless to recognize the authority of international law and that they lack capacity to rein in the actions of the Crown when any British Government—under cloak of the royal prerogative to wage war—commits crimes against peace or crimes against humanity. It is not open to the courts, said the Lords, even to consider whether such crimes have been committed by a British Government. Thus while the power of any British Government to try enemy war criminals for war crimes, crimes against humanity, or crimes against peace has been demonstrated in the distant and not-so-distant past, its power to hold British subjects to account may be highly restricted.

Shortly after the end of the Second World War, a young Army lawyer asked the Nuremberg Tribunal to affirm, through law, the human right to live in peace and dignity. Nearly sixty years later, Benjamin B. Ferencz, who in the meantime has become one of the world's most passionate and eloquent spokesmen for international law and justice, repeats, this time to the world community, that same "Plea of Humanity to Law." Whether through ad hoc international criminal tribunals, or the International Criminal Court, or the Security Council's enforcement powers—or all of the above—those who violate the international laws of humanity must answer for their deeds. The people of the world must send this message to their leaders—or pray that they themselves do not become the next victims.

"International criminal law in any true sense does not exist," wrote Georg Schwarzenberger (one of Leslie Green's law professors at University College, London, before the Second World War), midway through the twentieth century. At the opening of the twenty-first, the Statute of Rome went into effect, creating the world's first standing international criminal court. Even if Schwarzenberger was correct at the time, does the birth of the ICC mean that an international criminal law in some true sense does now exist? What is the implication of the ICC for the concept of national sovereignty, for the state's monopoly on criminal jurisdiction, or the implication of sovereignty for the success of the ICC? In "The Creation of the International Criminal Court and State Sovereignty: 'The Problem of an International Criminal Law' Re-examined," Frédéric Mégret, one of Canada's outstanding international legal scholars and a former UNPROFOR "blue helmet" in Sarajevo, examines in extraordinary detail and depth these tensions and contradictions, wondering whether the ICC can ever become a defining force in global relations.

Wade Mansell of the University of Kent can muster but "Two Cheers for the International Criminal Court." He welcomes the creation of the ICC but with a caveat: One byproduct, not necessarily unintended, is a formal relegation to second-class status of economic, social, and cultural rights, as opposed to the civil and political rights that the court will have jurisdiction to enforce. He sees this as one more step in the triumph of liberal rights over economic rights, which earlier was reflected in the decision to enforce the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by two separate international covenants and which has accelerated with the ascendancy of liberal capitalism over socialism. Why, he asks, should a failure to protect economic rights not be as much an offense as a violation of civil and political rights? Like any other international instrument, the Treaty of Rome was a product of realpolitik and idealism. As Mansell implies, there were limits to what influential countries were prepared even to consider.

In much the same way, compromises can be found in the Rome Statute's definitions of crimes, which define the ICC's jurisdiction. On the one hand, its definition of genocide is virtually synonymous with that of the Genocide Convention and of a growing body of customary international law, but there the similarity ends. The ICC's jurisdiction over the other categories of offenses within the ICC's jurisdiction—crimes against humanity and war crimes—is severely limited by, for example, the use of such limiting words as "widespread" and "systematic," which do not appear in other international instruments and case law defining, refining, and even extending these offenses. This means, says Professor Jordan Paust, a leading scholar of international criminal law, in describing the restrictive nature of the "Crimes within the Limited Jurisdiction of the International Court," that primary competence and responsibility for prosecuting (or extraditing) those accused of war crimes and crimes against humanity continues to lie with nation-states and the international ad hoc tribunals.

As this volume goes to press, it appears that a new mixed tribunal of Cambodian and international prosecutors and judges will be convened after all, ending the long period of uncertainty about that which has lain across the conscience of mankind since the 1970s. It was hard enough to persuade the international community that, as a general proposition, a Cambodian war crimes tribunal was a good idea. Once it had finally been agreed that the Khmer Rouge would be held accountable for their atrocities in Cambodia, the debate had just begun. Under whose authority would a tribunal be established—the Security Council, the General Assembly, the Cambodian government, a "third" country" a Nurembergstyle coalition? The question of venue, too, was critical, for where a tribunal sits bears heavily on cost, political interference, witness protection, and the message that the trials would send to the survivors. Questions of temporal and personal jurisdiction—which crimes and which persons are to be prosecuted—may be influenced as much by raw politics as by notions of justice. In "Designing Justice for Cambodia's Khmer Rouge," Craig Etcheson, who helped found and then directed the Documentation Center of Cambodia in Phnom Penh, examines these "practical issues" that will face the organizers of every future ad hoc tribunal.

In the spring of 1999, as NATO forces launched an intensive humanitarian intervention to suppress the ethnic cleansing and other large-scale violations of international humanitarian law in Kosovo, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia brought eleven actions in the International Court of Justice, asking the court to find that members of NATO had violated their obligations under the UN Charter. As it was undisputed that NATO forces were attacking Yugoslavia, what was the legal justification? Given that the UN Security Council had not specifically authorized this particular intervention, was this no more than regional vigilante justice? The ICJ has since dismissed all the cases on jurisdictional grounds, so the question remains judicially unresolved. One possible answer lies with the ICTY, the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia. In "NATO's Attack on Yugoslavia: The Deputation of an Ad Hoc International Constabulary." Paul Rutkus, lecturer of international criminal law at Carleton University, explores whether the Security Council could have delegated a measure of Chapter VII peacemaking authority to the ICTY, which in turn could have authorized NATO's member states to assist the Tribunal in protecting victims and witnesses, securing evidence and crime scenes, and detaining suspects and surrendering indictees for trial

Economic sanctions, originally conceived as measures of international collective coercion short of military force and as mechanisms for enhancing the role of the less-powerful but peaceable states, have proved to be highly controversial. They have been denounced as genocide and as institutionalized racism, and, says Paul Conlon, the United Nations in recent years has spent as much effort mitigating the effects of its own economic sanctions as it has enforcing them. Dr. Conlon, a former official of the United Nations Centre against Apartheid and of the Security Council's Iraq Sanctions Committee, suggests that sanctions as they have been applied violate the principles and goals of international humanitarian law, particularly the Fourth Geneva Convention, concerning civilian populations. Sanctions, he suggests, should be administered with humanitarian considerations and general legal principles in mind. Proportionality, for example, dominates every legal discussion of military reprisal but seldom enters into the evaluation of sanctions-either their enforcement or humanitarian measures to mitigate their effects. With well over half a million deaths in Iraq caused by U.S.-led UN sanctions between 1991 and 2003, it is easy to argue that proportionality must rein in what can be permitted in the name of international law or international politics. Dr. Conlon proposes not only adapting sanctions regimes to humanitarian law but also "Adapting Traditional Humanitarian Law to Sanctions."

Until the mid-twentieth century (and in some countries, such as Japan, even to this day) individuals were generally regarded exclusively as objects, rather than subjects, of international law, enjoying no personal rights and holding no obligations. Perpetrators of war crimes, in the broad sense, have marked a sharp exception to the rule, as they (sometimes) can be brought to personal justice under the Geneva Conventions and the Nuremberg principles. Avril McDonald suggests that the perpetrators' victims, too, are now beginning to find recognition in the inter-

national criminal justice system. Though the statutes of the ad hoc tribunals made little or no effort to accommodate the interests of the Yugoslav and Rwandan victims of those atrocities, the Statute of the ICC has integrated victims into the process by requiring their interests to be considered at every stage—by the prosecutor, the Pre-Trial Chamber, the Trial Chamber, and the Appeals Chamber. Significantly, victims may make submissions directly to the court. In "The Development of a Victim-Centered Approach to International Criminal Justice for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law," Dr. McDonald, an IHL scholar at the T.M.C. Asser Instituut and editor of the Yearbook of International Humanitarian Law, suggests that this is a good start but that a great deal more remains to be done, especially regarding reparations.

As the volume ends, so does the series—as it began—with R. John Pritchard examining British war crimes trials in the aftermath of past wars, in the hope that these experiences might offer some insight into the implications of how such trials may be conducted today or in the future. In "The Parameters of Justice: The Evolution of British Military and Civil Perspectives on War Crimes Trials and Their Legal Context," Dr. Pritchard, one of the most prolific and distinguished historians of war crimes trials, concludes that concerns about fairness to perpetrators gave way to political expedience and haste in the disposition of clemency, displacing concern for victims and justice and ultimately poisoning Britain's relationship with Germany, Italy, and especially Japan after the Second World War. As we face the winding down of the International Tribunals for Yugoslavia and Rwanda and other ad hoc tribunals, who is going to govern the administration of clemency and parole when the judges are no longer there? Will the prisoners be in the hands of some other legal authority, or will these important questions of justice fall to politicians?

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In the meantime, the scope and concerns of international humanitarian law continue to grow. The Bush administration may, paradoxically, have strengthened the IHL regime through its efforts to disregard the Geneva Conventions. Public disgust at efforts to deny or condone torture and inhumane treatment, combined with a pragmatic recognition that U.S. soldiers taken prisoner elsewhere in the world could be on the receiving end of such treatment, reinforced in the public mind the need for binding international rules of war. Indeed, it was military lawyers who led the opposition, within government and without, against the administration's efforts to undercut the Geneva Conventions.

Will the public support of the Geneva Conventions translate into similar support for the International Criminal Court? There is no logical reason that it must. The United States has long been legally bound by the Geneva Conventions, and the reciprocal benefits they provide are, or so one might have thought until recently, beyond questioning. The debate over the ICC, on the other hand, is whether to