GENDER IN TRANSITIONAL JUSTICE

Edited by SUSANNE BUCKLEY-ZISTEL AND RUTH STANLEY

GOVERNANCE AND LIMITED STATEHOOD

Gender in Transitional Justice

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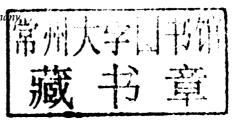
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Introduction: Gender in Transitional Justice

Susanne Buckley-Zistel and Magdalena Zolkos

'I cannot even kill a chicken. If there is a person who says that a woman – a mother – killed, then I'll confront that person' (Pauline Nyiramasuhuko, cited in Landesman, 2002). These are the words of Pauline Nyiramasuhuko, who currently stands trial before the UN International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR), which has been established to prosecute crimes committed during the 1994 genocide. Together with her son, she is accused of genocide, crimes against humanity, and rape. Nyiramasuhuko is the first women to be tried by the ICTR.

Nyiramasuhuko's case is challenging on a number of counts. First, it draws attention to the rampant violence against women during conflict and to the specific forms of violence to which women, in particular, are subjected. Secondly, the charges against her challenge the conventional view that women have been solely the victims, and not the perpetrators, of massive human rights abuses and genocidal events – a view that reflects deeper assumptions about gender roles and that is echoed in Nyiramasuhuko's own words cited above. The aim of this volume is to explore these multifaceted and interrelated roles of women, and men, and how they manifest themselves in the context of transitional justice (TJ).

Transitional justice refers to processes of dealing with the aftermath of violent conflicts and systematic human rights abuses in order to provide conditions for a peaceful future. It makes use of a number of instruments and mechanisms, including national and international tribunals, truth commissions, memory work, reparations and institutional reforms, which aim at uncovering the truth about past crimes, putting past wrongs right, holding perpetrators accountable, vindicating the dignity of victims-survivors and contributing to reconciliation (Minow, 1998).¹

In regard to its temporal focus, TJ is at one and the same time oriented towards the past, present, and future. As a past-oriented practice, it addresses wrongs that have been committed during a conflict; as a present-oriented practice, it establishes a new ethical and institutional framework of post-authoritarian and/or transitional politics for interpreting the past and, through this, it seeks to prevent the *future* occurrence of gross injustices and violence. In recent decades the concept of TJ has acquired a central place in transitional and democratic discourses, as well as in sociological, political and legal academic research.

In the initial stages of the development of the TJ field, its gendered dimensions were largely unrecognized and they have remained underresearched. The relatively few studies that exist on the question of gender in TJ have focused almost exclusively on women as victims of sexualized violence. As critics of that tendency have pointed out, this has created the problematic possibility that women's and men's experiences of violence and repression would be reduced to a single thematic aspect, and stereotypical gender categories would be perpetuated, rather than identified and challenged, within the TJ literature.

This volume seeks to move the analysis beyond the tendency to equate gender with questions of (often narrowly understood) sexual violence, and to contribute to the emergence of more inclusive and complex studies of the cross-section of gender and TJ. It builds on the assumption that gender cannot be accommodated within TJ as a descriptive category of the victims, but that it has the potential to transform, or at least reformulate, some of the most rudimentary questions of the TJ field: Whose justice – and for whom? What is the transition to? How can one negotiate between the Western ideas of justice that animate the TJ project (and thus the implied global transmission of hegemonic values) on the one hand and its impact on local needs and the culturally situated understandings and practices of gender on the other? What is the significance of the TJ processes for the shape of social gender relations in post-transitional phases? Is there a need for a broader conception of TJ, which would encompass economic, social and cultural human rights, in order for TJ to contribute to greater gender equality? In short, incorporating a gender perspective not only with regard to the topics of TJ, but also into the very texture of its analytical framework requires a more fundamental reflection on the underlying theoretical, political and ideological premises of the TJ project, as well as an analysis of the gender implications of their alternative formulations. To place the category of gender at the heart of the study of TJ thus implies exposition of (often unarticulated, but

assumed) ideas about the specifically transitional nature of justice in this project and its function.

Historical development of transitional justice

While the genealogy of transitional justice points to the war crimes trials in Nuremberg and Tokyo following the Second World War, the concept first became widely used in 1990s to describe judicial and non-judicial mechanisms of accountability introduced in the period of transformation from authoritarian to democratic government, or from a conflict society to a post-conflict society, in order to address earlier violations of human rights. As such, TJ discussions have dovetailed with the wider debates about democratization, peace-building, socio-economic transformations and state-building, in post-conflict and post-authoritarian societies (Teitel, 2003: 69). The proponents of TJ have argued that the pursuit of past-oriented justice is crucial for the achievement of democratic consolidation. However, others have problematized what they have seen as the politicization of justice within the TJ project (especially some of its more punitive forms) as a potential impediment to the democratization process. Suffice it to say that since its emergence and implementation in a variety of socio-political situations, TJ has been positioned in a close, but complicated relationship to democratic transition (see for example Leebaw, 2008).

TJ is based on the assumption that the transition to peace after violent conflicts or authoritarian rule requires a clean break from past injustices so as to prevent their recurrence. Historically, the concept and the academic discussion of TJ has evolved dialogically. After the Second World War, the objective of the Nuremberg Trials and Tokyo Tribunal (as well as the specific death camp trials, the Nanjing Tribunal, and many others) was to judge Nazi German and Imperial Japanese leaders and officials for war crimes and gross human rights violations committed during the war. The broader intention of the trials was encapsulated by the phrase 'never again' - namely to prevent the future recurrence of such genocidal events as the Holocaust. Subsequently, during the Cold War period, defined by the central concerns for regime stabilization and balance of power, there were few continuations of the national and international accountability trend initiated by the post-war tribunals. However, the lost momentum of TJ was regained in the late 1970s and early 1980s with the events in Southern Europe (the 1975 trials in Greece of members of the military juntas and others accused of serious human rights violations during that country's military dictatorship),

and Latin America (the 1985 Trial of the Juntas in Argentina, against leading members of the military government that held power from 1976 until 1983). The end of the Cold War also marked the growing use of public commissions focused on discovering and disclosing systematic human rights abuses among the affected populations, such as the Argentine Commission on Disappeared Persons (CONADEP). In many cases, this aim was linked with promoting societal reconciliation, such as the Chilean and post-apartheid South African truth and reconciliation commissions. Despite the Greek and Argentine cases mentioned above, criminal trials of the perpetrators of human rights abuses were used rather sparingly, in part because of the very high political costs attached. More recently, with the establishment of the International Criminal Court (ICC) in 2002, this element of TJ has regained prominence, turning criminal justice into a central component of the repertoire of measures employed within the framework. At the same time, while students of TJ were initially concerned mainly with its judicial and non-judicial tools at a macro level, including national or international tribunals and truth commissions, recently the attention has been broadened to include micro levels focusing on victims and their subjective experiences and concerns.2

This short historical sketch shows that the emergence of the TJ concept has been contingent upon political changes in the post-war era, which have fuelled its specific development and have made it into a 'global', though not homogeneous, project. In particular, crucial for the current paradigmatic shaping of TJ has been the worldwide trend towards democratization after the Second World War (Germany, Italy, Japan), especially since the mid-1970s (Southern Europe), spreading more widely since the beginning of the 1990s (most of Latin America, parts of Africa and Asia). Not only has the transition from authoritarian rule to democracy created public openings and fora for the investigation of a violent past, but such inquiry has also become part and parcel of the strategies of legitimizing the new regime and underlining its discontinuity with the previous authoritarian rule. In a number of cases, the concept of democratic transition has been closely intertwined with liberal values formed at the conjunction of the approaches of 'dealing with the past' and of enforcing the rule of law (Forsberg, 2001: 57). This includes arguments about accountability for past human rights violations. In the post-Cold War world the 'evangelical optimism of liberalism' (Hazan, 2007: 10) and its (specifically defined) pursuit of justice following violent conflict has thus gained new momentum and widespread validity. Consequently, there has been a need for a critical analysis of TJ that would problematize both its idea of

the subject of justice (and what it means to do justice for the past), and the assumptions about the democratic implications of TJ. Such a critique by no means implies a rejection of TJ. Rather, while it acknowledges its significance and potential for streaming individual perspectives of human suffering into the field of politics, it seeks to dissect and complicate the ideological assumptions of TJ.

At the same time as the 1990s marked an era of increased human rights focus in international affairs, the decade also witnessed events spurred by violent nationalism and ethnic conflict in the former Yugoslavia, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and elsewhere (Forsberg, 2001: 57). These events have challenged the liberal 'neutral' idea of the subject of TJ by highlighting the significance of gender, age, race, and ethnicity for understanding specific victimization patterns. Ruti G. Teitel argues that the global dissemination of the TJ idea as an appropriate response to the intensifying political instabilities and violence has nowadays made TJ the rule rather than the exception (Teitel, 2003: 71). Others have even spoken of a 'mantra' of TJ (Hazan, 2007). All this suggests that through the global propagation of liberal norms, practices and institutions, the demand for accountability for past human rights abuses is not solely a domain of national governments, but has become part of the discourse of an international responsibility.

Gender in transitional justice – state of the art

The field of TJ has been recently enriched through the systematic impact of gender analysis with the effect of problematizing its legal theoretical assumptions, mechanisms of operation and societal outcomes. In that context, the project of gendering TJ has defined a number of approaches insofar as it has reflected the polysemy of both the notion of 'gender' and of 'justice'.

First, at the most basic level, gendering TJ has connoted critical attempts of identifying and addressing the exclusion, or insufficient inclusion, of women within (inter) national TJ frameworks. Here, gender has been understood as synonymous with the social category of women, and its primary critique has been directed at the systemic acts of privileging and universalizing male perspectives, and, consequently, rendering female perspectives inferior, irrelevant or invisible (Minow, 1998; Valji, 2009; Askin, 2003). As Christine Bell and Catherine O'Rourke have emphasized (2007), the exclusion of women from early and more traditional forms of transitional justice had to do largely with the underrepresentation of women in peace negotiations and peace agreements,

and/or with the male bias in the formation and operation of the justiceseeking institutions in post-conflict contexts. The exclusion meant that not only did women's potential to contribute to reconstructive processes remained unutilized, but also that their suffering during the conflict, which took a variety of forms, was not recognized (Turshen et al., 2001; Chinkin, 2003; Bunch, 2005). In response to the under-involvement and under-representation of women in transitional justice, the dominant liberal institutional approaches advocated policies and practices of gender mainstreaming (Rosser, 2007).

Characteristically, within the initial attempts of gendering TJ, the topic of sexual violence has acquired noticeable significance (Seifert, 1996; Copelon, 1995; Cahn, 2005). While this focus can be seen as a necessary corrective to the general tendency to ignore or de-emphasize sexual aspects of war violence, some feminist scholars have stressed certain problems with it. They have included (a) over-identifying women with the sexual domain and with the category of victims (Campbell, 2004; Mertus, 2004); (b) making a distinction between war-time and peace-time (and domestic) sexual violence; and (c) excluding from the gendered frame of analysis instances of sexual violence against men (Oosterhoffet et al., 2004; Sivakumaran, 2007).

At the level of analysis of the international jurisprudence and international legal practice, there have been numerous contributions, coming both from the liberal institutional position and from the critical feminist stance, to the debates on categorizing different forms of sexual violence, including rape, sexual enslavement and trafficking, impregnation, sterilization, and enforced prostitution, as war crimes. This included analysis and discussions of the gendered mandate of the ICTY (International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia) and ICTR (International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda) (Tiemessen, 2004; Engle, 2005; Campbell, 2007; Wells, 2005); the Rome Statute and the practice of the ICC (Boon, 2001; Oosterveld, 2005); the truth and reconciliation commissions in Haiti, Sierra Leone, East Timor, and others (Shaw, 2005; Bastick, 2008); and gendered violence not only during conflict, but also during the transition phase (Ní Aoláin, 2006). Gendered scholarship of TJ has also identified issues relevant for women's well-being in the functioning of courtrooms and in the legal enforcement mechanisms. These include the questions of the status of victims-witnesses, interviewing methods, admission of evidence, protection and support of victims of sexual violence to prevent re-traumatization, and their social reintegration (Campbell, 2004; Dembour and Haslam, 2004; Kelsall and Stepakoff, 2007).

A further body of analysis, associated above all with the work of Ruth Rubio-Marín, focuses on reparations. It analyses the specific forms of victimization of women (as well as how, even when women are subject to the same violations as men, these violations may impact them very differently in view of cultural gender assumptions), in order to understand their specific needs for redress. Rubio-Marín also addresses the question of why women appear to favour specific remedies over others and the extent to which reparations programmes need to be tailored accordingly (Rubio-Marín, 2006: 7). More recent studies have stressed the need for sensitivity to the differential impact of institutional reforms in the security sector on women and men, with a focus on recognizing and addressing the specific security needs of women (DCAF, 2008; OECD, 2009).

Another approach to gendering transitional justice has focused on discourses of femininity and masculinity, rather than on the socio-political and legal categories of women. It has conditioned the emergence of a sub-field of academic literature on transitional justice that criticizes traditional ('masculine') conceptions of law and accountability, and interrogated different cultural forms of the nexus between masculinity and violence. A number of texts have advocated deeper atunement to more 'feminine' modes of achieving justice and seeking healing, for example through production of familial narratives (Ross, 2003; van der Merwe and Gobodo-Madikizela, 2007). Others have produced studies of violence, both during and after a war or civil conflict, as a social practice deeply embedded in the hegemonic discourses of masculinity (Wetherell and Edley, 1999; Hamber, 2007). Often connected to critical evaluation of the gendered construction of the mandate and practice of the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission, these approaches have emphasized that the nature of gendered exclusions in transitional justice settings has been conceptual, rather than merely situational. As a result, female experiences, stories and perspectives have been deemed irrelevant (Ross, 2003). Other critical studies have stressed the need for greater intersectional and cultural sensitivity in the analysis of gender issues, especially, but not exclusively, in regard to the victimization of indigenous women, as opposed to statistical identification of women's under-representation (Ní Aoláin and Rooney, 2007).

To sum up, these two gender-centred approaches to transitional justice emphasize the under-visibility and under-privileging of women on the one hand, and the social-discursive constructions of femininity and masculinity on the other. Importantly, they seek to transform transitional justice and critique selected aspects of its implementation,