
Advanced Certificate in War Crimes and Justice

Transitional Justice and Peacebuilding

Transitional justice is a multidisciplinary field that seeks to address massive human rights violations that occur during periods of conflict or authoritarian rule. It combines legal, political, and social mechanisms in order to acknowledge victims, hold perpetrators accountable, and lay the groundwork for durable peace. The concept emerged in the 1990s as scholars and practitioners recognized that traditional criminal prosecutions alone could not repair the deep societal wounds left by war crimes, genocide, and crimes against humanity. In practice, transitional justice is rarely a single, isolated process; rather, it is a suite of interlocking measures that must be tailored to the specific historical, cultural, and political context of each post-conflict society.

A core vocabulary of transitional justice includes a range of institutional and procedural tools. One of the most visible instruments is the truth commission. Truth commissions are temporary, often hybrid bodies that collect testimonies from victims, witnesses, and sometimes even perpetrators. Their primary aim is to create an official record of past abuses, thereby countering denial and fostering a shared understanding of what happened. The South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC), chaired by Archbishop Desmond Tutu, is the archetypal example. It combined public hearings with a mandate to recommend reparations and amnesty for those who fully disclosed their involvement. By contrast, the Argentine National Commission on the Disappearance of Persons (CONADEP) produced the “Nunca Más” report, which documented the systematic disappearance of thousands of civilians during the military dictatorship. Both commissions illustrate how truth-seeking can be coupled with moral and legal outcomes, yet each also reveals distinct challenges: The South African model grappled with the tension between granting amnesty and delivering justice, while the Argentine commission faced the practical difficulty of locating missing bodies in a climate of pervasive fear.

Another fundamental component is reparations, which encompass monetary compensation, symbolic gestures, and material assistance aimed at redressing the harm suffered by victims. Reparations can be individual or collective. Individual reparations often involve direct payments to victims or their families, medical care, and counseling services. Collective reparations may include community rebuilding projects, memorials, and public apologies. A notable case is the German government’s compensation program for Holocaust survivors, which combined financial payments with the establishment of the Federal Agency for Civic Education to promote remembrance. In the context of Rwanda, the Gacaca courts, though primarily a form of community-based criminal justice, also incorporated reparative elements such as restitution of property and public acknowledgment of guilt. The design of reparations programs raises complex questions about eligibility criteria, the adequacy of monetary amounts, and the risk of re-traumatizing survivors through repeated testimony.

The criminal prosecution of perpetrators is perhaps the most familiar element of transitional justice. International criminal tribunals, such as the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and the International Criminal Court (ICC), have established jurisprudence on crimes like genocide, war crimes, and crimes against humanity. Domestic courts may also undertake prosecutions, as seen in the trials of former Chilean dictator Augusto Pinochet's collaborators. Prosecutions serve several purposes: They deter future violations, provide a legal narrative that clarifies the nature of the crimes, and affirm the rule of law. However, prosecutions can be hampered by limited resources, political interference, and the difficulty of gathering reliable evidence after years of conflict. In many cases, the pursuit of large-scale criminal trials can clash with the need for rapid stabilization, leading to debates over "peace versus justice" priorities.

Institutional reform addresses the structural roots of abuse by reshaping legal and security institutions that were complicit in the violations. This may involve vetting and purging personnel from police, military, and judiciary bodies, followed by capacity-building initiatives to ensure adherence to human rights standards. The concept of security sector reform (SSR) is particularly salient in post-conflict settings, where former combatants often transition into formal security forces. In Sierra Leone, the establishment of the Sierra Leone Police Service included comprehensive training on community policing and human rights, alongside a vetting process that removed individuals implicated in atrocities. Institutional reforms are not limited to security organs; they also encompass judicial independence, legislative changes, and the creation of oversight bodies such as ombudsman offices. The durability of these reforms is frequently challenged by entrenched patronage networks, resource constraints, and the political will of new governments.

The term reconciliation is frequently invoked but often remains ambiguously defined. In the transitional justice literature, reconciliation refers to a long-term process of rebuilding interpersonal and intergroup trust after conflict. It is not a single event but a dynamic trajectory that may involve symbolic gestures (e.g., Public apologies), joint commemorations, and grassroots dialogue. The Rwandan model of "Ndi Umunyarwanda" (I am Rwandan) illustrates an attempt to forge a shared national identity that supersedes ethnic divisions. Yet critics argue that the emphasis on unity can suppress legitimate grievances and hinder the full expression of victim experiences. Successful reconciliation therefore requires a delicate balance between acknowledging past harms and fostering forward-looking cohesion.

A complementary concept is peacebuilding, which encompasses a broader set of activities aimed at establishing sustainable peace after conflict. While transitional justice focuses on addressing past violations, peacebuilding looks forward, seeking to create the political, economic, and social conditions that prevent a relapse into violence. The United Nations defines peacebuilding as "actions to identify and support structures that will strengthen durable peace at all levels of society." This includes governance reforms, economic reconstruction, and the promotion of civil society participation. In practice, the lines between peacebuilding and transitional justice often blur; for instance, the establishment of a truth commission can be a peacebuilding tool by fostering dialogue, while reparations can contribute to economic recovery.

Within peacebuilding, the notion of conflict resolution emphasizes the negotiation and mediation of disputes that persist after a formal ceasefire. Mediation can be facilitated by neutral third parties, such as

international organizations, or by local actors who possess cultural legitimacy. The 1995 Dayton Accords that ended the Bosnian war exemplify high-level diplomatic mediation, whereas the grassroots peace committees in Colombia's "peace zones" illustrate localized conflict resolution. Effective conflict resolution requires attention to power asymmetries, the inclusion of marginalized voices, and the establishment of monitoring mechanisms to ensure compliance.

The term disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) refers to a suite of programs designed to transition combatants from armed groups back into civilian life. Disarmament involves the collection and disposal of weapons; demobilization is the formal discharge of combatants; and reintegration provides social, economic, and psychological support to enable former fighters to become productive members of society. The DDR process in Sierra Leone, which combined weapons collection with community-based reintegration projects, is often cited as a success story. However, DDR initiatives frequently encounter challenges such as inadequate funding, the emergence of illicit economies, and the difficulty of providing meaningful livelihoods in contexts where the formal labor market is weak.

Another pivotal term in the peacebuilding lexicon is security sector reform (SSR), which overlaps with institutional reform but has a specific focus on the transformation of policing, military, and intelligence services. SSR aims to align security institutions with democratic norms, ensuring they are accountable, transparent, and respectful of human rights. In Afghanistan, post-2001 SSR efforts included the creation of the Afghan National Police, accompanied by extensive training on community policing. The challenges in SSR are manifold: Entrenched patronage, corruption, and the risk of creating security forces that are perceived as tools of a particular political faction rather than national protectors.

The concept of human security expands the traditional notion of security beyond the protection of state borders to include economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community, and political dimensions. Human security emphasizes the welfare of individuals and communities, making it a useful framework for evaluating peacebuilding outcomes. For instance, the post-genocide reconstruction in Rwanda included massive investments in health infrastructure and education, reflecting a human-security approach. Critics argue that the broad scope of human security can dilute focus and make it difficult to prioritize interventions.

In the realm of international law, the term universal jurisdiction refers to the principle that certain crimes—such as genocide, torture, and crimes against humanity—are so grave that any state may prosecute the perpetrators, regardless of where the crimes were committed. Universal jurisdiction has been invoked in cases such as the arrest of former Chilean dictator Augusto Pinochet in the United Kingdom on a Spanish warrant. While universal jurisdiction can serve as a tool for accountability when domestic systems fail, it also raises diplomatic tensions and questions about the politicization of prosecutions.

A related legal instrument is the principle of complementarity, which guides the relationship between national courts and the ICC. Complementarity holds that the ICC will intervene only when national jurisdictions are unwilling or unable to prosecute. This principle encourages domestic capacity-building

while preserving the ICC's role as a court of last resort. The complementarity principle was tested in the case of Kenya's post-election violence in 2007-2008, where the ICC's involvement prompted Kenyan authorities to initiate domestic prosecutions. The interplay between national and international mechanisms illustrates the delicate balance required to ensure both effective justice and respect for sovereignty.

Victim-centered approaches have become a cornerstone of contemporary transitional justice practice. Rather than treating victims as passive recipients of state-led programs, victim-centered models actively involve survivors in the design, implementation, and evaluation of justice mechanisms. This may include participatory budgeting for reparations, survivor representation on truth commission panels, and the inclusion of victim impact statements in criminal trials. The Colombian peace process, which incorporated victims' voices into the Special Jurisdiction for Peace (JEP), exemplifies a victim-centered design. Nonetheless, ensuring meaningful participation can be hampered by literacy barriers, trauma, and the fear of retaliation.

The term restorative justice describes a philosophy that emphasizes repairing the harm caused by criminal behavior through inclusive dialogue among victims, offenders, and community members. Restorative mechanisms such as community circles, truth-telling sessions, and mediated apologies aim to restore relationships rather than solely punish. The Gacaca courts in Rwanda incorporated restorative elements by encouraging confession, apology, and community service. While restorative justice can foster reconciliation, critics warn that it may lead to "justice without punishment" if not carefully balanced with accountability.

In the field of peacebuilding, the concept of statebuilding refers to the process of constructing effective, legitimate, and inclusive state institutions after conflict. Statebuilding includes establishing rule of law, fiscal management, service delivery, and democratic governance. The United Nations' "Peacebuilding Commission" was created to coordinate international support for statebuilding initiatives. In Liberia, post-civil war statebuilding efforts focused on rebuilding the Ministry of Finance, reforming the electoral commission, and strengthening the judiciary. Statebuilding is often contested, as external actors may impose models that clash with local traditions, leading to resistance and the perception of neo-colonialism.

A crucial term related to both transitional justice and peacebuilding is social cohesion. Social cohesion refers to the strength of relationships and the sense of solidarity among members of a society. It is a key indicator of a society's capacity to manage diversity and conflict. Programs that promote inter-ethnic dialogue, joint economic ventures, and shared cultural activities aim to enhance social cohesion. However, measuring social cohesion is complex, and interventions risk being superficial if they do not address underlying structural inequalities.

The notion of gender-sensitive justice highlights the importance of recognizing and addressing the distinct experiences of women and men in conflict. This includes acknowledging sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) as war crimes, ensuring women's participation in peace negotiations, and providing gender-specific reparations. The International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) was pioneering in prosecuting rape as a component of genocide, establishing jurisprudence that later informed the ICC's Rome Statute definition of

SGBV. Gender-sensitive approaches also confront barriers such as patriarchal norms, stigma, and limited access to legal representation.

A related concept is children's rights in post-conflict societies. Children may be victims, child soldiers, or witnesses, and their needs require special protection. International instruments such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and its Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict provide normative guidance. Programs that focus on demobilization of child soldiers, psychosocial support, and reintegration into education systems are essential components of a comprehensive peacebuilding strategy. The reintegration of former child soldiers in Sierra Leone, which included schooling and vocational training, demonstrates the potential for successful outcomes when child-focused interventions are prioritized.

The term memory politics refers to the contested ways societies remember past conflicts and atrocities. Memory politics shapes narratives, monuments, curricula, and public commemorations, influencing how future generations understand history. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, divergent memory politics between Bosniak, Serb, and Croat communities have hindered the creation of a shared historical narrative, contributing to ongoing political fragmentation. Conversely, the establishment of the Kigali Genocide Memorial in Rwanda serves as a focal point for collective remembrance and education, reinforcing a national commitment to "never again." Memory politics can be a source of tension when dominant groups attempt to suppress or rewrite uncomfortable aspects of the past.

Reparative justice is a term that emphasizes the restorative dimension of justice, focusing on compensating victims and rebuilding trust. It is closely linked with reparations but also encompasses broader societal measures such as public apologies, commemorative events, and institutional acknowledgments of responsibility. The German "Stolpersteine" project, which places brass plaques in front of homes of Holocaust victims, is an example of reparative justice that integrates memory into everyday spaces. The effectiveness of reparative justice depends on the sincerity of the gestures, the adequacy of material compensation, and the participation of affected communities.

The concept of transitional justice mechanisms can be categorized into four pillars: Truth-seeking, accountability, reparations, and reform. Each pillar is interdependent, and neglecting one can undermine the overall effectiveness of the transitional justice agenda. For instance, a truth commission that fails to recommend institutional reforms may leave the structures that enabled abuses untouched, while prosecutions without reparations may alienate victims who feel their suffering is unaddressed. The "four-pillar" framework provides a diagnostic tool for policymakers to assess the comprehensiveness of their transitional justice strategies.

In addition to these core terms, several auxiliary concepts are essential for a nuanced understanding of transitional justice and peacebuilding. "Hybrid tribunals" combine international and domestic judges and apply both international law and national procedural rules. The Special Court for Sierra Leone, which tried former rebel leader Charles Taylor, exemplifies a hybrid tribunal that sought to bridge the gap between

global standards and local legitimacy. Hybrid tribunals can enhance local ownership but may also face challenges related to differing legal cultures and resource constraints.

The notion of “non-governmental organization” (NGO) participation is pivotal. NGOs often provide technical expertise, advocacy, and support services for victims. Organizations such as Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International, and local civil-society groups have documented abuses, lobbied for accountability, and assisted in the design of reparations programs. However, the involvement of NGOs can be politicized, and their access to conflict-affected areas may be restricted by authorities wary of external scrutiny.

Another critical term is “victim-state relationship,” which examines how states engage with victims through policies, legal frameworks, and symbolic acts. A positive victim-state relationship is characterized by trust, transparency, and responsiveness, while a strained relationship can exacerbate grievances and hinder reconciliation. The shift in South Africa from apartheid to democracy involved a conscious effort to rebuild the victim-state relationship through public apologies and the establishment of the TRC. In contrast, the failure of the Iraqi government to adequately address the grievances of the Sunni minority after 2003 contributed to renewed cycles of violence.

The term peace agreements denotes formal accords that outline the cessation of hostilities and the roadmap for political transition. These agreements often contain provisions for power-sharing, security arrangements, and transitional justice mechanisms. The 1995 Dayton Accords, for instance, included provisions for the establishment of the ICTY and the creation of a joint police force. The durability of peace agreements is frequently measured by the degree to which they incorporate inclusive processes, address root causes, and provide mechanisms for monitoring compliance.

A related term is “implementation mechanisms,” which refer to the institutional structures and processes established to carry out the provisions of peace agreements and transitional justice initiatives. Implementation mechanisms may include joint commissions, monitoring bodies, and reporting mandates. In the case of the Colombian peace process, the “Verification Commission” was tasked with overseeing the disarmament of the FARC and the reintegration of former combatants. Weak implementation mechanisms can render even the most comprehensive agreements ineffective, leading to a resurgence of conflict.

The concept of post-conflict reconstruction encompasses the rebuilding of physical infrastructure, institutions, and social fabric after the cessation of violence. Reconstruction projects may involve housing, schools, hospitals, and transportation networks. While reconstruction can generate economic growth and improve living standards, it also carries the risk of reinforcing existing power hierarchies if resources are allocated in a patronage-driven manner. The post-World War II Marshall Plan is often cited as a successful reconstruction effort that also promoted political stability and integration.

In the sphere of economic dimensions, the term conflict-sensitive development describes development initiatives that are designed to avoid exacerbating existing tensions and to contribute to peace. Conflict-sensitive approaches require thorough conflict analyses, stakeholder mapping, and the integration

of peacebuilding objectives into project design. For example, agricultural development programs in the Democratic Republic of Congo that provide land to both formerly warring groups aim to create shared economic interests that reduce incentives for renewed fighting. However, misaligned incentives or exclusionary practices can inadvertently fuel competition and resentment.

An essential theoretical framework is the “responsibility to protect” (R2P), which asserts that the international community has a duty to intervene when a state fails to protect its population from mass atrocities. R2P comprises three pillars: The responsibility to prevent, the responsibility to react, and the responsibility to rebuild. While R2P is primarily a doctrine for preventing genocide and large-scale crimes, it also informs post-conflict reconstruction and transitional justice by emphasizing the need for rebuilding societies after intervention. The NATO intervention in Kosovo in 1999, justified under R2P, raised debates about the legitimacy of external military action and the subsequent obligations for justice and reconstruction.

The term “peacebuilding architecture” refers to the institutional framework that coordinates international and domestic actors involved in post-conflict reconstruction. This architecture typically includes UN agencies, regional organizations, donor governments, and NGOs. Effective coordination within this architecture is crucial to avoid duplication, ensure resource efficiency, and align strategies. The establishment of the United Nations Integrated Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) demonstrated a coordinated peacebuilding architecture that combined security, governance, and development components. Nonetheless, coordination challenges often arise due to divergent mandates, competing priorities, and bureaucratic inertia.

A practical challenge frequently encountered in both transitional justice and peacebuilding is the issue of “sequencing.” Sequencing concerns the order in which various interventions are implemented. For instance, should prosecutions precede truth-seeking, or should reconciliation processes be initiated before institutional reforms? The sequencing debate is context-specific; in some settings, immediate prosecutions may destabilize fragile peace, while in others delayed justice can erode public confidence. The “sequencing matrix” developed by scholars provides a tool for policymakers to assess the optimal timing of interventions based on factors such as security, political will, and victim preferences.

Another critical challenge is “resource mobilization.” Transitional justice and peacebuilding initiatives are often resource-intensive, requiring financial, human, and technical capacities. Funding may come from domestic budgets, international donors, or a combination of both. Donor fatigue, competing crises, and the need for long-term commitment can impede resource mobilization. The establishment of a dedicated “reparations fund” in Bosnia and Herzegovina, financed by international contributions, illustrates a successful approach to securing resources for victim compensation. However, delays in disbursement and bureaucratic hurdles can diminish the impact of such funds.

The term “political will” captures the necessity of commitment from national leaders and elites to pursue transitional justice and peacebuilding agendas. Political will can be influenced by domestic public opinion,

international pressure, and the strategic interests of ruling elites. In post-authoritarian contexts, leaders may fear that confronting past crimes could threaten their own legitimacy or expose them to legal jeopardy. Conversely, a strong political will can accelerate reforms, as seen in the rapid implementation of security sector reforms in post-Easter bombing Norway, driven by a societal consensus to prevent future attacks.

The concept of “local ownership” stresses that sustainable peacebuilding and justice processes must be anchored in the cultural, social, and political realities of the affected society. Local ownership involves the participation of community leaders, civil-society groups, and victims in decision-making. It enhances legitimacy and ensures that interventions are responsive to local needs. The “localization agenda” promoted by the UN in 2018 emphasizes shifting power and resources to local actors. Nevertheless, achieving genuine local ownership can be complicated by fragmented societies, power imbalances, and the risk of elite capture.

In the realm of legal doctrines, the term “command responsibility” holds military and civilian superiors accountable for crimes committed by subordinates when they knew or should have known about the violations and failed to prevent or punish them. This principle was articulated in the Nuremberg Trials and later incorporated into the statutes of international tribunals. Command responsibility is crucial for addressing systematic abuses and ensuring that accountability reaches higher echelons of power. The conviction of former Bosnian Serb general Ratko Mladić by the ICTY for genocide and war crimes underscores the application of this doctrine.

A complementary principle is “due process,” which guarantees fair procedural rights for the accused, including the presumption of innocence, the right to counsel, and the opportunity to confront evidence. Due process is essential for the legitimacy of both domestic prosecutions and international tribunals. However, in post-conflict environments, ensuring due process can be challenging due to weak judicial capacities, security concerns, and the need for swift justice. Balancing expediency with procedural safeguards remains a persistent tension.

The term “victim-perpetrator dialogue” denotes structured interactions between survivors and those who committed abuses. Such dialogues aim to foster empathy, acknowledgment, and, in some cases, forgiveness. The “Witsuwit'en” community in Canada, which facilitated dialogues between residential school survivors and former officials, exemplifies this approach. While dialogues can be therapeutic, they also risk re-victimizing participants if not carefully facilitated and may be perceived as coercive if participation is not truly voluntary.

A related concept is “restorative circles,” which are community-based gatherings that bring together victims, offenders, and community members to discuss the impact of the crime and agree on reparative actions. Restorative circles have been employed in the Gacaca courts in Rwanda, where they served as a platform for confession, apology, and community service. The effectiveness of restorative circles depends on the willingness of participants to engage openly, the presence of neutral facilitators, and the alignment with broader legal frameworks.

The term “memory institutions” refers to museums, archives, memorial sites, and educational programs that preserve and disseminate knowledge about past atrocities. Memory institutions play a vital role in shaping collective narratives, fostering remembrance, and providing evidence for truth-seeking processes. The Holocaust Museum in Washington, D.C., And the Srebrenica Memorial in Bosnia are examples of institutions that serve both educational and commemorative functions. Challenges include ensuring inclusive representation, avoiding politicization, and maintaining financial sustainability.

In the context of peacebuilding, the term “economic integration” describes policies that promote cross-border trade, investment, and labor mobility as a means to reduce incentives for conflict. Economic integration can create shared interests that make war less attractive. The European Union’s expansion into Eastern Europe, accompanied by structural funds and market access, is often cited as a successful case where economic integration contributed to stability. Nonetheless, integration can also exacerbate inequalities if benefits are unevenly distributed, leading to new grievances.

A further term is “social justice”, which emphasizes the equitable distribution of resources, opportunities, and rights within a society. Social justice is a cornerstone of durable peace, as socioeconomic disparities often underlie conflict. Programs that address land reform, access to education, and health services aim to promote social justice. In post-apartheid South Africa, land restitution and affirmative action policies were introduced to redress historic injustices, though implementation difficulties have sparked ongoing debates about fairness and effectiveness.

The concept of “collective memory” addresses how groups as a whole recall and interpret past events. Collective memory shapes identity, informs political discourse, and influences intergroup relations. In the Balkans, competing collective memories of World War II and the Yugoslav wars have been instrumentalized by nationalist leaders to mobilize support, often at the expense of reconciliation. Understanding collective memory is essential for designing interventions that do not inadvertently reinforce divisive narratives.

A related term is “historical revisionism”, which involves the reinterpretation of historical events, sometimes to downplay or deny atrocities. While revisionism can be a legitimate scholarly activity, it can also be weaponized to legitimize extremist ideologies. The denial of the Armenian Genocide by some governments exemplifies how historical revisionism can hinder accountability and impede peacebuilding. Countering revisionism requires robust documentation, education, and the promotion of factual narratives.

In the field of conflict analysis, the term “structural violence” denotes systemic forms of harm embedded in social, economic, and political institutions. Structural violence can manifest as chronic poverty, discrimination, or lack of access to healthcare, and it often fuels grievances that lead to armed conflict. Recognizing structural violence is crucial for designing peacebuilding programs that address root causes rather than merely treating symptoms. The post-Soviet transition in Central Asia, where unequal land distribution and corruption contributed to unrest, illustrates the relevance of this concept.

The term “transitional governance” refers to interim political arrangements that guide a country from

conflict or authoritarian rule toward democratic governance. Transitional governance may involve power-sharing agreements, provisional constitutions, and transitional legislative bodies. The Transitional Government of National Unity in Liberia (2003–2006) is an example where former warring factions shared executive authority to stabilize the country while preparing for elections. Transitional governance structures must balance inclusivity with effectiveness to avoid paralysis.

A specific procedural tool is the “special jurisdiction”, which establishes courts or tribunals with limited temporal and geographic jurisdiction to address particular categories of crimes. Special jurisdictions can be national (e.G., The Argentine “Trial of the Juntas”) or hybrid (e.G., The Special Court for Sierra Leone). These mechanisms enable focused accountability while sometimes avoiding the broader political sensitivities associated with full-scale international tribunals. However, special jurisdictions may face criticism for limited scope, potential bias, or insufficient resources.

The term “peace education” encompasses curricula and pedagogical approaches that teach conflict resolution, tolerance, and democratic participation in schools and community settings. Peace education seeks to cultivate a culture of non-violence and critical thinking among youth. Programs such as “Education for Peace” in post-war Colombia integrate lessons on human rights, democratic values, and the history of the conflict. Effective peace education must be context-sensitive, inclusive, and supported by teachers trained in conflict-sensitive pedagogy.

In the realm of humanitarian response, the concept of “humanitarian-development-peace nexus” highlights the interdependence of emergency aid, long-term development, and peacebuilding. The nexus approach advocates for coordinated strategies that transition from immediate relief to sustainable development while preventing the recurrence of violence. The “Nexus” initiative in the Syrian conflict, which aims to align humanitarian assistance with reconstruction and governance reforms, exemplifies this integrated perspective. Implementing the nexus requires overcoming institutional silos, aligning funding streams, and ensuring that humanitarian principles are not compromised by political objectives.

A final term to consider is “justice-peace nexus”, which examines the relationship between accountability mechanisms and the achievement of peace. Scholars debate whether robust prosecutions promote peace by deterring future crimes, or whether they jeopardize peace by alienating powerful groups. Empirical studies suggest that the nexus is context-dependent: In some settings, such as post-genocide Rwanda, a mix of limited prosecutions, truth-telling, and extensive reparations contributed to a relatively stable peace. In other contexts, like post-civil war Lebanon, the emphasis on impunity through a “no-blame” approach has been linked to recurring political crises. Understanding the justice-peace nexus is essential for designing policies that balance the imperatives of accountability and stability.

These terms and concepts form the lexical foundation for analyzing and implementing transitional justice and peacebuilding strategies in the advanced study of war crimes and justice. Mastery of this vocabulary enables practitioners to navigate the complex interplay of legal accountability, victim empowerment, institutional transformation, and societal reconciliation. By applying these concepts to concrete case studies,

students can critically assess the successes and shortcomings of past interventions, anticipate potential obstacles, and design context-appropriate solutions that advance both justice and lasting peace.