

Decolonizing Reconciliation**WORD COUNT: 1185**

In the past twenty years, the term “reconciliation” has become central to addressing past collective injustices, primarily understood within a national context (United Nations, 2007; Amnesty International, 2012). Often presented as an alternative political solution to retributive justice and understood as providing a concerted means to stem further outbreaks of violence, early conceptualization of reconciliation was developed within the broader framework of peace studies, in the specialization of conflict transformation and transitional justice studies. However, critiques of reconciliation have led to questioning the assumption that such initiatives necessarily will lead to democratizing nation-building following civil unrest, revolutionary activity, and ethnic violence. These criticisms have generated further investigations into fundamental assumptions, such as the role of government, institutionalization and management of reconciliation initiatives, and ongoing power differentials between individuals and communities, that keep the scope of reconciliation programs to transform social dynamics in political check.

One of the seminal definitions of reconciliation is presented by Hizkias Assefa (1998) who places the term on a linear scale as a qualitatively distinguishable political alternative to conflict suppression. Within Assefa’s much cited definition is an elaboration of healing as it pertains to the need for political transformations of communities that have become divided by enduring conflict. Assefa argues that a causal association exists between reconciliation and conflict resolution, such that the former has a performative function in the long-term stability of the latter (Assefa, 1998; Bar-Tel & Bennink, 2004; Bailey, 1997; Minow, 1998; Hoddie & Hartzell, 2005). Concomitantly, Assefa’s definition of reconciliation extends the parameters around normative

and formal stipulations of reconciliatory measures so that they take into account the psycho-social consequences of legislating and enacting such procedures. Ultimately, the validity of Assefa's conceptualization can be tested in case studies of past and present reconciliation commissions.

Reconciliation is frequently understood within the framework of truth and reconciliation commissions (TRCs). Between 1974 and 2009 over 30 truth and reconciliation commissions were established, 20 of which had formed in the past ten years (Amnesty International, 2012; Hayner, 2011). Among the most notable was the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (SATRC), which initially was heralded a success for its court-like restorative justice proceedings, purportedly designed to put on fair trial, and in exchange for amnesty from criminal prosecution, those who perpetrated crimes against humanity either for or against the apartheid regime (Boraine, 2001; Hayner, 2011). Another key aim of the SATRC was to put the system of apartheid itself on trial (Boraine, 2001; Moon, 2008). Finally, the SATRC was the first to provide psychological support services nationwide in anticipation of acute trauma affects on those who provided testimonies to the commission (Hamber, 2009). Overall, the relatively peaceful proceedings of the SATRC is often referenced to substantiate the argument that developing nations could circumvent violent regime shifts in their bid to transition into a democratic, developed society (Daly & Sarkin, 2007; Minow, 1998; Lederach, 1997; Opatow, 2001; Saunders, 1999).

Despite and perhaps because of the perceived success of the South African TRC, the concept of reconciliation has been subjected to multiple critiques in the areas of psychology, sociology, law,

and in the interdisciplinary fields of critical race theory, cultural studies, and Indigenous studies. Over time, several limitations of the SATRC have been identified: (1) concern over the retraumatization of victims who give testimony (Hamber, 2009; Ross, 2003); (2) the ongoing systemic social and economic inequalities between different racial groups in a democratized republic of South Africa (Cuthbertson, 2008; Moon, 2008); (3) a xenophobic inability to accommodate new immigrants who are not affiliated with the history of apartheid (Neocosmos, 2006; Jefferess, 2008).

Post-colonial and critical race theorists have brought reconciliation practitioners and development theorists to task on broader political and cultural issues regarding both power inequalities in the construction of the global north versus the global south (Williams & Chrisman, 1994), the systemization of racism (Gilroy, 2000), and nationalism and nation-building following gross human violations (Mamdani, 2001). Bhabha and Spivak champion the notion that the most constructive critiques of nation-building occur in interstitial spaces and the subaltern, the “beyond” that exposes the structural and epistemic limits of advocating nationalism in post-conflict societies (Bhabha, 1994; Spivak, 1999; Razack, 2002). Spivak develops her discussion of the liminal in critiquing the construction of the “Third World” and the ongoing colonial ideologies that are presupposed in narrating the lives of the oppressed (Spivak, 1994). Mamdani and Gilroy take these arguments further in identifying the dangers of espousing ethnic, tribal, indigenous, and racial grounds for contesting colonial hegemony, and for instating culturally essentialist foundations for nation-building (Mamdani, 2001; Gilroy, 2000).

Scholars specializing in Aboriginal and Indigenous Studies have been examining the political impetus behind reconciliation initiatives in so-called “developed” nations (Henderson & Wakeham, 2009; Heath Justice, 2010; Short, 2008; Augoustinos, Lecouteur, & Soyland, 2002). In Australia and Canada, reconciliation has been taken up as a means to address systemic historical injustices, the Stolen Generation of Aboriginal People and the forced attendance of Indigenous children at Indian Residential Schools, respectively (Moses, 2011; Short, 2008; Attwood, 2005; The Truth & Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2010; Younging, Dewar, & DeGagné, 2009; Castellano, Archibald, & DeGagné, 2008; Milloy, 1999; Haig-Brown, 1988).

First endorsed heavily by Archbishop Desmond Tutu during the SATRC (Boraine, 2001; Favazza, 2002), the terms “truth” and “forgiveness” have been interlinked with reconciliation and consequently debated in South African, Australian and Canadian contexts (Dwyer, 1999; Augoustinos, Lecouteur, & Soyland, 2002; Moses, 2011). Scholars argue that undue demands are placed upon the victim or oppressed to forgive the aggressor or oppressor for past injustices, simply because the aggressive party has apologized for collective wrongdoings (Rasmussen, 2001; Augoustinos, Lecouteur & Soyland, 2002). Aboriginal and Indigenous scholars maintain that the centrality of truth and apology in reconciliation discourse and in society leads to the marginalization of critical enquiry into larger systemic considerations, such as: (1) the politics of recognition and Indigenous identity (Coulthard, 2007; Heath Justice, 2010; Short, 2008); (2) the prolongation of colonialism in settler societies (Armstrong, 2012; Regan, 2010; Attwood, 2005); (3) reconciliation in relation to memory and the erasure of traumatic pasts (Opatow, 2001; Cuthbertson, 2008; Rasmussen, 2001); and (4) existing socio-political tensions and allegiances

between Indigenous people and other oppressed groups (Mathur, Dewar, & DeGagné, 2011; Mawani, 2009; Henderson & Wakeham, 2009).

In the Canadian context, political reconciliation (Schaap, 2005; Moon, 2008) is advocated as a method for bringing together post-colonial and Indigenous ideas that promote cultural, social, institutional, and legal transformations of a society (Castellano, Archibald, & DeGagné, 2008), which hinge upon political resistance to systemic oppression (Jefferess, 2008; Miki, 2004; Kin-Gagnon, 2000). Framed in relation to the redressing of other past collective wrongs such as the Chinese Head Tax (Dyzenhaus & Moran, 2005; Mawani, 2009) and internment of Japanese Canadians (Miki, 2004; Henderson & Wakeham, 2009), critiques of reconciliation are creating new avenues for challenging the political and epistemological privileging of knowledge. They build upon conversations between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal communities that invert power relationships in education (Castellano, Archibald, & DeGagné, 2008; Haig-Brown, 1988), sociology (Tuhiwai-Smith, 1999), literature (Armstrong, 2012; McCall, 2011), the visual arts (Townsend-Gault, 2004; Mathur, Dewar, & DeGagné, 2011), and media studies (Cubitt, 2008).

Key Questions That Guide My Research

As reconciliation moves beyond the context of being a possible solution for developing nations attempting to transform into democratic and capitalist societies, a number of important critical questions with respect to its political purpose have been raised:

1. What is the function of reconciliation in countries that are not facing imminent civil war or escalation of nationwide conflict?

2. Is nation-building necessary for uniting divided societies? If so, are reconciliation programs the best means to achieve national reunification?
3. In states identified as ‘developed nations’, what are some of the tacit socio-political goals of those in charge of instituting and institutionalizing a program of reconciliation?
4. What are the political and epistemological shelf lives of reconciliation as a political concept and alternative to criminal justice? What comes after reconciliation?

Decolonizing Reconciliation Reading List

Seminal Conceptualization of Reconciliation

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