

North Brunswick Model United  
Nations Conference 2026  
**Crisis Committee: Rwandan  
Genocide**



Chair: Akshita Thakur

Crisis Directors: Katherine Chedid and Ayaan Lodhie

Crisis Analysts: Sachi Shah, Kyle Sehgal, Bhavana Bharadwaj, and Netanya Srivatsan

Co-Chairs: Araina Kotian and Fayyaz Sathakkathulla



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## Letter to the Delegates

Dear Delegates,

Welcome to the sixth annual North Brunswick Township High School Model United Nations Conference! My name is Katherine Chedid and I will be your crisis director for this committee. I am a junior here at NBTHS and joined Model UN my freshman year. Aside from MUN, I enjoy playing lacrosse and spending time with family and friends. Your crisis co-director will be Ayaan Lodhie, a sophomore at NBTHS who also joined MUN his freshman year. He likes playing ice-hockey in his free time. One of your crisis analysts will be Sachi Shah, who is a junior at NBTHS; she also joined MUN in her freshman year. Other than being a part of MUN, she enjoys baking. Another one of your crisis analysts will be Kyle Sehgal, who joined MUN his freshman year. Outside of MUN, Kyle enjoys playing tennis and spending time with his family and friends. Another crisis analyst is Bhavana Bharadwaj, a freshman at NBTHS who joined MUN in her freshman year. She's a member of the school's marching band and enjoys listening to music. Another crisis analyst is Netanya Srivatsan. She is a freshman at NBTHS and joined MUN this year. She is a member of the school's chamber orchestra, Speech and Debate Club, and participated at CJMEA for choir. Outside of school, she likes to read.

My name is Akshita Thakur and I will be your crisis chair. I am a junior here at NBTHS and started MUN my freshman year. Besides MUN, I love dancing, reading, and traveling. One of your crisis co-chairs will be Araina Kotian, who joined MUN her freshman year. Outside of MUN, Araina is a competitive swimmer and dancer who enjoys reading and watching movies in her free time. Another one of your crisis co-chairs will be Fayyaz Sathakkathulla, who joined MUN his freshman year. Outside of MUN, he enjoys playing volleyball and reading.

As this is a crisis committee, it is expected that delegates will come prepared and motivated to debate over the topics addressed in this background guide as well as any crisis updates or issues as a result of the actions of delegates that arise throughout the duration of the committee. Delegates are not expected to necessarily reenact the very actions that were taken by their assigned character; however, they are expected to represent them and are encouraged to be creative as well in order to make this committee interesting. We wish you all the best and look forward to seeing you at our conference in March!

Best Regards,

Katherine, Akshita, & Ayaan

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## Structure and Procedure

The committee will run on extended Moderated Caucus: the default shall be a Moderated Caucus with one minute speaking times. The chair will recognize delegates wishing to speak, and motions will be entertained after each speech has elapsed. For procedural matters, a simple majority of 50% + 1 will be required and each delegate must vote either in favor or against, no abstentions will be entertained. No pre-set time limits on speeches are established; this determination, as well as any other particulars of procedure, is left to the discretion of the committee or the chair, as appropriate. The chair shall have final authority on all procedural questions, and will occasionally entertain appeals.

The following are a list of standard procedures that all crisis committees must follow:

**Unmoderated Caucus** | The committee may choose to move into unmoderated caucus for a certain length of time, in which delegates may move freely about the room and speak to each other without direction from the Chair. However, it will be at the Chair's discretion to prohibit unmoderated caucus at certain times during committee.

**Point of Order** | A Point of Order may not interrupt a speaker, and can be raised when the delegate believes the rules of procedure have been violated. The chair will stop the proceedings of the committee and ask the delegate to provide warranted arguments as to which rules of procedure has been violated.

**Point of Personal Privilege** | A Point of Personal Privilege may be raised when a delegate's ability to participate in debate is impaired for any physical or logistical reasons (for instance, if the speaker is not audible). This point may interrupt a speech, and the dais will immediately try to resolve the difficulty.

**Point of Parliamentary Inquiry** | This point may be raised by a delegate who wishes to clarify any rule of procedure with the Chair. It may not interrupt a speaker, and a delegate rising to this point may not make any substantive statements or arguments.

**Point of Information** | As the name suggests, this point may be raised by a delegate to bring substantive information to the notice. It may not interrupt a speaker, and must contain only a statement of some new fact that may have relevance to debate. Arguments and analyses may not be made by delegates rising to this point. A point of information may also be used to ask questions of a speaker on the general speakers list.



Motions | Motions control the flow of debate. A delegate may raise a motion when the chair opens the floor for points or motions. Motion require a vote to pass. Procedural motions, unless mentioned otherwise, require a simple majority to pass.

Motion for Moderated Caucus | This motion begins a moderated caucus, and must specify the topic, the time per speaker, and the total time for the proposed caucus.

Motion for an Unmoderated Caucus | This motion moves the committee into unmoderated caucus, during which lobbying and drafting of resolutions may take place. It must specify the duration of the caucus.

Motion to Suspend Debate | This motion suspends debate for a stipulated amount of time.

Motion to Adjourn | This motion brings the committee's deliberation to an end, and is only admissible when suggested by the Chair.

Motion to Introduce Documents | A successful motion to introduce essentially puts the document on the floor to be debated by the committee. The sponsor of the document will be asked to read the document and then, if deemed appropriate, the Chair will entertain a moderated caucus on the topic.

Motion to Divide the Question | This motion may be moved by a delegate to split a document into its component clauses for the purpose of voting. This may be done when a delegate feels that there is significant support for some clauses of the document, but not for the complete document.

Motion for a Roll Call Vote | A delegate may move to have the vote conducted in alphabetical order.

Motion for Speakers For and Against | If it would help the proceedings of the committee, a delegate may motion for speakers for and against a document.

Amendments | After the first draft of a committee document has been introduced, delegates may move to amend particular clauses of the draft. If the amendment is supported by all the sponsors of the documents, it passes as a friendly amendment.

Committee Documents represent the product of the committee's deliberations and their collective decisions.

Directive | Directives are standard orders. All direct actions taken by this committee require a directive. Directives pass with a simple majority.

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Communiqué | Communiqués are formal communications (private by default) directed from the committee to other governments, individuals, or organizations. Committee communiqués pass by simple majority.

Press Release | Press releases express the sentiments of the committee (NOT individuals) on any issue. They require a simple majority to pass.

Between Delegates | Delegates can pass notes freely to other delegates within the committee or speak to other delegates during unmoderated caucus. However, talking during another delegate's speech is not permitted.

To the Chair/Dais | Delegates may also communicate with the Chair through notes. Delegates should feel free to write any questions or comments to the Chair that may improve the committee experience.

Members of the committee may take any of the following actions through private notes:

Between Delegates | Delegates should feel free to write personal notes to their fellow committee members. We ask that these notes pertain to the business of the committee.

To the Chair | Delegates may also write to the Chair with questions regarding procedural issues of the committee, as well as a wide range of personal inquiries. Delegates should feel free to write to the Chair on any issue that would improve the committee experience. This could range from a clarification of portfolio powers to substantive questions.

## Introduction

In the years before 1994, Rwanda appeared to be slowly moving toward a fragile peace as negotiations sought to unite the Hutu-led government and the Tutsi minority. However, this progress was broken by the murder of the Rwandan president when his plane was shot down, triggering the violence that would soon spread throughout the country. In the following days, the enduring ethnic tensions between Hutus and Tutsis, which most people had considered as manageable political disputes, flared up and led to the devastating genocide, which would cost over 1 million lives. Murder spread very quickly and consequently, civil order disintegrated and chaos reigned on the streets. Communities were fractured as neighbors turned against one another, and Rwanda descended into crisis. The militias that were aligned with the government as well as extremist groups, perpetrated mass atrocities, leaving the civil institutions left after the killings overwhelmed, and the population in terror. The international community was indecisive and divided; therefore, it was very difficult for them to give a prompt response. Meanwhile, the humanitarian crisis was getting worse by each hour.

The committee is also responsible for investigating the root causes and the factors leading to the genocide, apart from just being the first responders to the crisis in Rwanda. It is their duty to look at the political forces, the violence patterns, and the human suffering that have engulfed the country. Most of the delegates are determined to put an end to the violence and establish peace but there are dissenters who oppose these initiatives and have, in fact, escalated the conflict. Ultimately, the committee seeks to understand the tragedy in depth, think about the ways it might have been averted, and consider the role of the international community in stopping future genocides.

## History of the Problem

Before the arrival of European colonists, Rwanda existed as a monarchy under the mwami, or king. Their society consisted of Hutu farmers, Tutsi cattle herders, and the marginal Twa community (1%). The distinction between the classes was not clear, however; a Hutu could potentially gain wealth, cattle, or marry into the Tutsi class. The labels “Hutu” and “Tutsi” functioned mainly as a basic way to denote economic status.

The balance, however, began to change during the Scramble for Africa, at the Berlin Conference of 1884. Here, European powers convened to split Africa amongst themselves. The powers drew lines arbitrarily, often without consideration for the existing communities in the regions. Rwanda, like many other nations, was assigned to Germany. During their rule, Germany relied heavily on the existing monarchy and the Tutsi chiefs to administer control over the colony and collect taxes. Germany’s reign over Rwanda was relatively *short*; however, its heavy reliance

on the Tutsis enforced and empowered the authority of Tutsi high society over the Hutus, which gradually defined the previously indefinite lines between the two.

Following the events of World War I, Germany lost its colonies under the Versailles Treaty of 1919, which mandated the redistribution of its colonies among the Allied powers, or states allied with Serbia. In 1920, the League of Nations, a collective of nations much like today's UN was created as a result of the Versailles Treaty, for the purpose of preventing future war outbreaks. Rwanda was then made a League of Nations protectorate to be governed by Belgium under the League's mandate to oversee German and Ottoman colonies. Unlike the Germans, they proceeded to have a larger influence on Rwandan customs and society. Belgian colonial administrators, Catholic missionaries, and colonial ethnographers were largely influenced by the Hamitic Hypothesis, a prominent pseudo-scientific racial theory spread by works such as Charles Seligman's book *Races of Africa*. The theory suggested that African societies were civilized due to the influence and involvement of Caucasian/Hamitic individuals. Belgian officials used the hypothesis to justify the depiction of the Tutsi minority possessing a larger likeness to the ideal Eurocentric model than the Hutus, deciding that therefore, they should be treated preferentially. The belief translated to reality: Tutsis were given more privileges such as a better education, access to political roles, and eminent religious positions, while the Hutus were denied advancement and left with little influence, creating a wall of inequality.

In the 1930s, Belgium further solidified the differences between the classes by establishing IDs for every Rwandan, identifying them as either Tutsi, Hutu, or Twa. The previously indefinite categories were now permanent ethnic classes. The Tutsi now stood as the elite while Hutu and Twa resentment grew.

While the Tutsis basked in their glory, the majority Hutus were exploited under the colonial labor systems of uburetwa (forced agricultural labor) and ubuhake (a feudal system between the Tutsi patrons and Hutu clients).

Post World War II, as movements for decolonization and independence gained traction, the United Nations Trusteeship Council was formed to oversee and commence the decolonization of many existing colonies. As a result, Belgium was put under pressure by the body to proceed with preparations for Rwanda's independence. Now legally obligated to prepare Rwanda-Burundi for self-governance along with the rising principles of equality and freedom, Belgium had to reconsider the existing colonial hierarchy put in place by them. This unstable de-escalation of the hierarchy gave the space necessary for the Hutu counter-elite to form.

Approaching the 1950s, the Catholic church, originally an advocate for the Tutsi elite, began to shift its ideals. Observing the global shift towards democracy and equality, both missionaries and Belgian officials started to advocate for Hutu equality and inclusion. This led to the education of Hutus and eventually gave way to the Hutu emancipation movement. Schools led by the Church such as the Group Scolaire d'Astrida began to admit more Hutu students. The growing educated Hutu population is what came to be known as the Hutu counter-elite. This literate and politically aware group of people began to heavily resent the Tutsi power monopoly. The Catholic press and their newspaper *Kinyamateka* became an impactful outlet for early Hutu

voices. Some of these counter-elites created many of the political ideologies that would be used in the future for the Hutu movement. The Association de Bahutu (1957), led by Gregoire Kayibanda, Joseph Gitera, and Athanese Gatera, published a pivotal document: the Manifeste de Bahutu (Hutu Manifest) on March 24, 1957. The manifesto criticized and pointed out Tutsi dominance, calling it a “monopoly in the hands of the Tutsi” and called for political equality, representation, and the end of feudal subjugation. The growing momentum of the Hutu counter elite directly challenged the Tutsi dominance under King Mutara III Rudahigwa.

After King Rudahigwa passed away from a cerebral hemorrhage in mid-1959, many Tutsi chiefs—eager to gain quick independence—formed the Union Nationale Rwandaise Party (UNAR). Although the party supported the new king, Kigeli V, it remained separate from the weakening monarchy. UNAR called for the removal of whites and Christian missionaries and promoted a form of Rwandan nationalism centered on eliminating Western influence. These actions triggered the Catholic Church, though; they gained the support of the Communist Bloc, a group of Communist countries and elites seeking to expand their influence. The adverse and anti-West reactions gave the colonial government more than enough reason to limit UNAR's power; the Belgians promptly attempted to depose three prominent UNAR chiefs. At around the same time, Kayibanda's MSM, now one of the most well-known pro-Hutu political groups, registered as an official political party in Rwanda, renaming itself Parti du Mouvement de l'Emancipation Hutu (PARMEHUTU). Shortly after this, PARMEHUTU began mobilizing supporters across Rwanda in favor of establishing a Hutu state under the Belgian crown.

The Hutu Revolution (Rwandan Revolution) officially began on November 1, 1959, in the aftermath of severe violence directed at Tutsi communities. These attacks, although provocative, were caused by an attack on Hutu sub-chief and PARMEHUTU activist Dominique Mbonyumutwa by a group of nine UNAR youth members. Although sub-chiefs only had local jurisdiction and were much less influential than chiefs, this one act was extensively politically dramatized and outraged many Hutu communities. Hutu gangs were noted to be largely committing arson, though sometimes engaging Tutsi combatants. Many Tutsi sought refuge in Congo or Uganda, and some even defected to the Belgian authorities for protection, despite the active role of Belgium in supporting Hutu affairs. However, authorities numbered close to 300 at the start of the insurgency and proved insufficient in containing the Hutu extremists; Belgium called upon neighboring forces in Congo to intervene.

Severely constrained by the colonial government, King Kigeli V refused orders from the colonial resident André Prued'homme, a Belgian appointee tasked with overseeing the Tutsi monarchy, and mobilized loyal Rwandan militias in an effort to restore order. These forces proved insufficient against organized Hutu rebels and, despite possessing superior weaponry, suffered repeated setbacks, including clashes near the Save mission area, a center of Hutu political mobilization. The area was associated with Joseph Gitera, a prominent Hutu political figure who promoted anti-Tutsi rhetoric and later declined in political influence. Gitera was extremely popular at the time, though. His speeches riled many Hutu people in hopes of creating a new government, and eventually, pushed radical ideas targeting the Tutsi. Gitera successfully escaped

after intervention by Belgian authorities. These actions by Belgium led King Kigeli and UNAR to conclude that Belgium must withdraw immediately, whether by truce or force.

Eager to preserve the region's integrity and its standing on the global stage, Belgium brought in troops from the Congo. Among those brought in was Colonel Guy Logiest, a Catholic and firm believer in democracy. Logiest moved to support the Hutu majority, citing the aristocracy (though likely also fueled by UNAR's denunciation of Catholicism), and gave protection to PARMEHUTU leaders, who were now outraged by Tutsi actions and wanted them out of governance, a standpoint which was rapidly gaining momentum. Additionally, Logiest replaced more than half of Rwanda's Tutsi governance with Hutu, creating a first: the Hutu were now the majority of chiefs and sub-chiefs, many of whom were aligned with PARMEHUTU. However, Logiest promised that these positions would be temporary and that elections would come soon to form a republic. About a month after this political reorganization, Belgium granted Logiest power over King Kigeli V, creating a constitutional monarchy.

By 1960, elections were repeatedly postponed. This, along with several other factors, prompted the United Nations to assess Rwanda's progress to independence. Many political parties decided to host demonstrations, though they quickly developed into new bouts of violence and forced the UN delegation to declare the country unfit for an election. However, Belgium disagreed and finally hosted a democratic election in Rwanda, resulting in an overwhelming PARMEHUTU majority. Communal authorities took over the roles of chiefs and implemented racist policies similar to those of the earlier Tutsi regime, the key difference being that the policies now targeted the Tutsi. King Kigeli V, completely stripped of power, fled the country. Many Tutsi followed suit, defecting in an exodus to neighboring Zaire, Burundi, Uganda, and Tanzania.

The years that followed were marked by repeated violence against the Tutsi, while the Twa were also targeted for being perceived as politically moderate. Rwanda declared itself an independent nation in January 1961, with Kayibanda gaining full power on July 1st, 1962. Independence celebrations commonly disregarded the end of colonial rule and instead highlighted the power against the Tutsi. Kayibanda was also overthrown by one of his own military leaders, Juvénal Habyarimana, though the state of the country was barely affected. A coffee price collapse was one of Habyarimana's biggest threats, eventually leading him to reduce the National Budget which created civil unrest going into the 1980s.

While some neighboring countries initially treated Tutsi refugees less harshly, many Tutsi still remained marginalized and insecure. Rwandan Tutsi refugees in Uganda were increasingly persecuted under President Milton Obote's regime, during which they were accused by Obote of having collaborated with Idi Amin's regime, a charge that was then used to justify their exclusion and harassment. As a result, the Tutsi refugees in Uganda established the Rwandan Tutsi Refugees Welfare Organization in 1979 aimed at supporting the Tutsi communities that had been displaced by the war in Rwanda. The year 1980 saw the renaming of the organization to the Rwandan Alliance for National Unity (RANU), henceforth reflecting a political intervention as opposed to mere social support with the aim to politically unify Rwandan refugees around

common ground return and national inclusion. RANU's initial strategy of nonviolent political organizing led them to be disheartened by the endurance of their exile and the continuation of their persecution; therefore, some members resorted to the idea that only an armed struggle was the way out. Among those who decided to take up this line of action were Paul Kagame, Fred Rwigyema and the third one not mentioned here. Thus, they collaborated with the National Resistance Army (NRA), the rebel movement which sought to change the government of Uganda through violent actions, by firing up a war of insurgency that began on February 6, 1981, when the NRA struck; the Ugandan Bush War was started there. Most of the Tutsi refugees in Rwanda, and in particular, those who were already affiliated with the RANU, decided to support the NRA and thus, followed the insurgency endeavor led by the NRA. They did so not only to be able to survive but also to see the liberation of their country from the Tutsi repression that the Obote regime was perpetrating.

The NRA captured the Ugandan capital, Kampala, in 1986 and established a new government under Museveni. Kagame and Rwigyema, inspired by the NRA, began planning an attack on Rwanda, using their newfound senior officer positions in the Ugandan army to create a network of armed Tutsi. RANU eventually came to Kampala, now under minimal threat. The organization caught wind of the developing plans and renamed itself to the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), with Rwigyema eventually taking control of the organization. Kagame followed, taking the vice-presidency.

Rwanda's Habyarimana became aware of the increasing Tutsi threat and persuaded Museveni to lessen their overall power. Rwigyema and Kagame were eventually demoted, and noticing the jeopardy they were now in, decided in 1990 to enact their plans to invade Rwanda. Museveni also sent Kagame to the United States for military training; the RPF granted him leave over the threat of their plans' discovery.

On October 1st, 1990, the RPF invaded Rwanda with over 2500 soldiers. The government of Uganda claimed non-involvement and set up roadblocks to prevent more troops from entering or exiting Rwanda. The next day, Rwigyema was shot dead. It is largely unknown who fired, though there are many different accounts on the issue, with Museveni investigating and indirectly charging two individuals with the murder. RPF forces were greatly affected by this tragedy and suffered many losses, being pushed to the Ugandan border and losing all their gains. Rwanda formally announced the end of the war on October 30th, 1990.

Although Kagame had arrived back in Uganda during the war, he was unable to regain the RPF's standing. Kagame recognized the dire need to regroup and relocated most remaining RPF forces to the Virungas mountains, using friendships between old Ugandan military colleagues and a connection with Museveni. The mountains provided strategic camouflage; the Rwandan government would likely not have been able to find the RPF, and even if they were discovered, it would have been a challenge for Rwandan forces to eliminate the RPF presence. The remaining RPF troops served as decoys, preventing the Rwandan government from locating the majority of RPF forces and imprisoning them.

The Rwandan Civil War was supposed to end through the Arusha Accords, which was an agreement to have the Hutu-dominated government and Tutsi led Rwandan Patriot Front (RPF) share power. However, Hutu extremists opposed the agreement and feared losing power.

On April 6, 1994, a missile shot down the plane that was carrying Rwanda's President, Juvenal Habyarimana, a Hutu, as he was landing in the capital city of Rwanda, Kigali. His assassination marked the start of the genocide. Hutu extremists were originally thought to be responsible, but later there were allegations that RPF leaders were responsible. The identity of the person or group that fired upon the plane was never determined. Although, the assassination ended up being taken as a signal by extremist leaders of Rwanda's Hutu majority to wipe out the Tutsi minority. That night the organized killing of Tutsis and moderate Hutus began. The next day, Prime Minister Agathe Uwilingiyimana, who was a moderate Hutu, was assassinated and so were the 10 Belgian soldiers who were guarding her.

In the next few months after the assassination militia groups like the Interahamwe ("Those who attack together") and Impuzamugambi ("Those who have the same goal") led a lot of the violence across Rwanda. Around 200,000 Hutu participated in the genocide, with some being forced to by the Hutu militia groups. Radio broadcasts continued to fuel the genocide by encouraging Hutu civilians to kill Tutsi neighbors. Violence spread throughout the capital and country and in 100 days, 500,000 - 1,000,000 people were slaughtered. Following the institution of ethnic divisions between the Hutu, Tutsi, and Twa tribes, the Hutu developed a substantial resentment toward the now reinforced caste system, the hatred being strengthened by the sheer size of the ethnic group (80%+ of Rwanda's population). It would not be long before tensions broke.

### **Legal and Political Issues**

The term "genocide" was first coined by Raphael Lemkin, a Polish lawyer, who used it to describe the Holocaust during the second World War. The term has since been given slightly varying definitions by international bodies, however as per the 1948 United Nations (UN) Genocide Convention, the term is officially defined as "any acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group" and when the UN declares genocide, it refers to the acts committed by a person or group of people who meet the requirements stated under international law. When UN members meet at a convention and declare genocide, there are legal implications that must follow. All parties of the convention have an obligation to punish and prevent genocide, through the implementation of sanctions, international trials of war crimes, and sometimes, through the deployment of military troops, depending on the circumstances. Given that the term has legal duties associated with it, the United Nations typically refrains from using the designation until absolutely necessary. They instead refer to such situations as "atrocities" or "crimes against humanity", till the point where the damage is undeniable. The Rwandan Genocide is a scary example of the widespread destruction that can occur when the UN delays designation.

For over two months from the beginning of the systematic killing of the Tutsi population across Rwanda, members of the UN waited to officially acknowledge the case as genocide, despite the abundance of evidence collected by peacekeepers, journalists, and humanitarian organizations. Their reluctance was influenced by political fears, various national interests, and the understanding that the lawful use of the term "genocide" would force the member states to take action. The increase in violence and widespread massacres made the implications of failing to immediately recognize genocide even more prevalent; an absence of international response and the low capacity of UN intervention.

Before the genocide had begun, the UN had an established 2,500 peacekeeping troops in Rwanda through the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR), created by the UN Security Council. UNAMIR designated assistance in overseeing the implementation of the Arusha Peace Accords in ending the Rwandan Civil War. Instead of reinforcing the troops once the genocide had started, the Security Council voted to cut down the amount of troops to just 270 in April 1994. This was sanctioned in the view that the UN had yet to establish the events as "genocide", and as a result, thousands of Rwandans in UN Safe Zones were left deserted. By the time it was determined that the events were in fact genocide and the UN deployed troops, it was too late, and the majority of Tutsis were already killed. The question then arises, however, whether the implementation of peacekeeping troops would have been constructive help for the Tutsis, due to the limited powers of the UN? While the Peacekeeping Troops could protect and monitor the state of the nation, they could not authorize full-scale military operations to stop the genocide. In practice, this was a sense of false hope to the Rwandan people, as they were expecting protection that the UN simply could not provide. The peacekeepers also faced risks themselves; 10 Belgian soldiers were murdered on April 7th, 1994, at the beginning of the genocide. Various other nations engaged in aid to Rwanda once the genocide became official, however their missions often had faults that could be exploited. France's Operation Turquoise established a safe zone in Southwestern Rwanda, providing food, water, and supplies to many Tutsis fleeing persecution, however it also protected fleeing perpetrators from facing justice.

The media also played an important role in producing validative propaganda, either with the intention of inciting violence within people or silencing them. Within Rwanda, Radio Télévision Libre des Mille Collines (RTLM), a Hutu run radio station, fueled the fire of genocide. RTLM published dehumanizing caricatures and portrayals of Tutsis, calling them "*cockroaches*" and "*snakes*", and publicly gave out their names, addresses, and even hiding locations, inciting Hutus to find and kill them, and normalizing violence against them. Due to this, ordinary Hutu citizens were radicalized into killing. International media also contributed to the global response to the events. Many news outlets, such as BBC, CNN, and the New York Times, either delayed or downplayed the events in Rwanda, covering up the lack of action from governments. By softening the urgency of the events, the genocide continued without punishment. News organizations chose to focus on the plane crash that killed the President and the ongoing civil war, purposefully choosing not to publicize the mass extermination of Tutsis.

Hundreds of thousands of people were killed while the world watched, and attempts to deliver aid were often blunted by various challenges. Any workers that were stationed in the country (UN peacekeepers, NGOs (Red Cross, MSF)) were targeted by ‘kill on sight’ orders of local militias spread across the nation. Hospitals, schools, and other normal channels for aid distribution had either become massacre sites or had stopped functioning as per orders from the government. Established refugee camps were overcrowded, and diseases like Cholera, dysentery, and measles spread like wildfire. Being landlocked and mountainous, it was difficult for resources and aid to even reach Rwanda. People needed help, but it was incredibly challenging for it to be delivered safely.

Approximately 800,000 people were brutally killed, raped, tortured, and displaced in just 100 days. Following the end of the genocide, governments across the world worked together to hold perpetrators accountable for their actions. The UN Security Council established the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) in November 1994, based in Arusha, Tanzania. The ICTR tried high-level perpetrators, such as government officials and those behind the RTLM radio, for their heinous actions, delivering justice, and some form of closure, to the Rwandan people. The ICTR was the first international tribunal to convict people of genocide, and added rape as a crime against humanity and an act of genocide. In 2001, the Gacaca Courts were formed, as a part of the rebuilding of Rwanda’s justice system, and were a collection of community courts that housed over a million local trials, speeding up reconciliation and promoting truth telling. While both these attempts did serve justice to over 1 million combined perpetrators, in isolation, they were not as effective as they were designed to be. The ICTR was often extremely slow in convicting perpetrators, and thus, many went free, especially those who fled abroad. On the contrary, the Gacaca Courts were said to have prioritized speed over fairness of the people.

### **Topics of Debate:**

#### Containing the Violence

Ethnic violence has escalated rapidly across Rwanda, and the situation is so bad that the civilians are completely lost as to where to find safety or ways to protect themselves. Although some local leaders and peacekeepers have tried to calm down the situation, the population at large has not taken any steps toward de-escalation:

- Publicly, what instructions and protective measures should the people be following so that the risk of targeted violence is minimized?
- What can the government do to bring people together, while at the same time enforcing the need for self-control during times of collective terror and ethnic division?

- What actions should the committee take to not only limit the rising death toll but also to stop the spread of the organized killings?

### Humanitarian and Refugee Crisis

Killings have become more frequent and villages are burning, thus, the number of Rwandans without homes, has crossed the hundreds of thousands. People leave in search of shelter in the countries nearby and as a consequence, the border checkpoints and refugee camps get congested. The displacement has become the root of deep poverty and food shortage among which Tutsi civilians and moderate Hutus are the most affected as they are the ones who do not have access to shelter and protection. The committee should devise a plan to adequately accommodate the ever-increasing number of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs).

- What methods can be employed to ensure that those living in areas cut off from the outside world by violence have access to food, medical care, and shelter?
- International openness and collaboration can be helpful in mitigating the burden of Rwanda and its neighboring countries but how exactly can this be achieved?
- What kinds of emergency relief would be suitable for providing to the affected populations, if it is thought to be necessary?
- Could comprehensive relief measures lead to long-term dependence and worsen Rwanda's already volatile political situation?

### Protection of Vulnerable Groups & Peacekeepers

Genocide has become a turning point in the urgent need for the protection of vulnerable groups that consist of Tutsi civilians, moderate Hutus, journalists, aid workers, and UN peacekeepers. A good number of peacekeepers lack resources, have ambiguous mandates, and are threatened by armed militias and because of this, questions about their capacity to intervene arise. These people are the ones who should be given support and protection while the crisis is going on:

- What initiatives might be put into practice in order to give protection to both innocent people and those who intercede in the violence, that is, peacekeepers?

- How can the task force be helpful in overcoming the difficulties of lacking supplies, means of transport and staff to accomplish the safe evacuation or security of the deprived groups?
- In conformity with international law and peacekeeping mandates, what would be the proper conduct of peacekeepers in the face of systematic killing or threats against civilians?
- Mental health and trauma-support systems, if so, could they be useful and should they be put in place to help survivors, aid workers, and peacekeepers deal with the psychological consequences of the genocide?

### Future Planning

Though there is a crisis, it is also important that strategies are put in place to stop the continuation of mass atrocity or its recidivism in the future. It is essential to have plans in place in order to move on with the life, reconstruct Rwanda, and prevent the ethnic violence from happening again:

- What measures could be taken by Rwanda as well as by the international community in order to avert any genocides or mass violent acts in the future?
- What sorts of support, reconciliation programs, or institutional reforms would be most effective in not only regaining stability socially and politically, but also in facilitating the healing process?
- What were the major lessons taken from this humanitarian and political catastrophe?
- What could be the long-term effects of the genocide on Rwanda's political system, stability in the region, and the country's economic recovery?

## Character Positions:

1. **Agathe Kanziga Habyarimana:** Agathe Kanziga Habyarimana is a political personality of Rwanda, recognized for the influence she wielded within the "Akazu," the ultra-Hutu inner circle of power. As the First Lady (1973-1994), she enjoyed great social and political connections and was instrumental in the implementation of the policies that conferred more power on the Hutu factions. Up to the time of the crisis, she was still an influential figure in the government networks.
2. **Théodore Sindikubwabo:** Théodore Sindikubwabo was a Rwandan politician and doctor who was President of the Interim Government in 1994. Before that, he was a leader in the parliament and had been a public official for a long time. He took the reins after the death of President Habyarimana. His political career included national governance, public health, and regional administration.
3. **Jean Kambanda:** Jean Kambanda was a Rwandan politician who became Interim Prime Minister in 1994. Prior to being promoted to a high national office, he had a career in banking and local administration. During his leadership, he was instrumental in making national policy, coordinating security, and directing the state's response to the civil war.
4. **Théoneste Bagosora:** Théoneste Bagosora was a Rwandan army colonel and political advisor who was influential in the Ministry of Defense. He was a key player in the army planning and handling of national security issues. Besides, his power permeated government decision-making, administrative coordination, and crisis management during the early 1990s.
5. **Robert Kajuga:** Robert Kajuga was a Rwandan political organizer who held the position of National President of the Interahamwe youth militia. As the youth leader of the ruling party, he was efficient in mobilization, party outreach, and public messaging. Moreover, he was very well connected politically at the top level.
6. **Félix Kaputu:** Félix Kaputu was a local politician mentioned in the "genocide fax" sent by UNAMIR Commander Roméo Dallaire. Kaputu was an informant who alerted the UN to Hutu extremists' plans to organize the killing of Tutsis and moderate Hutus, and was ordered to register all Tutsis in Kigali. Dallaire requested permission to protect him, but was denied by UN headquarters.

7. **Aloys Ntabakuze:** Aloys Ntabakuze was a Rwandan army officer who was in charge of the highly decorated Para-Commando Battalion. He was at the helm of the Rwandan army in various capacities and was deeply involved in top-level security planning. His military career was mainly around tactical operations, force organization, and national defense strategies.
8. **Hassan Ngeze:** Hassan Ngeze was the Rwandan journalist and political activist most renowned as the founder and editor of Kangura, a newspaper that war-mongering Hutu Power polices. He was very active in public communication, political messaging, and the dissemination of government-aligned views. The work he did had a profound effect on the people's views across Rwanda.
9. **Agathe Uwilingiyimana:** Agathe Uwilingiyimana was the Prime Minister at the time of President Habyarimana's assassination. She was the legal successor to the presidency under the Arusha Accords, but the Hutu extremist crisis committee refused to recognize her authority.
10. **Paul Kagame:** Paul Kagame is a Rwandan military commander and political leader who was the head of the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) during the 1994 crisis. He was abroad trained and after that, he took up prominent roles in strategy, military operations, and political negotiations. After the war, he became the most important person in Rwanda's rebuilding and ruling.
11. **Fred Rwigyema:** Fred Rwigyema was a Rwandan military officer and a political organizer who initiated the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) in 1987. After his tenure in the Ugandan National Resistance Army, he was the one who led the first RPF incursion of Rwanda in 1990. His career was mainly about military leadership, refugee advocacy, and political mobilization among the Rwandan exiles.
12. **Patrick Mazimpaka:** Patrick Mazimpaka is a Rwandan political leader who played a major role in the Rwandan Patriotic Front as a high-ranking official. His main focus of work was the political affairs, diplomatic outreach, and organizational development. He was instrumental in the formation of RPF policy and international communication.
13. **Kayumba Nyamwasa:** Kayumba Nyamwasa is a Rwandan military officer and political figure that had Senior Command Positions in the RPF. The career of his was loaded with responsibility for field operations, strategic planning, and diplomatic coordination. Subsequently, he served in government roles that concerned security and international relations.
14. **Rosemary Museminali:** Rosemary Museminali is a diplomat and political representative from Rwanda who is associated with the RPF. She was engaged in public affairs, humanitarian coordination, and advocacy for the refugees and the victims of war. Her roles were mainly communication, international outreach, and policy development.
15. **Gen. Roméo Dallaire:** Roméo Dallaire is a Canadian Armed Forces member who was the Force Commander of the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR). A former Lieutenant-General, he is credited with leadership in peacekeeping, conflict

prevention, and international humanitarian efforts. The work he did was mainly coordination with local authorities and protection of civilians.

16. **Iqbal Riza:** Iqbal Riza is a diplomat from Pakistan who was the UN Assistant Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations during the Rwandan crisis. The major duties that he performed were overseeing the mission, policy direction, and strategic coordination among member states. His diplomatic career is comprehensive. It includes conflict management and international security.
17. **Jacques-Roger Booh-Booh:** Jacques-Roger Booh-Booh is a Cameroonian diplomat who served as the United Nations Special Representative for Rwanda. He was involved in the mediation process, political dialogue, and coordination with the both Rwandan government and the RPF. His diplomatic career revolves around the African regional affairs and negotiation.
18. **Mr. Jean, Bernard Mrime:** Mr. Jean, Bernard Mrime was the French diplomat who led the French delegation at the UN Security Council during the Rwandan Genocide. As the architect of France's diplomatic position, he was the main point of contact between France and the world's other powerhouses. Through his influence on the Security Council and in other multilateral institutions, he was integral to implementing the operations France wanted. Among his main tasks, he was engaging in diplomacy for the French,, shaping the activities of peacekeepers, and gauging the global reaction to the tragedy.
19. **Boutros Boutros-Ghali:** Boutros Boutros-Ghali was an Egyptian diplomat, he served as the United Nations Secretary-General from 1992 to 1996. During his tenure, he was responsible for global peacekeeping initiatives, international negotiations, and coordinating of humanitarian aid. His work was primarily about uniting the different parties in a conflict under one roof and resolving the conflict peacefully.
20. **Philippe Gaillard:** Philippe Gaillard was the delegate of the International Committee of the Red Cross to Rwanda during the Rwandan Genocide. He publicly denounced actions by extremist Hutu groups through releasing records he kept and swept the international community into recognizing the dire situation.
21. **Mark Doyle:** Mark Doyle was a Rwanda correspondent to the British Broadcasting Company during the Rwandan Genocide. He was instrumental in producing footage and coverage for the crimes and atrocities committed by Hutu extremists. Additionally, he was the only correspondent who stayed throughout the entire ordeal, gaining a powerful understanding of Rwandan politics along the way.
22. **Arlene Render:** Arlene Render was the United States Director of the Office of Central African Affairs during the Rwandan Genocide. Immediately following the onset of the violence, Render directed the department's efforts to resolving the genocide, including a personal visit to Rwanda. She was instrumental in the United States's small involvement.
23. **James Woolsey:** James Woolsey was the Director of Intelligence for the United States Central Intelligence Agency from 1993-1995. He presided over U.S. intelligence operations during a period of limited American engagement in Central Africa, as U.S.

foreign policy was heavily shaped by the fallout from Somalia. Despite these oversights, he still worked in the interest of National Security, though American failures in Somalia drove him out of the President's circle.

24. **Luc Marchal:** Luc Marchal was a 30-year experienced military officer when he was assigned to Rwanda. In addition to his vast combat knowledge, he had 5 years of experience in neighboring Zaire and served as the Chief of Staff to the Belgian Minister of Defense. Before Belgian troops were removed from Rwanda at the request of the Belgian Prime Minister, Marchal had worked alongside General Romeo Dallaire to keep peace.
25. **Jacques Lanxade:** Jacques Lanxade was the French Chief of Defense during the 1994 Rwandan Genocide. During the genocide, he reportedly received overwhelming reports of Tutsi annihilation, though still allegedly chose to work against the RPF instead of attempting to maintain peace. He oversaw Operation Turquoise, a UN mandated intervention that created a humanitarian zone in southwest Rwanda but remains controversial due to allegations that it indirectly enabled some perpetrators to flee into Zaire.

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