

Genocide:

As defined by international law in the *Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Genocide* (adopted by the United Nations in 1948 and enforced beginning in 1951)–

Article II: In the present Convention, genocide means any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group, as such:

(a) Killing members of the group; (b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group; (c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part; (d) Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group; (e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.

Punishable Acts

The following are genocidal acts when committed as part of a policy to destroy a group's existence:

Killing members of the group includes direct killing and actions causing death.

Causing serious bodily or mental harm includes inflicting trauma on members of the group through widespread torture, rape, sexual violence, forced or coerced use of drugs, and mutilation.

Deliberately inflicting conditions of life calculated to destroy a group includes the deliberate deprivation of resources needed for the group's physical survival, such as clean water, food, clothing, shelter or medical services. Deprivation of the means to sustain life can be imposed through confiscation of harvests, blockade of foodstuffs, detention in camps, forcible relocation or expulsion into deserts.

Prevention of births includes involuntary sterilization, forced abortion, prohibition of marriage, and long-term separation of men and women intended to prevent procreation.

Forcible transfer of children may be imposed by direct force or by through fear of violence, duress, detention, psychological oppression or other methods of coercion. The *Convention on the Rights of the Child* defines children as persons under the age of 14 years.

Genocidal acts need not kill or cause the death of members of a group. Causing serious bodily or mental harm, prevention of births and transfer of children are acts of genocide when committed as part of a policy to destroy a group's existence:

It is a crime to plan or incite genocide, even before killing starts, and to aid or abet genocide: Criminal acts include conspiracy, direct and public incitement, attempts to commit genocide, and complicity in genocide.

Key Terms

The crime of genocide has two elements: intent and action. "Intentional"

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means purposeful. *Intent can be proven directly from statements or orders. But more often, it must be inferred from a systematic pattern of coordinated acts.*

Intent is different from motive. *Whatever may be the motive for the crime (land expropriation, national security, territorial integrity, etc.,) if the perpetrators commit acts intended to destroy a group, even part of a group, it is genocide.*

The phrase "in whole or in part" is important. *Perpetrators need not intend to destroy the entire group. Destruction of only part of a group (such as its educated members, or members living in one region) is also genocide. Most authorities require intent to destroy a substantial number of group members -- mass murder. But an individual criminal may be guilty of genocide even if he kills only one person, so long as he knew he was participating in a larger plan to destroy the group.*

The law protects four groups - national, ethnical, racial or religious groups.

A **national group** means a set of individuals whose identity is defined by a common country of nationality or national origin.

An **ethnic group** is a set of individuals whose identity is defined by common cultural traditions, language or heritage.

A **racial group** means a set of individuals whose identity is defined by physical characteristics.

A **religious group** is a set of individuals whose identity is defined by common religious creeds, beliefs, doctrines, practices, or rituals.

Cambodian Genocide



What?

The Cambodian Genocide refers to the attempt of Khmer Rouge party leader “Pol Pot” to nationalize and centralize the peasant farming society of Cambodia virtually overnight, in accordance with the Chinese Communist agricultural model. This resulted in the gradual devastation of over 25% of the country’s population in just three short years.

Where?

Cambodia, a country in Southeast Asia, is less than half the size of California, with its present day capital in Phnom Penh. In 1953 Cambodia gained its independence from France, after nearly 100 years of colonialist rule. As the Vietnam War progressed, Cambodia’s elected Prime Minister Norodom Sihanouk adopted an official policy of neutrality. Sihanouk was ousted in 1970 by a military coup led by his own Cambodian General Lon Nol, a testament to the turbulent political climate of Southeast Asia during this time. In the years preceding the genocide, the population of Cambodia was just over 7 million, almost all of whom were Buddhists. The country borders Thailand to its west and northwest, Laos to its northeast, and Vietnam to its east and southeast. The south and southwest borders of Cambodia are coastal shorelines on the Gulf of Thailand.

When?

The actions of the Khmer Rouge government which actually constitute “genocide” began shortly after their seizure of power from the government of Lon Nol in 1975, and lasted until the Khmer Rouge was overthrown by the Vietnamese in 1978. The genocide itself emanated from a harsh climate of political and social turmoil. This atmosphere of communal unrest in Cambodia arose during the French

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decolonization of Southeast Asia in the early 1950s, and continued to devastate the region until the late 1980s.

Who?



Khmer Rouge Soldiers

Perpetrators

The Khmer Rouge guerrilla movement, founded in 1960, was considerably undermanned in its early days. The movement's leader, Pol Pot, was educated in France and was an admirer of "Mao" (Chinese) communism – Pol Pot envisioned the creation of a "new" Cambodia based on the Maoist-Communist model. The aim of the Khmer Rouge was to deconstruct Cambodia back a primitive "Year Zero," wherein all citizens would participate in rural work projects, and any Western innovations would be removed. Pol Pot brought in Chinese training tactics and Viet Cong support for his troops, and was soon successful in producing a formidable military force. In 1970, the Khmer Rouge went to civil war with the U.S. backed "Khmer Republic," under lieutenant-general Lon Nol. Lon Nol's government had assumed a pro-Western, anti-Communist stance, and demanded the withdrawal of North Vietnamese and Viet Cong forces from Cambodia. The Khmer Rouge guerillas were finally successful in deposing Lon Nol's government in 1975. Under Pol Pot's leadership, and within days of overthrowing the government, the Khmer Rouge embarked on an organized mission: they ruthlessly imposed an extremist program to reconstruct Cambodia on the communist model of Mao's China. It was these extremist policies which led to the Cambodian genocide.

Victims

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Cambodian Victims

In order to achieve the “ideal” communist model, the Khmer Rouge believed that all Cambodians must be made to work as laborer in one huge federation of collective farms; anyone in opposition to this system must be eliminated. This list of “potential opposition” included, but was not limited to, intellectuals, educated people, professionals, monks, religious enthusiasts, Buddhists, Muslims, Christians, ethnic Chinese, Vietnamese, Thai, and Cambodians with Chinese, Vietnamese or Thai ancestry. The Khmer Rouge also vigorously interrogated its own membership, and frequently executed members on suspicions of treachery or sabotage. Survival in Khmer Rouge Cambodia was determined by one’s ability to work. Therefore, Cambodia’s elderly, handicapped, ill, and children suffered enormous casualties for their inability to perform unceasing physical labor on a daily basis.

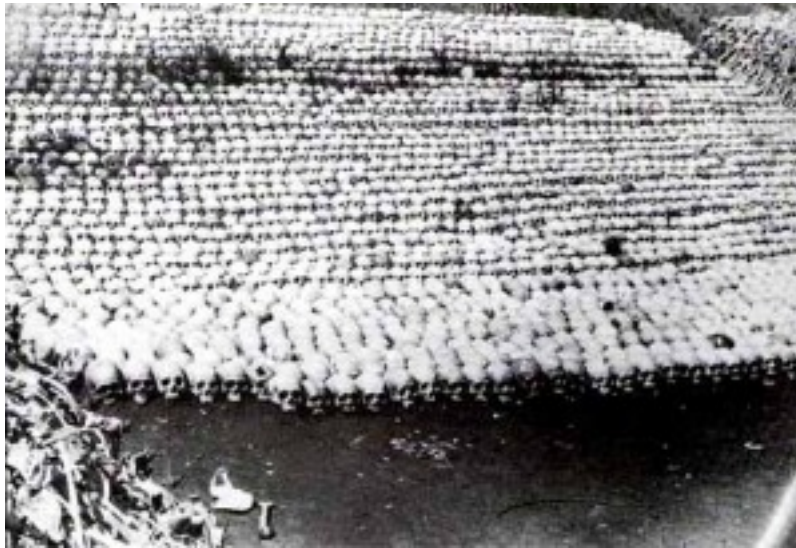
How?

At the onset of the Cambodian civil war in 1970, the neighboring country of Vietnam was simultaneously engaged in a bitter civil war between the communist North Vietnamese, and the U.S. backed South Vietnamese. Under the Khmer Republic of Lon Nol, Cambodia became a battlefield of the Vietnam War; it harbored U.S. troops, airbases, barracks, and weapons caches. Prior to the Lon Nol government, Cambodia had maintained neutrality in the Vietnamese civil war, and had given equal support to both opposing sides. However, when the Lon Nol government took control of Cambodia, U.S. troops felt free to move into Cambodia to continue their struggle with the Viet Cong. As many as 750,000 Cambodians died over the years 1970-1974, from American B-52 bombers, using napalm and dart cluster-bombs to destroy suspected Viet Cong targets in Cambodia. The heavy American bombardment, and Lon Nol’s collaboration with America, drove new recruits to Pol Pot’s Khmer Rouge guerilla movement. Many Cambodians had become disenchanted with western democracy due to the huge loss of Cambodian lives, resulting from the U.S.’s involving Cambodia in the war with Vietnam. Pol Pot’s communism brought with it images of new hope, promise, and national tranquility for Cambodia. By 1975, Pol Pot’s force had grown to over 700,000 men. Within days of the Khmer Rouge takeover of Cambodia in 1975, Pol Pot had put into motion his extremist policies of collectivization (the

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government confiscation and control of all properties) and communal labor.



Khmer Rouge Killing Fields

Under threat of death, Cambodians nationwide were forced from their hometowns and villages. The ill, disabled, old and young who were incapable of making the journey to the collectivized farms and labor camps were killed on the spot. People who refused to leave were killed, along with any who appeared to be in opposition to the new regime. The people from entire cities were forcibly evacuated to the countryside. All political and civil rights of the citizen were abolished. Children were taken from their parents and placed in separate forced labor camps. Factories, schools, universities, hospitals, and all other private institutions were shut down; all their former owners and employees were murdered, along with their extended families. Religion was also banned: leading Buddhist monks and Christian missionaries were killed, and temples and churches were burned. While racist sentiments did exist within the Khmer Rouge, most of the killing was inspired by the extremist propaganda of a militant communist transformation. It was common for people to be shot for speaking a foreign language, wearing glasses, smiling, or crying. One Khmer slogan best illuminates Pol Pot's ideology:

“To spare you is no profit, to destroy you is no loss.”

Cambodians who survived the purges and marches became unpaid laborers, working on minimum rations for endless hours. They were forced to live in public communes, similar to military barracks, with constant food shortages and diseases running rampant. Due to conditions of virtual slave labor, starvation, physical injury, and illness, many Cambodians became incapable of performing physical work and were killed off by the Khmer Rouge as expenses to the system. These conditions of genocide continued for three years until Vietnam invaded Cambodia in 1978 and ousted the Khmer Rouge government. To this point, civilian deaths totaled well over 2 million.

The Aftermath

Cambodia lay in ruins under the newly-established Vietnamese regime. The economy failed under Pol Pot, and all professionals, engineers, technicians and planners who could potentially reorganize Cambodia had been killed in the genocide. Since Cambodia had now fallen under Vietnamese (Communist) control, foreign relief aid from any western, democratic state was unlikely. Throughout the

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1980s, the U.S. and U.K. instead offered financial and military support to the Khmer Rouge forces in exile, who had now sworn opposition to Vietnam and communism. The Vietnamese occupation and the continual threat of Khmer Rouge guerilla forces preserved Cambodia in underdeveloped and prehistoric conditions- until Vietnam's eventual withdrawal in 1989. In the following military conflicts of 1978-1989, an additional 14,000 Cambodian civilians perished. In 1991, a peace agreement was finally reached, and Buddhism was reinstated as the official state religion. The nation's first true democratic elections were held in 1993.



Extraordinary Chambers in the Courts of Cambodia (ECCC)

On July 25, 1983, the “Research Committee on Pol Pot’s Genocidal Regime” issued its final report, including detailed province-by-province data. Among other things, their data showed that 3,314,768 people lost their lives in the “Pol Pot time.” Beginning in 1995, mass graves were uncovered throughout Cambodia. Bringing the perpetrators to justice, however, has proved to be a difficult task. The UN called for a Khmer Rouge Tribunal in 1994; the trials finally began in November of 2007, and are expected to continue through 2010. Many suspected perpetrators were killed in the military struggle with Vietnam or eliminated as internal threats to the Khmer Rouge itself. In 1997, Pol Pot himself was arrested by Khmer Rouge members; a “mock” trial was staged and Pol Pot was found guilty. He died of natural causes in 1998. The last members of the Khmer Rouge were officially disbanded in 1999. Currently, the state of affairs in Cambodia is relatively tranquil. Today, Cambodia’s main industries are fabrics and tourism; foreign visitors to Cambodia surpassed 1.7 million in 2006. However, the BBC reports that corruption remains a serious issue in Cambodian politics. International aid from the U.S. and other countries is often embezzled by bureaucrats into their private accounts. This illegal seizure of foreign aid has greatly added to the widespread income disparity which affects most Cambodian citizens today.

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Armenian Genocide



What?

Known also as the “Armenian Holocaust,” the “Great Calamity,” and the “Armenian Massacres,” the Armenian Genocide refers to the forced deportation and massacre of between 500,000 to 1.5 million Armenians during the First World War, in the Anatolian region of the Ottoman Empire (modern-day Turkey).

Where?

The Ottoman Empire existed in the Balkan region of the Middle East from 1300-1923. In the sixteenth century, the Ottoman conquest of Armenia and Cilicia brought the vast majority of the Armenian population under Ottoman rule. During the time of the genocide, the Ottoman Empire bordered Bulgaria and Greece in the west, the Mediterranean Sea in the south and southwest, the Black Sea in the North, Iraq and Syria in the Southwest, and the Russian empire in the East and Northeast. The topography of the region features a high central plateau (Anatolia), a narrow coastal plain, and several mountain ranges. The climate is hot and dry, with mild, wet winters.

When?

Concurrent with the Muslim dhimmi system, Armenians, as Christians, had always been treated as second-class citizens in the Ottoman Empire. Armenians were allowed the freedom to practice their faith; however, mass persecution of Armenian citizens was a regular occurrence. Moreover, the Armenians were often blamed for misfortunes which befell the Ottoman Empire. Many times, this resulted in rioting, burning of Armenian property, rape, and mass killing. Despite the history of Armenian demise in Anatolia, April 24, 1915, is commemorated as the official date for the unfolding of

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the “Armenian Genocide.” The bulk of the killing was carried during World War I, between the years of 1915 and 1918. The end of World War I in 1918 brought about a brief lull in the massacres- they could no longer be carried out under war-time concealment, and the world had been made aware to the Ottoman atrocities. However, after little more than a year of calm, the killings were renewed between 1920 and 1923 when the fledgling Armenian Republic was destroyed by a reinvigorated Turkish nationalist movement. The killings ended in 1923 when the newly founded Republic of Turkey was virtually free of all Armenians, and laws were enacted to prevent displaced Armenians from returning to their former homes.

Who?

Perpetrators

The “Young Turks” were a reformist and nationalist party, founded in the latter part of the 19th century, which became the dominant political party in Turkey during the period from 1908 to 1918. In 1908, the Young Turk Revolution deposed the previously ruling Ottoman monarchy of Sultan Abdul Hamid II, and as a result, brought about the gradual creation of a new governing elite, which had established its control over the Ottoman civil and military administration by 1913. It was also during this time that the Young Turks began to base their nationalist ideology on the new, pseudo-scientific race theories of Europe; the term “Ottoman” was to be replaced with “Turk.” What this meant for the Armenians, among other ethnic minorities in the Anatolian region, was that they were ethnically inferior to the superior Turkish race – much like the “inferior” Jews and gypsies in Nazi Germany. “The Three Pashas”, also known as the “dictatorial triumvirate,” were the dominant political figures of Ottoman Turkey during World War I. Following the war, the Pashas were held responsible for involving Turkey in the War, and the Armenian massacres were rendered as a consequence of their corruption. All three were tried in the Turkish Courts-Martial of 1919-20 and sentenced to death. However, the revival of Armenian killing in 1920 due to Greek insurgencies, suggests that the Armenian genocide was more reliant on widespread pan-Turkic ethnic and religious nationalism, rather than the responsibility of just a few individuals.



Armenian Victims

Victims

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The Armenians are an ancient people that have lived on the Armenian Plateau for more than 4,000 years. The Armenian homeland is located on the Armenian plateau, central and eastern Anatolia and southwestern Caucasia-in the highlands above Greater Syria and Mesopotamia to the south. Their continual presence in the Ottoman Empire came to an abrupt end when the Young Turk regime targeted the Armenians for their non-Turkic ethnicity, their Christian faith, and their alleged affiliation with Russia, the sworn enemy of the Ottoman Empire. As a result, the majority of the Armenian people were either killed outright or “ethnically cleansed” (removed by force) from their ancestral homeland; others escaped to neighboring countries, or remained in the newly established Soviet Republic of Armenia. According to the same pan-Turkic, nationalist ideology, ethnic Greeks and Assyrians were also targeted and massacred in the genocide.

How?

By 1914, Ottoman authorities had created an empire-wide propaganda piece in which Armenians were presented as backstabbers of Ottoman Nationalism, in league with the Russians, and a threat to state security. On the night of April 24, 1915, Ottoman authorities arrested 250 Armenian leaders and intellectuals at Constantinople. The Armenian people had no leadership, no governmental representation, and were left without defense to the Ottoman Turks. From May to September, 1915, legislations were enacted to discharge all Armenians from military service, to deport Armenian citizens out of the Anatolian region, and to sanction government confiscation of all Armenian land and property. The Ottoman military removed Armenians from their homes and forced them to march for hundreds of miles, without food or water, to the desert of modern-day Syria. Hundreds of thousands of people died on these forced marches. People were massacred indiscriminately: men and women, old and young. Mass shootings occurred at random. Pillaging, persecution, torture, rape and other sexual abuses were commonplace. Winston Churchill tactfully defined the massacres as an “administrative holocaust” when he said,

“...the clearance of (The Armenian) race from Asia Minor was about as complete as such an act could be... There is no reason to doubt that this crime was planned and executed for political reasons. The opportunity presented itself for clearing Turkish soil of a Christian race opposed to all Turkish ambitions.”

Hundreds of eyewitnesses, including government representatives of the United States, Germany, and Austria-Hungary, recorded and documented the state-sponsored massacres. Many foreign officials spoke out for the sake of the Armenians, including Pope Benedict XV, whose claims were rejected and denied by the Ottoman administration. The massacres continued under the cover of World War I, until the Ottoman Empire finally collapsed on October 30, 1918. Despite international awareness, an armed intervention to stop the genocide never occurred.

The Aftermath

Contemporary scholars estimate that as many as 1.5 million Armenians were killed in the genocide. There were also thousands of displaced Armenians, along with approximately 500,000 Assyrian deaths, and 350,000

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Armenian Victims

Anatolian Greek deaths. The displaced survivors were largely unable to return to their former homes, as their land and property now belonged to the new Turkish government, or the Soviet state of Armenia. The “Armenian Diaspora” is the most visible, contemporary effect of this disaster; of the estimated 9 million Armenians worldwide, almost 8 million live outside of the Armenian homeland in Anatolia. As the first genocide of the 20th Century, the Armenian Genocide served as a measuring stick for other instances of mass atrocity to come. Less than a decade later, The Armenian Genocide influenced Adolf Hitler- he often made references to the Ottoman onslaught. In a speech given prior to his invasion of Poland in 1939, Hitler said the following:

I have issued the command — and I’ll have anybody who utters but one word of criticism executed by a firing squad — that our war aim does not consist in reaching certain lines, but in the physical destruction of the enemy. Accordingly, I have placed my death-head formation in readiness — for the present only in the East — with orders to them to send to death mercilessly and without compassion, men, women, and children of Polish derivation and language. Only thus shall we gain the living space (Lebensraum) which we need. Who, after all, speaks today of the annihilation of the Armenians?



Raphael Lemkin

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Polish- Jewish professor Raphael Lemkin, who coined the term “genocide” in 1943, has claimed that he did so with the massacre of the Armenians in mind. Based on the actions of the Young Turks, Lemkin’s definition of genocide is still widely used in contemporary scholarship and Human Rights. To this day, The Republic of Turkey’s official stance is that the deaths of Armenians during their “relocation” cannot accurately be deemed as “genocide,” essentially denying the intentional nature of the atrocities. This denial has dramatically hindered Turkish foreign relations, and is currently a leading factor in Turkey’s restriction from the European Union. Most scholars around the world acknowledge that the tragedy was, indeed, genocide.

Rwandan Genocide



What?

The “Rwandan Genocide” refers to the 1994 mass slaughter in Rwanda of the ethnic Tutsi and politically moderate Hutu peoples. The killings began in early April of 1994 and continued for approximately one hundred days until the “Hutu Power” movement’s defeat in mid-July. The genocide was carried out primarily by Hutu supremacist militia groups, co-perpetrated by the state government of Rwanda, the Rwandan Army, and Rwandan civilians in compliance with the “Hutu Power” movement. By its conclusion, at least 500,000 ethnic Tutsis were murdered, along with thousands of Tutsi sympathizers, moderate Hutus, and other victims of atrocity. Some estimates claim anywhere between 800,000- 1,000,000 killed, with another 2 million refugees (mostly Hutus fearing the retribution of the newly-empowered Tutsi rebel government) packed in disease-ridden refugee camps of neighboring Burundi, Tanzania, Uganda, and former Zaire.

Where?

Rwanda is a very small country (about the size of Maryland), located near the center of Africa, a few degrees south of the Equator. It is separated from the Democratic Republic of Congo (former Zaire) by Lake Kivu and the Ruzizi River valley to the west; it is bounded on the north by Uganda, to the east by Tanzania, and to the south by Burundi. The capital, Kigali, is located in the center of the country. According to the 1991 national census, the total population of Rwanda was 7.7 million, with 90 percent of the population in the Hutu ethnic group, 9 percent Tutsi, and 1 percent Twa. The Rwandan Genocide itself began with mass killings in Kigali, but over the course of its 100-day duration, killing spread to all corners of the country.

When?

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The Rwandan genocide took place over a time span of only 100 days, between April and July, 1994.

Who?



Rwandan Genocide Survivor

Victims

Hutu nationalist group Parmehutu led a social revolution which overthrew the Tutsi ruling class, resulting in the death of around 20,000 Tutsis and the exile of another 200,000 to neighboring countries. Rwandan independence from Belgium would follow in 1961, marking the establishment of a Hutu-led Rwandan government. The Tutsis remaining in Rwanda, mostly due to intermarriage or other family ties, would be discriminated against as racially “lesser” citizens by the new Hutu government. The RPF (Rwandan Patriotic Front) was formed in 1985 as a political group of Tutsi nationalist exiles who demanded the right to return to their homeland as citizens and an end to social discrimination against the Tutsi in Rwanda. The RPF rebels invaded Rwanda from neighboring Uganda in October of 1990, re-igniting Tutsi hatred throughout Rwanda. It was this act of Tutsi aggression, coupled with decades of discrimination and fear for a loss of power, that paved the way to genocide. Killed alongside the Tutsi people were those native Rwandan Hutu, who sympathized with their Tutsi neighbors and resisted by defending, hiding, or providing aid to their Tutsi neighbors. Moderate Hutus, many of whom refused to take action against their Tutsi neighbors, were also victimized in the genocide.

Perpetrators

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Interhamwe Militiamen

Most of the killing was carried out by two Hutu radical militant groups: the Interahamwe and the Impuzamugambi. Armed, backed, and led by the government of Rwanda (MRND), the Interahamwe are remembered today as the driving force of the genocide, comprised mostly of young Hutu men, brainwashed by the “Hutu Power” ideology. Springing from a separate political entity, the CDR, the Impuzamugambi was made up of members of the CDR’s youth wing. These forces were fewer in number than those of the Interahamwe. The “more-extreme” anti-Tutsi agenda of the CDR reflected on the Impuzamugambi; their killings were often regarded as less organized, and more vicious. The genocide was obviously supported by the Hutu-led government (MRND) and members of the Rwandan army: they armed and directed militias, dispatched killing orders, and even participated in the rounding up of victims themselves. The most unsettling co-perpetrators of the genocide, however, were those Rwandan civilians who collaborated with and supported the genocide. Many Tutsis and moderate Hutus were handed over and/or killed by their own neighbors, also bent on anti-Tutsi sentiment.

How?

Unlike other genocides of the 20th century, the Rwandan genocide unfolded before the eyes of the national media. Journalists, radio broadcasters, and TV news reporters covered the events live from Rwanda, until the violence escalated to fanatical levels and all foreigners were encouraged to evacuate. In short, the world knew of the genocide from its first day up until its conclusion. Mark Doyle, a reporter for the BBC in Kigali, tried to explain the situation to the world in late April 1994 as follows,

“...you have to understand that there are two wars going on here. There’s a shooting war and a genocide war. The two are connected, but also distinct. In the shooting war, there are two conventional armies at each other, and in the genocide war, one of those armies, the government side with help from civilians, is involved in mass killings.”

UNAMIR, the UN peacekeeping force in Rwanda, was present on the ground throughout the course of the genocide. With disregard to the violence portrayed in the national media, France, Belgium, and the United States declined to send additional support, despite UNAMIR’s specific warnings to the UN Security Council in early 1994, describing the Hutu militia’s plan for extermination. The Security Council denied UNAMIR’s request to intervene, and in early April, the Belgian contingency of

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UNAMIR's force were pulled out, due to the murder of ten Belgian soldiers. Almost overnight, 4500 UNAMIR peacekeepers on the ground were reduced to a mere 260. Not until mid-May (approx. 500,000 Rwandans had already been killed) did the UN recognize that "acts of genocide may have been committed," at which point the UN pledged to send in 5,500 troops and 50 armored personnel carriers. This force, however, was further delayed due to continuing arguments between the UN and the U.S. army over the cost of the Armored Personnel Carriers. The genocide would be ended by the RPF overthrow of the Hutu Regime in July; the UN intervention never occurred. The state support for the genocide in Rwanda was no doubt one of its primary engines. The Hutu-led government provided arms, planning, and leadership for the militias. It also funded the RTLM "Hutu Power" radio broadcast, the primary source of "brainwashing" for the Rwandan civilians who also took part in the genocide.

The Aftermath



International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR)

Immediately following the RPF takeover, around 2 million Hutus (perpetrators, bystanders, and resisters to the genocide) fled into the neighboring countries to avoid potential Tutsi retribution. Thousands died of epidemics, which spread like wildfire through to overcrowded refugee camps. The refugee presence in Zaire, among other factors, led to the first Congo War in 1996 and the formation of the Democratic Republic of Congo. Due to worsening conditions in the DRC and Tanzania, more than a million Rwandan refugees would return home by 1997. Back in Rwanda, the fully regenerated "UNAMIR 2" assumed control until March 8th, 1996. They faced the enormous task of cleaning up a war-torn country side, and dealing with the bodies of more than 1 million victims of genocide and war. The "machete" would become a symbol, synonymous to the Rwandan genocide for its widespread use by untrained civilians, to hack their neighbors to death. With the return of the refugees, the long-awaited genocide trials could proceed. The International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, located in Arusha, Tanzania, began proceedings in 1996. As of Spring 2012, the Tribunal has completed 35 trials and convicted 29 persons guilty of war crimes, acts of genocide, rape, and the creation of "hate media." Eight trials are currently in progress, one accused criminal awaits trials in detention, and another 10 criminals remain at large, mostly presumed dead.

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