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THE
INTERNATIONAL REVIEW
OF THE
RED CROSS



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INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS
GENEVA

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

SEVENTH YEAR — No. 70

JANUARY 1967

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FRENCH EDITION OF THE REVIEW

The French edition of this Review is issued every month under the title of *Revue internationale de la Croix-Rouge*. It is, in principle, identical with the English edition and may be obtained under the same conditions.

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SUPPLEMENTS TO THE REVIEW

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SPANISH

E. de No Louis : Notas sobre aportaciones españolas al derecho humanitario en la guerra. — Se reconoce a la Cruz Roja de Zambia (465° Circular). — La Vicepresidencia del CICR. — Consejo de la Presidencia. — Difusión de los Principios y de los Convenios Humanitarios.

GERMAN

Anerkennung des Roten Kreuzes von Sambia (465. Rundschreiben). — Vizepräsidentschaft des IKRK. — Präsidenschaftsrat. — Die XX. Konferenz und ihre Rechtlichen Ergebnisse.

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Reflections on Spain's Contribution to the Application of Humanitarian Law in War

by E. de No Louis

Like all other European countries with a historic and cultural tradition, Spain contributed to the birth and evolution of humanitarian law as applied to war. Its contribution, like that of every country, had certain special aspects striking a characteristic note in the composition as a whole and anticipating what were later to become generally applicable provisions.

This article will endeavour to outline some of these particular aspects.

Any consideration of the Spanish influence on international law, involves reference to that extraordinary group of theologians and jurists of the 16th century who comprised the Spanish classical school. Although this school's influence on modern international law was not acknowledged until the first decade of this century, due in part to political and religious prejudice, it is now widely recognized. Such names as Francisco de Vitoria, Domingo de Soto, Francisco Suarez, Vezquez de Menchaca ("the glory of Spain" as Grotius called him) are known the world over. The same applies to jurists like Molina, Ibanez and Covarrubias and to court martial prosecutors such as Baltasar de Ayala.

The Spanish classical school represented the culmination of the theory of a just war as an instrument of justice and not of power politics. That is why the doctrine of this school continues to influence the law of war—*jus in bello*—whilst at the same time it is

important in other fields of international law, particularly in those connected with *jus ad bellum* and international relations.

Indeed, if war is licit only to ensure justice, if the sovereign or prince waging war acts as a judge to redress an injustice and punish the offender, in the absence of some other high authority, then his action should a priori be limited to achieving that objective.

Respect for the innocent is one of the first limiting factors; not all inhabitants of an enemy country may be subject to attack, for many of them are foreigners who, unless they become implicated by their own actions, cannot in principle be considered guilty of aiding and abetting the State or prince in a violation of justice. Again, a large section of the population cannot, or rarely does take up arms, such as women, children, the clergy; all are to be presumed non-combatant in the absence of evidence to the contrary.

As Vitoria said: "Nunquam licet per se et ex intentione interficere innocentem." Deliberate killing of innocent people cannot be justified and their deaths as a result of war should not occur except as accidental casualties.

An ever topical question derives from this proposition, i.e.: is it permissible to attack a town or village where there are combatants and non-combatants, if such an operation would harm both? If there is an alternative way of achieving the objective, or the taking of the town—even if it contains an enemy garrison—is not an important step towards victory, the answer is a categorical "no". Only extreme need could justify such an attack, for indiscriminate killing of the population cannot be vindicated. Clearly all forms of indiscriminate warfare, all weapons of mass destruction, attacks on civilians and laying waste by bombing are to be condemned. The concept of a military objective becomes clearly discernible, approaching the idea underlying the "Draft regulations for the protection of civilian populations against indiscriminate warfare".

Another consequence of the respect due to non-combatants is evident in the treatment of hostages. If the prince or State which surrenders hostages fails to discharge an undertaking, the detaining power may not, for that reason, presume to execute the hostages if they are innocent. Such a course would be possible only if they were guilty of an offence deserving the death penalty.

HUMANITARIAN LAW IN WAR

Needless to say, respect for human life is a principle which extends also to prisoners.

According to Vitoria, and expressed even more clearly by Suarez, the only persons to whom guilt may be attached are voluntary active combatants—to use a modern term—who are aware of the injustice of the cause for which they fight.

The ideas of the times were much more elastic on questions of liberty and material goods. True, Vitoria concluded that “damage to a guilty nation during war should be limited as much as possible”, but the Spanish classical school distinguishes between life, goods and liberty. As Suarez said, God alone has the power of life and death, whereas goods are subject to human control and can therefore be lost due to the fault of the State. This, it was admitted, justified servitude and loss of goods, even for the innocent in certain circumstances.

But, in his hour of triumph, the victor should remember that he is acting as a judge; he in turn must avoid perpetrating injustice. Penalties should never exceed the measure necessary to restore peace. Thus in his last, and what have been called his golden rules, Vitoria tells us that war declared with justification should not be waged with the intention of ruining the enemy, but to ensure that right shall prevail and to obtain peace and stability. Once victory is achieved, the victor should act as judge, not as prosecutor, inflicting as little damage as possible on the vanquished. It is sufficient to punish the guilty to the extent they deserve. Vitoria adds: “More often than not the guilt lies with the princes, for their subjects fight on their behalf in good faith.”

All these norms undoubtedly constituted a step forward at the time. It has been said that the distinction between a nation with a just cause in war and a nation without one, hinders rather than promotes the law of war. But, from the humanitarian point of view, it was a greater limiting factor than the ideas which succeeded it. It distinguished between action necessary to restore peace and that which suited State policy and ambition for power. It has also been said that at that time there was a considerable gulf between theory and practice. Unfortunately, it must be admitted that this still applies today.

SPAIN'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE APPLICATION OF

Mention must also be made of the views of a legal expert and disciple of the same school: Baltasar de Ayula. Not only was he versed in law, but he experienced war, so to say, as a court martial judge. He held that the law of war, irrespective of whether war was justified or not, applied to all enemies who could be considered as belligerents, provided the state of war had been declared. This thinking is in line with Vitoria's. The prince's subjects fight in good faith, obeying orders and ignorant of the factors which would enable them to see the rights and wrongs of the cause; theirs is but to obey the authority which declared war.

There is no denying this trend of thought in the history of humanitarian law as applied to war; although evolved in the course of centuries, it reached its culminating point in the Spanish classical school and influenced Grotius and his successors.

Another important date in the history of humanitarian law as applied to war was January 5, 1882, when a law was passed to introduce the Spanish Army Regulations for Service in the Field. These regulations conferred official sanction on many ideas contained in the 1877 Brussels declaration and in the Oxford Manual of 1880, thereby making their observance compulsory for the Spanish armed forces. At the time, these regulations were a legislative instrument which represented considerable progress and deserved the praise they received. In Dukacinski's opinion, these regulations would not have been disavowed by the Peace Conference.¹

These regulations contain 128 articles dealing with the law of war. Also to be found in them are such statements as the one contained in article 866 on the subject of hostages, namely: "It is a useless abuse of power to hold hostages responsible for faults committed by others, and any punishment inflicted on them for such faults is unjust and arbitrary." Another article forbade the locking up of prisoners in confined cells and stipulated that they be held in custody, under guard, preferably in the interior of the country, in a healthy climate and protected from the animosity of soldiers and population.

¹ Les règlements militaires des grandes puissances considérés du point de vue du droit international, Bordeaux, 1912.

HUMANITARIAN LAW IN WAR

These regulations, of course, reflect the precepts of the 1864 Geneva Conventions on the treatment of the wounded of armies in the field and on the red cross sign.

At this stage we may examine Spain's participation in the promotion of the International Red Cross and the circumstances in which the early activities of the Spanish Relief Committee were carried out. These, as we shall see, were original and characteristic.

Spain was one of the countries which were associated in the movement to set up the Red Cross. Two names are outstanding, those of: Don Joaquin Agullo, Count Ripalda and representative of the "Lengua de Castilla" to the Military and Hospitable Order of St John of Jerusalem, and Don Nicasio Landa y Alvarez de Carballo, of the army medical staff, who played a leading rôle in the constitution and development of the movement. Both attended the preliminary conference in Geneva from October 26-29, 1863, taking part in the proceedings and agreements.

Upon his return to Spain, Count Ripalda devoted himself to the constitution of the Spanish committee, and a preparatory meeting was organized to set up a Central Committee. This preparatory meeting was attended inter alia by Don Nicasio Landa, Count Ripalda, another member of the Order of St John, General Osset, who was elected Chairman, and by the Director General of the Army Medical Branch, Don Nicolas Garcia Briz—an undoubted asset. He it was who conveyed to the Government the conclusions reached by the Geneva Conference. The idea was approved by a royal decree issued by the Ministry for War, authorizing the founding of a Committee whose services would be acceptable to the government and commending it, with such sections as were deemed necessary, to the Order of St John of Jerusalem. The same decree gave official approval to the idea of neutrality of enemy wounded on the battle-field and of relief services. The date of the first meeting of the Committee was March 2, 1864¹ and official recognition may be said to date from July 6, 1864.

As can be seen, Spain was one of the first countries to set up a relief committee; it was the fifth, following Württemberg, Olden-

¹ This was the date of foundation mentioned in the *International Review of the Red Cross*, September 1965.

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burg, Belgium and Prussia. It played an active rôle in the framing of the Convention of August 22, 1864, for the protection of the wounded of armies in the field, which it ratified on December 5 of the same year, thus becoming the sixth signatory State.

A characteristic of the Spanish relief committee distinguished it from others. The primary mission of relief committees was to act as an auxiliary of the army medical service in the event of international conflict, in order to care for the wounded. From the outset the Spanish committee was entitled "Spanish Assembly of the International Association to assist the wounded on land and at sea, in international or civil war".¹ The widening of scope implied in this title is worthy of mention. The words "military wounded" are replaced by "wounded", giving wider application to include civilians; the expression "on land and at sea" includes war at sea; while the words "or civil war" confer a special character on the Spanish committee.

The fundamental idea here is that the relief committee and its sections should function during civil war. The statutes of the Spanish Red Cross—approved by royal decree on July 30, 1868—stipulate that in the event of civil war the Society may issue armbands bearing the distinctive emblem of the red cross.

In 1870 a charitable organization was incorporated into the Red Cross and authorized to display the emblem. It had been set up during the struggle against Napoleon in Madrid, in 1808, with the mission of collecting the dead and caring for the wounded in the Maravillas district of Madrid. In *Anales de la Cruz Roja*, published in Barcelona by Don Saturnino Gimenez Enrich towards the end of 1874, can be found the sentence: "It matters little to the Spanish Red Cross whether a war be civil or international."

Spanish Red Cross action was, in fact, in its early years, carried out during the constant civil disturbances and riots which occurred in Spain during the late decades of the 19th century. That is why it was faced with the problems which always arise in such cases, perhaps before and more urgently than other National Societies.

¹ "Asamblea española de la Asociación Internacional para socorro a heridos en campaña de tierra y mar y en luchas civiles."

HUMANITARIAN LAW IN WAR

As early as April 1870, during the insurrection of the township of Gracia, near Barcelona, the red cross banner was raised and as a forerunner of "refugee reception centres" the Barcelona province charitable institute sheltered some 5,000 refugees, under the sign of the red cross.

The first conflict in which the Spanish Red Cross went into action on the battle-field was a civil war. This was at the Battle of Oroquieta at Navarra, on May 4, 1872, during the Carlist war, when an ambulance from Pampelona helped in collecting and evacuating the wounded; 150 men were engaged on this mission. The prime mover in this enterprise, Dr. Landa, wrote to Geneva: "My main objective was to establish the neutrality of the wounded, and I had the good fortune to succeed."¹

Dr. Landa's and the Society's idea was *neutral status* for the wounded. They not only desired respect for the Red Cross ambulances and volunteers, which had been obtained both from the government and Carlist forces; they also wished the wounded to be exempt from captivity and punishment, an objective difficult to achieve in civil war. Nevertheless, on February 26, 1873, General Pavía, the head of the army operating in the north, gave orders that all Carlist prisoners should be inviolable and that the lives of all wounded taken on the battle-field should be spared. However, a month later, the new Commanding General Nouvilas, who replaced General Pavía, limited this regulation to the effect that no enemy wounded might be reprieved without first asking for the benefit of such clemency, but that no wounded should be left without care. The General expressly recommended "unit commanders, local authorities and the philanthropic Red Cross Association" to help the wounded.

Dr. Landa, who was an army physician during the campaign, understood the difficulties and wrote to Geneva: "My greatest difficulty is to find a solution to these conflicts. I thought of asking the government to apply the Geneva Convention provisions relating to civil war, but the article prohibiting wounded from taking up arms again would be accepted neither by the army nor the Carlist forces."

¹ See *Bulletin international des Sociétés de secours aux militaires blessés*, Geneva, July 1872.

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The question of secrecy on assistance soon arose. The Navarra Committee said in a circular to local committees on December 31, 1872: "It may happen that some wounded or sick desire the assistance they receive to be kept secret . . . if so, the secret must be kept. In such cases, medical attention may be given provided the local doctor confirms the need, in all conscientiousness, without going into details."

Another difficulty is apparent in the General Assembly's note of May 5, 1873, to the Minister of War. According to this note, the Association would not object to informing the authorities, on request, of the number and condition of the wounded in its care, but would not do so automatically on its own initiative, for the reason that "even if charity in war must be adapted to the abnormal circumstances in which it is administered, it is quite incompatible with police investigation, which by no means accords with the noble character of our people".

The action of the local Red Cross at the important Mediterranean naval base at Cartagena was also distinctive, when the city joined the rising against the central government in 1873.

Already in 1866 the Cartagena Red Cross Committee had requested the application to the wounded in naval action of the same benefits as were granted to the wounded of the army.

After this well defended and armed city and naval base rose in rebellion, it resisted military operations and siege for many months. The rebel forces were as well armed as those of the government, if not better. After the first engagement, the rebel navy put to sea on October 13, 1873, to do battle with the government fleet. The rebels asked the local Red Cross to accompany their fleet. This the Red Cross agreed to do on condition that the vessel on which its medical staff sailed would be unarmed and would fly the Red Cross flag. Thus it was that on that day a small paddle driven tug of 110 tons, the "Buenaventura", sallied forth from Cartagena in the wake of the warships, with 14 members of the Red Cross aboard and flying the red cross flag. Fortunately it did not have to go into action, as the government fleet fled without any battle taking place. However, this was, we believe, the first time, well before the 1899 Convention and during civil war to boot, that a ship sailed on a humanitarian mission flying the red cross flag.

HUMANITARIAN LAW IN WAR

Another forerunner worth mentioning and nearer our own times, was the office set up during the first world war under the direct personal supervision of H.M. Alfonso XIII. Within the royal secretariat a humanitarian organization was formed. In view of the complexity and scope of its tasks it was subdivided into several sections, namely: 1) Missing persons; 2) information and mail in occupied territory; 3) prisoners of war; 4) repatriation of seriously wounded or sick prisoners; 5) civilian repatriation; 6) Swiss internment; 7) reprieves; 8) commutation of penalties; 9) cash remittances to persons residing in occupied territory and unable to communicate with their families; and 10) reports on inspection carried out by Spanish delegates accredited to embassies in Berlin, Vienna and Rome.

Mention should also be made of intercession for reprieve in some fifty cases where the death penalty had been pronounced. Most were successful. In addition, more than five thousand applications for repatriation of wounded and sick, twenty-five thousand messages from families in occupied territory and over 250,000 enquiries about wounded, prisoners and missing persons were handled.

Intervention for repatriation of twenty-five thousand French citizens held as hostages was successful. Furthermore, Spanish delegates sailed with hospital ships to ensure their neutrality. Other Spanish delegates visited prison camps and intervened to arrange repatriation of many of the inmates. Many other details could be given to illustrate Spain's continuous contribution.

Like all old countries, Spain has experienced the benefits of charity and human fellowship throughout its history. She has also contributed to the birth and development of humanitarian law, a work in which nationalism has no place but to which each country adds a special contribution of its own.

Eduardo de NO LOUIS

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Women Air Medical Assistants ¹

by T. Lomonaco

The ever more frequent use of medical helicopters and aircraft by military and civilian organizations of modern nations to give first-aid to the wounded and have them transported has also led the central bodies of various National Red Cross Societies to add the most up-to-date and fastest methods of air transport to the traditional forms of transportation.

In the past, when it was necessary in exceptional circumstances to intervene as a matter of urgency on Italian soil (floods, earthquakes, heavy falls of snow in mountain areas where villages were cut off), the Italian Red Cross was already using helicopters in which voluntary nurses flew to aid the shipwrecked, the sick and wounded.

In flights of this sort, it was discovered by experience how necessary it was for personnel entrusted with caring for the sick or wounded to know the basic elements of aeronautical medicine.

What in fact are the tasks of a nurse who tends the sick and wounded in the air, in other words of a nurse who is an " Air Medical Assistant " ?

These are two-fold. On the one hand, she must give assistance and first-aid on the ground, on the other hand, she must also do the same in the air.

The first of these tasks are those of every nurse, male or female. However, to the training required for the accomplishment of these tasks are added special aptitudes, indispensable in particular circumstances, to be able to give first-aid, for example, in traffic accidents (road, sea, air). The air medical assistant is not only called upon to aid the victims, by employing every means to remedy the ill consequences of injury or shock which might place their

¹ This article originally appeared in the review of the Italian Red Cross, *Croce Rossa*, 1966, which has kindly allowed us to reproduce it.

AIR MEDICAL ASSISTANTS
OF THE ITALIAN RED CROSS



They help during the transporting of a casualty by helicopter . . .



... and take part in an air aid exercise.

lives in danger, but she has also to carry out the necessary movements when transporting sick or wounded cases into a medical aircraft. Such movements always demand great care, especially when it is a question of lesions on the spinal column or the head.

On the ground, the intervention of the air medical assistant becomes indispensable as a result of certain accidents, such as in aiding someone who has fallen into the sea or had a fall in the mountains or is found in the desert. In such cases, not only is an elementary knowledge of first-aid necessary but also of physiology in connection with diet and rules for thermal protection which may arise in unexpected circumstances.

If such are, by and large, the tasks of a medical assistant on the ground, they are much more complicated in flight. They cannot be carried out successfully unless she has previously had some general notions of aeronautical medicine.

It is in fact extremely difficult to give the proper treatment to persons suffering from acute lack of oxygen, if one does not know its exact cause or if one misunderstands the resultant physio-pathological effects, or is ignorant of the protective methods to which one should resort. It is most risky to give first-aid to a cardiac transported in an aircraft, if one does not take into account the aggravating effect on his condition caused by a lack of oxygen or other possible factors of trouble, such as acceleration, even if this is not too sudden, and also vibration. It is even more difficult to give aid to a person suffering from air sickness, especially if he has been injured or shocked, if one does not know the nature and causes of the malady which manifest themselves during the flight.

On the other hand, if the aircraft is not adequately equipped, that is to say if it is not provided with a pressurized cabin, or if it has one which is defective, transportation can aggravate abdominal lesions (deep wounds, damage to internal organs), by inducing a dilatation of gases due to a lowering of the temperature. It can also bring on frontal and maxillary sinus ailments, inflammation of the middle ear, etc... And always for the same reason, the volume of gas increases in the body's cavities or in those communicating with the exterior through narrow tubes from which air, as a result of aerodynamics, finds difficulty in escaping. When these tubes are blocked,

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which is still more serious and frequent, the expulsion of air becomes totally impossible.

The air medical assistant must therefore know the cause of these physio-pathological modifications in order to be able to give effective treatment.

In addition to a fundamental knowledge of physio-pathology concerning the human being in flight, the air medical assistant should have, to complete her culture and the better to carry out her tasks, general notions of hygiene applied to aeronautics. She should know the international regulations concerning measures against diseases liable to quarantine, have a general knowledge of contagious diseases, know how to transport those infected by them, also the disinfecting and anti-disinfestation measures of aircraft. In other words, she ought to possess a knowledge of general and prophylactic hygiene required in this particular sphere.

The psychological side which plays an important rôle on the ground, becomes preponderant once medical personnel have to intervene in the air.

It is not only necessary to acquire the indispensable knowledge to accomplish such tasks, but still more to develop and assimilate them.

At a time when the threat of atomic weapons hangs perilously over mankind, notions, even elementary ones, of methods of protection against ionizing radiation are indispensable for the whole world. They are more particularly so for the air medical assistant who may be called upon, in time of war, to give aid to mass victims of a method of lethal destruction whose effects, as we know, are not only limited to the present generation, but also threaten its successors.

Finally, the air medical assistant should possess other knowledge which is not exclusively connected with medicine applied to aeronautics, but which is however closely linked to that science and aviation. She should possess rudiments of meteorology, elementary notions of geography and know how to use air navigation maps.

As can be seen, the subjects of medicine applied to aeronautics which the air medical assistant should know are many and important.

A training programme has been drawn up for that purpose and followed up by the publication of a volume containing elementary notions of aeronautical medicine for the use of air pilots, but it has shown itself to be just as useful in the training of nurses of the Italian Red Cross.

The programme comprises:

1. Elementary notions of physio-pathology and the human being in the air.
2. Notions of technical aeronautical physiology and its applications.
3. Notions concerning physio-pathological causes and the dynamics of accidents in flight, as well as their prevention.
4. Notions of first-aid and the intervention of medical personnel on the ground and in the air.
5. Notions of individual medical aid; survival at sea, in mountains and inhospitable regions.
6. General notions concerning the structure of aerial engines, the equipping of medical aircraft and aeronautical medical material.
7. General notions of defence against the effects on the human organism of nuclear, biological and chemical weapons.
8. Psychological factors of the human being in the air and assistance in flight to neuro-psychopathic cases.
9. Notions of hygiene applied to aeronautics.
10. Notions of meteorology and elementary notions of geography.

The programme in addition comprises practical exercises on the ground and in the air.¹

Exercises on the ground take place in decompression chambers to discover the whole range of physio-pathological transformations brought about by a lack of oxygen and falls in temperature, as well as to learn the correct manipulation of oxygen resuscitation appliances. Practical exercises also take place with a "Human Centrifugal Machine", with a view to studying the effects of

¹ *Plate*: Italian Red Cross flying medical assistants in practice.

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acceleration. Other exercises are concerned with artificial respiration including the iron lung.

Exercises in the air should correspond over all to a stated number of hours. Whilst in flight instructors explain, demonstrate and supervise the practical execution of handling in first-aid.

Here is an example of exercises carried out in flight:

1st day—Leave Rome for airport “ X ”. Visit to installations on the ground and medical aircraft.

2nd day—Leave Rome for the same airport. Embarkation in aircraft for airport “ X ”. Landing. Visit to local installations and medical aircraft. Return to Rome.

3rd day—Leave Rome for airport “ V.V. ”. Visit to Air Rescue Centre and examination of equipment with demonstrations. Launching of small rubber dinghy and rescue of simulated wounded.

4th day—Leave Rome for airport “ V.V. ”. During the flight, exercises in blood plasma and blood transfusion.

5th day—Leave for airport “ C. ” Helicopter flights with simulated wounded on board.

6th, 7th and 8th day—Various exercises in aid to wounded transported in helicopters and in fast air, sea and land ambulances.

9th and 10th day—Transporting of wounded and sick by medical helicopters and landing near hospitals.

The Aeronautical School of Medicine of Rome awarded diplomas to about one hundred air medical assistants. They have already started on their work and are ready to intervene in case of need.

Voluntary Red Cross nurses, whatever the circumstances, carry out their tasks alongside the doctor and the pilot. In the aircraft with its emblem of the Red Cross, they deal humbly with the sick and the dispossessed, thus reaching a high ideal through their devotion to duty.

General Tomaso LOMONACO

General Medical Officer in Aeronautics,
Vice-President of the Italian
Red Cross

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

Recognition of the Zambia Red Cross Society

GENEVA, DECEMBER 8, 1966

Circular No. 465

*To the Central Committees of the National Red Cross, Red Crescent
and Red Lion and Sun Societies*

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,

We have the honour to inform you that the International Committee of the Red Cross on December 8, 1966, granted recognition to the Zambia Red Cross Society.

This new Society—formerly a branch of the British Red Cross—applied for recognition by letter on April 14, 1966. Its application was accompanied by a copy of the Society's Rules, a report on its activities for 1964 and a summary of its 1965 activities together with a copy of the "Zambia Red Cross Society Act, 1966".

These documents, which were examined jointly with the Secretariat of the League of Red Cross Societies, show that the ten conditions for recognition of a new National Society by the International Committee have been complied with.

The recognition, which the International Committee of the Red Cross is pleased to announce, brings the number of member Societies of the International Red Cross to 108.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

The Red Cross of Zambia, recognized as an auxiliary to the public authorities and the sole National Red Cross Society in the country, is well organized and is making strenuous efforts to develop its humanitarian work. Central Branches have been established in the four main towns and Divisions have been set up in many other towns. The activities of the Red Cross of Zambia are very varied, covering first-aid courses, a blood donor service, welfare service for handicapped children and the indigent aged, and especially a first-aid service in mining regions, under a " Council for Mining First Aid " which has a status similar to that of the Branches.

The supreme authority of the Zambia Red Cross Society is a Council composed of Branch representatives and independent members elected or appointed. Between Council meetings, the Society's activities are directed by an Executive Committee. The Society's Patron is Dr. Kenneth Kaunda, President of the Republic ; its President is Mr. S. H. Chileshe, former mayor of Lusaka while Mrs. Grace Matoka is the National Director. The Society headquarters are in Lusaka.

The Republic of Zambia's accession to the Geneva Conventions of 1949 has been lodged with the Swiss authorities on October 19, 1966.

The International Committee of the Red Cross is pleased to welcome the Red Cross of Zambia into the International Red Cross and to accredit it and commend it, by the present circular, to the other National Societies. It expresses sincere wishes for the future of the Red Cross of Zambia and for the success of its humanitarian work.

FOR THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS:

Samuel A. GONARD

President

*EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES***Vietnam**

The International Committee of the Red Cross has continued its exchange of correspondence with the Government of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam on various humanitarian problems raised by the present conflict. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Hanoi has declared that it could not accept the proposal made by the United States to hold a conference in order to examine ways of applying the Geneva Conventions, a proposal which had been transmitted by the ICRC. The same ministry has acknowledged receiving various communications from the ICRC, in particular the nominal roll of 19 North Vietnamese seamen captured by the US Navy in the Gulf of Tonkin and the two reports drawn up following on visits made to these seamen by ICRC delegates.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has condemned the seizing by American forces in the territorial waters of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam of the crews of Vietnamese fishing vessels. It has stated that the North Vietnam Government demands the release of these Vietnamese nationals, including the 19 seamen mentioned above.

A previous statement made by a Ministry spokesman estimated that 150 nationals of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, both civilian and military, were thus being held by the American forces.

The ICRC, which has already visited the 19 seamen captured at the beginning of July of this year, is at present attempting to trace other persons who may be detained in similar conditions.

Yemen

As the *International Review* mentioned in its previous issue, the ICRC has resumed its medical activity in the Yemen. Because of the deplorable health situation in the North of the country, it has even decided to intensify it. Three new doctors, Drs. René Liechti, Martin Escher, André Frank and a male nurse, Mr. Rolf Wagner, left at the end of December and were installed in North-East and North-West Yemen by Mr. André Rochat, Head of the ICRC Delegation.

Thus, at the beginning of 1967, the delegation consists of twelve persons, all of Swiss nationality, of whom five are doctors and five are nurses.

The ICRC's medical teams are working in distant mountainous areas. They are carrying out their task in most difficult conditions, far from their bases in a country lacking in food and medical supplies where the situation is decidedly unstable.

Laos

Dr. Jürg Baer, doctor-delegate of the ICRC, has been present at several distributions of relief organized by the Laotian Red Cross for victims of the Mekong river floods, thanks to contributions from sister Societies transmitted by the League. As a general rule, the Laotian Red Cross has handed over the following items to each homeless family: 1 mat, 1 mosquito net, 2 boxes of insecticide, 1 quinine bag and a gift box containing an assortment of food and toys.

Amongst these contributions mention should be made of a Soviet donation comprising 23 cases of medicines which the Ambassador of the USSR officially handed over to Dr. Oudom Souvanna-
vong, President of the Laotian Red Cross.

Nigeria

The Delegate General of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Africa, Mr. Georg Hoffmann, has completed a tour in the Northern region of Nigeria where serious disturbances took place. He went to a number of places including Kaduna, Zaria and Kano. He examined ways and means in which the ICRC could intervene in favour of the victims of these events. Previously the Delegate General went to Enugu, the provincial capital of the Eastern region. In the course of his mission, the ICRC delegate had discussions with local Red Cross leaders and representatives of the authorities.

In Lagos and the various regions visited, he examined in co-operation with the National Society, measures appropriate to establishing an inter-regional service for the tracing of missing persons.

Venezuela

Mr. Pierre Jequier, ICRC Delegate General for Latin America, was authorized by the Government of Venezuela to visit persons arrested following the political disturbances which occurred in the country. He met eighteen of these detainees in the Cuartel San Carlos prison in Caracas. Most of them were communist leaders or guerilleros captured during police operations. The ICRC representative was able to interview them freely concerning conditions of detention.

The President of the Venezuelan Red Cross, Mrs. Alvarez, gave active support to Mr. Jequier's application to obtain the necessary authorization for this visit.

Latin America

The International Committee of the Red Cross took part in the VIIIth Inter-American Red Cross Conference which was held in November at Bogota, the capital of Colombia. It was represented by Mr. Pierre Jequier, Delegate General for Latin America, who delivered an address on the activities and mission of the ICRC as a neutral intermediary in the event of conflict.

The Conference adopted a number of resolutions, one of which stressed the need for the National Societies to support ICRC activity. Of the other resolutions, mention must be made of that which reaffirmed the fundamental Red Cross principles, particularly the principle of independence.

Before going to Bogota, Mr. Jequier had attended, as an observer, the Inter-American Seminar of the Junior Red Cross on health education in Quito (Ecuador). The many subjects dealt with included dissemination of the Red Cross principles and of knowledge on the Geneva Conventions, the importance of which was recognized by the sixteen National Societies taking part in the meeting. The closing session in plenum was the occasion of a tribute to the ICRC for its activities in Latin America.

Hungary

The neutral Commission of Experts appointed by the International Committee of the Red Cross to examine cases of victims of pseudo-medical experiments carried out in concentration camps

under the Nazi regime—to whom the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany is prepared to pay compensation—again met in Geneva. The Chairman was Mr. William Lenoir, a judge of the Geneva Court, who succeeded Professor Jean Graven in this office. He was assisted, like his predecessor, by Dr. Alex Muller, a professor at the Geneva University Faculty of Medicine, and by Dr. Sylvain Mutrux, Assistant Medical Director of the Bel-Air psychiatric clinic.

Files relating to a further group of 36 Hungarian victims were submitted to the Commission, which accepted 34 and rejected 2. The Hungarian Red Cross had compiled these files in co-operation with an ICRC mission consisting of Mr. Jean-Pierre Maunoir, Delegate, and Dr. Félix Züst, Doctor Delegate.

This programme, in which the ICRC's rôle is that of a neutral intermediary, began in 1961. Under this scheme, financial assistance has been granted so far to 552 Polish and Hungarian victims of pseudo-medical experiments. The total paid out amounts to DM. 17,500,000.

Germany

In conformity with Resolution XXI on the "Reuniting of dispersed families", which was unanimously adopted by the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross in October 1965 in Vienna, the International Committee of the Red Cross has again taken up with the relevant authorities the cause of families dispersed in the different sectors of Berlin so that, as in previous years, those living in the Western sector might visit relatives living in the East of the city.

This Resolution on the reuniting of families expresses, in particular, "the wish that all competent Red Cross bodies and all governments continue and intensify their efforts in order to complete this humanitarian action, which serves the cause of understanding and peace". In addition, it "recommends that, until such reunions are achieved, human contacts between members of dispersed families be facilitated".

The ICRC had already undertaken similar negotiations in previous years.

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VICE-PRESIDENCY OF THE ICRC

Mr. Guillaume BORDIER will continue as Vice-President of the International Committee in 1967 ; Mr. Frédéric SIORDET has been appointed Vice-President for 1967 and 1968.

PRESIDENTIAL COUNCIL

The International Committee of the Red Cross has constituted its Presidential Council for 1967 as follows : President : Mr. Samuel A. GONARD ; Vice-Presidents : Mr. Guillaume BORDIER and Mr. Frédéric SIORDET ; members : Mr. Hans BACHMANN, Mr. Martin BODMER, Mr. Léopold BOISSIER and Mr. Jacques FREYMOND.

New Year Message

Like his predecessors in previous years, the President of the International Committee, Mr. S. A. Gonard, recorded the following message, which was sent to many countries :

Once again, the President of the International Committee of the Red Cross sends you good wishes at the close of a year which has not been one of real peace. Fierce conflicts have continued in various parts of the world. This has above all been the case in Vietnam, theatre of a war in which suffering and ruins have accumulated. But in the midst of all this distress, the Red Cross, expressing the spirit of peace, has remained the rallying sign of men and women of goodwill, as a testimony of hope and confidence.

In the vicissitudes of the past year, the International Committee of the Red Cross has intervened, each time it was able to do so, to relieve distress and bring some comfort to the victims of discords which have rent mankind apart. However, if it has felt the satisfaction of coming to the aid of many in misfortune, it has also at times encountered incomprehension which has prevented it from fully accomplishing the humanitarian tasks incumbent upon it. That is why, at this end of year, when men are more inclined than usual to listen to the voice of their hearts, the International Committee appeals to the goodwill of all, so that the principles and ideals of our movement may be better understood and applied, so that hatred and passions may be silenced finally before the desire and ideal of peace which we are attempting to promote.

The activity deployed under the flag of the Red Cross in all parts of the world is one of the most encouraging phenomena of our times. It deserves to be more widely known for, uniting the most varied peoples of the world in friendship, its example is capable, during the present anxieties, of restoring a small measure of hope to us.

Guests of the ICRC

Miss Alice Girard, President, and Miss Helen Nussbaum, Executive Director of the International Council of Nurses, the central headquarters of which have been transferred to Geneva once again, paid a visit to the International Committee of the Red Cross.

They were welcomed by Miss Anny Pfrter, Head of the Medical Personnel Service. They were informed of the various ICRC activities and had discussions with the Directors-General of the ICRC, Mr. Roger Gallopin and Mr. Jean Pictet, concerning questions of common interest to both organizations. They also visited the Records Department of the Central Tracing Agency.

Token of gratitude

On December 22, 1966, took place the by now traditional ceremony at which the International Committee presents a token of gratitude to personnel having twenty years of service to their credit. This year there were three such staff members to whom

Mr. S. A. Gonard, President, expressed the institution's appreciation for their zeal and loyalty to the Red Cross. He presented each of them with a silver platter on which the recipient's name was engraved.

The staff members concerned were Mrs. M. Beurret, Mrs. R. Parmelin and Mr. J. P. Maunoir.

On behalf of his colleagues and in his own name, Mr. Maunoir thanked the International Committee for its gift and for its confidence. He added his wishes for the success of the institution to which, he said, all who worked for it are deeply attached.

At the Central Tracing Agency

In 1937, during the Spanish Civil War, young A. H. S., who was born in Bilbao in 1929, went to the USSR.

Having been without news of her parents since that date, she applied last summer to the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the USSR in Moscow, in an endeavour to trace any member of her family.

The information supplied by Miss A. H. S. was very vague. She only remembered that her father, P. S., was a musician and airman, that her mother A. S. had studied to be a teacher but never actually followed this calling. She also mentioned that she had an uncle by the name of R.

The Agency contacted the Spanish Red Cross, requesting it to direct its research towards Bilbao. It was able to trace the mother whose family name, transcribed from Russian, was spelt differently in each country. She was still living in Bilbao but her husband had been dead since 1938.

Mrs. S's emotion was so great on learning that her daughter was alive that she was unable to sign the letter she dictated to the Spanish Red Cross, in which she said: " My happiness is so great and I am so moved that I can do no more than say how eager I am to see you again and to embrace you ".

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THE XXth CONFERENCE: RESULTS IN THE LEGAL FIELD

*The importance of the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross is well known. The International Review has published the resolutions adopted by it in Vienna as well as various articles on sequels to the Conference. However, no over-all study has yet given our readers an account of the results of the Conference in the legal field. We are therefore pleased to reproduce below some extracts of an article on this subject written by one of the ICRC Directors-General, Mr. J. Pictet, which was published in the Journal of the International Commission of Jurists.*¹

What is the International Conference of the Red Cross?

The Conference, according to the Statutes, is the "highest deliberative authority" of that vast world-wide association known as the International Red Cross. It is composed of delegates from all the recognised National Societies and from the two international bodies: the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)—the founding body and intermediary in time of war—and the League of Red Cross Societies—the federation of the National Societies. In addition—and this is an important point to note—participation in the discussions is open to representatives of States which are parties to the Geneva Convention (i.e. practically all States). The Conference meets every four years, circumstances permitting—thus, it did not meet between 1938 and 1948. Each delegation has one vote.

¹ *Journal of the International Commission of Jurists*, Geneva, vol. VII, No. 1. Conference given by Mr. J. Pictet in Geneva to the *Cercle des juristes internationaux*.

What are the powers of the Conference ? Its decisions are binding on the organs of the Red Cross only in respect of matters coming within its exclusive competence, that is : the interpretation and revision of the Statutes of the International Red Cross ; disputes between members ; and proposals relating to the Geneva Conventions. The Conference also ensures " unity of effort " by the Red Cross. It can give mandates to the ICRC and the League but it cannot amend their statutes. In all other matters its authority is purely moral—it can only voice its wishes. This is fully consonant with the spirit of the International Red Cross, the principal characteristic of which is the independence of its constituent elements.

Are the governments which participate in the Conference legally bound by its decisions ? No—for such to be the case the Conference would need to be diplomatic in character or to be an official intergovernmental organisation. Conference resolutions, however, retain their full moral force.

In truth too much importance should not be attached to the presence of governments at the International Conference, where they sometimes adopt, by right or in fact, the attitude of observers—but they abandon this reserve when a matter having politically important implications comes before the Conference, such as was the case in 1957 when the ICRC submitted its draft rules for the protection of civilian populations against the dangers of indiscriminate warfare. The government delegates bring all their weight to bear in such cases in an endeavour to secure acceptance of their own views on the question.

Does this mean that the Red Cross should dispense with the participation of governments in its Conferences ? Certainly not ; the benefits of having them present do, in the end, outweigh the disadvantages, since Red Cross action is so closely linked with the public authorities.

The Geneva Conventions

This is a traditional item on the agenda of sessions of the International Red Cross Conferences.

From the very outset the ICRC has promoted these Conventions and has worked unceasingly to develop and propagate them.

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Thus, it was mainly at the instigation of the ICRC that the Conventions were revised in 1949. This monumental legal work, containing over 400 articles, constitutes the most up-to-date and most thorough codification of the rules for the protection of the human person in case of armed conflict. The Geneva Conventions give concrete expression to the very ideals of the Red Cross and provide it with an instrument admirably adapted to the fulfilment of its task; the Conventions also help to spread the spirit of mutual assistance and peace among peoples.

Almost all the States in the world—109 to be precise, a degree of universality rarely achieved in the field of international law—have by now ratified these fundamental charters of humanity. The ICRC has also prepared a detailed commentary on these instruments; at present the main effort is directed towards disseminating knowledge of them, because these Conventions can save thousands upon thousands of lives—but only if they are widely known. This suffices to illustrate the primordial importance of the issues involved.

In signing these treaties, the States have undertaken to publicise their provisions; but it must be added that little has been done in this regard. The ICRC is therefore encouraging States to greater efforts, by providing assistance and, particularly, by issuing appropriate publications. The XXth Conference called upon States to intensify their efforts to implement the Conventions and to make them widely known.

There is one particular point I would like to emphasize in this connection: the need to ensure that military forces placed at the disposal of the United Nations apply the provisions of the Geneva Conventions. It appears quite likely that in the future the United Nations will be called upon to an increasing extent to maintain or restore peace and UN troops will consequently be engaged more frequently. But the United Nations Organisation, as such, is not a party to the Conventions.

As early as 1956, at the time of the Suez conflict, the ICRC had intimated its misgivings in this connection to Mr. Hammarskjöld and received satisfactory assurances. But in 1960, when the United Nations intervened in the Congo, it became clear that their forces had not been sufficiently briefed in this respect. The ICRC therefore took up the question once again and was informed that

the UN aimed at respecting the " principles " of the Geneva Conventions, that mention to this effect had been introduced into the service regulations and that the troops would henceforth receive adequate instruction on the point.

When the Congo dispute ended, the ICRC took up the whole question with Mr. Thant, Secretary-General of the United Nations. The intention in so doing was to ascertain what measures should be taken to ensure that the Conventions would be observed in full (thus going beyond mere observance of the principles alone) and also what measures were to be taken against breaches of their provisions. Could not the United Nations Organisation, as such, adhere to the Conventions, or could not its General Assembly at least make a solemn declaration to that effect ? To do so would not appear to give rise to any theoretical difficulty—it is acknowledged nowadays that the UN can become a party to any treaty whatsoever. United Nations jurists, however, raise difficulties of a procedural nature : the UN is not a state and has no army of its own ; moreover, it cannot substitute its own jurisdiction for that of the countries which have furnished contingents of troops.

For the moment, we have received an assurance that the Secretariat-General of the UN will include in all agreements made with countries placing troops at the disposal of the UN a provision to the effect that such troops shall respect the Geneva Conventions. This system has worked satisfactorily in the case of the UN contingents sent to Cyprus. The question has, therefore, been partly solved, at least on the practical level. At the same time the ICRC sent a memorandum directly to all the member States of the United Nations, drawing their attention to the fact that the States themselves continued to remain responsible for the application of the Conventions by the troops they furnish to the UN. Each one of them was, consequently, requested to take whatever measures it deemed appropriate to this end.

The whole question was submitted to the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross, which adopted the resolution entitled *Application of the Geneva Conventions by the United Nations Emergency Forces*.¹

¹ See *International Review*, Nov., 1965, for full text of resolution.

The Protection of Civilian Populations against the Dangers of Indiscriminate Warfare

This was undoubtedly the most important item before the Vienna Conference.

The 1949 Geneva Convention No. IV protects civilians only against abuses of power by the enemy authorities. It does not touch upon such matters as the rules of warfare or the use of certain weapons. The accumulated ravages of the Second World War were, however, such as to leave the world horror-stricken. Whereas the First World War totalled 10 million killed, including 500,000 civilians, the 1939-45 war killed 50 million people—26 million military personnel, and 24 million civilians. Of the civilian casualties, 1,500,000 deaths resulted from air attack.

A helpless world witnessed a prodigious acceleration in destruction, an irreversible evolution of the instruments of war towards an ever more "total" form, progressing from classic bombardment to the atomic bomb, by way of "carpet-bombing", V2s and napalm. And, when the fires of war were quenched, nuclear physics continued to yield frightening discoveries. Today, a single thermo-nuclear missile suffices to annihilate a large capital city—and the great powers possess enough missiles to end all life on the surface of the globe.

Even more disquieting is the fact that, whereas the ruined cities have been rebuilt, the States have done nothing to restore the Hague Rules, which vanished under the same ruins. Neither the Government of the Netherlands nor the United Nations have been willing to take up the torch—the horizon remains dark in so far as undertaking a revision of the rules of warfare is concerned. While the techniques of offensive action have taken giant strides forward, the only rules which can be invoked date from 1907. Such a situation is flagrant in its absurdity.

And what is more, the very repetition of destructive attacks, and the progress made in the technical field, have bred a terrible familiarity—the feeling of horror becomes numbed and indignation yields to resignation to what is regarded as the work of fate. New methods of warfare thus finally come to appear lawful. We must protest with all the force at our command against this attitude,

against this abdication of conscience in the face of the rampant neo-barbarism which dishonours the century we live in, and which is tantamount to claiming that man should allow himself to be dominated by his own creations instead of remaining master of them. While it is true that the rules of warfare, drawn up before bomber aircraft were known, are outmoded because they have not been brought up to date, the principles underlying these rules remain valid because they are the expression of an eternal truth. It can be affirmed that the mass bombing raids of the last war were unjustifiable from either the moral or the legal standpoint, and indeed even from the practical aspect.

In view of the paramount importance of the question, and since no other body was willing to tackle it, the ICRC stepped outside the framework of the Geneva Conventions, but in so doing it believes that it is being faithful to its duty. And, further, it limited itself to the question of air bombardment. In undertaking such a venture the ICRC based itself on the finding that the mass bombing of cities during the Second World War did not "pay" from the military viewpoint, this being the rather tragic admission the experts had to make after the event. And when the military planners wished, for tactical or political reasons, to spare particular buildings they were remarkably successful in doing so.

We had also present in our minds an idea which could, perhaps, provide the key to the problem. What is required is to attack, not any specific weapon, such as the atomic bomb, but rather certain methods of waging war. It may be taken for granted that States which possess nuclear armaments will not agree to deprive themselves of such weapons. Indeed, to do so would serve no purpose, for as soon as one weapon is banned an even more terrible one will be invented. The Hamburg and Dresden raids caused as many, if not more, deaths than the A-bomb attacks on Hiroshima and Nagasaki—and at Oradour the weapon employed was simply an ordinary box of matches. The principle to be established is, therefore, as follows: irrespective of the weapons employed in the course of a conflict, the civilian population must be respected, or at least not exposed to risks out of proportion to the military value of the objective aimed at.

The ICRC has drawn up, with the assistance of experts, "Draft Rules" designed to limit the risks incurred by the civilian population in time of war; these Rules were the object of a rather hesitant approval in principle at the XIXth International Red Cross Conference (New Delhi, 1957). In accordance with the decision of that session of the Conference, the ICRC transmitted the draft text to governments; their replies took the form of a crushing silence, with the exception of a few well-disposed countries. The great powers, in particular, remained silent, being apparently of the opinion that the draft text was incompatible with their present defence systems which they think offer them security, illusory though it may be.

What was to be done? The Red Cross could not abandon the civilian populations to their sad fate. Consequently, having again consulted experts, the ICRC conceived the idea of persuading States to acknowledge some elementary humanitarian principles to be applied in all cases to the treatment of the civilian population in the conduct of military operations. The XXth Conference also adopted this course when it approved resolution XXVIII entitled Protection of Civilian Populations against the Dangers of Indiscriminate Warfare:

The XXth International Conference of the Red Cross,

states that indiscriminate warfare constitutes a danger to the civilian population and the future of civilisation,

solemnly declares that all Governments and other authorities responsible for action in armed conflicts should conform at least to the following principles:

- that the right of the parties to a conflict to adopt means of injuring the enemy is not unlimited;
- that it is prohibited to launch attacks against the civilian populations as such;
- that distinction must be made at all times between persons taking part in the hostilities and members of the civilian population to the effect that the latter be spared as much as possible;
- that the general principles of the Law of War apply to nuclear and similar weapons;

In the present disjointed state of the rules of warfare, most of which are more than 50 years old, it is no exaggeration to consider the four rules mentioned in the resolution as being the general principles of customary law which now regulate the question. It is the only pronouncement of the kind made by an assembly in which governments are represented since the Second World War.

The first of these principles is taken from the 1907 Hague Rules ; the second, and part of the third, come from the declaration made by the League of Nations in 1938. Other elements could doubtless be added, such as a statement that bombardments should be limited to military targets and should not inflict on the enemy suffering out of proportion to the military importance of the objective aimed at, and that during attacks on military targets every precaution should be taken to avoid injury to populations.

The fourth principle, which is to be found in the British Manual of Military Law, appears for the first time in an international instrument. The implications of this principle are far-reaching because, if words are to have any meaning, it indicates that the indiscriminate use of nuclear energy is not lawful. The new weapons may be employed only under the conditions established by the general principles of law. The principles in question are precisely those which we have just mentioned—no attacks on civilian populations as such ; a distinction to be made between combatants and non-combatants ; and avoidance of disproportionate suffering.

On this basis, already well established, the ICRC will pursue its efforts and we can be sure that the results already achieved will be put to the best effect. Its hope is that the powers will formally confirm their undertakings on the basis of the principles formulated at Vienna.

One particular, immediate and practical aspect of the protection of civilian populations is the question of the status to be accorded to persons engaged in practical work in an endeavour to ensure the survival of inhabitants. Such persons, active in what is known as Civil Defence, deal with alerts, black-outs, shelters, fire-fighting, searching for casualties under ruins and caring for them, evacuation, etc. In short, what is required is the formulation of international rules securing immunity to members of Civil Defence services, similar to that provided for military medical personnel

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under the Geneva Conventions. When, one hundred years ago, international protection was granted to military medical corps, these bodies developed and saved thousands of lives. Civil Defence services, granted immunity in their turn, could perhaps also develop and save equal numbers of lives. The problem is admittedly complex, since such services make a contribution to national defence, but it is not beyond solution.

In order to be protected, these services should remain non-combatant in character, even if they engage in rescue work in establishments regarded as military targets. They would be allowed to protect only such property as is not used mainly for military ends. In performing their duties the personnel of Civil Defence services would wear a distinctive uniform insignia (which would not be a red cross, except perhaps in the case of purely medical services). A resolution adopted at Vienna recognised the need to strengthen protection for Civil Defence personnel and requested the ICRC to continue its work, drawing upon the assistance of specialists. The ICRC proposes, therefore, to draft appropriate regulations.

Assistance to Victims of Internal Disturbances

The Geneva Conventions, despite the broadening of their scope in 1949, do not cover the whole range of human suffering. The ICRC will therefore continue to work, as it has done unceasingly for the past century, towards extending the ground won by humanitarian law. One of the main tasks in this field is to secure a minimum of protection for victims of internal disturbances.

Until quite recently, international law applied only to international wars. Insurrectionary movements were, with rare exceptions, bloodily repressed. This amounted to a gaping lacuna in humanitarian law and gave rise to an urgent need to secure in such cases the application of at least the basic principles of the Geneva Conventions, since civil wars cause proportionately greater suffering, by reason of the hatred and mercilessness they conjure forth, than do international wars. Why is this so? It is because the adversary is known to the combatant and personal considerations envenom the conflict.

For this reason the ICRC evolved the idea of introducing into the Geneva Conventions an audacious and paradoxical provision

which would aim at applying international law to a national phenomenon. After months of discussion the 1949 Diplomatic Conference adopted Article 3, common to all four Conventions, already widely known at that stage, and which in itself constitutes what one might term a "mini-Convention". This Article provides that in non-international conflicts all the parties involved should observe at least certain basic humanitarian principles : respect for persons not participating in the conflict ; prohibition of torture, of the taking of hostages and of irregular convictions and executions. This Article has already enabled the ICRC to intervene in several armed conflicts. Nevertheless, despite its value and the precedent it represents, Article 3 is still of limited scope and presupposes the existence of a state of armed conflict.

A characteristic of our times is, however, the thriving growth of political ideologies which aim at subordinating everything to their own ends ; a consequence of such a situation is the proliferation of subversive movements seeking to overthrow the established régime by the use of force. Against this background there have developed, between States, those extreme tensions sometimes referred to as the cold war and, within States, destructive opposition between competing factions. And it frequently happens that, in their own countries, citizens are the object of exceptional legislation, are deprived of their liberty merely because they voice certain opinions, are subject to arbitrary procedures and, in the final analysis, are less well treated than enemy soldiers captured bearing arms. During the course of history, law first developed within human communities ; efforts were then made to extend some elements of the law to international wars, and subsequently to civil wars. By a strange and surprising reversal of the situation, what is now required is that the Law of War should apply in time of peace and also be applicable to the internal affairs of countries.

In this way it is coming to be more and more widely held that the mission of international law is to secure a minimum of guarantees and humanitarian treatment to all mankind, be it in time of peace or in time of war, and irrespective of whether the conflict in which the individual may be engaged is with either a foreign nation or the society to which he belongs. Opinion will certainly continue to evolve along these lines but will probably not attain its

full development until the law is sanctioned by judicial instances and supervisory machinery, backed by an international force capable of securing compliance with the decisions pronounced. Such a system would probably imply a new world organisation. For the moment, there is scope here for exploring the possibilities for humanitarian action, since a "no man's land" should not be tolerated in the field of human suffering. The approach to the problem is particularly delicate; national sovereignty and State security are formidable obstacles to progress in this direction.

How has the ICRC tackled the question up to now? It has convened meetings of experts of world-wide reputation. These experts proclaimed the principles which should govern the treatment of victims and on which rescue action should be based. These declarations have already helped the ICRC to open certain doors. Bodies such as the International League for the Rights of Man or the International Commission of Jurists could doubtless complement Red Cross action by undertaking measures in areas outside Red Cross competence. For practical reasons, and in order to avoid compromising its very existence, the ICRC has limited itself to matters relating to war or to situations resembling a state of war. For the moment its efforts are restricted to persons detained as a result of violence, disturbances or extreme tensions. A resolution adopted by the XXth Conference urges the ICRC to pursue its activities in this field.

The Red Cross and Peace

Can the Red Cross contribute to the maintenance of peace and the peaceful solution of international conflicts? This is a question which has now been under discussion for a long time. While it was immediately granted that the Red Cross can help to spread the spirit of peace among peoples and that its whole approach, and its day-to-day work, are a condemnation of violence, it was also recognised that the non-political character of the Red Cross imposes limits on the action it can take to prevent war.

If it be true that peace is cherished by all peoples, it is also true that they often seem to be unable to agree on how peace is to be established or maintained or on the nature it should take. Now,

to pronounce on the questions raised by a reorganisation of the world is to move, willingly or not, into the political sphere. The desire to achieve something in this sphere implies descending into the arena with the nations and parties. It is quite certain that if the Red Cross were to engage thus in a struggle for which it is not intended, one of the first results would be its own destruction.

Nevertheless, a few years ago the ICRC was called upon to go beyond the traditional scope of its mission and undertake responsibilities in a completely new field. This happened in autumn 1962 during the Cuba incident. For a few days the political situation was so serious that it seemed as if thermo-nuclear war were imminent. The Secretary-General of the United Nations then turned to the ICRC as being the only body capable of still saving the peace: what was required was to verify that ships bound for Cuba were not carrying long-range atomic weapons for that country. The ICRC considered that it could not shirk such a task, but it made its acceptance subject to all the conditions imposed by prudence and the desire to maintain its neutrality. In particular, and with a view to getting the question out of the political sphere, it insisted on securing the express agreement of the countries concerned. Such agreement was forthcoming, but, finally, the situation eased before the Red Cross had actually to undertake inspections. An interesting precedent had, however, been established.

At Vienna more discussion than ever was devoted to peace. Ten different draft texts were submitted ; these were finally consolidated in one text, namely Resolution X, entitled The Red Cross as a Factor in World Peace.

As can be seen, the 1965 Conference remained worthy of its predecessors. It showed that the International Red Cross is indeed a living institution, active everywhere and always faithful to its ideals. It has blazed the trail in many fields of international law, and we may hope that the final result of its efforts will benefit all mankind.

Libya

The International Committee announced its recognition of the Libyan Red Crescent in a circular dated September 9, 1959. The Society's mission was to give emergency relief in the event of disaster, to contribute to the struggle against disease, to train medical personnel and to promote our common ideal.

During a recent mission to Libya, Mr. Pierre Gaillard, ICRC Delegate, met the leaders of this National Society who explained to him the tasks at present being undertaken in the country. These are summarized below for our readers. They demonstrate the efforts which have already been exerted and also the firm resolve of the Central Committee to pursue those efforts actively.

In Benghazi, the Red Crescent has set up in its headquarters a school for deaf and dumb children. This is the first institution of its kind in the country and Mr. Gaillard was able to observe how useful was the teaching given to the fifteen pupils by the school mistress.

Two medical clinics are operating in the poor quarters of the capital ; these too are the first of their kind in Libya. Both are in two storey buildings. The patients are treated free of charge and each clinic is run by doctors remunerated by the Red Crescent and assisted by nurses.

In addition, the National Society is planning to set up a further clinic in Benghazi and a fourth at Barce. This town, which was completely destroyed by an earthquake in 1963 has now been almost entirely reconstructed and a permanent medical social service would be desirable. A further detail : the Libyan Red Crescent intends to train more first-aiders and to set up Junior Red Crescent sections in a number of places.

Senegal

During his recent visit to Geneva, Mr. Alcantara, President of the Senegal Red Cross Society, kindly gave us details of the present-day tasks carried out by that Society which, it may be recalled, was recognized by the ICRC in 1963. In view of the valuable humanitarian work carried out under our common emblem for several years in Senegal, we are pleased to bring details to the knowledge of our readers.

The Senegal Red Cross can point to a slow but steady increase in its membership, both in the capital and the rest of the country. It has seven sections, one for each region. There is in Dakar not only the headquarters of the National Committee but also those of our regional Committee.

The regional Committees are set up as follows: *In Dakar* for the Cap Vert region, in *Thies* for the region of the same name, at *Saint-Louis* for the Fleuve region, at *Kaolack* for the Sine-Saloum region, at *Ziguinahor* for the Casamance region, at *Durbel* for the region of that name, and at *Tambacounda* for East Senegal. Each of these administrative regions has its own regional Committee and is divided into departments. Under our five-year plan, drawn up in 1964, it is planned to establish a committee for each village.

Benefits to mothers and children.—The Society's kindergartens are intended for children from 2 ½ to 6 years of age, preparatory to their attending school; they also aim at providing a useful service to parents. No charge is made if the parents are unable to pay. These kindergartens enable mothers to go out to work. This eases a difficult situation in many households, so that this Red Cross work is a genuine social service for the benefit of needy children.

Furthermore, the fact that children are admitted to school only after reaching seven years of age is another source of difficulty for working mothers. A further advantage of the kindergartens is that

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they teach French, a great help to the children when they do start school.

A medical social centre has also just been opened in one of the suburbs of Dakar. It is run by two voluntary doctors, two pharmacists and two nurses. Milk distributions occur there twice a week thanks to the donations received from the Swedish Red Cross.¹

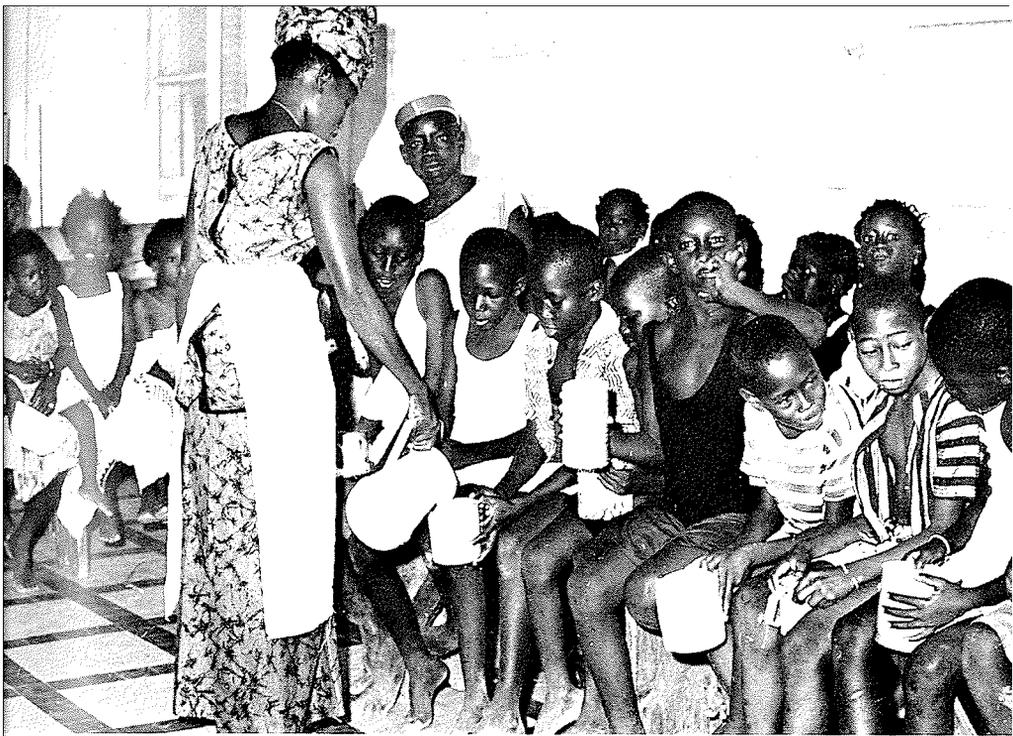
First-Aid.—First-aid courses are given to youths in three Dakar secondary schools. At the request of the Government, the Red Cross also trains members of such official forces as the fire brigade, the customs and the police in first-aid.

Social Service.—This operates with the help of voluntary women organizers and has now two full-time assistants.

It has a diversity of tasks, extending from home help to the care of "social cases". One of its activities should be stressed in particular, namely visits to hospitals and prisons. Moral comfort is given in this way. In the central prison, social work in the form of a dispensary is under the charge of the Red Cross which acts whenever its services are required.

It should be added that the National Society proposes to concern itself with other activities, especially as regards the Junior Red Cross. However it still lacks training personnel. All the same, the Red Cross is already solidly implanted in Dakar and in other parts of the country and does useful work for the greater good of the population.

¹ *Plate.* The Senegalese Red Cross ensuring milk distribution at Dakar.



Senegalese Red Cross: Distribution of milk near Dakar.

Photo Info-Senegal

Syrian Red Crescent: Anti-cholera vaccinations in Damascus during the summer of 1966.

Photo Hichmé, Damas



Syria

One of the ICRC delegates, Mr. Pierre Gaillard, recently returned from a trip to several countries in the Middle East. At Damascus he visited the Syrian Red Crescent and met its leading members; they acquainted him with the National Society's activities. We have pleasure in publishing below some details which he gave us on his return to Geneva.

The main tasks assumed by the Red Crescent in Syria are medical and medico-social in nature. They consist of :

1. **Dispensaries.** — In Damascus a dispensary gives treatment each day to twenty-five to thirty patients. This service which is exclusively for the poor is free of charge, on presentation of a card issued by the municipal authorities. A State laboratory carries out free analyses.
Similar Red Crescent dispensaries provide the same services at Aleppo and Homs.
2. **Milk distribution.** — The utility of this type of activity¹ is well known. The distribution centre set up by the Red Crescent in Aleppo is attended regularly by many mothers.
3. **Ambulances.** — Day and night service is provided in Damascus, Aleppo and Homs. In the capital, ambulance transport is free. Two vehicles, purchased partly with a grant from the Shôken Fund, have been allocated to this ambulance service which is auxiliary to the official ambulance service.
4. **Emergency measures.** — In serious situations calling for immediate action the Iraqi Red Crescent intervenes. For example, when a cholera epidemic broke out last summer in Irak, the Red Crescent vaccinated part of the population.¹ In view of the

¹ Cf. *International Review*, December 1966.

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likelihood of the situation becoming alarming in Syria, as a result of the proximity of affected areas, the Syrian National Society immediately acted ; its nurses and first-aiders took part in the anti-cholera vaccination of more than ten thousand people in Damascus. ¹

5. **Home nursing.** — Mention must be made of the initiative taken by the Red Crescent in 1966, on the recommendation and with the assistance of the League, to start courses on this subject ; each course is attended by a dozen pupils and is given by instructresses recently trained in Switzerland.

In addition, and although an activity undertaken by the State, the dissemination of knowledge on the Geneva Conventions is given special attention in Syria. Courses on the Conventions are given in officers training schools and will soon be introduced also into nursing schools ; in medical schools the provisions of international humanitarian law are explained and included as an examination subject.



¹ *Plate.* Anti-cholera vaccinations in Damascus by the Syrian Red Crescent.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION IN CASES OF DISASTER

The first International Conference on the Prevention and Elimination of the Effects of Disasters was held at Skopje from October 25 to 30, 1966. The organizing committee, apart from the Yugoslav Red Cross and representatives of various Yugoslav authorities, comprised those of several international organizations such as War on Want, the Oecumenical Council of Churches, the League of Red Cross Societies and the ICRC. There were 200 persons present, amongst whom were delegates of twenty National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, of ten governments and different international organizations, such as UNO, FAO, UNICEF and UNESCO. The ICRC was represented by Mr. C. Pilloud, Director and Mr. C. Ammann, Head of the Relief Section.

The Conference had some sixty reports submitted to it which give a clear impression of what prevention and assistance can be effected. We think it to be of interest to quote the titles of those submitted by National Red Cross Societies to enable account to be taken of the problems examined and our movement's contribution to studies whose urgency has become strikingly apparent. It will, at the same time, be seen how varied and often extensive humanitarian work has been in tragic circumstances.

We mention beforehand that Mrs. M. Rupena-Osolnik in her address described the action of the Yugoslav Red Cross of which she is Secretary-General.

Yugoslav experience in preventing and eliminating the consequences of disasters (Yugoslav Red Cross).

The rôle of the Yugoslav Red Cross in cases of natural disaster.

Red Cross action during the Skopje disaster (Red Cross of Macedonia).

Relief action of the German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic at Skopje.

The intervention of the German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany in cases of natural disaster.

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The activity of the Red Cross of the Antonomous Province of Vojvodina in the 1965 floods.

Relief actions following on disasters (Hellenic Red Cross).

Report of the Indian Red Cross on relief in cases of disaster.

Experience of the Turkish Red Crescent in earthquakes.

The rôle of the Red Cross in international relief actions (Yugoslav Red Cross).

Experience of the Swiss Red Cross.

Methods employed by the Swedish Red Cross in relief action in cases of natural disaster.

On certain plans of action during the period immediately following natural disasters (Yugoslav Red Cross).

Three reports of the Czechoslovak Red Cross on its relief action during the floods in Czechoslovakia in 1965.

Report of the Netherlands Red Cross on the transporting of equipment and goods in cases of disaster.

Activity of the Polish Red Cross in floods, first-aid, evacuation and social welfare.

Representatives of international Red Cross institutions also submitted reports. Mr. Pilloud, on behalf of the ICRC, explained, inter alia, the problem of searching for missing persons, a sphere in which the Central Tracing Agency in Geneva possesses unique experience. This account we now publish below.

The Central Tracing Agency, which is one of the services of the ICRC, has been and is still carrying out very large numbers of searches for missing persons. However, its experience of cases of natural disaster are practically non-existent and the searches it undertakes for persons missing in conflicts are of a completely different nature. In fact, the disappearance of persons during the course of a conflict is generally due to some human factor connected with the state of the conflict.

The system practiced by the Central Tracing Agency is known to a certain extent. This office receives information on persons, such as prisoners of war, the wounded, interned civilians, detainees, the dead etc. . . . It then records this on information cards classified in alphabetical order. In another connection, the Agency receives requests for information which is also recorded on an inquiry card and placed in the same card-index. When an inquiry card coincides with an information card there is what is known as concordance, thus enabling the inquirer to be provided with the information he wishes to obtain.

In cases of natural disaster, no information is available.

The situation is somewhat similar to that which existed towards the end of the Second World War when the ICRC was concerned with the reuniting of families dispersed by the events. At that time it established a special descriptive card (No. 10,027) which members of a separated family were invited to complete and return to the Central Agency.

In this way it was possible to indicate to members of a family the location to which they had been transferred, a first step with a view to their reunion.

In natural disasters, the tracing of missing persons should employ systems dependent on the methods of organization and registration and possibly also on the degree of organization in a particular country.

In certain countries, for example in Austria, all inhabitants are registered and if they leave their place of residence for more than 24 hours they must, according to the regulations, report the fact to the local authorities. All this information is centralized, so that it is possible at any given moment to determine the number and names of persons in such and such an area. A similar system also exists in Switzerland.

In other countries such as the USA for example, people travel freely across the entire territory and are not obliged to report their moves. It would naturally be more difficult with such methods to discover population figures in a determined area.

Again, other countries do not possess any real system of registering the population and it would therefore be difficult, if not impossible, to establish the number and names of inhabitants in a stricken area.

The first step in creating a Tracing Service in the case of natural disasters would be to determine the extent of the area afflicted.

That having been done, the two following measures could be considered.

1) The most effective means and one which could be everywhere applied would be immediately to make card-forms available to the survivors, enabling them to write to their relatives informing them that they were safe and sound.

For illiterates, announcements could be made on the radio, mentioning places where card-forms could be found and where they could be filled in by third parties.

These cards should be directed to their destinations as quickly as possible and it would be desirable for them to be free from postal charges.

The wording of these card-forms should therefore be drawn up, as these could vary from one country to another, but they should

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always enable the sender and the recipient to be clearly identified.

Such printed cards could contain a certain number of details which could eventually be deleted as, for example, "in good health", "slightly injured" etc. . . . These should comprise a column indicating the new address, should the person sending it have been transferred away from his domicile.

Considerable stocks of these card-forms should be printed and distributed to different points in the country. This is a task which the National Red Cross could undertake. One could also consider entrusting it to the postal authorities.

2) The second measure could consist in making all persons, who have had to leave their domicile, complete a card of a change of address, indicating their new whereabouts. These cards should be filled in by all displaced persons and centralized in a card-index at a post office.

Details of death and unconscious persons should also be forwarded to this office.

It would also receive inquiries and, by means of the card-index thus constituted, would attempt to reply to these.

It should therefore be necessary to establish considerable stocks of change of address cards which could be either card-forms used regularly by the postal service or special cards reserved for cases of natural disaster.

The centralization of these cards could be entrusted to another authority or to the National Red Cross Society. However, in countries where the postal system operates in a regular manner, the postal authorities would be most fitted to keep this card-index up-to-date.

The two measures mentioned above could naturally be combined. For example, a person who has been displaced as a result of a natural disaster could easily complete at the same time a card indicating a change of address and send to relatives in other localities card-forms informing them of his new address and of his state of health.

It is obvious that such measures should be accompanied by the creation, should circumstances so demand, of an identification service of deceased persons which would resort to every possible means of investigation for the purpose of identifying the victims' bodies.

Finally, special measures would be required to identify persons who may be incapable of revealing their exact identity and address, young children, persons rendered unconscious as a result of wounds, or those suffering from shock, etc. . .

For such persons whose tracing is rendered particularly difficult, one should, before evacuating them, try to establish their identity, by calling upon their neighbours as witnesses.

Information thus obtained would be mentioned on a label with which the person in question would be provided.

Once evacuation from the site has been made, identification would in fact become much more difficult and even sometimes impossible.

It should also be mentioned that the League representatives submitted reports of general interest. Mr. H. Mathiesen, Chairman of the Disaster Relief Advisory Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies and Secretary-General of the Norwegian Red Cross, referred to the importance of the co-ordination of disaster relief work. He stressed the need for co-operation and said that if the central relief plan was "the most important factor in the structure of co-ordination", this should not, on a national level, be considered distinct from international co-ordination, the one conditioning the other.

Then Mr. J. P. Robert-Tissot, Director of the Relief Bureau, described the problems raised in the planning and co-ordinating of disaster relief. He recalled Resolution XVII of the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross relative to international relief actions,¹ and the fact that the League is setting up a draft National Disaster Relief Plan. It is therefore for this National Plan to assign specific tasks in cases of natural disaster to the various bodies capable of taking part in a relief programme. Mr. Robert-Tissot concluded as follows :

... We must underline that the Plan should also assign specific duties to the Red Cross Society. It is not possible to state precisely those which should apply to each Society. This will depend on the degree of development of the Society in question, its organisation, structure, normal activities, the number and qualifications of its staff and volunteers and its financial and material resources, all of which vary from country to country. However, this is no obstacle to "being prepared in advance and act when disaster strikes." The principle remains the same whether the entire Society is organised on a disaster relief basis or only includes within the organisation a disaster relief department, section or bureau. It must be prepared to act, because one of its fundamental duties is to assist disaster victims.

¹ See *International Review*, November 1965.

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In accordance with the Plan and their degree of preparedness, National Societies will be able either to direct or co-ordinate or simply participate in relief operations.

In providing relief, the Red Cross' role is to supply the four primary emergency needs of disaster victims : food, shelter, clothing and supplementary medical aid. The National Society can assume responsibility for carrying out all or any one of the tasks involved in satisfying the four main immediate needs referred to above. Usually it should stop there. The temptation to go further is strong but should be resisted. Maintenance of law and order, police work, removal of debris, care of the dead, public health and sanitation etc., are matters for the authorities. Similarly, in most cases, reconstruction and rehabilitation are outside the Red Cross sphere.

Whatever the responsibilities falling to a National Society in a relief operation—direct, co-ordination or simply participation—it must never deviate from Red Cross fundamental principles and principles already adopted for relief operations (Oslo principles). Its duty is to proclaim and ensure the respect of these principles and refuse to accept any form of infringement. This is a *sine qua non* for Red Cross intergration in a National Relief Plan and an unconditional preliminary.

Red Cross responsibilities having been established, the National Society will draw up its own plan of action (on national, regional and local levels). Its duty is to prepare itself for effective intervention in the event of disaster, corresponding to the requirements of the National Disaster Relief Plan or the expectations of its government. It should ensure through such measures as seminars, practice and staff exercises that plans are practical and sufficiently flexible to meet the unexpected.

Later on, as the National Society's programme develops, and according to its degree of preparedness, it can add other duties to those originally assigned. Above all, it will constantly endeavour to improve and increase the effectiveness of action at every level of its organisation. Bilateral or regional agreements may also be drawn up with sister Societies for mutual assistance.

The Conference adopted these conclusions which we will publish in a forthcoming number, in view of their significance.

DISSEMINATION OF KNOWLEDGE ON THE HUMANITARIAN PRINCIPLES AND CONVENTIONS

It gives us pleasure to bring to the notice of our readers an interesting innovation at the Laguna University in Santa Cruz, Tenerife. In co-operation with the Spanish Red Cross Canaries Branch it has organized a series of thirteen lessons on "Principles and Conventions for humanitarian protection"; these lessons are given by Mr. Juan José Gómez de Rueda, Mexican Red Cross Delegate in Europe and former Adviser to the ICRC and the League in Geneva.

In November 1966, the inaugural lesson was attended by local dignitaries, the Dean of the University and a large public. Mr. de Rueda first recalled the value in the world today of the Red Cross idea which possesses a strength and dynamism sufficient to draw the efforts of men of goodwill. The First Geneva Convention was a capital event in protection for human beings and the ever-increasing importance of the 1949 Geneva Conventions and the need to apply them and defend the principles thereof was apparent in the following lessons. Courses will also begin on the Red Cross organization and action.

This first lesson was followed by the film "Red Cross on a White Field", which aroused keen interest and was shown again a few days later.

Weekly courses of one hour are planned; they will probably be followed by a seminar where students will be able to study questions relating to humanitarian protection and to prepare to become the future leaders of the Red Cross and other relief work. In addition, we would mention that before extending his courses on a wider scale, Mr. de Rueda will give summary courses in a series of broadcasts over Radio Atlantico.

52nd CONFERENCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL LAW ASSOCIATION

The 52nd Conference of the International Law Association was held in Helsinki from August 14 to 20, 1966. The International Committee of the Red Cross was represented there by Mr. Frédéric Siordet, one of its members.

In the sphere of international medical law the Conference passed two important resolutions whose texts were as follows.¹

Resolutions

The 52nd Conference of the International Law Association, held in Helsinki in August, 1966,

Thanks the President, the Rapporteur and the members of the International Law Committee for the considerable work they have done ;

Reaffirms the necessity of applying the Geneva Conventions of 1949 to any armed conflict, whether of an international or a non-international character, and particularly insists upon :

- (a) The universal application of the principle that nobody should be penalized for having succoured the victims of any such conflict, and
- (b) The obligation undertaken by States parties to these Conventions to publish them in time of peace ;

Recommends that the national Branches of the International Law Association use their influence with their respective Governments to promote the above-mentioned objectives ;

Requests the International Medical Law Committee to propose and formulate, in co-operation with the humanitarian international organizations, such as the International Red Cross Committee, the International Committee of Military Medicine and Pharmacy and the International Committee for the Neutrality of Medicine, solutions consistent with the Charter of the United Nations and acceptable to all parties concerned ; and

¹ Unofficial text.

Expresses the wish that a legal study of the prevention and punishment of violations of humanitarian rights be undertaken under the auspices of the United Nations in co-operation with the Human Rights Commission of the United Nations and the principal humanitarian organizations.

*

The 52nd Conference of the International Law Association held in Helsinki in August 1966,

Noting the unanimous Resolution adopted at the International Red Cross Congresses in 1963 and 1965 recommending, respectively, that the United Nations adopt a solemn declaration accepting that the four Geneva Conventions of August 12th, 1949, apply to their Emergency Forces, and that appropriate arrangements be made to ensure that armed forces placed at the disposal of the United Nations observe the provisions of these Conventions and be protected by them ;

Notes that the diplomatic Conference convened by UNESCO in The Hague in 1954 in a unanimous resolution expressed the hope that the competent organs of the United Nations should decide, in the event of military action being taken in implementation of the Charter, to ensure application by the armed forces taking part in such action of The Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict of May 14th, 1954 ;

Notes with satisfaction that States providing contingents to the United Nations Force in Cyprus have undertaken, in their agreements with the United Nations, to take appropriate steps to ensure the enforcement of the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the UNESCO Convention of 1954 in respect of the members of their contingents serving the Force ;

Notes the provisions in Article 2 common to the four Geneva Conventions and in Article 18 (3) of the UNESCO Convention to the effect that the contracting parties are bound by the Conventions even in relation to a non-contracting Power, if the latter accepts and applies their provisions ;

Recommends that, in order to secure legal protection under these Conventions for the members of the armed forces on both sides and for all other persons involved in any armed conflict in which any United Nations might become involved, the United Nations should declare that it accepts the provisions of the Geneva Conventions of August 12th, 1949, and The Hague Convention of May 14th, 1954, and that any forces of the United Nations will apply these provisions.

EXTRACT FROM THE STATUTES OF
THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

(AGREED AND AMENDED ON SEPTEMBER 25, 1952)

ART. 1. — The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), founded in Geneva in 1863 and formally recognized in the Geneva Conventions and by International Conferences of the Red Cross, shall be an independent organization having its own Statutes.

It shall be a constituent part of the International Red Cross.¹

ART. 2. — As an association governed by Articles 60 and following of the Swiss Civil Code, the ICRC shall have legal personality.

ART. 3. — The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva.

Its emblem shall be a red cross on a white ground. Its motto shall be “*Inter arma caritas*”.

ART. 4. — The special rôle of the ICRC shall be :

- (a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition;

¹ The International Red Cross comprises the National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies. The term “*National Red Cross Societies*” includes the Red Crescent Societies and the Red Lion and Sun Society.

- (c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions;
- (d) to take action in its capacity as a neutral institution, especially in case of war, civil war or internal strife; to endeavour to ensure at all times that the military and civilian victims of such conflicts and of their direct results receive protection and assistance, and to serve, in humanitarian matters, as an intermediary between the parties;
- (e) to contribute, in view of such conflicts, to the preparation and development of medical personnel and medical equipment, in co-operation with the Red Cross organizations, the medical services of the armed forces, and other competent authorities;
- (f) to work for the continual improvement of humanitarian international law and for the better understanding and diffusion of the Geneva Conventions and to prepare for their possible extension;
- (g) to accept the mandates entrusted to it by the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its rôle as a specifically neutral and independent institution and consider any questions requiring examination by such an institution.

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. The number of members may not exceed twenty-five.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS

PUBLISHED BY THE ICRC

Geneva Conventions of August 12, 1949. **Essential provisions**, 1965, 8vo, 3 pp. Sw. Fr. 0,50.—

Claude PILLOUD. **Reservations to the 1949 Geneva Conventions**, 1965, 8vo, 8 pp. Sw. Fr. 2.—

ICRC. **Annual Report 1964**. 1965, 8vo, 80 pp. Sw. Fr. 6.—

PUBLISHED BY THE CENTENARY COMMISSION
OF THE RED CROSS IN SWITZERLAND

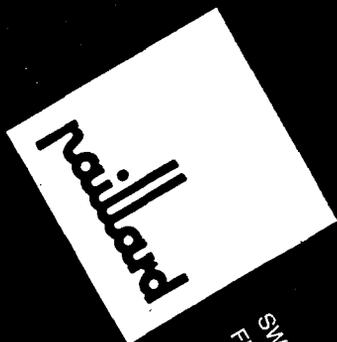
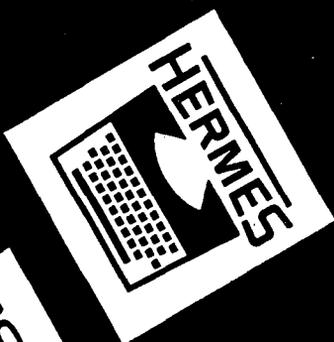
World Conference of Educators, (Lausanne, 19-23 August 1963), 1964, 8vo, 205 pp. Sw. Fr. 5.—

International Red Cross Meeting of First-Aiders, Macolin, (Switzerland), 18-24 August 1963, 1963, 8vo, 55 pp. Sw. Fr. 3.—

The Red Cross and Philately (1863-1963), 1965, 8vo, 24 pp., Ill., Sw. Fr. 2.—

Seminar on the activity of the Red Cross on behalf of the victims of armed conflicts, Geneva, August 1963, 1965, 8vo, 238 pp., Ill., Sw. Fr. 7.—

Centenary Congress of the International Red Cross. **Commemoration Day—Council of Delegates**, Geneva 1963, Ill., 120 pp., Sw. Fr. 10.—



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- AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Kruga Barrikadavet, *Tirana*.
- ALGERIA — Central Committee of the Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINE — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Flinders Street, *Melbourne, C. 1*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, *Vienna IV*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, Chaussée de Vleurgat, *Brussels 5*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simon-Bolivar, 1515 (Casilla 741), *La Paz*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça da Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S.S. Viruzov, *Sofia*.
- BURMA — Burma Red Cross, 42, Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI — Red Cross Society of Burundi, P.O. Box 98, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMBODIA — Cambodian Red Cross, 17 R Vithei Croix-Rouge, P.O.B. 94, *Phnom-Penh*.
- CAMEROON — Central Committee of the Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henry-Dunant, P.O.B. 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95, Wellesley Street East, *Toronto 5*.
- CEYLON — Ceylon Red Cross, 106 Dharmapala Mawatte, *Colombo VII*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria 0150, Casilla 246 V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 22 Kanmien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65 Apartado nacional 1110, *Bogota D.E.*
- CONGO — Red Cross of the Congo, 24, Avenue Valcke, P.O. Box 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 5a Sur, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Ignacio Agramonte 461, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *Prague I*.
- DAHOMEY — Red Cross Society of Dahomey, P.O. Box 1, *Porto-Novo*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Ny Vestergade 17, *Copenhagen K*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorean Red Cross, Avenida Colombia y Elizalde 118, *Quito*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Red Cross Road No. 1, P.O. Box 195, *Addis Ababa*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu I A, *Helsinki*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17, rue Quentin-Bauchart, *Paris (8^e)*.
- GERMANY (Dem. Republic) — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, *Dresden A. 1*.
- GERMANY (Federal Republic) — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, 5300 *Bonn 1*, Postfach (D.B.R.).
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREAT BRITAIN — British Red Cross, 14 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3.^e Calle 8-40 zona 1, *Guatemala C.A.*
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, rue Férou, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant 516, *Tegucigalpa D.C.*
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, *Budapest V*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Ølduggøtu 4, *Reykjavik*, Post Box 872.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 1*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Avenue Ark, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 16 Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76 Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 5 Shiba Park, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo*.
- JORDAN — Jordan Red Crescent, P.O. Box 1337, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, St Johns Gate, P.O. Box 712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, *Pyongyang*.
- KOREA (Republic) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3 Ka Nam San-Donk, *Seoul*.

ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- LAOS — Laotian Red Cross, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, *Beirut*.
- LIBERIA — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, Sinkor, P.O. Box 226, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYA — Libyan Red Crescent, Berka Omar Mukhtar Street, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBURG — Luxemburg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, *Luxemburg*.
- MADAGASCAR — Red Cross Society of Madagascar, rue Clemenceau, P.O. Box 1168, *Tananarive*.
- MALAYSIA — Malaysian Red Cross Society, 519 Jalan Belfield, *Kuala Lumpur*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Sinaloa 20, 4º piso, *Mexico 7, D.F.*
- MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 Boul. de Suisse, *Monte-Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Ulan-Bator*.
- MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, rue Calmette, *Rabat*.
- NEPAL — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tripureswore, P.B. 217, *Kathmandu*.
- NETHERLANDS — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsessegracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND — New Zealand Red Cross, 61 Dixon Street, P.O.B. 6073, *Wellington C.2*.
- NICARAGUA — Nicaraguan Red Cross, 12 Avenida Noroeste, *Managua, D.N.*
- NIGER — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA — Nigerian Red Cross Society, Eko Akete Close, Ikoyi, Yaba, P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, *Oslo*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Cross, Frere Street, *Karachi 4*.
- PANAMA — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado 668, *Panama*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, calle André Barbero y Artigas 33, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Jiron Chancay 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES — Philippine National Red Cross, 860 United Nations Avenue, P.O.B. 280, *Mamila*.
- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, General Secretaryship, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon 3*.
- RUMANIA — Red Cross of the Rumanian Socialist Republic, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, *Bucarest*.
- SALVADOR — Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente 21, *San Salvador*.
- SAN MARINO — San Marino Red Cross, *San Marino*.
- SAUDI ARABIA — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent, *Riyadh*.
- SENEGAL — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bld. Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SIERRA LEONE — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6 Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SOUTH AFRICA — South African Red Cross, Cor. Kruis & Market Streets, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid, 10*.
- SUDAN — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Artillerigatan 6, *Stockholm 14*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, B.P. 2699, 3001 *Berne*.
- SYRIA — Syrian Red Crescent, 13, rue Abi-Ala-Almaari, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA — Tanzania Red Cross Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND — Thai Red Cross Society, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, *Bangkok*.
- TOGO — Togolese Red Cross Society, Avenue des Alliés 19, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO — Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, 48 Pembroke Street, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain*.
- TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19, rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis*.
- TURKEY — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, *Ankara*.
- UGANDA — Uganda Red Cross, 17 Jinja Road P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC — Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Republic, 34, rue Ramses, *Cairo*.
- UPPER VOLTA — Upper Volta Red Cross, P.O.B. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- URUGUAY — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre, 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.A. — American National Red Cross, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington 6, D.C.*
- U.S.S.R. — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Tchermushki, J. Tchermushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow W-36*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No. 4, Apart. 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Trìèz, *Hanoi*.
- VIET NAM (Republic) — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, duong Hông-Thâp-Tu, No. 201, *Saigon*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.
- ZAMBIA — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box R. W. 1, Ridgeway, *Lusaka*.