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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

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BOOKS AND REVIEWS

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 to the English edition and may be obtained under the same conditions.

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SUPPLEMENTS TO THE REVIEW

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SPANISH

La acción del Comité Internacional de la Cruz Roja en el Congo y en Ruanda — La Vicepresidencia del CICR — Consejo de la Presidencia — Mensaje de Año Nuevo — Una nueva película del CICR « *Oriente Medio 1967* ».

GERMAN

Die Aktion des Internationalen Komitees vom Roten Kreuz im Kongo und in Ruanda — Vizepräsidentschaft des IKRK — Präsidenschaftsrat — Neujahrsbotschaft — Ein neuer Film des IKRK « *Naher Osten 1967* ».

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The International Committee of the Red Cross assumes responsibility only for material over its own signature.

Protection of civilian populations against the dangers of indiscriminate warfare

Mr. Frédéric Siordet, Vice-President of the ICRC, submitted the following report to the Council of Delegates at The Hague in September 1967:

Resolution XXVIII is no doubt one of the most important of those adopted by the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross. It deals with the protection of civilian populations against the dangers of indiscriminate warfare.

Recognizing that indiscriminate warfare constitutes a danger to the civilian population and the future of civilization, the resolution “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 addition, Resolution XXVIII

expressly invites all governments who have not yet done so to accede to the Geneva Protocol of 1925 which prohibits the use of asphyxiating, poisonous, or other gases, all analogous liquids, materials or devices, and bacteriological methods of warfare.

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By proclaiming the four principles which belligerents should always observe, Resolution XXVIII does not create a new law. It is an official and unanimous assertion by the International Red Cross, including government delegations, of the permanent validity, in spite of their antiquity and many violations, of the rules of the law of war which have never been denounced.

In its operative section, the resolution sets the ICRC some rather heavy tasks. For instance, the Conference:

urges the ICRC to pursue the development of International Humanitarian Law in accordance with Resolution No. XIII of the XIXth International Conference of the Red Cross, with particular reference to the need for protecting the civilian population against the sufferings caused by indiscriminate warfare,

requests the ICRC to take into consideration all possible means and to take all appropriate steps, including the creation of a committee of experts, with a view to obtaining a rapid and practical solution of this problem.

Present day troubles in the world make the tasks assigned to the ICRC by the XXth Conference yet more difficult. For that reason the ICRC decided to consult some twenty experts on all continents representing the different currents of thought. Fifteen of them have given the Committee valuable advice on how Resolution No. XXVIII of the XXth Conference could be followed up.

Without going into the details of these consultations, I would mention the following points:

In the first place, Resolution XXVIII is a good step in the right direction and affirms valid principles of the law of nations. This is not enough however; we must seek a formula in which States explicitly recognize these principles and would therefore be more closely bound to them.

Secondly, it would seem that in present circumstances it is impossible for the majority of governments to reach an international agreement in this sphere. Such an agreement must however remain the eventual objective.

Until such an agreement is reached every opportunity must be seized to reiterate the principles expounded in Vienna, to have them reaffirmed and extended if possible. In this connection, it has generally been thought advisable as an interim measure to have

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recourse to a declaration embodied in a resolution of the United Nations.

These are the conclusions which have induced the ICRC to send all governments parties to the 1949 Geneva Conventions and the Fourth Hague Convention of 1907, a memorandum dated May 19, 1967. All National Societies received a copy thereof in circular No. 468 of May 24 last. It was also published in the *International Review of the Red Cross*.¹ We shall merely quote two paragraphs:

In order for these principles to be fully operative, the International Committee urgently requests Governments to sanction them and, if need be, to develop them in an adequate instrument of international law. The International Committee is prepared to assist in drawing up such an instrument.

In addition, without awaiting the entry into force of this instrument and the possible achievement of an agreement between the Powers concerned for the formal prohibition of weapons of mass destruction, the International Committee invites the Governments to reaffirm, as of now, through any appropriate official manifestation, such as a resolution of the United Nations General Assembly, the value they attach to the principles cited above. Moreover these principles could henceforth be referred to in the instructions given to the armed forces.

The idea of a resolution of the UN General Assembly to confirm the Vienna principles received attention from several governments which have informed the ICRC that they would in principle be prepared to take the initiative by submitting a draft.

It is to be hoped that these efforts will achieve positive results. The ICRC would of course be pleased to give information to other governments to enable them to co-ordinate efforts with those of the governments which have already decided to act.

We may therefore hope that by the time the XXIst International Conference of the Red Cross is held some result will already have been obtained. However, even if the projects now in the wind come to fruition the problem of effective protection for civilian populations against the dangers of war will still have to be dealt with and the Red Cross efforts will be directed towards the conclusion of definite undertakings.

¹ June 1967.

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Similarly, in the field of the law and customs of war, efforts will have to be exerted to achieve precision, especially as most rules relating to the conduct of hostilities and resort to arms date back more than sixty years.

The ICRC has expressed its concern on this subject in an annex to the memorandum I mentioned earlier which describes the seriousness of the problem.

On July 26, 1966, the ICRC urged governments which have not yet acceded to the Geneva Protocol of 1925 to do so. It informed the U.N. Secretary-General of this step. Mr. Thant made it known to the members of the General Assembly which adopted a resolution confirming the prohibitions contained in the Protocol.

Such is the action taken so far by the ICRC in pursuance of Resolution No. XXVIII of the XXth International Conference. It intends to continue its efforts without respite and will be grateful for any suggestions which you may have to make for the implementation of this very important resolution. I need hardly say that it is and will be grateful for any approaches by National Societies to their governments in conformity with the penultimate paragraph of the Resolution which reads:

The Conference

requests all National Societies to intervene with their governments in order to obtain their collaboration for an early solution of this question and urges all governments to support the efforts of the International Red Cross in this respect.

We cannot hope to achieve worthwhile results unless the unanimity displayed at Vienna when Resolution XXVIII was adopted is translated into action.

RESISTANCE MOVEMENTS AND INTERNATIONAL LAW¹

by W. J. Ford

IV

17. Opinions of authors

In his article quoted last month, L. C. Green raises a question which is of paramount importance in the context of the present study, namely whether members of resistance movements have to observe the law of war and more specifically Articles 1 and 2 of the Hague Regulations in their struggle against the aggressor. In other words: does the fact that partisans fight to defend their country legitimate their status? The question is so important that it merits further discussion.

When the German armies had invaded the Soviet Union and had occupied a large part of the country, Marshal Stalin declared that the war against National Socialist Germany was a war of the Russian people against the German troops. Now, what is a "people's war" of this sort really? Trainin was of the opinion that it was a war waged by a people with its army and its partisan units.² The Russian author goes on to say that a real "people's war" is one waged by a nation to defend its rights, honour, freedom and independence. Such a war is lawful in contrast with a war waged with a view to conquering countries and subjugating peoples. Trainin says that since the 18th century the law of war has been influenced by the principles of democracy. The inhabitants of an

¹ See *International Review*, October, November, December 1967.

² I. P. Trainin, "Questions of guerilla warfare in the law of war", *American Journal of International Law*, Vol. 40, 1946.

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invaded country now have the right to defend themselves not only with their army but also with groups of partisans. This right may be exercised whether or not the partisans wear uniforms.

“ To link the right of the people to defend its native land and its honor to a uniform would be to carry the question of defense to an absurdity. Patriotism is not packed only in a military uniform, just as it is impossible for the activities of the spontaneous hurricane to be set forth in the rules of a meteorological observatory. ”

Nor can partisans justly be required to carry their arms openly. In these days when camouflaging arms is the rule such a requirement is out of place.

Trainin's views can be summarized as follows: members of resistance movements are not required to fulfil the conditions laid down in Articles 1 and 2 of the Hague Regulations as they struggle against the aggressor. Their war of defence legitimates their status.

The Russian author Korovin held different views.¹ In a book on international law he points out that under the provisions of Article 2 of the Hague Regulations the inhabitants of a belligerent country are only entitled to rise in arms against the approaching enemy if they carry their arms openly and observe the customs and laws of war. But the inhabitants of an effectively occupied territory are not entitled to make a stand against the enemy since Article 43 of the Hague Regulations authorizes the enemy to maintain public order and security in the territory. Accordingly the enemy is allowed to crush any resistance and to punish any person involved in it. Korovin denies that the Germans had the right to punish the Russian partisans as if they were criminals because he was of the opinion that the German occupation was not effective. Mankovsky sharply criticized Korovin's contentions at a meeting of the Legal Department of the Academy of Social Science at Moscow on 20 April 1950. He rejected the argument that the occupation had not been effective. Mankovsky was of the opinion that Marshal Stalin's call on the inhabitants of the occupied territories to form

¹ W. W. Kulski, "Some Soviet comments on International Law", *American Journal of International Law*, Vol. 45, 1951.

partisan units removed any doubt as to the effectiveness of the occupation.

The ruling of American Military Tribunal No. V in the Hostages Trial caused the Polish author Sawicki to question whether inhabitants defending themselves against an aggressor have to fulfil the requirements of the law of war.² Unlike the tribunal, Sawicki decided that there was no need for them to do so. He argued that the Hague Conferences did their codification work in a period when a war of aggression was not regarded as an international crime. It is now felt that a war of aggression is a crime and that it is lawful for the inhabitants of the invaded country to defend themselves collectively.

“ L’agresseur qui n’est pas un occupant légal, n’a pas et ne peut avoir aucun droit pour garantir ses intérêts, pas plus que n’en a un bandit qui s’introduit par effraction dans une maison. Ainsi la résistance contre l’activité de l’agresseur, même s’il observe les principes de la Convention de la Haye, aurait toujours les caractères d’une légitime défense collective de la population. ”

Sawicki refers to L. Ehrlich’s explanation before the Supreme National Court of Poland in the Greiser trial. Ehrlich argued that the war between Poland and Germany which started in 1939 could not be regarded as a war from the point of view of international law. It was a violation of accepted international obligations. Therefore Poland could not be regarded as occupied. It could only be viewed as a matter of “ l’accaparement d’un territoire étranger par voie de viol et de contrainte ».

To say that the inhabitants of an invaded country may use any means at their disposal to defend themselves and that the unlawful occupier should not in any way be supported by international law may seem an understandable and acceptable theory but the dangerous consequences of not applying the laws of war in cases of aggression should not be ignored, for the principle of reciprocity in international law may result in neither party observing it. The kind of warfare that was not subject to any rules and the resulting state

² G. Sawicki, “ Châtiment ou encouragement? *Revue de Droit international*, Sottile, No. 3, 1948.

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of affairs were the very things that induced Grotius to draw up his *De iure belli ac pacis, libri tres* (1625).

Against the idea that the applicability of the laws of war always depends on the causes of the war there is the view that the laws of war must be applied irrespective of the cause of the war.

Kunz states:

“ La guerre entreprise en violation de ce Pacte (the Kellogg Pact) est une guerre illicite, mais néanmoins une guerre et le droit de la guerre reste en vigueur. ”¹

Oppenheim expresses the same view in his Manual:

“ Ex injuria jus non oritur is an inescapable principle of law. At the same time, in view of the humanitarian character of a substantial part of the rules of war it is imperative that during the war these rules should be mutually observed regardless of the legality of the war. ”²

Nurick and Barrett come to the same conclusion when discussing the question whether or not partisans should be regarded as combatants: they merely point out the formal requirements of the law of war that partisans must fulfil if they are to be recognized as privileged combatants.³

Many other authors share the view that the causes of the war are irrelevant as far as the application of the law of war is concerned.⁴

The writer of the present study is of the opinion that the relationship between the occupying power and the civilian population

¹ J. L. Kunz, “ Plus de lois de la guerre? ”, *Revue générale de droit international public*, XLI, 1934.

² L. Oppenheim-H. Lauterpacht, *International Law* (II, 1952), p.218

³ L. Nurick and R. W. Barrett, “ Legality of guerilla forces under the laws of war ”, *American Journal of International Law*, Vol. 40, 1946.

⁴ Namely: P. Fauchille in his *Traité de droit international public* II, 1921, 12; K. Strupp-J. Hatschek in their *Wörterbuch des Völkerrechts und der Diplomatie* I, 1924, 763; E. H. Feilchenfeld in his *The International Economic Law of Belligerent Occupation*, 1942, 6; A. D. McNair in his *Legal Effects of War*, 1948, 322; C. M. O. van Nispen tot Sevenaer in his *La prise d'otages*, 1949, 42 and 43; J. P. A. François in his *Handboek van het Volkenrecht* (Manual of International Law) II 1950, 311; R. R. Baxter in his “ So-called ‘Unprivileged Belligerency’: Spies, Guerillas and Saboteurs ”, *British Year Book of International Law*, 1951 (1952), 324.

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should be regarded as one based on the do-ut-des principle. If the population on the whole is hostile to the occupying power, the latter is by this very fact automatically relieved of its obligation to protect the population and take care of it. It is unreasonable to expect the occupying power to treat the civilians in the territory occupied by it as non-combatants if the latter do not behave like non-combatants. On the other hand, the occupying power must fulfil its obligations and thereby bring about a situation in which it can demand of the civilian population that it remain passive.

In so far as international law gives rules governing warfare and occupation, it does not distinguish between wars lawfully started and wars unlawfully started nor between lawful and unlawful occupation. Time will tell whether this widely held view will ever change. For the time being the principle will have to be maintained that any occupying power—irrespective of whether or not its aggression is lawful—may invoke the laws of war in so far as they grant him impunity while punishing members of resistance movements.

This does not mean, however, that the civilian population is obliged to refrain from acts of resistance. There is no rule in the law of war making it incumbent upon the population to obey the occupying power.

Consequently, the position is this: the laws of war do not demand of the civilian population that it shall obey the occupying power, whereas they allow the occupying power to lay down rules governing the behaviour of the civilian population and to punish those that violate these rules provided they are given a fair trial.

It is the problem of unresolved conflicts in law; two legal systems that have not been harmonized exist side by side. International law will have to be interpreted in relation to the position of the civilian population and in relation to the position of the occupying power. So we have a situation in which resisting the enemy in occupied territory is legal whereas the occupying power can with impunity punish members of resistance movements. The problem of unresolved conflicts in law presents itself not only in the relation between the occupying power and members of resistance movements but also in armed conflicts not of an international character, in which members of resistance movements do not fight a foreign enemy but

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their own government. In these conflicts members of resistance movements are punished in accordance with the rules of domestic law. This does not alter the fact that international law—through the identical Article 3 in the four Geneva Conventions—accords the insurgent party certain minimum rights, which are based on humanitarian considerations. Here, too, there are two legal systems—the national and the international—which have not been harmonized, side by side.

The trials referred to in the foregoing have shown that everybody concerned with the subject is fully alive to the problem: resistance is allowed ethically and juridically, but the occupying power is juridically allowed to punish those who resist.

Under the laws of war in force nowadays, the occupying power can hardly be expected to accept patriotism as an excuse for acts of resistance. If we realize the relativity of law we shall concur with Baxter, who wrote in the article referred to above:

“... it is possible to envisage a day when the law will be so retailored as to place all belligerents, however garbed, in a protected status.”

18. Conclusions and recommendations

Hardly a century ago war was a matter involving but small numbers of people. The situation changed when national consciousness and democracy began to develop. Since then the number of people affected by war has constantly increased so the important dividing line between combatants and non-combatants laid down in the law of war has gradually become blurred. More and more civilians who are not members of the armed forces are taking part in war operations, and they suffer in increasing measure from air raids and from shortages of food and raw materials due to blockades. Wars are developing into struggles between the masses. Sir Winston Churchill said:

“When democracy forced itself upon the battlefield war ceased to be a gentleman’s game.”

Then there is another factor that influences war. As a result of the diametrically opposed views on political, economic and social matters held by various nations, the citizens of one country regard the citizens of another country as perpetrators of crimes. If war breaks out the citizens of the other country add to their crimes the crime of aggression. War is waged with unparalleled fanaticism, because each party is convinced that it is fighting criminal elements against whom all means, fair and foul, may be used. “Träger der feindlichen Einstellung nicht konservieren, sondern erledigen”—those were the words of the Barbarossa order of May 1941 given to the German army, navy and air force. If the opponents are regarded as criminals, the war becomes a “crusade against evil” in which anything goes. Civilians will be involved in such wars, actively as soldiers, members of resistance movements, workers or in any other capacity, passively as victims of enemy operations on land, at sea and in the air.

Both the fact that wars have developed into wars between the masses and the fact that many wars have become ideological wars blur the dividing line between combatants and non-combatants. This important distinction made in the law of war sprang from the consideration that in time of war certain groups of people had to be protected. Originally the distinction was not clear. It was Rousseau, who in his *Du contrat social* (1762) formulated views which helped to make the distinction clearer. In his opinion war must be regarded as a relationship between states. Citizens of opposing states are only enemies if they serve in the organ of the state, the army. This view underlies the wording of conventions aimed at defining the status of combatants and non-combatants in time of war and their rights and duties. Experience gained during World War II showed that their status was less clearly defined than people had thought. Civilians who do not belong to the regular army carry arms and peaceful civilians suffer more from military operations than they used to.

No matter how the nature of war changes (the number of armed conflicts not of an international character may increase, for instance) it remains essential that we insist on the observance of the laws of war and the underlying humanitarian considerations. What is said in the preamble to the Convention regarding the Laws and

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Customs of Land Warfare of 1907, namely that the rules governing warfare were drawn up “in obedience to a desire to diminish the evils of war as far as military expediency permits”, is still true.

We have not yet reached the stage at which

“... at least for the present, patriotism alone should be expected to be a sufficient reason to place resistance movements in a protected status”.

We still have some way to go, as will be seen from the following propositions:

- I. Civilians in occupied territory who rise in arms against the enemy forfeit their status of peaceful citizens. The enemy has a right to know whether they are dealing with peaceful citizens or with civilians who resist them.
- II. If civilians who resist the enemy are to be treated as prisoners of war when they are captured, they must comply with the laws of war.

The present laws of war as they bear upon this matter can be summarized as follows:

1. The laws of war (*jus in bello*) must be applied regardless of the cause of war. The question whether a war is lawful or not is therefore irrelevant with respect to the legal status accorded to members of resistance groups.
2. Articles 1 and 2 of the Hague Regulations and Article 4 of the Geneva Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War 1949, lay down the conditions which members of resistance groups must meet in order to be treated as privileged combatants.
3. Members of resistance movements who do not conform to the requirements mentioned in 2 above cannot be considered as privileged combatants. In case of capture they will be treated as common criminals and not as prisoners of war. They may claim a certain amount of protection by virtue of the Fourth Geneva Convention and of general principles of law.

RESISTANCE MOVEMENTS AND INTERNATIONAL LAW

4. For the opposing party in armed conflicts not of an international character a minimum protection has been included in Article 3 common to the four Geneva Conventions of 1949.
5. International law does not forbid the civilian population to commit acts of resistance, but leaves the Occupying Power free to punish these acts.
6. A study of the legal conviction underlying the laws of war relative to the conditions included in Articles 1 and 2 of the Hague Regulations and Article 4 of the Geneva Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War is necessary. The results of such a study should be made known.
7. The military manuals in the respective countries should be adjusted to each other as much as possible in order to eliminate difficulties arising from different texts.

Dr. W. J. FORD

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES

Rwanda

Under the title "The action of the International Committee of the Red Cross in the Congo and Rwanda" the International Review published last month an article on ICRC relief work at the request of the Organization of African Unity (OAU). It described events up to the end of November 1967.

In December, ICRC action changed to meet the new turn of event. The Congolese authorities alone repatriated the former Katanga gendarmes without asking the ICRC to participate. By the end of December, only the mercenaries were left in the camp in Rwanda. The ICRC delegate at Kigali continued providing them with food and medical assistance.

On December 23, another ICRC doctor-delegate left Geneva, bearing the following message from the ICRC President to the Head of the State of Rwanda.

Informed of talks which have taken place in Kampala between States concerned in the position of the mercenaries from Bukavu, the ICRC has the honour to address your Excellency so that a solution may soon be found which, whilst taking into account the legitimate desire of African States to prevent the return to Africa of persons liable to threaten their security, may ensure the final repatriation of the mercenaries having taken refuge in your country. Only such a solution can, according to the very terms of the OAU resolution of September 13 "éviter aux générations présentes et futures le fléau des haines et des conflits raciaux". Referring to the communication made to you by our delegate on November 8 we consider it necessary to recall again the principle that extradition to the Congo of the Bukavu refugees would



Loading at Hanover of units of a field hospital being sent by the ICRC to the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam.

Photo W. Hauschild, Hanovre



Artist's impression of the 60 bed field hospital consigned to the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam.

be in contradiction not only with the spirit of the OAU resolution mentioned above and with undertakings then given by the President of the Congo, but also with the permanent principles of international law these men having to be regarded as political refugees. In addition it should also be remembered in this connection that the mercenaries have accepted to lay down their arms with the strong hope of preserving their lives and of being repatriated. The ICRC, which has neglected no effort to ensure the peaceful evacuation stipulated by that resolution, remains prepared to offer its help in realizing a humanitarian solution to that problem. The ICRC, which has every confidence in your high sense of justice and your respect for permanent moral values which you have always defended, knows that it can count on your Excellency's deep comprehension to ensure such a solution will prevail.

Nigeria

The International Committee of the Red Cross has recruited a relieving medical team for the hospital at Agbor to the East of Enugu on the main road half-way between Benin and Asaba.

This team is Swedish, consisting of Dr. Hans Christman Ehrström, general practitioner and two male nurses and has relieved the Norwegian team, headed by Dr. Kaare Sandnaes and placed at the ICRC's disposal last October to work in Nigeria.

Engaged for two months' service, the Swedish team was in position on December 9.

It should be recalled that a Swiss medical team was installed on November 17 by Dr. Erwin Spirgi at the Achi hospital in East Nigeria. This is composed of Dr. Jean-Paul Evard, head doctor, Dr. Georges Muheim, surgeon and Dr. Robert Lorge.

Vietnam

The International Committee assembled in Hanover all the parts of a 60-bed field-hospital for despatch to the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in Hanoi. The main items,

consisting of a prefabricated Clinobox and a container convertible into a waiting room, were supplied by a firm in Hanover/Buchholz.

In addition, the field-hospital includes tents for an X-ray theatre, a laboratory, medical personnel, patients and stores, as well as a power generating unit and a Berkefeld water reconditioning plant. Complete with all the necessary surgical equipment and instruments, the hospital can be made operative within a few hours of its arrival.¹

The whole consignment, weighing 15 tons, left Hanover on December 20, 1967 on two railway trucks for Vladivostok via the Trans-Siberian Railway. It will then be shipped to Haiphong. The Russian transport company "Souzvneshtrans" and the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies in Moscow have generously offered their assistance to ensure that things go according to plan. The consignment is expected to arrive in Haiphong towards the end of January.

A great number of donors wishing to aid the victims of air-raids on North Vietnam have contributed to this undertaking, through their donations to the ICRC.

Near East

ICRC acts as neutral intermediary between Israel and Jordan for Christmas religious ceremonies in Israeli occupied Jordan.—The International Committee of the Red Cross delegation in Israel acted as a neutral intermediary between Israel and Jordan in order to arrange an agreement similar to the earlier "Mandelbaum Agreement" and where by Christian Arab pilgrims could go to the holy places West of the Jordan at Christmas. The Israeli military authorities made the necessary arrangements.

ICRC delegate interviews General Moshe Dayan.—The delegate in charge of the ICRC mission at Tel Aviv, Mr. Laurent Marti, interviewed General Moshe Dayan on November 27, 1967.

¹ *Plate.* Loading at Hanover of units of a field hospital being sent by the ICRC to the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam.

Artist's impression of the 60 bed field hospital consigned to the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam.

Talks centred round the exchange of military and civilian prisoners. A number of questions relating to the application of the Fourth Geneva Convention—concerning the protection of civilians in occupied territory—were also broached.

Following this discussion the body of an Israeli pilot, recently shot down in Jordan, was returned and a number of Egyptian civilians from the Atlith camp and Egyptian prisoners of war were repatriated.

Winter relief for refugee and displaced Arabs.—With the approach of winter, the International Committee and the League considered it necessary to launch a further joint appeal to National Red Cross Societies for relief supplies to be distributed to refugee and displaced Arabs following the June 1967 conflict.

It might be mentioned, in this connection, that relief in Syria and West of the Jordan is being provided by the ICRC alone and in Jordan by the League. In Egypt relief is distributed to refugee and displaced Arabs by the Egyptian organization “Winter Aid” to which the ICRC has delivered stocks of clothing.

So far, the ICRC has distributed in Syria several hundreds of tons of supplies such as foodstuffs, clothing, medicines, cooking utensils, etc. On the West bank of the Jordan it has distributed fresh and powdered milk to various orphanages and institutions for children as well as to the population, in addition to canvas sheets, blankets and medical supplies.

ICRC delegates have also distributed relief material to some 5,000 Egyptian prisoners of war in the Atlith camp in Israel.

ICRC assistance to the Red Crescent West of the Jordan.—In accordance with article 63 of the Fourth Geneva Convention, the Israeli Government, the occupying Power in territory West of the Jordan, has authorized branches of the Red Crescent to continue their activities in that territory as in the past.

The ICRC delegation in Israel took particular interest in the activities on this territory of Red Crescent branches, which it visited on a number of occasions and with which it co-operates.

The ICRC's head delegate in Tel-Aviv, Mr. Laurent Marti, on December 10 and 11 attended Committee meetings held by Red Crescent branches working West of the Jordan.

Jordanian and Egyptian Red Crescent branches based in Jerusalem and Gaza respectively, are carrying on their humanitarian missions.

Yemen

ICRC expedition into Yemen desert.—Towards the end of December, Mr. André Rochat, the ICRC's delegate-general for South Arabia and the Yemen, led a medical team comprising a doctor and three male nurses behind the lines of the Royalist forces in the Yemen. The team travelled through rough and dangerous territory in a region where earlier another ICRC delegate was seriously injured. The mission's objective is to bring treatment and medicines to the wounded victims of the renewed fighting. It is already known that many war wounded are dying in the Jauf desert without medical attention, as none but the slightly wounded can make their way to the ICRC's base in the north of the Yemen.

After this mission, Mr. Rochat will go to Sanaa to examine with the Republican authorities the humanitarian problems on their territory and how the ICRC can help to alleviate them.

ICRC-WHO talks on the Yemen.—The International Committee having expressed the wish that the World Health Organization be informed of the present medical situation in the Yemen, a discussion took place on November 17, on its initiative, at WHO headquarters in Geneva. Representatives of both institutions examined ways and means of continuing medical assistance in North Yemen.

In the course of 1967, ICRC medical teams have been working in the northern sector of the Yemen where the 700,000 inhabitants lead a hard life and are completely lacking in medical services.

These teams provided medical care and introduced preventive measures in a region difficult of access, where medical attention was a thing unknown and where the people suffered from the consequences of the war.

If, as may be hoped, peace and unity return to the Yemen in 1968, the ICRC's emergency action should be taken over by other organizations which assume responsibility for medical assistance in time of peace.

Korea

At the end of November, Mr. André Durand, delegate general of the ICRC, went to the Republic of Korea where he was authorized to visit, in prison, seven of the accused persons who have just been sentenced by the Seoul District Penal Court.

He enquired into detention conditions and the health of the prisoners. Following his visit, he reported his conclusions and suggestions to the authorities.

IN GENEVA**VICE-PRESIDENCY OF THE ICRC**

Mr. Frédéric Sordet continues to be Vice-President of the Committee for 1968, whilst Mr. Hans Bachmann has been appointed Vice-President for 1968 and 1969.

PRESIDENTIAL COUNCIL

The International Committee of the Red Cross has formed its Presidential Council for 1968 as follows:

President, Mr. Samuel A. Gonard; Vice-Presidents, Mr. Frédéric Sordet and Mr. Hans Bachmann; members, Miss Marjorie Duvillard, Mr. Max Petitpierre, Mr. Roger Gallopin and Mr. Jean Pictet.

New Members of the ICRC

At its plenary meeting on November 1, 1967, the International Committee of the Red Cross elected Mr. Roger Gallopin, Mr. Jean Pictet and Mr. Waldemar Jucker, as new members.

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Mr. Roger Gallopin was born in 1909 in Geneva where he began his studies which he continued in the universities of Munich and London.

He was awarded the degree of Doctor of Laws at Geneva University and was called to the Geneva Bar. He later became Legal Secretary of the ICRC in 1936. In this capacity he attended the XVIIth International Conference of the Red Cross in London in 1938.

At the beginning of the Second World War, he assumed important functions on the staff of the ICRC. From head of the Division for Prisoners and Internees, he was promoted Assistant Secretary-General, then Director-Delegate, followed by Executive Director and subsequently Director-General, an office he still holds today.

In various capacities he was responsible for the practical side of many actions undertaken by the ICRC for protection and assistance to victims of war.

He has carried out a number of missions abroad and has taken part in all the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

He has on many occasions contributed to the *International Review*, particularly with articles on the protection of civilian populations in time of war, the notion of military objectives and the ICRC's work for the benefit of victims of civil wars and internal conflicts.

Mr. Jean Pictet was born in Geneva in 1914, and educated in Paris and at Geneva University.

After graduating as a Bachelor of Laws he worked as a lawyer in Vienna and in Geneva. In 1937, he joined the ICRC as a Legal Secretary. He held important offices during the Second World War

and was appointed Director in 1946 and, in 1966, to his present position of Director-General.

As a Director, he assumed responsibility for the preliminary work which led to the signature, in 1949, of the Geneva Conventions, the four-volume commentaries on which were published under his supervision.

He was the author of many articles in the *International Review*, and contributed for a large part to the elaboration of the humanitarian doctrine of the Red Cross today. Of his writings, we might mention: "The Red Cross and the Geneva Conventions", "The Principles of International Humanitarian Law" and "Red Cross Principles" for which he was elected Doctor of Laws by the University of Geneva and which formed the basis of the Proclamation, by the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross, of the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross. In 1950, Mr. Pictet was appointed to give courses at the Academy of International Law at The Hague, and since 1965 he has taught International Humanitarian Law at Geneva University.

Born in 1924, Mr. Waldemar Jucker attended schools first in Rapperswil and Aarau, then the classical high school of Basle. Afterwards he followed legal and economic studies in Basle and London. In 1948 he presented a thesis to Basle University on labour law.

From 1949 to 1957, he was economic associate in the International Metalworkers' Federation.

Subsequently, he was appointed Secretary of the Swiss Association of Trade Unions, which he represents on various Swiss Federal commissions and international institutions.

His interests and main activities are connected with problems of political economy and finance, and also with European questions.

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As in the past, the counsel of these two directors-general, just elected "ad personam", will be valuable to the International Committee which is pleased to associate them in its work even more

closely than previously. The Committee is also happy to be able to count henceforth on Mr. Jucker who has agreed to place his profound knowledge on social realities at the service of the Red Cross in the pursuit of its humanitarian cause.

New Year Message

As in previous years, the President of the International Committee of the Red Cross sent a message to many countries as follows :

On the threshold of the New Year, as President of the International Committee of the Red Cross, I send you my greetings and best wishes ; I share with you the hope that 1968 may at last see an atmosphere of peace prevailing in the world.

The events of the past year have, once again, shown that Red Cross action is increasingly necessary in a world in which each one of us is constantly haunted by the spectre of war.

Conflicts, in particular in Vietnam, the Near and Middle East, in the Yemen and Nigeria, have caused untold suffering and brought in their train sometimes dramatic consequences. If the events in Greece and in the Congo are also taken into consideration, it can be seen that the ICRC has been called upon, during the past twelve months, to undertake many varied tasks of considerable scope.

In the Middle East where the application of the Geneva Conventions was generally speaking ensured and the victims of war protected, the ICRC continues to carry out its role as a neutral intermediary.

In Nigeria, Vietnam and the Yemen, though these wars are not officially recognized as such, the ICRC has ceaselessly worked at having the provisions of humanitarian law respected and is concerning itself especially in the distressful plight of the civilian

populations. In fact, the Nigerian conflict alone has caused 500,000 refugees, whilst in the Yemen and in Vietnam war has struck and continues to inflict grave suffering both on civilians and the military without distinction. In these theatres of hostilities, the ICRC has shown itself active, often with success, after having sometimes to overcome almost insurmountable obstacles.

If the ICRC brought its assistance to the Congo at the express wish of the parties concerned, it did so essentially on the basis of resolutions of the International Conference of the Red Cross, on the principle that " prevention is better than cure " and it was finally the ICRC which ensured the subsistence of some 2,500 refugees from Bukavu when they found themselves deprived of all other resources.

There are moreover many prisoners of war absent from their homes during these holidays and countless refugees who have to face a long hard winter. The Red Cross continues to give them its aid and appeals to the public's generosity on their behalf.

May I express the hope that States and Governments, institutions and organizations as well as all men of goodwill throughout the world will continue to support the Red Cross ideal in their hearts and to provide it with the means enabling it to fulfil its mission of mercy.

RELIEF FOR NIGERIA

Since hostilities broke out in Nigeria in July 1967, the International Committee of the Red Cross has continued to send relief for the civilian and military victims on both sides. Thus, by the end of December the ICRC medical teams working on either side had received more than twenty consignments consisting mostly of medicines and surgical equipment.

Six of these consignments (3 tons, valued at 67,000 Sw. Fr.) were for the victims in areas under the control of Federal troops and sixteen (13 tons, valued at 284,000 Sw. Fr.) for victims in the region which had seceded (Biafra). Included in these figures were 7.5 tons of medicines to a value of approximately 100,000 frs. despatched to Biafra by an aircraft especially chartered by the International Committee, also carrying an X-ray appliance with all accessories.

These different relief actions were chiefly made possible by cash donations from various National Red Cross Societies and international organizations. At the end of 1967 these contributions reached a total of 441,000 frs.

The Swedish and Finnish Red Cross Societies, on the other hand, sent medicines, blankets and clothing direct on several occasions. These relief supplies were for the ICRC medical team installed in Nigeria on Federal territory and amounted to about 170,000 frs.

The ICRC is continuing to supply medicines to its medical teams and is proposing to extend its actions on behalf of the conflict's civilian victims. It is at present studying with the country's authorities possibilities of distributing milk and multivitamins to 50,000 children in need. This work will moreover be undertaken in co-operation with UNICEF.

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THE HENRY DUNANT INSTITUTE

The Henry Dunant Institute General Meeting took place in Geneva on December 8, 1967, under the chairmanship of Professor A. von Albertini. It recognized 1967 as the year which saw the genuine beginning of this new instrument of research, training and information.

Eight publications now being prepared will appear this year. In its present temporary premises, made available by the ICRC, the Institute has undertaken the compiling of a library intended to become the main source of information on the Red Cross. There are already several students and trainees working in the Institute on theses relating to the Red Cross and to be submitted for the award of a doctor's degree.

A colloquium on the topic "Red Cross and the Modern State", research, courses and conferences are scheduled to take place.

The General Meeting, attended by representatives of the International Committee of the Red Cross, the League of Red Cross Societies and the Swiss Red Cross, elected Mr. Leopold Boissier President of the Institute for 1968 and 1969.

THE SHAPE OF THE EMBLEM

The shape of neither the red cross nor the red crescent has been laid down. This is made clear by Mr. Jean Pictet, Director-General of the ICRC, in an article published by the League review, Panorama (Geneva, 1966). In view of the importance of the subject, and the questions which various National Societies ask themselves in this connection, we think it will be useful to give below a reprint of this article.

Legally and on the international level, the use of the red cross sign is regulated by the First Geneva Convention for the amelioration of the condition of the wounded and sick in armed forces in the field. The institution of the Red Cross in the world and the safeguard of victims of armed conflicts are based on this Convention, concluded in 1864, revised and expanded in 1906, 1929 and 1949.

This Convention declares (Article 38, 1949) : " As a compliment to Switzerland, the heraldic emblem of the red cross on a white ground, formed by reversing the Federal colours, is retained as the emblem and distinctive sign of the Medical Service of armed forces."

Let me say in passing that it is not at all certain that the founders of the Red Cross and the promoters of the first Geneva Convention in 1863 and 1864 consciously intended, in inventing the red cross, to reverse the colours of the Swiss flag. No text of that period justifies such a conjecture. The analogy may only have occurred to people later. But since the 1906 Convention this reversal of colours has become official and has been very courteously presented as a compliment to the country which is the birthplace of the Red Cross.

Whatever the truth, some people have wondered whether to conclude from this Article of the Convention that the red cross should have the same proportions as the Swiss cross, fixed by the Federal Assembly in 1889, as " a white cross, upright and humetty

(i.e. whose arms do not extend to the edges of the shield), having arms equal to each other and of a length exceeding their breadth by one-sixth ”.

This is obviously a misinterpretation. The word “colours” should be taken in its strict sense, as referring to the white and the red. If the flag had been meant, the term “reversal ” could not have been used. The proceedings of the 1906 Diplomatic Conference are moreover explicit: it deliberately refrained from defining the form of the cross, since definition might have led to dangerous abuses. Sometimes, on the battle-field, for example, red crosses have to be made with whatever means are at hand. They have even been known painted in blood on a piece of white cloth.

When time is short, it is not always possible to keep to precise rules. Otherwise the adversary could claim that these signs are not valid because the proportions are wrong and so try to justify an attack against persons or objects enjoying immunity under the Convention.

Similarly, on the commercial level, unscrupulous individuals, relying on a strict definition would be able to evade the legal prohibitions and misuse the sign with impunity, by employing a slightly smaller or larger red cross than the established size.

For the same reasons, the Convention did not fix the shape of the white ground (the distinctive emblem established by the Convention is not a red cross but a red cross on a white ground), or the shade of red, as Switzerland did for its flag.

In practice, however, it has become the custom everywhere to use a Greek cross as the distinctive sign. This is a cross with four equal branches formed of two crosspieces, one vertical and the other horizontal, intersected at their centre and not extending to the edge of the shield. The cross on the Swiss flag is therefore a Greek cross.

This custom has become so widespread that it is now well established and accepted, and thought should be given, when an opportunity arises, to making it official by explicit mention in the Geneva Conventions. The word cross in fact applies to a countless variety of signs. To cite only the simplest and best known in Europe, there is the Latin cross, whose vertical branch is longer in the lower part

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(this, the cross used by Christian religions, is different from the red cross and clearly denotes the latter's religious neutrality) the cross of St. Andrew, in the form of an X, the cross of St. Anthony, in the form of a T. On other continents, the Egyptian cross (key of life), the swastika, etc. come to mind.

The sign of the cross can be found in every part of the world and in every age from ancient antiquity. If the symbolism of signs is studied in comparative ethnography it will be seen that the cross represents man in the universe. The human being is shown standing, arms outstretched, in the centre of the cosmos, represented by the cardinal points, the zenith and the nadir. At the same time it reflects the fundamental duality of the world and of life, uniting the vertical element, expression of the active or masculine force, and the horizontal element, expression of the passive or feminine force. But it is also the simplest and most eloquent of purely graphic signs. It is *the* sign. When one wants to mark a point, one makes a cross.

With so many varieties possible, it is clear that one specific type, the Greek cross, must be adhered to as the emblem of the Red Cross and protective sign. But the characteristics of this Greek cross (length and thickness of its branches, intensity of the red, etc.) must be left to each user to decide, for the reasons given above.

On the national level, some authorities or National Red Cross Societies have fixed the form of the Red Cross for their own use, for administrative or aesthetic reasons, in order to unify the presentation of badges. This is a perfectly legitimate practice. But this of course in no way reduces the protective value of emblems improvised to give legitimate cover to persons and objects safeguarded by the Geneva Conventions.

Most of the Societies which have defined the form of the cross in their regulations seem to have chosen the cross of five equal squares, the easiest and most economical to mass produce, as the crosses fit exactly into each other. Nevertheless a cross is more elegant when the branches are a little longer than they are wide.

The same remarks apply to the red crescent, admitted, as everyone knows, by the Geneva Conventions as an exceptional sign for Moslem countries. The Conventions have not fixed its form.

In 1907, the Ottoman Empire officially adopted this emblem by reversing the national flag (without the star which accompanies it).

The Turkish Red Crescent Society has statutorily fixed the dimensions of its distinctive sign, which are the same as those of the national flag : it consists of a red crescent on a white ground whose points are turned towards the left. On a flag, however, the points of the crescent are directed in the opposite direction to the pole. It is then the wind which directs it—for the wind blows where it will . . .

Orientation towards the left symbolises the first quarter of the moon, which marks the beginning of the Moslem month. Apart from Turkey, Tunisia and the USSR Moslem States have adopted this orientation. The Societies of all the other Islamic countries have given preference to orientation towards the right.

The crescent is then a “decrecent”.

The Red Crescent Societies which met in Rabat discussed the form of the crescent and its possible standardisation. No decision has yet been taken.

In conclusion, whatever the form given to it, we must never forget that the emblem instituted by the Geneva Conventions has as its ultimate aim the saving of lives. Let us make sure that it retains its value as an inviolable symbol so that nothing may tarnish its splendour.

Vietnam

Several National Societies have given assistance to victims in the Republic of Vietnam. The *International Review* mentioned in its number of September 1966 that the Red Lion and Sun Society of Iran had sent a medical team. The Swiss Red Cross has also installed a team in that country. In addition, wishing to contribute towards improving ways of caring for sick and wounded South Vietnamese children there, it has recently had built a pediatric hospital of simple but practical design at Da-Nang. This hutment, attached to the local civilian hospital, and just completed, comprises ten dormitories, treatment rooms and dispensaries. Fixtures and fittings have been provided by UNICEF, the United Nations children's aid organization. One hundred and twenty children, previously treated in extremely bad conditions in a ramshackle hospital with poor installations, have been lodged in this new building. In accordance with the custom of the country, they are accompanied by their mothers, brothers and sisters who live in the hospital and look after them.

In order to give the best possible treatment to these young patients, the Swiss Red Cross sent out, in October 1967, a medical team consisting of a children's doctor and two nurses. This team runs the new hospital and instructs the Vietnamese medical staff.

The installation of the pediatric hospital at Da-Nang and the making available of Swiss personnel, is a useful adjunct to the work which has been carried out by the Swiss Red Cross at Kontum on the high central plateau of South Vietnam, where a medical team of ten has, since April 1966, developed the civilian hospital's surgical service and gives medical assistance to the sick living in distant mountain villages.

What role can the Algerian Red Crescent play in the anti-tuberculosis campaign ?

The International Review takes pleasure in publishing the following article by Dr. D. Larbaoui, former president of the Algerian Red Crescent and at present a doctor at the C.H.U. in Algiers. He gives some personal opinions on a particularly important subject.

National Red Cross Societies have taken part in anti-tuberculosis campaigns for the last 50 years or more. As early as 1907; the VIIIth International Conference of the Red Cross expressed the wish that " Societies would participate in the peace-time struggle against tuberculosis ".

Since then, a series of resolutions by the highest bodies of the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies have been followed up by the concrete results achieved by some National Societies and also by more effective co-operation with the International Union against Tuberculosis.

One outstanding example which illustrates this valuable action by the Red Cross is the work undertaken after the Second World War by the Danish, Swedish and Norwegian Red Cross Societies. The wide-scale international campaign against tuberculosis they began in European countries ravaged by war, was soon backed up by the International Children's Emergency Fund, and was extended to various countries in Africa and Asia. The campaign was brought to a close in 1961.

The results of this large-scale preventive work of which 23 countries benefited, were that 40 million people were tested for tuberculosis and 17 million were immunized against tuberculosis by BCG inoculation.

This extensive activity further increased humanity's debt to the Red Cross.

The campaign was carried out in Algeria in 1950 and 1951. 2,500,000 people were tested and over one million inoculated.

What is the Algerian Red Crescent?

Like all the 108 National Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun Societies in the world, the Algerian Red Crescent is an independent national voluntary association, auxiliary to the public authorities. It was recognized officially as such hardly four years ago by the Algerian Government, and by the ICRC and the League.

“ Its broad objective is to prevent and alleviate suffering with complete impartiality, disregarding any distinction of race, nationality, class, creed or political opinion.

In time of war it functions as an auxiliary service of the army medical corps in every sphere covered by the Geneva Conventions to which Algeria is a signatory.

Among the functions which devolve on it in time of peace are those which contribute to the prevention and cure of epidemics and sickness and the improvement of health standards, particularly by the spread of knowledge of hygiene ”.

These phrases from the Algerian Red Crescent statutes show clearly that in time of peace it is a statutory obligation for the Red Crescent to act as an auxiliary to the public health services in the prevention of sickness and the improvement of health.

What principles should guide its action?

In our view there are three principles in particular which should be taken by the Algerian Red Crescent as guidelines for its participation in the struggle against tuberculosis.

1. *Auxiliary status.* — The A.R.C. is an auxiliary service to the public health authorities in peace-time and as such cannot and should not act except to help in the implementation of a programme drawn up by the health authorities; nor should it exceed the scope of such a programme. Naturally the authorities must undertake the essential central co-ordination to make all efforts effective.

2. *The reinforcement function.* — Red Cross and Red Crescent Society action should not overlap that of the authorities or of

other voluntary associations. The A.R.C.'s function is complementary; it should make up for omissions which the health authorities are unable to avoid. This does not imply that the Red Crescent may take no initiative of its own. It may do this provided it obtains the agreement and support of the health authorities and that its action is properly geared to fit in with the programme to combat tuberculosis.

3. *Vicarious function.* — To stand in the breach is another, though temporary, duty a National Society performs whenever a serious shortcoming is revealed in the struggle against tuberculosis.

What can its action be?

The Algerian Red Crescent has existed for only four years, and has only just come to the end of a long and difficult period in which it has been organizing and building up. By comparison with the many tasks it has set itself, its resources are quite insignificant. Consequently, it must be admitted that the rôle of the Algerian Red Crescent in the campaign against tuberculosis can for the present only be on a modest scale, even though the faith and enthusiasm of its leaders and members contributes in no small measure to offsetting the material difficulties with which it has to contend.

Its perforce restricted action can however be brought into play in mass information and education, which are interrelated.

Thanks to the prestige it has already acquired and the potential of its voluntary members, the Algerian Red Crescent can and should exert a beneficial influence on public awareness of the problems involved, by

— making known the disastrous physical and moral effects which sickness insidiously causes to individuals, the family and the nation;

— enlightening the public on contagion and the danger from undisciplined or unco-operative patients;

— teaching elementary principles and practice of personal and collective hygiene;

— spreading knowledge on prevention as well as on the benefits and demands of treatment;

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— refuting those who belittle the benefits of treatment and preventive action.

To awaken the population to the danger which threatens it is within the scope of the Algerian Red Crescent, despite the scant resources available to it.

Its voluntary workers must show themselves to have initiative, imagination, an original approach and, especially, determination. These are the attributes which, in 1864, enabled Henry Dunant to have the First Geneva Convention accepted, only five years after the slaughter of Solferino which he witnessed on June 24, 1859.

These same qualities are displayed daily by 108 National Red Cross Societies throughout the world.

There is no doubt that co-operation from the public can be obtained by the education and mass communication which the population is entitled to demand.

Mass information and education involves full commitment; so does the Algerian Red Crescent Society's contribution to the campaign against tuberculosis. With all the resources at its command, the Society must promote prevention, treatment, material and psychological welfare of individual patients, care of patients' children, hygiene in their homes and habits, and rehabilitation after cure.

This list could be increased to include all the individual and collective actions which occur to the inventive imagination of Red Crescent volunteers.

The result of their efforts to inform and educate, when properly organized and co-ordinated, with a definite aim in view, can and should be a worthwhile contribution to early diagnosis, better preventive measures, and better treatment.

Sustained efforts to achieve early diagnosis, prevention and better treatment, are the first steps towards checking and finally eradicating tuberculosis.

Dr. D. LARBAOUI

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

A MAN OF SCIENCE SPEAKS TO THE BOARD OF GOVERNORS

Professor Maurice Marois, of the Paris Faculty of Medicine, addressed the Board of Governors of the League of Red Cross Societies at The Hague, on September 7, 1967, on "Science and Responsibility: the Defence of Life". With the typical objectivity of a man of science, he outlined the evolution of the human race and its struggle against a hostile nature from which it emerged victorious with all the rich resources of human potential within its reach. Now, with the two threats of the atomic and the demographic explosions, man is facing a critical period. We have, said Professor Marois, to carry the burden of the metamorphosis and assume responsibility for man's future. Never has man known a situation so prosperous yet so precarious: will man's liberty prove his undoing?

The demographic explosion, he warned, bids fair to make civilization by the end of this century one of mass over-crowding, with all the intellectual lethargy which that implies, unless science brings in a new Golden Age relieving man of subservience to material considerations and giving free rein to the creative spirit.

These, the speaker stressed, are ethical not scientific questions and each human being bears the onus of responsibility. The "Institut de la Vie" (which he founded in 1960) is mainly intended to bring science and humanity together, for, he said "we are convinced that thought must precede action".

Professor Marois pointed out the analogy between the Institute's objective—the protection of human values—and the principles of the Red Cross, with its concern for man's welfare. Like the Geneva Conventions the Institute is the defender of human rights and life.

REFUGEES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East has published a pamphlet, entitled "Emergency 1967", on the wide scale relief action undertaken in June 1967 on behalf of displaced persons who had not previously been registered with the Agency. One extract reads as follows :

" Within days after the fighting broke out in the Middle East on 5 June, thousands of Arab families had fled from the areas occupied by the armed forces of Israel. For UNRWA, this meant new tasks and new burdens demanding urgent action.

At once, UNRWA began supplying urgently food and medicine for these newly-displaced people—many of them refugees for the second time in their lives—and resumed its services to the refugees already registered with UNRWA in the areas directly affected by the war. Elsewhere, UNRWA's services continued without interruption . . .

The emergency assistance for Arab refugees in the Middle East in 1967 has been a combined operation to which the Governments directly concerned, other donor Governments, the Red Cross and Red Crescent, UNRWA, UNICEF, the World Food Programme, the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations, national and international non-governmental organizations and countless individuals in many parts of the world have all made essential contributions.

UNRWA has taken special measures for feeding and sheltering the refugees and for providing drinking water, medical care and sanitation services.

Before the hostilities, most refugees were able to supplement UNRWA's monthly issue of dry rations with vegetables and meat purchased from their meagre earnings. The majority of the newly-displaced persons are penniless and without work. UNRWA has therefore extended its distribution of milk and cooked meals.

Persons outside the camps as well as in them benefit from these services.

By agreement with the Jordan Government, UNRWA is now running six emergency tented camps in East Jordan, in which more than 50,000 newly-displaced persons are accommodated. Temporary shelter in tents has also been arranged for 10,000 newly-displaced Palestine refugees in Syria."

MEDICINE IN THE MODERN WORLD

The first World Medical Law Congress was held in Ghent from August 21 to 24, 1967, and was attended by representatives from thirty-six countries. Most participants were doctors but there were also many lawyers, moralists, theologians and sociologists who came to compare experiences and opinions on such topics as the doctor's place in modern society, medical experiments, the doctor's responsibility, medical practice in time of war, etc.

At the opening session the theme dealt with was *Medicine in the Modern World*. What makes discussion between legal and medical experts necessary is the renovation of medical science. Thought can and must be given to this renovation or innovation but we can say that it is medicine which is the new factor; it is medicine which sets the problems and must be called in question. The medical profession as a whole has found its feet, built up its own modern structure and earned its prestige and standard of living during the XIXth century. Whilst not unmindful of its historical and sociological origins, it has, nevertheless, had several reasons to consider the conditions which were provided for its exercise in the course of that period. The legal texts which professional circles have drafted over the last half century (the Medical Charter in France, the Principles adopted by the World Medical Association, etc.) are illustrative of these trends of thought . . . For tens of thousands of years sickness

MISCELLANEOUS

and death has haphazardly stricken humanity. Every nation, every man suffered, was infirm or died, helpless. The good and the bad, the wise and the foolish alike were all stricken. Now we are going forward to changed times. More and more the most frequent illnesses are coming under control either by individual or social action. More and more frequently prognosis is related to emotional stability, the strictness of discipline imposed on the patient, and the medical services.

Yet another interesting question we might mention: Should law defer to medicine or vice versa? Advances in medical techniques are progressively changing the accepted limits of medical intervention. In 1750 a laparotomy would have been a public scandal; now it is commonplace. Not so long ago plastic surgery caused a stir; it is current practice today. The attitude towards interruption of pregnancy—which is undoubtedly a homicide—is changing in a manner which, due to the very controversial nature of the problem, is both disquieting and satisfying. Birth control, even now fanatically opposed in certain quarters, has, like its related practice sterilization, become the only weapon considered effective on a world scale with which to check the disturbing over-population. Everywhere law-makers and doctors together are seeking ways and means to achieve structures and applicable rules consistent with morality. The result is not always perfect, but are we not as yet only starting to make practical comparisons of the interdependent virtues of medicine and law?

To judge from the number, scope and topical interest of the subjects discussed by doctors, lawyers, moralists and sociologists, the International Congress of Medical Law in Ghent was an important stage in the renovation of medical and legal policies.

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

HANS G. KNITEL: "LES DÉLÉGATIONS DU COMITÉ INTERNATIONAL DE LA CROIX-ROUGE"—MICHAEL BOTHE: "LE DROIT DE LA GUERRE ET LES NATIONS UNIES"¹

Mr. Hans G. Knitel's study is of great interest, as it is the first analysis in depth of a subject which is of considerable importance and a practical aspect of humanitarian work. In 134 pages the author examines the ICRC delegates' legal position.

This required consideration not only of history but also of the actual position to seek the bases of the principles applied by the ICRC and its delegations. The undertaking required research into many documents and reports issued by delegates. The author describes also the legal position today and the third part of the book sets forth his own ideas on future problems affecting the ICRC's statutes as an international organization and on the status, privileges and immunities of its delegates.

It is not our intention to discuss the main ideas of this important book, one of the virtues of which is a full and accurate picture of the special legal position of the ICRC delegates. We cannot but give a general idea. The author concludes his first chapter as follows:

To conclude this somewhat lengthy historical or rather (taking historical evolution into account) legal section, let us summarize the essential features of our analysis:

1. The International Committee of the Red Cross was founded as a private association governed by Swiss law.

2. A diplomatic conference conferred special status upon it, the States asking it to act as a "sort of jury of honour" in the event of breaches of the Geneva Conventions.

¹ On sale at Librairie Droz, 11 rue Massot, Geneva, price Sw. fr. 20., 242 p.

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

3. *The International Committee is mentioned in the international humanitarian conventions which vest in it certain rights of an international legal order.*

4. *States, international organizations and insurgents negotiate and conclude agreements with the International Committee as an equal.*

These developments have naturally had repercussions on the situation of delegates of the International Committee of the Red Cross. At first they were accepted for the help and the relief they provided; later they were authorized to supervise the application of humanitarian law provisions and act as the representatives of a subsidiary Protecting Power; they have even been called upon to assume supervisory functions quite beyond the scope of the humanitarian conventions, for the purpose of safeguarding peace.

It was in the framework of the Institut universitaire de Hautes Etudes Internationales in Geneva that Mr. Knitel prepared his work. In a foreword, Professor Jean Siotis, of that Institute, alluded to Mr. Knitel's proposal that ICRC representatives be granted status similar to that of international officials who have the benefit of the Convention on Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations and wrote that "it would probably be premature to envisage the drafting and adoption of a new status for the ICRC, other than that recognized in the 1949 Conventions". However, in his opinion "a codicil to the Conventions could be drawn up to govern the status of ICRC delegates".

Mr. Knitel suggests greater "internationalization" of the ICRC delegate's status and concludes by a review of privileges and immunities which should be conferred on them:

In our introduction we show that international humanitarian law is part and parcel of the law of nations; it derives from the usual two processes leading to the creation of the law of nations, i.e. international conventions or treaties, and custom. International humanitarian law is based neither on abstract legal science nor on extra-judicial foundations.

Yet international humanitarian law has a special place in the international legal order, as it is constantly evolving. This humanitarian legal order confirms the new trend in the law of nations which assigns

rights and obligations no longer to States and other legal bodies alone but also to individuals and certain associations. We are thus witnessing a multiplying of the community of international bodies, a phenomenon which has given rise, inter alia, to the international status of the Geneva Committee.

It is evident that the Geneva Committee's international status originated from the humanitarian conventions and treaties, but today the universal, or almost universal, recognition of this legal position of the International Committee has made of it a feature of international law throughout the world: recognition by a State of the ICRC's international status is merely declaratory. Thus, the restricted international character of the ICRC has become independent of whether a State is or is not a party to the Conventions, even though the essential legal basis, the only guarantee and protection for the ICRC's humanitarian work, resides in those Conventions. The argument may be taken further; there is to our mind no doubt that the International Committee's right to offer its services and carry out its humanitarian mission—i.e. to act in its capacity as a body with restricted international status—is not limited to States signatory to the Geneva Conventions.

The second part of this book contains another thesis submitted to the Institut Universitaire de Hautes Etudes Internationales, on "The Law of War and the United Nations". It was written by Mr. Michael Bothe and refers to the armed conflict in the Congo. The author deals in a sound and interesting manner with a series of topical problems which an eminent lawyer, Mr. Finn Seyersted, has already examined in a book which we reviewed in this column in February 1967.¹ But as Prof. Siotis rightly remarked, more than ten years after the formation of the U.N. Emergency Force in the Near East the application of the law of war by the United Nations is still an unsolved problem.

The author asserts that the *jus in bello* is applicable to the U.N. armed forces, and he devotes a chapter to the ICRC's efforts in this connection. He quotes, in particular, the various negotiations undertaken at the time of the hostilities in the Congo to obtain U.N. assurance concerning the application of the Geneva Con-

¹ United Nations Forces in the Law of Peace and War, Leyden, 1966.

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ventions and appeals and requests for enquiries (as in the case of Georges Olivet's death) with a view to respect for the *ius in bello*. He concludes by saying:

It devolves on an impartial body such as the ICRC to contribute to the development of law in a field where new ground is to be broken, where the difficulties are legal, political and administrative, and where development by parties in conflict cannot but be uncertain and hesitant. It must be admitted that these parties have first to look after their own interests. Events have proved the value of a neutral moral power.

Both authors in this book have expressed original ideas contributing to the study of theoretical and practical problems involved in Red Cross intervention in conflicts. Such contributions postulate a widening of scope for the law of war and facilitate the framing of regulations which would permit a more uniform and stricter application of the Geneva Conventions.

J.-G. L.

"CLARA BARTON AND DANSVILLE" ¹

Compiled under the auspices of the Dansville chapter of the American Red Cross, this work, consisting of historical notes, letters and reminiscences, is a tribute to the famous founder of that Society. Dansville, in fact, prides itself on being the place where the Red Cross first appeared in that country, as indicated by its title "Clara Barton Chapter No. 1". In 1881 Clara Barton went to Dansville and spoke on behalf of its Civil War Service. Several years later the Red Cross was started there and that town therefore

¹ Dansville, New York, Privately Published, 1966, 621 p.

has its place in our movement's history. The documents and illustrations to be found in this work, some of which have hitherto been unpublished, describe the circumstances in which a Society was created. In 1881, and at that same time, a great fire broke out near Port Huron in Michigan. Clara Barton helped by her volunteers, members of the first Chapter, at once undertook a large-scale action which enabled aid to be brought with the least possible delay to the victims of that disaster.

This effective intervention coincided with the question of the accession of the United States to the Geneva Convention being once more submitted to the Senate's approval. One is certainly entitled to think that this relief action had a weighty influence on the United States' accession to the Geneva Convention.

Furthermore, this experience was a positive starting point, for whenever some natural disaster struck a particular area, a branch of the American Red Cross formed itself on the spot. This was so in Rochester, Syracuse, Memphis, St. Louis and other places. When Clara Barton died in 1912 there were already 134 chapters with 16,000 members.

It was from the small Dansville Chapter, inspired by its founder's enthusiasm, that the National Society has become a powerful force, present in the smallest of places.

An entire section of this book, entitled "The Great Enterprise", is devoted to the unceasing efforts made by Clara Barton for the United States to sign the Geneva Convention. She had close correspondence on the subject with Gustave Moynier and also with Dr. Louis Appia, who had introduced her already in 1870 to the ICRC, its members and the work started. Examples of this can be found in letters to the United States' authorities and to those in charge of the Red Cross in Geneva.

J.-G. L.

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

FRANCISCO MONTULL Y ROSELL: " CONVERSACIONES CON LA CRUZ ROJA " ¹

The author of this booklet, a member of the Spanish Red Cross and a doctor, has already published works on the Red Cross and its importance in social service and medicine. In this study he throws light on some new aspects of the Red Cross mission—as he had done already in his " Diálogo de Cruz Roja "—which he divides into two types of charity, one individual and the other collective. The distinction facilitates understanding of ways and means of serving our fellowmen today, either collectively or through associations to co-ordinate individual efforts to make them more effective. It may well be that such collective efforts are made necessary by the demands of the world today.

Doctor Montull y Rosell, taking inspiration from J. Pictet's writings on the principles of the Red Cross, recalls that institution's fundamental tenets. He concludes his essay with an outline of the functions of the State in social welfare and shows that social developments have created new demands for assistance and consequently yet wider scope for Red Cross initiative.

J.-G. L.

The Physician and the Community, *WHO Chronicle, Geneva, 1967, No. 5.*

The physician who practises in a hospital must be able to see his own work as part of a broader picture and know how and when to collaborate with outside agencies for various aspects of health protection. The physician practising outside a hospital is a first-line public health

¹ Lerida, 1967.

worker in his daily practice: he sees patients in their own environment; he is the first to observe the occurrence of infection; and he plays a role in mass screening, in health education, in surveillance of groups at special centres and in immunization. In all these ways, his work is indispensable to public health.

The education of every physician should, therefore, enable him to recognize the nature of these problems, to understand how factors affecting health can be examined and measured and to discern the practical steps that can be taken to counteract hazards; he should know enough about the economics and priorities of public health programmes, at both the local and national levels, to recognize when the local community must make important decisions and when the national cost of health services must be balanced against those of other community services. He should understand how health services operate and are related to one another; the principles governing the delivery of medical care, what parts are played by auxiliaries and other health workers, and the effects of culture on demands for services and the use made of them when they are provided.

The public health in Iceland — *WHO, International Digest of Health Legislation, Geneva, Vol. 18, No. 2, 1967.*

The country is divided up into 55 medical districts [læknishéruð]. The chief medical officer [landlæknir] and the district medical officers [héraðslæknar] are appointed by the President. In the case of the Reykjavik medical district, a municipal medical officer [borgarlæknir] is appointed by the President, on the suggestion of the Municipal Council.

The chief medical officer advises the Minister on all questions concerning public health, and performs the duties entrusted to him by the Minister in this connexion, in conformity with the laws, regulations and customs. He is responsible for the surveillance of the professional activities of all physicians and health officials, and in particular of the district and other medical officers. He receives reports from the district medical officers, other physicians and hospital establishments.

The district medical officers are responsible, within their respective districts, for the surveillance of the state of public health and, in particular, of the activities of the health boards, in conformity with the laws and instructions of the Minister, and under the supervision of the chief medical officer. They act as general practitioners and are responsible for the sale of pharmaceutical products, in the absence of a pharmacy. They must attend patients, when called upon to do so, unless prevented by their official duties or by illness. District medical officers, unless specially authorized to this effect by the Minister, may not carry out activities in

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return for payment other than those arising from their official duties. They are, however, permitted to take charge of, or work in, a general hospital in their district.

A physician who practises in a district which does not possess a pharmacy may supply medicaments to his patients in conformity with the provisions of Law No. 30 of 29 April 1963 with regard to the sale of pharmaceutical products.

Mecca pilgrimage, *World Health, Geneva, August-September 1967.*

The Mecca pilgrimage is open to all Moslems who desire to fulfil their religious obligations and no one is denied entry for health reasons. But the pilgrims are subject to health control on arrival at ports or airports. At Jeddah airport, where pilgrim traffic increased from 52,030 arrivals in 1961 to 83,117 in 1965, a medical unit stands ready to take care of the routine quarantine work and sanitary supervision and serve the airport out-patient dispensary. Similar medical facilities are available at the other points of entry to Saudi Arabia, both by sea and by air.

After their arrival at Jeddah (which is still the principal port of entry by sea and by air), pilgrims are temporarily quartered in one of the huge Pilgrim Cities nearby. The one near the airport is designed to house about 3,000 pilgrims before their departure for Mecca or Medina or while they are waiting to embark for their homes. The building, for the "city" is one huge building, is provided with a chlorinated water supply, modern drainage system, administrative staff, information office, guides and travel agencies. It also includes a dispensary with two doctors on duty.

In 1957 the Jeddah Quarantine Station was formally inaugurated. When the huge complex went into service, it marked the end of an era. After the Constantinople Sanitary Conference in 1886, a series of international controls had been set up specifically for the Mecca Pilgrimage. After the Quarantine Station, planned under the supervision of WHO experts, was completed, the Ninth World Health Assembly in 1956 noted that the Health Administration of Saudi Arabia was fully equipped to deal with all the sanitary problems of the Mecca pilgrimage and considered that the special measures for the sanitary control of pilgrim traffic were no longer necessary.

Pilgrims are required to be vaccinated against cholera, smallpox and yellow fever (for pilgrims coming from countries where even only a part of the country is considered an endemic zone). When the groups arrive, the health authorities are the first to approach the aircraft or ships, to carry out disinfections, examine health certificates and inspect the pilgrims if necessary.

A new form of aid for development, by C. Mackenzie, *Courier, UNESCO, Paris, October 1967.*

It was said earlier that merely feeding the hungry is not enough. But there are of course times of dire emergency when not feeding the hungry would also be less than enough. That is why the World Food Programme, with the stocks of food it has at its disposal, also comes to the aid of victims of emergencies, whether these are sudden, unforeseeable catastrophes like hurricanes, typhoons, earthquakes and volcanic eruptions or the slowly punishing ravages of a long drought.

Emergency operations, however, are not the primary aim of the Programme, and so far never more than about a quarter of its resources have been allocated to them in any one year. The success of the operations has varied inversely with the size of the emergency and the number of victims. In Botswana, where there was a prolonged drought, food supplies at a total cost of less than \$5.5 million helped to keep the entire country going for several months when things were at their worst. On the other hand, more than \$13.5 million spent in the last year or so on sending food to the drought-stricken areas of India, including the states of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, has had little impact on so wide a sweep of suffering.

The fact is that the resources of the World Food Programme, as yet, are totally inadequate for meeting any kind of famine on the scale that now seems to threaten.

What are these resources? And, indeed, how did the World Food Programme come into being at all?

The story probably goes back to the 1930s, when for the first time people were struck by the disquieting phenomenon of a glut of huge, wasteful agricultural surpluses in some countries (notably the United States, although in Brazil too, for example, 75 million bags of coffee had to be burned during the period) while masses of people in other areas of the world went hungry. It was the pressure to find an outlet for surpluses that originally prompted the idea of food aid.

From the end of the Second World War, the U.N. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) worked hard on the problem of surplus disposal, but the most important large-scale initiative for putting food aid into practice was taken by the United States in 1954 with the passage of an Act—usually known as Public Law 480—as a result of which \$13,000 million worth of surplus agricultural commodities were shipped to other countries in the decade that followed.

By this time, however, the idea of development aid on the multilateral pattern was gaining ground, especially following the heavy influx of newly-independent nations into the councils of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies.

So the two trends—a constructive method of surplus disposal and the

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new emphasis on multilateral aid—merged. At the end of 1961, following studies carried out by FAO at the United Nations' request, parallel resolutions in the two organizations set up the World Food Programme on an experimental three-year basis with a target of \$100 million in commodities and cash. Thus the Programme, which formally started operations on January 1, 1963, is the child of both the United Nations, with its general concern for economic and social development, and FAO, with its special competence in matters connected with food.

By the end of 1965 when the experimental period was drawing to a close, the Programme had sufficiently proved itself for the United Nations and FAO to decide to continue it "for as long as multilateral food aid is found feasible and desirable." Despite the fact that by its nature the Programme is meant to be only a preliminary to plenitude, this looks like being for some while yet.

Education programme for Arab refugees, *United Nations, Information Service, Geneva, October 1967.*

In the aftermath of the June 1967 hostilities in the Middle East, the most effective contribution that could be made by the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) would appear to be the maintenance of its existing services to more than one million refugees, possibly with some extension to new groups of displaced persons, coupled with an expansion of its programme of education and training for the children and young refugees, the Commissioner-General of UNRWA, Mr. Laurence Michelmore, stated in his annual report. With the shadow of recent events still obscuring the future of the refugee community, the Commissioner-General expressed the view that "bold and generous action" was required to finance the Agency's education and training programmes "on a more ambitious and more liberal scale".

The report noted that up to the time of the recent hostilities, a slow but steady process of rehabilitation had been at work among the refugees and, in the latter years, had begun to make an evident impact in improving their economic and social condition. This rehabilitation had not been achieved by "ambitious and costly works projects and schemes of mass resettlement but by the operation of normal economic and human factors". The process had now, for the time being at least, been halted and indeed reversed as a result of recent events, and the longer the present situation continued the greater would be the need for remedial action to promote economic recovery...

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 cooperation 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.

JUST PUBLISHED

**THE PRINCIPLES
OF INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW¹**

by

Jean Pictet

Director-General, International
Committee of the Red Cross
Lecturer at Geneva University

In this sixty-page book the writer defines fully and with concision humanitarian law in its widest sense, the laws of war of The Hague and Geneva, and the principles which form the basis for this humanitarian law.

This clear summary is understandable to everybody interested in humanitarian ideas and actions in the world today. In addition, the appendix is a chart of the principles of humanitarian law.

It will be recalled that an earlier work by this author, *The Principles of the Red Cross*, gives the general reader a clear exposition of its subject. Copies of this book, which has already had considerable success, are available in French, English, German and Spanish, from the ICRC Geneva, which published the book.

¹ *The Principles of International Humanitarian Law can be obtained from the ICRC, 7 avenue de la Paix, 1211 Geneva (postal cheque account No. 12-5527). Cost Sw.fr. 8.—.*

SOME 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. 2.50

ICRC. **Annual Report 1966**. 1967, 8vo, 83 pp. Sw. Fr. 7.—

PUBLISHED BY THE CENTENARY COMMISSION
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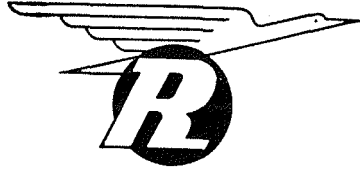
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- ARGENTINE — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yri-goyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
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- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S.S. Viruzov, *Sofia*.
- BURMA — Burma Red Cross, 42, Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI — Red Cross Society of Burundi, rue du Marché 3, P.O. Box 1324, *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, *Bogotá D.E.*
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- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *Prague I*.
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- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
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- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 1*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
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- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
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- 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, P.B. 46, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON** — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, *Beirut*.
- LIBERIA** — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, Corner of Tubman boulevard and 9th Street 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, C.P. 234, *Luxemburg*.
- MADAGASCAR** — Red Cross Society of Madagascar, rue Clemenceau, P.O. Box 1168, *Tananarive*.
- MALAYSIA** — Malaysian Red Cross Society, 519 Jalan Belfield, *Kuala Lumpur*.
- MALI** — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, route de Koulikora, *Bamako*.
- MEXICO** — Mexican Red Cross, Avenida Ejercito Nacional, n° 1032 *Mexico* 10, 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, B.P. 189, *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, Palais gouvernemental, *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, Tcheremushki, J. Tcheremushkinskii 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-Triêng, *Hanoi*.
- VIET NAM (Republic)** — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, duong Hông-Tháp-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*.