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international review of the red cross



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**FRENCH EDITION
OF THE REVIEW**

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

**SUPPLEMENTS
TO THE REVIEW**

SPANISH

H. Beer : La solidaridad Cruz Roja.

GERMAN

H. Beer : Die Solidarität des Roten Kreuzes (I) — Wie organisiert das IKRK seine Hilfsaktionen ?

**INTERNATIONAL
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International Red Cross and Peace ¹

by Jacques Freymond

The subject I shall deal with is one that traditionally comes up for discussion, to the point of growing stale. Innumerable resolutions and recommendations on "Red Cross and Peace" have been voted by delegates to International Red Cross Conferences. One might even say that this type of recommendation, which of course is addressed to all responsible governments, has become a feature of every Red Cross gathering.

This could be taken as an indication that previous recommendations were not followed and that members of National Societies were not satisfied with the results of their various actions in the fields of education and information.

How can we explain the failure of these attempts made by people who are held in general esteem? And what can we do, not so much to enhance the prestige of the Red Cross movement as to give it the impetus and moral influence which will enable it to take a positive part in action for the maintenance of peace or the prevention of war?

* * *

First of all, we should recognize that humanitarian action cannot be isolated from its political context and that it therefore has a political content. This means that all humanitarian organiza-

¹ Address delivered at the Annual Dinner of the American-Swiss Association, New York, on 10 November 1971.

tions must define a long-term humanitarian policy based on a serious analysis of several factors: the political context, the main characteristics of an epoch, the political societies of our time, the world political system. This humanitarian policy in turn implies a humanitarian "strategy" distinct from tactical moves imposed by the variety of crises. Neglect of this work of reflection leads to contradiction, confusion and, what is worse, the degradation of humanitarian action to the level of an instrument of political interests.

* * *

Our analysis must, of course, be centered on a definition of the concept of peace and war.

What do we mean by peace? Is it only the absence of war between States or nations? In a world as emotively integrated as ours, a world in which societies are all going through revolutionary processes that transform their economic and social structures, peace between nations has become highly dependent on peace within those nations. Local conflicts can no longer be localized, and they tend to develop into international civil wars. The universalization of "social wars", of "revolutionary wars", has led us to recognize the international dimensions of what is called "*social peace*".¹ Hence the necessity of a global approach to the problems raised by the preservation or restoration of peace. By *global* approach I mean actions conducted at every level of decision: international, regional and national, through an analysis of the political, economic and social factors.

It is quite clear that the Red Cross movement as such bears no direct responsibility for the maintenance of peace, which is the duty of the United Nations, regional political organizations, governments and citizens. But its contribution, although indirect, could increase in importance if all its members recognized the need for such a global and integrated approach, which would entail a redistribution of tasks within the International Red Cross. We shall return to this question.

¹ Cf. Jacques Freymond, "How the Small Countries can Contribute to Peace", in *Small States in International Relations*, ed. by August Schou and Arne Olav Brundtland, Nobel Symposium 17, 1971.

The main duty of the Red Cross is to render assistance to victims—victims of accidents, victims of natural disasters and other calamities, victims of war. By assistance we understand medical aid to the sick and the wounded; the distribution of relief of various kinds; co-operation in the restoration of normal living conditions, which may include different operations such as the resettlement of refugees and the reuniting of families. These tasks are usually conducted in co-operation with governments or intergovernmental agencies. They produce results that are not always equally successful, depending upon the extent of the disaster, the political climate in which operations are conducted, and the efficiency of the rescue teams.

However, there is a category of victim whose situation is still vague and therefore critical: the war victim. It is widely recognized that changes in the very nature of war have led to a profound transformation of methods of combat and of types of combatant. In a total war, in a political war as well as in a social war, *everybody* is involved. More sophisticated weapons have not led to any clearer distinction between military targets and places where only civilians live. On the contrary, it has become increasingly difficult to distinguish between soldiers and civilians, between combatants and non-combatants. What we now have to face is not only the indiscriminate killing of millions of people by area bombing and shelling; it is the death of women and children who happen to be in a street when a guerrilla fighter throws a bomb or in a plane which is being hijacked.

Here arises the delicate question which has not been answered up to now. Who are the people who should be protected and are entitled to protection? The soldiers who are captured? The “prisoners of war”? But how are they to be defined? By their uniform? By the fact that they are fighting in an organized force?

And what about guerrillas clad in civilian clothes, waging a solitary struggle in the bush and in the streets? Are those men soldiers? Are they terrorists? Or snipers? Have they sometimes not killed as many civilians as soldiers? And again, what about the pilot of a bomber who is captured after having destroyed as many civilian houses as military objectives and probably killed as many women and children as members of the armed forces? He is a

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soldier, obeying the orders of his superiors. But what happens if the other side does not recognize him as a soldier and brands him as a criminal? Take another type of military action: the blockade of a whole country which is directed against the civilian population as well as against soldiers. How can a distinction be made between a “ political ” prisoner and a prisoner of war, at a time when indirect strategy is openly advocated?

* * *

This brings us to the core of our subject: the application of the Geneva Conventions. These Conventions, the signing of which represented a landmark in mankind’s slow progression towards a harmonization of relations between nations; these Conventions which should for the whole world be the symbol of an old ideal of a community of nations based on respect for the dignity of man; these Conventions are only too often ignored or used by governments as a protective shield in the name of national security and sovereignty.

Moreover, prisoners are used as tools in a political struggle, prisoners of war as well as political detainees; that is, persons who, having been made harmless and detained, have become victims. Although defenceless, they are still involved in the continuing fight, whether of their own choosing or against their will. It is quite clear that this conception of a total war, in which even prisoners pursue the struggle, strikes at the heart of some of the provisions of the Geneva Conventions by suppressing the fundamental distinction between the fighter and the man who has been put out of action, who has become a victim once he has fallen into the hands of the adversary.

* * *

What can be done to re-establish the conditions necessary to humanitarian action?

In the last few decades, several attempts have been made to spread information on the content and meaning of the Geneva Conventions. National Red Cross, Red Crescent, Red Lion and

Sun Societies, the League of Red Cross Societies and the International Committee of the Red Cross have conducted all over the world a systematic campaign among soldiers and civil servants, in order to make them aware of their responsibilities and duties in time of war. Handbooks have been prepared, not only for the armed forces but also for schoolchildren, in the hope that their behaviour might be influenced and that every man might be persuaded *to transform a reaction of pity into an act of charity which would have a political meaning*. For, indeed, *by carrying out an act of charity towards an enemy who is no longer able to fight, one clearly puts a limit to violence and demonstrates the will to respect in that person the dignity of man as the first condition for a return to peace*.

Generosity towards an enemy who is at our mercy of course implies some risk and a real burden. There is no guarantee that a prisoner has given up fighting. He might attempt to escape or to use jail or prison camp as a base for an indirect strategy of subversion and terrorism. Security measures have to be taken to maintain an army's fighting capacity and its freedom of manoeuvre, as well as to maintain law and order. But these security measures, taken by a military or civilian administration and handled by the police, can backfire. In wartime—whatever the type of war—the urgent necessity to put an enemy out of action can lead to repression loaded with unjust practices. Such action, which is not necessarily systematic, may result from a defence reflex. On their way from the battlefield or the scene of disturbance to a camp or jail, prisoners and suspects may be exposed to rough treatment and may on arrival find the jail overcrowded. A reaction of anger might then lead to a hardened attitude and to the beginning of a spiral of violence and counterviolence, since repression calls forth an upsurge of resistance.

Thus governments, armies and police forces should be reminded that long-term security, upon which social as well as international peace depend, cannot be brought about by repressive action which, because it is harsh, may become unfair and unjust. Everyone should realize that every kind of abuse is and will continue to be known and denounced, and that no censorship has ever been, or ever will be, effective. By tolerating repression in the hope of putting the adversary more quickly out of action one only deepens the rift

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between and within nations, puts oneself on the defensive and opens the way to never-ending conflicts. Fairness and generosity have always been and still are pre-conditions of peace. The conviction that one is waging a just war or fighting for a just cause should never justify unfair treatment of a "victim". Whatever the "justice" of the war, a prisoner has to be treated as a human being. Political interest here coincides with moral reasons.

As an interesting example, I shall mention the instructions given to the Eighth Route Army by Chairman Mao Tse-tung: political work, as Mao Tse-tung summarized it in a 1937 interview to James Bertram, was guided by three basic principles, one of which was the principle of disintegrating the enemy troops while another was to treat prisoners of war leniently. "Our victory", stated Mao Tse-tung, "depends not only upon our military operations but also upon the disintegration of the enemy troops". And to Bertram, who expressed some doubts as to the effectiveness of that policy which would not be understood by the Japanese army, Mao Tse-tung replied: "That is impossible. . . We shall go on giving lenient treatment to captured Japanese soldiers and to those captured junior officers who have fought us under coercion; we shall not insult or abuse them but shall set them free after explaining to them the identity of the interests of the people of the two countries".

This gesture does not represent an exception. History abounds in examples showing the political value of spontaneous generosity towards a defeated adversary. The better a prisoner is treated, the sooner will he recover his freedom and the greater are our chances of recreating conditions for social and international peace.¹

* * *

What is now to be done?

First of all, we should convince governments, officers, soldiers, members of the police force in every country, as well as members of

¹ During the War of Secession, the United States called upon Lieber to draw up a code of rules for armies in the field. This code, which was promulgated in 1863 under the title of "Code of War for the Government and Armies of the United States in the Field", preceded the first Geneva Convention by one year and thus laid the foundation-stone of humanitarian law. (See *Revue internationale*, May 1953; *Revue internationale*, English Supplement, September 1953.)

revolutionary groups, not only to read the Geneva Conventions but to understand their spirit and to apply them without reservation. This means that these Conventions, as they are now, must be applicable to every type of war and *revolution*, because the symbol of the dignity of man which they represent must remain untouched and must be respected throughout a period of revolution, as mankind's permanent hope for a better future. What is asked for is an "open jail" policy, by which I mean the possibility of permanent and objective control being exercised by Red Cross bodies (National Societies and the International Red Cross) regarding the treatment of all prisoners, in whatever form of warfare they may have been involved. Prison camps and prisons—and there are a great many examples—cannot be left in the hands of the military and penal administrations alone, without control by the community, and it is obviously in the interest of governments to obtain objective outside support.

This is only one example, but a very important one, of the measures which must be taken in order to restore and maintain, during this revolutionary period, an awareness of the moral conditions of peace. *An effective humanitarian policy is the main counterweight to total war.*

For those involved in humanitarian activities—National Societies, the League and the International Committee of the Red Cross—their duty is clear.¹ Whatever their position and their status, all must concentrate their attention on a reduction of violence and on the protection of the victims of *man-made* disasters and natural disasters. They must organize or reorganize with a view to educating and training their members morally and technically for their commitment to a global "Red Cross" action which would no longer distinguish between prison and prison camp, precisely because it would recognize the fact that war and revolution, international peace and social peace, can no longer be dissociated. For some of these institutions, this will mean a profound readaptation: there will have to be an increase in the number of permanent officers effectively trained for this new task, a reassessment of their relations

¹ Resolution No. 1 adopted by the Council of Delegates, Mexico City, 8 October 1971, on the role of National Societies in the Development of Humanitarian Law. See *International Review*, December 1971.

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with governments, a re-thinking of the meaning of their neutrality, their impartiality, their independence and, above all, the reaffirmation that charity cannot be used as a substitute for a *humanitarian policy*.

For the Red Cross movement this will mean a re-examination of the present division of labour, at international level, so as to face more effectively man-made disasters, whether the result of revolution or war. This will mean closer consultations between the various Red Cross institutions in the elaboration of a humanitarian policy at various levels—national, regional and international. Any anachronistic competition or outdated claims to a monopoly of humanitarian action must be swept aside in a common effort to reassess the position of the Red Cross movement in the world of today: a common action which should relate both to the definition of a humanitarian policy and to the reorganization of the direction of the world movement.

That is a great and difficult task, considering that this elaboration of a humanitarian policy must be done in common by men belonging to different social systems, coming from various continents; a difficult task, too, inasmuch as what is necessary is not so much the improvement of the Geneva Conventions as their application during a period of revolution. But the work has to be done because it is one of the main conditions of peace.

Jacques FREYMOND
Member of the International
Committee of the Red Cross

Red Cross and the Problems of Environment

by Irena Domanska

The paper quoted below was submitted, under agenda item 21, to the League Board of Governors at its Mexico meeting in October 1971. We take pleasure in bringing it to the knowledge of our readers, in view of the importance and topical aspect of nature conservancy to which the Red Cross is known to be giving increasing attention in various countries. Several National Societies are drawing up plans for the protection and improvement of the environment. Others have already taken action and some co-operate with other organizations concerned about the subject and which often conduct their own publicity campaigns.

Further on, we give extracts from another communication which was presented by Professor Maurice Marois to the same meeting of the Board of Governors. It deals with the same problem as viewed by the Institut de la Vie from the angle of its own work for the protection of nature. (Ed.).

The rapidity with which our environment is degenerating, due mainly to the technological revolution and the population explosion in all large cities, is becoming a source of serious concern for the public authorities. Although the disappearing natural characteristics, fauna and flora of many regions long ago impelled authorities to take action to protect nature, recent developments are so harmful to the whole biosphere and man himself that they demand

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serious study of the causes of the blight on our environment, of its effects on human health, of corrective measures and of the best preventive action.

Industrial development has long been the main source of the wealth and welfare of the population; it still is, but it can no longer be thought that technical progress is all that counts for civilization, and we must realize that for every new branch of technology we must ask not only what its economic advantages are, but also its long-term social consequences.

These problems, which until recently could have been dealt with mainly by measures taken on a nation or even local scale, are increasingly demanding action on a world scale, for there are scourges, such as air and water pollution, which transcend political boundaries, threatening all creation. It is therefore only right, and high time, that many international organizations, particularly the United Nations and its specialized agencies, should include them on their agendas and study their various aspects with a view to finding a solution.

Accordingly, the U.N. Economic and Social Council is organizing a World Conference on environment problems, to be held in 1972 in Stockholm. In addition, the Economic Commission for Europe organized a symposium on the subject in Prague in May 1971. The symposium, at which the League was represented in the capacity of observer by the Chairman of its Health and Social Service Advisory Committee, was attended by delegates from nearly every country in Europe and from the United States, and it contributed to the preparation of the World Conference in Stockholm.

The symposium discussed what measures should be taken and what economic, social and institutional resources governments should devote to a policy for a wholesome environment, alongside programmes of economic growth.

It endeavoured to define the main influences on the environment and the causes of its degeneration. The discussions on a policy for environment clearly showed the need for overall planning covering various kinds of action and measures, from protection, conservation and prevention, to the reform, improvement and intensive exploitation of many areas, and their integration into development pro-

grammes. Attention was concentrated on problems arising from the proximity of directly threatened regions, such as metropolitan zones, river basins, holiday, industrial and rural areas, many of which were in neighbouring countries and required international co-operation.

However, it was mainly the technological, economic and planning aspects of environment problems which were studied at Prague. Although they are of capital importance and essential in halting the deterioration of the environment, and whilst a prevention programme which did not take them into account would be inconceivable, there is another and no less important aspect which should be studied at the World Conference in Stockholm, namely the effects of environmental pollution on the physical and mental health of mankind, and ways and means of preventing them. In spite of his improved well-being, civilization, hygiene and medicine, man is constantly subject to the influence of a number of factors resulting from the deterioration of the environment and detrimental to his health. Those factors may not only bring about serious biological and structural cell mutations but may also affect homoeostatic organic adjustment. In some cases, production of new toxins occurs in the body.

Chronic effects which are potential sources of carcinogens, such as mutagen or tetragen, should also not be ignored. Populations of areas of pollution are exposed to its harmful effects for many years, sometimes for a lifetime. Pollutants act not only on adults with their stronger powers of resistance, but also on young children who are particularly vulnerable and whose defence mechanism and adaptability are not fully developed. They also affect the elderly and the sick, whose biological reactions differ from those of people in sound health.

The industrially advanced countries have serious problems with air pollution by smoke, gases, vapours and solid particles in suspension. Water pollution is extremely harmful to human physical and mental health and well-being. Solid waste matter not suitably disposed of is another public health hazard and contributes to air, water and soil pollution conducive to the breeding of flies, rodents and other vectors of disease. Agriculture lags but little behind industry as a source of pollution through pesticides and chemical

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fertilizers which are soon drawn off the land. Noise has a cumulative effect on the human organism, engendering what we call aggression, the most quantifiable element of which is stress. In addition, high frequency sound can in the long run induce changes in cerebral function. Low frequency sound benumbs the central nervous system reactions. The concentration of industry in large towns gives rise to over-population and crowding into large irksomely identical buildings and into the public transport which workers have to use at least twice a day between their places of work and their homes. Hence, large scale commuting, which prevents the formation of "well structured communities". Man increasingly becomes a stranger in town. This trend is most marked among workers who come from abroad to work for a certain length of time in the industrialized countries where labour is in short supply.

Compelled to live year in year out in over-populated built-up areas, the city dweller longs for natural pleasures. Social progress and motor transport bring the countryside within his reach, but the invading hordes of tourists in search of verdant lands bid fair to destroy the natural sites to which they flock for the very purpose of seeking relaxation.

What should the role of the Red Cross be in coping with such important problems affecting all aspects of contemporary life? The meeting of the League Health and Social Service Advisory Committee in September 1970 discussed that subject. It decided to find out from all National Societies what they were doing in this field. Last spring, the League Secretary General organised a consultative meeting in which the Chairman, one of the Vice-Chairmen, the Director and senior staff of the Health and Social Service Bureau took part. It was decided to propose to the Committee of the Chairman and Vice-Chairmen of the League that environment problems be included on the agenda of the Board of Governors, in order to emphasise their importance and the place they should occupy in our humanitarian activities.

It is a fact that it should not be the ambition of the Red Cross, as an auxiliary of the public authorities, to take the place of those authorities. Neither should it embark upon projects which involve financial outlay for which it does not have the necessary resources. On the other hand, it should as always appeal to its voluntary workers,

to their dedication, zeal, generosity and good will, to join in an unprecedented humanitarian operation affecting millions of human beings of all ages, and even unborn generations, threatened with slow physical and mental degeneration if pollution of the environment is allowed to continue unchecked.

Consequently, the Red Cross must set its sights in terms of each Society's possibilities and of the situation in each country. For its work to be of great social value, effective, and of maximum satisfaction to the voluntary worker, it must be co-ordinated with that of other voluntary organisations and, first and foremost, with that of the authorities. It is desirable to draw up for all environmental problems in a particular country or region a comprehensive long-term plan of action in which each participating institution and organisation knows exactly what it should do and for what it is responsible.

That does not mean that the Red Cross could not, in case of need, exert some sort of pressure through its local, regional or central committees on the authorities, to induce them to adopt legislative or other measures which it thought necessary.

However, the main Red Cross contribution to the safeguard of the environment and man's physical and mental health lies in its suitably adapted health and social development work. It can make that contribution by participating, for example, in large-scale campaigns to inform the public about the condition of the environment in particular regions or towns and about the application of necessary measures, or by helping the health authorities in the dissemination of knowledge, and the inculcation of personal, community, occupational, nutritional and other health principles which must be strictly observed to ward off the ill effects of a polluted environment. Noise, which causes so much harm, can be reduced through large-scale educational and explanatory campaigns to make known the harm it does man at home, work, leisure and rest. The Red Cross can play a role of primary importance and benefit in human relations which today are often the cause of great mental strain, so detrimental to health. Make contact with the individual to release him from his loneliness, from the anxieties which sometimes arouse hostility; to bring joy to the physically and mentally disabled and to the elderly living alone; to re-adapt them to society; that is

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what the Red Cross can and does do in certain countries through its dedicated and well-trained voluntary workers.

Red Cross activities related to the environment should be particularly well conducted among young people, with the co-operation of educators, doctors, sociologists and psychologists, helped, if possible, by Junior Red Cross volunteers. Young people, much more so than their elders, are physically and mentally sensitive to the deterioration of the environment. It may be assumed that the far out escapades in which some sections of the youthful population today indulge in many developed countries are attributable to the deleterious environment in the widest sense of the word.

It is of course not possible in a brief report to deal with all Red Cross activities related to environmental problems. Each Society, according to the needs of its country and its country's population, as well as its possibilities, may, without departing from its traditional functions, contribute to the safeguard of the environment and human welfare, and open up new fields in which its work can benefit mankind equally as much as it has in the past.

Dr. Irena DOMANSKA

Chairman of the Health and Social Service
Advisory Committee of the League
Vice-Chairman of the Polish Red Cross

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

**Conference of Red Cross Experts on the
Reaffirmation and Development of International
Humanitarian Law Applicable in Armed Conflicts**

GENEVA, 17 DECEMBER 1971

*Circular No. 485
to the Central Committees of National Red Cross,
Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun Societies*

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,

The International Committee of the Red Cross had the honour of providing you, by Circular 483 of September 1971, with a report on the work of the Conference of Government Experts on the Reaffirmation and Development of International Humanitarian Law Applicable in Armed Conflicts which was held in Geneva from 24 May to 12 June 1971. The same Circular informed you of the second session of that Conference which would be open to all States expressly party to the 1949 Geneva Conventions, and that,

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in order to closely associate National Societies with this work, the International Committee had decided to invite representatives of those societies to attend as observers.

The International Committee had occasion, at the meeting of the Council of Delegates convened in Mexico City on 8 October 1971, to report to you on its work and on its projects for 1972. Among other matters it considered the possibility of holding a further meeting of Red Cross experts before the Conference of Government Experts. The vast majority of the National Societies present approved the idea.

The International Committee takes pleasure in informing you that the Austrian Red Cross has very obligingly offered to host such a conference in Vienna, and that the offer has been gratefully accepted.

The International Committee therefore invites your Society to be represented by one or more experts at the Conference which it is convening in Vienna from 20 to 24 March 1972, in close co-operation with the Austrian Red Cross.

In accordance with the usual practice, travel and subsistence costs will be borne by the delegations.

To help the Austrian Red Cross and the ICRC prepare the conference under the best possible conditions, we should be most grateful if you would send your reply to the International Committee as soon as possible, by 31 January 1972 at the latest. We would ask you, if possible, to state the number of experts who are to attend. Once the International Committee has been able to convey this information to the Austrian Red Cross, the latter will send the participating Societies technical particulars regarding the organisation of the meeting and the stay in Vienna.

The principal aim of the meeting, after the results of the first session of the Conference of Government Experts have been noted, will be to ensure a wide exchange of views on the draft texts prepared by the International Committee for the second session. The exchange of views may include some of the provisions in the documents that are of specific interest to National Societies.

The above-mentioned draft texts will be dispatched to all States invited to send experts to the second session and will naturally

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also be sent to you, to enable you to study them before the Vienna Conference. We shall in due time send a provisional agenda to the National Societies participating in the Vienna meeting, and shall welcome any suggestions they may wish to make in this context.

The conclusions of the meeting will be conveyed to the second session of the Conference of Government Experts scheduled to open in Geneva on 3 May 1972.

FOR THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

Marcel A. Naville

President

FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE INDO-PAKISTAN CONFLICT VICTIMS

The Background

Since March 1971, the International Committee of the Red Cross had been watching the situation on the Indian sub-continent and had given particular attention to the development of its contacts with the Governments and Red Cross Societies of India and Pakistan with a view to carrying out its humanitarian mission for the benefit of the victims of events.

At the end of that month, in view of the crisis in East Pakistan, the ICRC offered its services to the Government of Pakistan for the first time. Two special missions in the summer of 1971 to follow up that offer resulted in the setting up at Dacca, in co-operation with the National Red Cross, of an office for the tracing of missing persons under ICRC auspices.

At the same time, the ICRC spared no pains to discharge its mission in India. More than 50,000 tons of relief supplies made available to the ICRC by the EEC were forwarded to the Indian Red Cross for the benefit of Bengali refugees, and in December a tracing service was opened in co-operation with the Indian Red Cross Society.

Just before the conflict erupted, there were already two ICRC delegates in New Delhi and two in Dacca. In due course the ICRC also made contact with the Bangladesh representatives in London, New Delhi, Calcutta and New York.

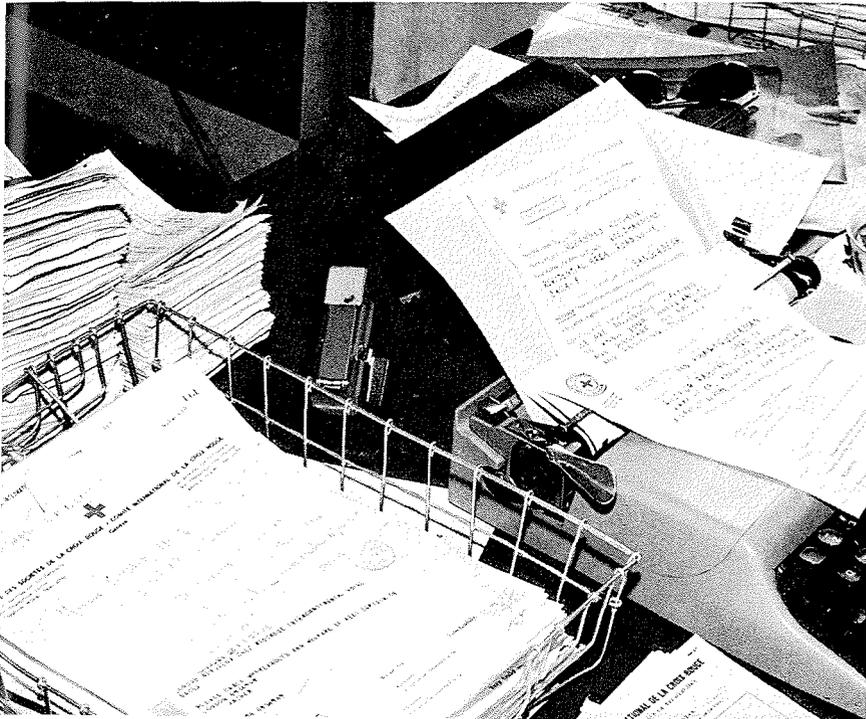
The League of Red Cross Societies, for its part, had a score of delegates in East Pakistan (Dacca, Chittagong and the islands). They had been working there since June 1971, co-operating with the National Red Cross for the relief and resettlement of cyclone victims. Its programme included the setting up of a cyclone warn-



Tracing Agency at Dacca: sorting enquiries and family messages...

Photos Jolliet/ICRC

of which thousands are received every day.



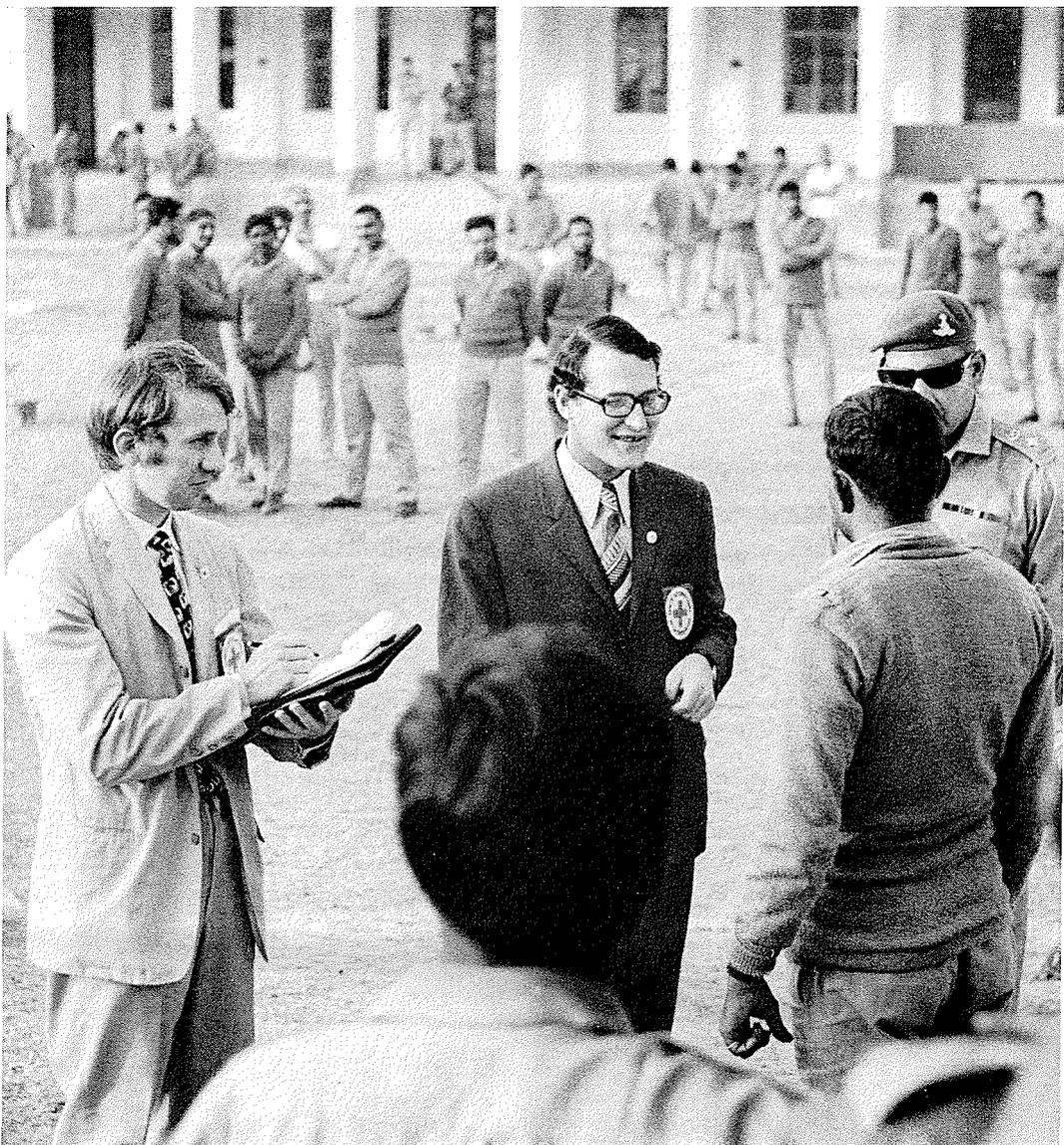


Photo Jolliet/ICRC

Two ICRC delegates interviewing a Pakistani prisoner of war with the help of a Pakistani officer acting as interpreter.



Photo Jolliet/ICRC

At the Holy Family Hospital, Dacca: an ICRC doctor-delegate and a Swiss Red Cross nurse tending a severe casualty.



Photo Mitra ICRC

In a refugee camp near Calcutta: anti-cholera campaign by the Indian Red Cross.

ing and relief system, the distribution of emergency supplies and the administration of the Holy Family Hospital in Dacca.

At the outset of hostilities, on 4 December 1971, the ICRC reminded the Governments of India and Pakistan of their obligations under the 1949 Geneva Conventions. All parties to the conflict—including Bangladesh—gave their assurance that the Geneva Conventions would be applied in all circumstances.

The ICRC delegates in the field, assisted by those of the League in Dacca and with the agreement of the authorities, took the necessary steps to provide the best protection they could for the victims of the conflict, until such time as a large scale programme could get off the ground. Three buildings in Dacca, the Intercontinental Hotel, the Holy Family Hospital and the Notre Dame College, were declared neutral zones under ICRC control, and gave shelter from the fighting to many civilians and casualties.

The first civilian aircraft to land at Dacca was the DC-6 which the Swiss Government lent the ICRC. It touched down on 25 December with an ICRC delegation and medical supplies. In the days which followed, medical teams supplied by several National Societies also reached Bangladesh and started working in various parts of the territory.

When hostilities ceased, the ICRC was able to discharge the duties incumbent upon it under the Geneva Conventions, such as the protection of prisoners of war and of civilians, the care of the wounded and the sick, the tracing of missing persons, the forwarding of family messages and the provision of assistance to the needy; in all a no mean task.

Situation at the end of January 1972

In December 1971, several ICRC delegates left for Dacca where, as mentioned in our previous issue, two delegates were already on the spot working in aid of the victims of the India-Pakistan conflict. The new arrivals found that, after the termination of hostilities, several humanitarian tasks had to be undertaken under the red cross emblem.

(1) *For prisoners of war.*—Before the transfer of Pakistani prisoners of war to India, the completion of which was effected about

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the middle of January 1972, the delegates visited several thousands of them and examined detention conditions.¹

(2) *Care of wounded and sick.*—At the end of December 1971, six medical teams, made available to the ICRC by the National Societies of Denmark, Finland, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland, began operating in various parts of the country.¹ By the end of January they were performing a twofold task: surgical treatment for wounded soldiers on the one hand, and anti-cholera vaccination to prevent the outbreak of any epidemic on the other hand. At that date, some members of the Scandinavian medical teams decided to form together a surgical unit at Dacca Medical College, where the seriously wounded victims of the war would be treated.

(3) *Assistance to civilians in danger or in need.*—As soon as hostilities were ended, the ICRC took up the problem of minority groups who, fearing for their lives, were afraid to venture out of the districts where they lived. This situation created supply difficulties, and, in agreement with the authorities, the ICRC drew up a three-month plan to provide aid for those sections of the population most in need: 15 to 20 medico-social teams are to be sent out and 500,000 rations of 1,700 calories each distributed daily.

The ICRC delegation in Dacca turned its attention, moreover, to the civilian internees who also received from the Red Cross relief supplies in the way of food to meet their most pressing needs. At the end of January, nearly all those civilians were transferred to India, and it is the ICRC delegation in India that is continuing to provide assistance to the internees and prisoners of war.

(4) *Tracing service and messages.*—As soon as fighting had ceased, a very large number of family messages and enquiry requests began to reach the offices of the tracing service, which had already been set up several months beforehand in Dacca with the aid of the Central Tracing Agency representative, and in co-operation with the local Red Cross. Several persons, including two specially sent out from Geneva, are dealing with all the work there.¹

¹ *Plate.*

The Work of the Central Tracing Agency and Information Bureaux

When hostilities broke out, the Central Tracing Agency in Geneva was mainly receiving enquiries from Pakistanis in Europe and America regarding their family members in India or in Pakistan.

As hostilities became more widespread, nearly 20,000 civilian messages were received in Geneva. The messages came both from East Pakistan and West Pakistan and were immediately forwarded to the addressees. Most had been sent by civilians, but some of them were from Pakistani prisoners of war held by the Indians. Ever more numerous requests for information about missing people kept coming in. In each case, an enquiry was started at Central Tracing Agency headquarters and channelled to the regional tracing bureaux in India, Bangladesh and Pakistan. The bureaux themselves send enquiries on to the local Red Cross Society, which endeavours to obtain the desired information within the shortest possible time.

As regards information about prisoners of war, an ICRC delegate, on his return to Geneva, handed the Agency on 9 January 1972 the preliminary lists of Pakistani prisoners of war held by the Indians. The lists were immediately recorded and promptly forwarded to the Government of Pakistan through its Geneva representative.

Two days later the Agency received from the ICRC delegate at Islamabad a list of Indian prisoners of war held by the Pakistanis. This list, too, was recorded and handed to the Indian Permanent Delegation in Geneva for transmission to the Government of India.

It is worth mentioning that the information contained in the lists is indexed and recorded on tape. By means of this new working method it is possible to prepare different classification lists, alphabetical, numerical, etc. in a very short time. One may well imagine the amount of work involved and the specialized staff who have had to be engaged.

We might add that the lists were accompanied by about a thousand capture cards completed by Indian and Pakistani prisoners of war, and that they were dealt with in the same way as the lists. The Central Tracing Agency hopes to receive further cap-

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ture cards as they are completed by prisoners of war in the internment camps.

*

This information was available at the end of January regarding the activities of the Central Tracing Agency in this sector. We shall now outline the tasks which the Tracing Agency has before it in the various places where it has regional bureaux, and regarding which we asked one of the senior Agency officials to supply us with information. It will be recalled that in its November 1971 issue the *International Review* published an article about the Tracing Service which Mr. Nicolas Vecsey organized on the occasion of his first mission to Dacca, in co-operation with the local Red Cross, with a view to finding missing people and putting them in touch with their families.

*

It was with this same purpose that Mr. Vecsey went to India and Pakistan in December 1971. On arrival in New Delhi, he set about helping the National Red Cross Society establish a tracing service which at the outset was divided into:

a war section, to deal in particular with enquiries about missing soldiers and the transmission of prisoner-of-war mail. Apart from tracing requests, however, the mail of Indian and Pakistani prisoners is handled by the national information bureau provided for in the Geneva Conventions;

a civilian section, whose task it is, once a card index is set up, to prepare files on requests concerning refugees. All enquiries received from Geneva are indexed. On the other hand, neither the Central Tracing Agency nor the Indian Red Cross had by the end of December received any enquiries from the refugees themselves. They were, in fact, unaware of the existence of any tracing service.

It therefore became necessary to inform refugees in camps, and Mr. Vecsey made appointments with the Calcutta authorities as well as with the authorities in charge of the major camps on the outskirts of that city. He visited the camps with the director of

the National Society's tracing service and worked out with local authorities the following information system:

- (a) lists of persons whom it was desired to trace were to be posted at several points in the camps, to ensure that replies were made to the enquiries already received;
- (b) to enable refugees to trace missing members of the family, 250,000 enquiry and civilian message forms were distributed, while the local press and radio announced the proposed tracing method. Even though the refugees are gradually returning home, some of their relatives may be missing, and this will considerably add to the work at Dacca and New Delhi.

Mr. Vecsey then proceeded to Islamabad, where the ICRC delegation had been receiving several hundred enquiries a day about missing persons. It did not seem necessary, however, to start a large tracing agency since the Lahore chapter of the Pakistan Red Cross had just established one, and moreover the Ministry of Defence had set up a national bureau for information on servicemen. In addition, enquiries concerning civilians were referred to the efficiently run service of the Lahore chapter of the Red Cross, where more than 80 voluntary helpers are now at work.

EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES

Khmer Republic

Doctor-delegate visits camps.—Early in 1972, the ICRC doctor-delegate in the Khmer Republic made a general round of visits to refugee camps at Phnom-Penh, together with representatives of the Khmer Health Sub-Committee. Some 32 camps situated in the Khmer capital were thus visited and the doctor-delegate enquired into the organization of the medical treatment of the refugees. Six camps are visited daily by the municipal health mobile unit, while the other camps, which are in charge of a nurse, are visited every 2 or 3 days.

There are currently nearly 7,000 persons in the Phnom-Penh refugee camps.

Distribution of relief.—The ICRC delegate was present on 17 December 1971 at two distributions of relief supplies by the Khmer Red Cross to refugees. The first took place in the compound of the National Society's offices, where about 300 refugees, mainly from the Kompong Thom and Taing Kauk areas, received sleeping mats, blankets, material and tinned food.

The second distribution was carried out at Khleas Sanday, in the region of Prey Sâr. About 135 families received sleeping mats, blankets, material and clothing, tinned milk and other tinned food, rice and salt.

On 7 January 1972, the ICRC delegation was present at a further distribution of relief supplies at Khmer Red Cross headquarters. Blankets, sleeping mats, clothing and tinned food were distributed to 200 refugee families who had come from Kompong Thom, Santuk and Kompong Thmâr.

Republic of Vietnam

During December 1971, the delegates and doctor-delegates of the ICRC in the Republic of Vietnam visited prisoners of war in several places of detention: on 8 and 9 December, they went to the Vietnamese armed forces military hospital at Ban-Me-Thuot; from 14 to 16 December, they visited the C n-Tho prisoner-of-war camp, and on 17 and 21 December, the Phan-Thanh-Gian and Nguyen-Hu  Vietnamese military hospitals at C n-Tho and Nha-Trang respectively.

At each visit, the ICRC delegates spoke with prisoners of war without witnesses. At the Bien-Hoa prisoner-of-war camp, on 25 November 1971, they distributed sports equipment and games.

Zaire

On 25 December 1971, a delegate of the ICRC for West Africa visited nine Portuguese military prisoners held by the " Revolutionary Government of Angola in Exile " (R.G.A.E.) in the Republic of Zaire. He spoke with them without witnesses. The previous visit made by the ICRC to these prisoners was on 28 June 1971.

Middle East

Visits to prisoners of war.—ICRC delegates in Israel and in Arab countries have over the past few weeks made several visits to prisoners of war. They have, as usual, been able to talk in private with prisoners. The ICRC reports on the visits are sent to the detaining authorities and to the prisoners' own government.

In Israel, all the Arab prisoners of war interned in the Sarafand military camp (62 Egyptians, 42 Syrians and one Jordanian) were visited by the ICRC on 19 December 1971 and on 6 January 1972.

In the Arab Republic of Egypt, the ICRC delegates visited the ten Israeli prisoners of war in the Abassieh military prison on 30 December 1971 and again on 11 January 1972.

In Syria, the three Israeli prisoners of war were visited on 21 December 1971 and on 16 January 1972. On the occasion of

the December visit, the delegates delivered family messages and parcels containing books and food.

Family reuniting in the Suez Canal area.—A family reuniting operation, on 22 December 1971, conducted under the auspices of the ICRC at El Qantara, on the Suez Canal, enabled 24 persons from the Arab Republic of Egypt to proceed to the occupied territories, while 54 crossed the Canal in the opposite direction.

Israel¹ and the occupied territories

Reuniting of families.—A family reuniting operation organized by the ICRC took place on 13 January 1972. Four families (18 persons) were able to join their people on the occupied Golan Heights.

Student travel.—An ICRC-sponsored operation for the transfer of Palestinian students from Gaza took place at Roshanikra on 11 January 1972. It enabled 47 young people from Gaza to continue their studies in the Lebanon.

Distribution of winter parcels.—For the end of Ramadan and for Christmas, a “winter parcel” campaign was conducted by ICRC delegates in Arab countries for the benefit of civilian prisoners in Israel and in the occupied territories.

Some 850 parcels, mainly containing warm clothing, were prepared by families and handed to the various delegations, which forwarded them to the ICRC delegates in Tel Aviv. The distribution took place in all prisons in Israel and the occupied territories from 6 to 9 December 1971.

Jordan

On 6 December 1971, the ICRC delegate in Jordan visited a group of twelve persons who had been expelled from the territories occupied by Israel. They were being held in the Mahatta prison, Amman, for identity checks. In addition, on 15 December 1971, he visited a Palestinian from Lebanon who was detained in the Mahatta prison, Amman.

¹ In our last issue we mentioned that General S. Lahat was the Army Chief of Staff. In fact he is Chief of Personnel, A. Branch.

Yemen Arab Republic

The ICRC workshop for orthopaedic appliances, in Sana'a, has continued its activities for the equipping and rehabilitation of invalids.¹ In November 1971, 285 amputees were registered for treatment and fitting at the centre. Fifteen of them were training to wear an orthopaedic appliance while a further fifteen were learning how to walk with an artificial limb. During that month, the workshop produced ten leg prostheses, two arm prostheses and three orthotic aids. Altogether, the centre has produced some 145 artificial limbs and twenty-two orthotic appliances.

IN GENEVA

Participation in the Geneva Conventions

In its last issue, the *International Review* stated that 130 States were parties to the Geneva Conventions of 1949. This number has now risen to 131. The ICRC has recently been informed by the Federal Political Department in Berne that the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Burundi has notified the Swiss Federal Council, in a letter which reached the latter on 27 December 1971, that Burundi considers itself a party to the four Geneva Conventions of August 12, 1949, under the earlier ratification by Belgium.

By this declaration of continuity, the Republic of Burundi is henceforth expressly bound by the said Conventions.

¹ The October 1970 issue of *International Review* contains a detailed article on this workshop.

TEACHING OF INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW

The ICRC has on various occasions drawn the attention of National Red Cross Societies to the importance of an ever wider dissemination of the Geneva Conventions. In March 1971, it sent them a letter relating to the teaching of international humanitarian law in universities.¹ Recently it reverted to the subject in a circular which we publish below, followed by the outline of a course on international humanitarian law which Mr. Jean Pictet, Vice-President of the ICRC, is giving at the University of Geneva, and which he has authorized us to reproduce.

Geneva, 20 January 1972

On 30 March 1971, the International Committee of the Red Cross, in a circular letter addressed to all National Societies, drew their attention to the necessity for developing the study of humanitarian law in universities. At the same time, it requested National Societies to carry out a survey in the principal universities of their respective countries with the object of finding out what was the position with regard to this question.

To date, only 35 National Societies have sent replies, while those of 80 other Societies have still not been received. The ICRC takes the liberty of urging the latter not to leave this important matter in abeyance.

¹ See *International Review*, June 1971.

The ICRC founds its request now on a resolution on this subject adopted by the Council of Delegates in Mexico last October.¹ The ICRC counts on all National Societies to do their utmost for some positive action to be taken in this respect.

For its part, the ICRC, in its desire to contribute actively towards the diffusion of humanitarian law, has pleasure in putting forward the outline of a model course on international humanitarian law, enclosed herewith. You will observe that it lists the principal subjects to be included in such a course. It should aid National Societies to approach deans of law colleges in a more substantial manner, in that they will be in a position to put forward constructive suggestions. National Societies are requested to inform us of their own reactions to our proposals as well as of those of the university circles approached by them. We are prepared to furnish further details and any developments of the plan to all National Societies that may be interested.

To conclude, may we remind you that 1972 will be a most significant year for the development of humanitarian law, owing to the forthcoming Conference of Experts of National Red Cross Societies which will be held in Vienna, in March, and the Conference of Government Experts scheduled to take place in Geneva, in May. It is therefore necessary to take this opportunity to step up efforts for the diffusion of humanitarian law. Previous conferences of experts and the United Nations too have on several occasions stressed the importance of such diffusion for a better knowledge and, consequently, for a better application of humanitarian law.

The ICRC therefore requests National Societies to devote to this aspect of their mission all the attention which its importance warrants, and would be grateful if they would, in pursuance of the Mexico Resolution, report to the ICRC the results of their efforts.

* * *

¹ The *International Review* published the text of the resolution in its December 1971 issue, page 676.

OUTLINE OF A COURSE
ON INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW

I. What is International Humanitarian Law?

- The Law of War
- The Law of The Hague
- The Law of Geneva
- Legislation on Human Rights

II. Moral sources

- Definitions
- Modern humanitarianism
- Justice and charity

III. The evolution of the humanitarian thought and practice of States

- Examples of humanity in ancient times, the Middle Ages and the modern era
- The influence of philosophical and religious doctrines
- The practices of States and Armies
- The foundation of the Red Cross

IV. The preparation and application of the Geneva Conventions

1. *The 1864 Convention and subsequent versions thereof*
2. *The Maritime Convention*
3. *The status of prisoners of war*
 - The IXth Hague Convention of 1899, revised in 1907
 - Red Cross work during World War I
 - The Diplomatic Conference of 1929; the Geneva Convention on the treatment of prisoners of war
4. *The protection of civilians*
 - The Hague Regulations of 1899, revised in 1907
 - The post-World War I efforts of the ICRC to conclude a Convention for the Protection of Civilians
 - ICRC efforts during World War II and the application, by analogy, of prisoner-of-war treatment to civilians in enemy territory

5. *Civil war*
 - ICRC efforts to protect the victims of civil war
6. *The 1949 Conventions*
 - The need to revise and supplement existing Conventions
 - The Diplomatic Conference of 21 April–12 August 1949
 - Great progress: the conclusion of the IVth Geneva Convention, and common Article 3 relating to conflicts of a non-international nature

V. Principles of Humanitarian Law

1. *Basic principles*
 - The principle of humanity
 - The principle of humanitarian law
 - The principle of the Law of War
 - The principle of the Law of The Hague
 - The principle of the Law of Geneva
 - The principle of Human Rights
2. *Common principles*
 - The principle of inviolability
 - The principle of non-discrimination
 - The principle of security
3. *Principles specific to the victims of conflicts*
 - The principle of neutrality
 - The principle of normality
 - The principle of protection
4. *Principles specific to the Law of War*
 - The principle of limitation *ratione personae*
 - The principle of limitation *ratione loci*
 - The principle of limitation *ratione conditionis*
5. *Principles specific to Human Rights*
 - The principle of freedom
 - The principle of social well-being

VI. The International Red Cross Organization

1. *The International Red Cross*
 - The International Conference of the Red Cross
2. *The International Committee of the Red Cross*
 - Its Statutes
 - Its bases in the 1949 Conventions
 - The three sources of authority for ICRC action
 - ICRC action
 - The limits of such action
 - Publicity
3. *National Red Cross Societies*
4. *The League of Red Cross Societies*
 - composition, aims, work

VII. General provisions of the Geneva Conventions

1. *The cases in which they are applied*
2. *Conflicts of a non-international nature*
 - Article 3 common to the four Conventions
3. *Supervision of application*
 - Protecting Powers
 - Substitutes for Protecting Powers
4. *Sanctions*
 - Responsibility of the State
 - Double responsibility of State and individual
 - Obligation to seek and punish
 - Opening an enquiry into alleged violations of the Conventions
5. *The inalienability of rights*
6. *The prohibition of reprisals*
7. *The beginning and end of application*
8. *Final provisions*

VIII. Improving the lot of the injured, sick and shipwrecked

(Conventions I and II of 1949)

- Protecting the wounded
- Protecting medical personnel
- Role of relief societies
- Medical training and establishments
- Repatriation of medical personnel
- Medical equipment and transport
- Distinctive sign

IX. The treatment of prisoners of war

(Convention III of 1949)

- Categories of persons entitled to be treated as prisoners of war
- The treatment of prisoners of war
- Conditions applicable to captivity
- Types of work permitted
- Contact between detainees and representatives of the supervisory bodies
- Relations between prisoners and the authorities
- Repatriation of the severely wounded and sick
- Liberation and repatriation

X. Protection of civilians

(Convention IV of 1949)

- Respect for the individual
- Limitations to the protection offered to civilians by the Convention
- The general protection of civilians against certain effects of war
- The status and treatment of protected persons
- The internment and assigned residence of civilians
- The different ways in which captivity can end
- Information offices, the Central Tracing Agency and relief societies

XI. The Law of War

(The Hague Convention)

- Background
- Those rules of The Hague Conventions which are still important and valid:
 - Relations between belligerents
 - The status of belligerents
 - Hostilities
 - Sanctions
 - The rights and obligations of neutral persons and Powers
 - War at sea
 - War in the air

XII. Human Rights

- Repression of slavery
- The status of refugees
- Repression of genocide
- Declaration of Human Rights
- The European Convention and the promotion of human rights on the other continents

XIII. The latest developments in humanitarian law

With regard to the work carried out to reaffirm and develop humanitarian law, special attention is paid to the study of:

1. *The protection of the wounded and sick*
 - Protection of civilian medical personnel
 - Protection of the medical mission
 - Provisions to supplement common Article 3 in this respect
 - Security of medical transport, especially medical aircraft
2. *Guerrilla warfare*
 - Distinction between combatants and civilians
 - Respect for the laws and customs of war

3. *Protection of the individual in conflicts not of an international nature*
 - Provisions supplementing and enlarging common Article 3
 - Protection of victims of internal disturbances
 4. *The protection of civilian populations against the dangers of indiscriminate warfare*
 - Definition of civilian population
 - Refuge zones
 - Precautions to be taken by belligerents for the benefit of the civilian population
 - Protection of relief societies and civil defence organizations
 5. *Behaviour of combatants*
 6. *Measures intended to strengthen the application of the law*
 - The problem of supervising the application of the Conventions; Protecting Powers, substitutes and the ICRC
 - Strengthening of sanctions to prevent and repress violations of humanitarian law
-

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

Norway

The periodical *Over alle grenser*, published by the Norwegian Red Cross, contained recently an article, a lengthy extract of which we print here. It describes how first-aiders in Norway work in most arduous conditions, always ready to go to the assistance of people in distress and accomplishing, under the sign of the red cross, their life-saving humanitarian task.

"There goes the *Samaritan*!" exclaimed one of the men sheltering from the storm as he watched the raging waves. "They're crazy, those Alviks!"

He was referring to the daring of the two Alviks, father and son, for all those who know them—and who does not, in this place?—know full well, too, the boldness and resoluteness that one should have in order to venture out in such heavy seas.

For the twenty years that Gustav and Harald Alvik have been sailing their boat, no harm has befallen them. Every time they receive a call, their sturdy *Samaritan* is always ready to set sail, at all hours and in all seas. That is the main reason why this fine lifeboat has still remained in existence; it is in fact a floating ambulance, put into service after the end of the war by the First Aid Section of the Aalesund Red Cross. That is also why, although circumstances have changed in the last twenty years and although it is not called out as often as before, people are reluctant to put it out of commission.

The First Aid Section is obliged to make appeals to the public purse as well as to private persons for aid towards the upkeep of the *Samaritan*. Several formerly remote places which used to be connected with the mainland by the milk-boat are now visited regularly by a ferry-boat service which can, when needful, carry the sick to the hospital at Aalesund. Some districts which used to be visited by the Alviks' boat possess today their own ambulance launch, while in an emergency, airplanes and helicopters may now be called upon.

Red Cross first-aiders, however, would very much like to keep the *Samaritan* going as long as there might be a need for it. The small boat continues every year to make a great number of runs to carry sick or casualty cases. Moreover, and that is an essential point, everyone in that area knows that those whose mission it is to carry out rescue work may be called night or day, in calm weather or in gales, may it be even Christmas Eve.

Helicopters and planes have all the same their own shortcomings: they cannot fly in bad weather or after nightfall. The ferries, too, ply according to fixed timetables and, at night, their crews are not available. In any case, it is so much easier to phone through to the Alviks; they, at least, are sure to put out to sea!

In an area such as Sunnmoere, where the largest fishing fleet in Norway is to be found, with rich fishing grounds only a few hours from the coast, accidents sometimes occur, and casualties must be quickly transported to hospital. The *Samaritan* renders immense service by sailing out to meet the ships, take off casualties and swiftly bring them back to the coast. It is often called for, too, when trawlers or coastal cargo ships have one of their men sick on board.

It was after the war ended that the First Aid Section decided to organize this service, as it was essential to have on hand a specially constructed vessel, fitted with stretchers and carrying equipment for providing first aid at sea. It proved to be highly useful in particular when a terrible landslide occurred in Saeboe Fjord and the hamlet of Risengrenda and outlying houses were completely buried beneath the mass of snow and earth. The Aalesund first-aiders rushed to the rescue aboard the *Samaritan* and succeeded, with the help of a relief team from Volda, to dig out all those who had been trapped. No further assistance was required. It is clear that this emergency service is an important safety factor for the inhabitants of the off-shore islands where conditions are often extremely harsh.

One could write a whole book on the adventures of the crew of the *Samaritan*. There was, for instance, that pitch-dark night when, navigating by watch and compass, they transported to the hospital at Aalesund in the nick of time a woman about to give birth to a baby; but there were also at least fifteen different occa-

sions when a mother was actually delivered of her child on board the boat, with the crew, turned into midwives, giving a hand; at other times relief supplies were carried to families in the remotest spots under the most frightful weather conditions. . .

New Look for two Red Cross Magazines

The German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany and the British Red Cross Society each publish a monthly magazine. Both publications are lavishly illustrated and always contain articles of a topical interest as well as commentaries on important subjects of the day. From January 1972, both these journals will be coming out under a new appearance. While that of the German Red Cross has kept its old name, *Deutsches Rotes Kreuz*, the British Red Cross has given its journal a different title, *Crosstalk*, and a new front cover. The first issue of *Crosstalk* carries an editorial by the Chairman of the Executive Committee of the British Red Cross Society, in which he explains that the first objective is to bring members closer to one another and also to the people around them. Members should be better informed about their National Society's rôle in the changing social scene, so that they might be able to see their own work in a wider context and to act, so to speak, as living witnesses to the purposes and actions of the Society.

The journal of the German Red Cross now appears in a more compact format, and its readers, too, are urged to send in suggestions as to the content and appearance of the new edition, the first issue of which opens with an extensive general survey by the National Society's president.

Our best wishes are extended to the editors of both these magazines for success in their new venture.

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

L'INSTITUT DE LA VIE

In October 1971, Professor Maurice Marois, of the Paris Faculty of Medicine, delivered to the meeting of the League of Red Cross Societies' Board of Governors in Mexico a paper concerning the Institut de la Vie of which he is the President. We take pleasure in reproducing extracts which concern, in particular, the environment.

We would first mention that Professor Marois paid tribute to the Red Cross, thanks to which " it has been proved that all the nations of the world can be united in respect for a gift common to all men and transcending their differences, namely the gift of life ". Yet life is not something which has been improvised. It has a policy, which is to persevere, to express itself, to overcome, to evolve; but it is beset by dangers.

I do not wish to dwell only on the atomic threat. There are other dangers to man, the foremost of which is the degeneration of his environment.

The earth is afflicted by the animal, mineral and vegetable kingdoms' subjection to man's will. Formerly, geological upheaval caused the extinction of species, whereas today man himself can cause cataclysms on an equivalent scale. He strips the surface of the earth of the forest and leaves it desolate. He destroys biotopes evolved over thousands of years and in which species had adapted to conditions which man confounds. He causes the extinction of animal—and even certain human—species. He is already jeopardizing the life of future generations of his own kind by the genetic damage which he inflicts on the chromosomes of his germinal cells.

The final tragedy: The shortage of material and of space.

The contrast between the super-abundance of potentials and the shortage of means is striking. A single bacterium, reproducing in geometrical progression by the process of fission could, within a week, under ideal conditions, synthesize a mass of living matter

exceeding that of the earth. Yet, no bacterium does produce such a mass within a week. It must submit to some sort of birth control, adapt to shortage and succumb to its own limitations.

Shortage: the earth is becoming too small to hold us all; raw materials are becoming inadequate for building up and maintaining our protoplasm. What a paradox! Life is becoming a threat to life.

Shortage: nothing is wasted in life: every atom and every molecule in our bodies has formed part of countless millions of living beings before us, and our mortal remains will go to the building of other bodies; this is the well-known carbon-oxygen-nitrogen-phosphorus, etc. cycle. Seen from this angle, death has a place in the economy of life; it serves life by giving it new opportunities for new experiments, for new mutations of protoplasm.

The continuous exchange between inanimate and living matter is a two-way process. Death constantly balances life and we know that every beat of our heart takes us nearer to death. Life, according to Goethe, is "duration in change" and, according to Heraclitus, "the river, ever changing in its waves but eternal in its flow". Life begins anew with each birth. New is the life of every being born, and new is its vital impulse. And with every newborn, the world reawakes.

This life, with its fantastic history, obstinately persevering, is destined to a great future.

The world may be inhabitable for another six thousand million years.

A great future for life, no doubt, but with or without man?

Man knows he is mortal and of a death which may be self-inflicted. He has discovered that his ecological environment is delicately balanced and vulnerable and that he can cause it irreparable harm. He knows that there are limits to his propagation, for the day will come when the earth will be saturated with human beings. He is gradually developing an awareness of belonging to a single community, subject to the same destiny and dangers.

Man again finds himself prey to the terror which, in the early stages of his development, was caused by the uncontrollable forces unleashed by nature, but which now is caused by the forces which he himself has released and by the increasing pace of his own history. But that feeling is immediately tempered by the knowledge

that he himself controls the forces unleashed, that he is the free subject of the history he controls and no longer a powerless and passive being subjected to evolution. After the elation of the apparently all-powerful demiurge, comes the anxiety of the enlightened morrow, when the question of how to use the power of science for man's fulfilment arises. Man is faced with an alternative: whether to exploit resources to the point of exhaustion, and species to that of extinction—the ultimate confrontation between the mineral kingdom and the animate world's supreme representative, man— or whether to co-operate consciously and rationally in the biological cycle—promethean man's reconciliation with mother nature, his integration in a cosmic order in which life is a higher form of organization and freedom, life's supreme acquisition. In the turmoil of contemporary history, a latent new renaissance is discernible; the humanism of a new era drawing its light from two sources: recognition of the value of life and the affirmation of the greatness of free and responsible mankind.

Necessity demands that we evolve a new habitat for the world of tomorrow, that we go further and faster than history, in order that proven permanent and universal values may survive the demise of the obsolete world which produced them. What is needed is an appropriate organization, incorporating all the wealth and wisdom of the past, analysing all future potentialities and comparing them with the permanent aspirations and demands of humanity, of "united, temporal and intemporal" man (Saint-John Perse).

On 8 September 1960, we invited men of science to unite with men of the highest level of conscience in order to establish an institution of symbolic value, *l'Institut de la Vie*. Men must be aware that somewhere in the world there is a shrine where humanity meditates on itself, its present, its future and its responsibility to life.

The institute is developing rapidly on all continents, sustained by men's hopes and the momentum of history.

L'Institut de la Vie gathers together, in a constructive undertaking, men of all classes, philosophies and pursuits. It is wide open to all schools of creative thought and civilization. It banishes everything which divides and seeks out everything which unites. All men whom it brings together renounce whatever segregates them in order to find common ground for the defence and promotion of life.

MISCELLANEOUS

L'Institut de la Vie is a forum for the expression of ideas. One of its activities is to meditate on the fundamentals of life: such reflection should underlie any effort to safeguard life.

The Institute's national and international conferences have discussed such vital themes as science and responsibility, life past and future, the protection of species, mental health and urban civilization, the human habitat, the protection of nature, theoretical physics and biology (the international organizing committee has thirty-six scientists, fifteen of them Nobel Prize winners), man and the computer (this conference was held at Bordeaux in June 1970 and was attended by thirty nations).

When the *Intitut de la Vie* was founded ten years ago, our contemporaries were not concerned about life. What is new is the coupling of public concern with political intent. The protection of life has become a governmental and intergovernmental problem because of the threat hovering over nature. Environment is life; it is basic. It must be taken seriously because it is not only physical, chemical and biological; it is also psychological, social, cultural and spiritual. In the last analysis, a human philosophy and a concept of life are involved in any decision intended to protect man's habitat.

The *Institut de la Vie* sees the problem of the environment in terms of the human condition. It places responsibility to life at the supreme level of human freedom.

In conclusion, Mr. Marois referred to the Prix de l'Institut de la Vie which was awarded for the first time in 1971. " We are called ", he said, " to fight for life, to undertake a new form of fight. It is that fight which the Institut de la Vie wages, by applying science in the service of life and mankind."

INTERNATIONAL CHILDREN'S CENTRE

In 1970, the International Children's Centre, in Paris, celebrated the twentieth anniversary of its foundation. A recent issue of its review¹ contained a paper written for the occasion by Dr. Etienne Berthet, Director-General of the Centre, in which he outlined the Centre's activities from 1950 to 1970 and explained that they were oriented in three main directions: education, information and research.

Looking to the future, he concluded that the Centre's work during the next few years would be (a) to extend activities related to education, information and study in developing countries, and (b) to adapt programmes to the needs of children and adolescents, which presupposed great flexibility of action so as to be able to face the profound changes which would mark the coming decade.

We quote Dr. Berthet on the Centre's future tasks.

a. Extension of the activities of the International Children's Centre in developing countries

The experience gained and the working methods developed over the past two decades will enable the International Children's Centre to improve and extend its activities in developing countries, both in the training of personnel and in applied social and medico-social studies.

During the coming years, the programmes of the International Children's Centre will serve the following aims:

- maternal health protection during pregnancy, confinement and breast-feeding, health training in child care and the importance of birth spacing;
- child and adolescent health protection, special attention being paid to the ages which present the highest risks, the peri-natal period, pre-school age and adolescence;

¹ *Courrier*, Paris, 1971, No. 3.

MISCELLANEOUS

- the harmonious growth and development of children and adolescents, which presupposes:
 - the existence of a family home in which they 'feel sure of affection and material well-being;
 - a quantitatively and qualitatively balanced diet;
 - medical and social control at the various stages of growth and development;
 - schooling and vocational training to enable children to enter the adult world with every possible opportunity;
- care for the handicapped, whatever the cause of their physical, mental or social disability.

b. Adaptation of programmes to the needs of children and adolescents

While hunger, disease, ignorance and poverty will for a long time yet be the background against which children will be born and will grow up in developing countries, in the years to come fresh problems will arise for which we must be prepared and to which we must give thought and reflection.

Demographic growth will continue at the present rate, and some countries will need to adopt a policy of family planning as part and parcel of the maternity and child welfare services.

Economic change will result in urban migration, with all the attendant psychological and social tensions with which governments will be confronted.

The effect which the destruction of the traditional family structures will have on youth will be all the more marked as most developing countries have as yet no vocational, cultural or social welfare institutions.

Accelerated scientific and technical progress in every sphere of biology, psychopedagogy and sociology will compel us to revise our ideas and our methods of approach to these problems.

We may conclude by pointing out that one of the most original aspects of the work carried out by the International Children's Centre is the establishment of a meeting place where doctors, nutritionists, sociologists, psychologists, teachers, lawyers, town-

planners, administrators, demographers and economists from greatly differing countries can exchange views, discuss working methods and compare their experiences, bearing in mind the fact that an advance in one field of activity will be conditioned by a parallel advance in others, since new ideas always emerge at the crossroads of the various disciplines.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS AND DEVELOPMENT

The General Conference of the International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA) was held in New York in June and July 1971. The theme was International Voluntary Actions for Human Need, and the meeting was an occasion for several institutions to express ideas on problems related, in particular, to migrants, refugees, and the responsibility of voluntary organizations in the Second Development Decade. This subject, which concerns the humanitarian institutions and their present-day duties, is discussed by Mr. Chidambaranathan in a paper which he presented and of which we quote a few extracts:

... Voluntary Agencies do not merely have a role to play in the Second Development Decade. They have a responsibility—in leadership, in education and in action.

... They have a long tradition and history of humanitarian work and development programmes. The source of their inspiration or philosophies may be derived from social, religious, ethnic, economic, academic or charitable backgrounds. Their membership and constituency vary from the national to the regional and international. Some have been in existence for 50 or more years. Between them these Voluntary Agencies expend more than a billion dollars annually on development assistance. They are a force to reckon with.

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. . . In the broadest sense of the term, education for development will be the long-term aim in the battle for development. If attitude changing is of primary importance then it is the function of education to bring about such changes. The word education here refers not only to formal education in the schools, colleges and universities, but also to out-of-school and life-long education involving the child, young people and adults . . .

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

«HUMAN RIGHTS AS THE BASIS OF INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW¹»

In September 1970, the International Institute of Humanitarian Law organised a Congress in San Remo on the subject of *Human Rights as the Basis of International Humanitarian Law*. The Proceedings of that Congress have now been published in the form of an attractively bound volume which contains the texts of the general reports submitted to the four plenary meetings and statements made, together with the summary records of ensuing discussions. Various documents have been annexed including several of the resolutions adopted by the XXth and XXIst International Conferences of the Red Cross on respect for human rights during periods of armed conflict.

The ICRC was represented in San Remo by Mr. Frédéric Siordet, an honorary member, who concluded his address with the following words: " Our humanitarian law was founded a hundred years ago on principles which, originally, were generally recognized. We admit that many of these principles have, for some decades now, succumbed to indiscriminate attack and, while we rush to rebuild our towns, we have shown less zeal in rebuilding our moral values. This is the crux of the problem, there lies the task common to all those who believe that Law is able to create solid dykes to stem the flow of war. Principles must be restored and reaffirmed so that everyone may understand that the observation of existing or new rules resulting therefrom is of vital interest to each and every one of us. On this general sentiment alone will it be possible to raise a solid barrage against the outbreak of violence which is leading mankind to self-extinction. There can never be enough men of good will to handle this task ".

In his opening address, Mr. Arthur H. Robertson said that humanitarian law and human rights were growing ever closer, this being clearly seen from the texts of the Teheran Conference, the

¹ Grassi, Istituto editoriale ticinese, Lugano-Bellinzona (Svizzera), 1971, 385 p.

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

Istanbul Conference and the Resolutions of the United Nations General Assembly on respect for human rights in armed conflicts. That led to the conclusion that humanitarian law and the law of human rights should be subjected to a system of international control.

Professor G.I.A.D. Draper, who gave the opening address to the second working session, concluded by saying: "The relationship between human rights and the law of war has been established. It has now to be exploited with skill, patience and despatch if man's confidence in man is to be made a living reality".

According to Professor Paul de la Pradelle, Rapporteur of the third plenary meeting, sovereignty is the main obstacle to the development both of human rights and of humanitarian law. "The Geneva Conventions form a whole, it is not possible to divide that whole—to break its unity". However, "although humanitarian law applicable to armed conflicts can and must enter the law of nations, it must remain independent, in keeping with its historical significance and its traditional use which must be protected. A public international order to protect mankind may take maximum effect, as far as sovereignties are concerned, in this safeguarded sector".

This volume contains also some interesting statements, on the international protection of refugees, which consider legal aid to those who, owing to their refugee status, cannot claim the protection of the consular authorities of their country of origin.

It appears from these Proceedings, that the general opinion is that a revision of the Geneva Conventions would be out of place but that it would be advisable, according to Professor Patrignic and others, to supplement them with protocols protecting especially victims of internal conflicts. We know that one of the main trends to appear at the Meeting of Government Experts convened by the ICRC in May 1971, was towards an extension of human rights rather than of the law of war in just such cases of internal conflict. Perusal of this publication shows that the opinions of various figures of the legal and moral world are combining to slowly form this general consent without which Law will never be respected.

J.-G. L.

Education in Asia, UNESCO Chronicle, Paris, 1971, No. 8-9.

Discussions at the Singapore conference centered mainly on the need for the regeneration and improvement of education to keep pace with burgeoning quantity; the adaptation of content and curricula to rapidly changing conditions and particularly to the needs of development; ways of increasing the volume of international aid and, above all, of ensuring its selective and rational use.

Other aspects of educational development which the delegates examined in detail were the strengthening of scientific and technical education; the need for more and better rural education; the modernization of teacher training; the issues of educational planning, management and administration; the wider use of new educational methods and techniques; out-of-school education (youth and adult education and literacy). In fact, more or less the whole spectrum of education came under discussion.

As the final report adopted by the conference emphasizes: "Because of the rapid demographic expansion and severe financial restraints, the changing objectives of education, the explosion of knowledge and social transformation, new educational concepts and technology, the kind of progress aimed at will not, and cannot, be achieved through piecemeal measures or through partial innovations, however significant or bold." What is needed is a global re-thinking of the educational systems of Asia in order to adapt them to the present function of education in today's world and to the varied conditions prevailing in many countries of the region.

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 role 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 role 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.

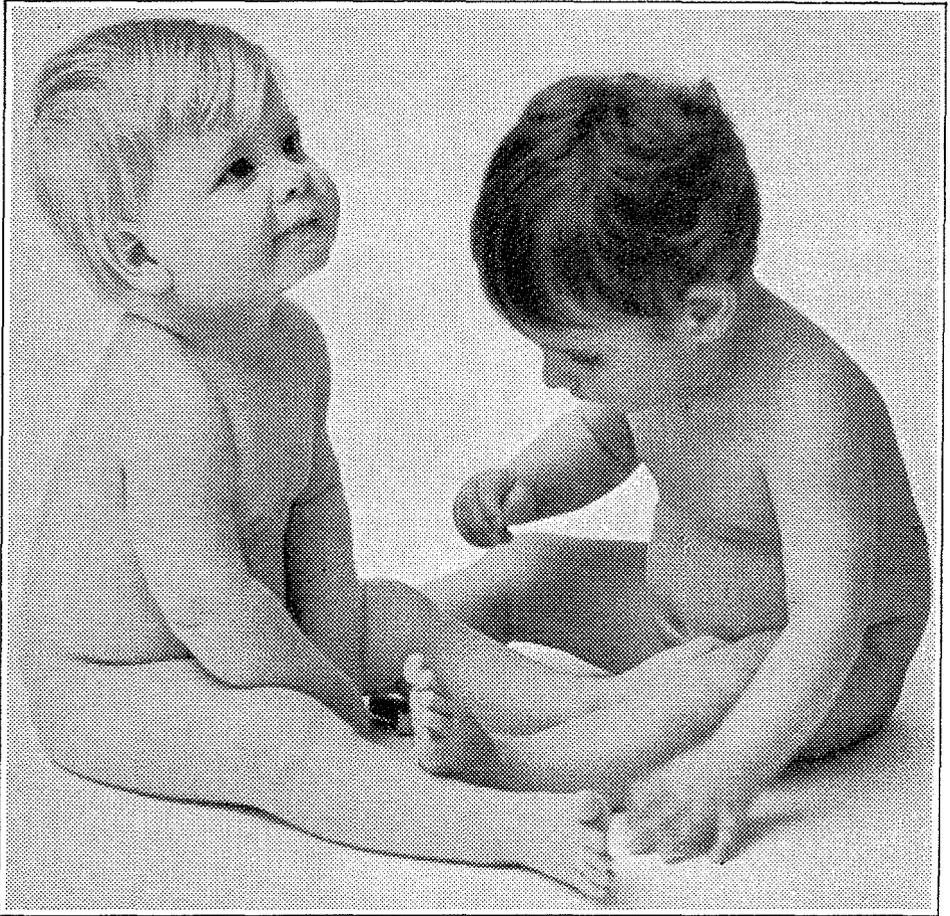


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- AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, *Rruga e Barrikadavet, Tirana*.
- ALGERIA — Central Committee of the Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis, Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINA — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Flinders Street, *Melbourne, C. 1*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, *Vienna IV*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98 Chaussée de Vleurgat, *Brussels 5*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simón Bolívar, 1515 (Casilla 741), *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA — Botswana Red Cross Society, Independence Avenue, P.O. Box 485, *Gaborones*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S. S. Biruzov, *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 324, *Bujumbura*.
- 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 284 (Ontario)*.
- CEYLON — Ceylon Red Cross, 106 Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo VII*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246V., *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.*
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 5a, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle 23 201 esq. N. Vedado, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *Praque I*.
- DAHOMEY — Red Cross Society of Dahomey, P.O. Box 1, *Porto Novo*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Ny Vestergade 17, *Copenhagen K*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Juan Enrique Dunant, Ensanche Miraflores, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Calle de la Cruz Roja y Avenida Colombia 118, *Quito*.
- EGYPT (Arab Republic of) — Egyptian Red Crescent Society, 34 rue Ramses, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR — El Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente 21, *San Salvador*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Red Cross Road No. 1, P.O. Box 195, *Addis Ababa*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu 1 A, Box 14168, *Helsinki 14*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17 rue Quentin Bauchart, *Paris (8^e)*.
- GERMANY (Dem. Republic) — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, Dx 801 *Dresden 1*.
- GERMANY (Federal Republic) — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, 5300, *Bonn 1*, Postfach (D.B.R.).
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREAT BRITAIN — British Red Cross, 9 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3^a Calle 8-40, Zona 1, *Guatemala C.A.*
- GUYANA — Guyana Red Cross, P.O. Box 351, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, Place des Nations Unies, B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant 516, *Tegucigalpa*.
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, *Budapest V*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Øldugøtu 4, Post Box 872, *Reykjavík*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 1*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Djalan Abdulmuis 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Avenue Ark, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 16 Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12 via Toscana, *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76 Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 1-1-5 Shiba Daimon, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 105*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10 001, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, St Johns Gate, P.O. Box 40712, *Nairobi*.
- KHMER REPUBLIC — Khmer Red Cross, 17 Vithei Croix-Rouge khmère, P.O.B. 94, *Phnom-Penh*.
- KOREA (Democratic People's 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*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1359, *Kuwait*.

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- LAOS — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, *Beirut*.
- LESOTHO — Lesotho Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 366, *Maseru*.
- LIBERIA — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, 13th Street-Sinkor, P.O. Box 226, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYAN ARAB REPUBLIC — Libyan Red Crescent, Berka Omar Mukhtar Street, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, FL-9490 *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 1806, *Luxembourg*.
- MADAGASCAR — Red Cross Society of Madagascar, rue Clémenceau, P.O. Box 1168, *Tananarive*.
- MALAWI — Malawi Red Cross, Hall Road, Box 247, *Blantyre*.
- 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 Ejército Nacional n° 1032, *México 10, D.F.*
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- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon 3*.
- RUMANIA — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Rumania, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, *Bucarest*.
- 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*.
- SOMALI REPUBLIC — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- 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, 10440, *Stockholm 14*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, B.P. 2699, *3001 Berne*.
- SYRIA — Syrian Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA — Tanganyika 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, 51, rue Boko Soga, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO — Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, 105, Woodford 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, Nabunya Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- 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-Triệu, *Hanoi*.
- VIET NAM (Republic) — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201 đường Hồng-Thập-Tu, No. 201, *Saigon*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.
- ZAIRE (Republic of) — Red Cross of the Republic of Zaire, 41 av. Valcke, P.O. Box 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box R.W.1., Ridgeway, *Lusaka*.