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FRENCH EDITION OF THE REVIEW

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SUPPLEMENTS TO THE REVIEW

SPANISH

Marthe Iconomow: Hace setenta años fue creado el Fondo Augusta. — El CICR visita a los lugares de detención en Francia.

GERMAN

Marthe Iconomow: Der Fonds Augusta. — Das IKRK besichtigt Haftstätten in Frankreich. — Bundesrepublik Deutschland: Rede des Präsidenten des IKRK, Prof. Dr. Léopold Boissier.

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MAX HUBER
1874-1960

At the time of Max Huber’s death, the Revue internationale paid a succession of moving tributes to someone who had given so much of himself to the Red Cross cause. His work as a thinker, jurist and man of action, first as a member, then as President and Honorary President of the ICRC, has been evoked. Reference will also shortly be made to this when we publish other contributions concerning personalities belonging to our movement.

We have great pleasure in being able to publish this study on Max Huber’s juridical activities outside the Red Cross. One can thus have a better picture of the whole man, his sweeping and productive intelligence, the continuous interest which he gave to problems of international conduct, and his struggle to ensure that human dignity was everywhere and at all times defended. And one can see even more clearly how his thought evolved, the deep forces to which it reacted and how he harmoniously combined love of his own country with that of mankind.

Professor Guggenheim, who was one of his friends, has kindly allowed us to publish this appraisal, for which we warmly thank him.

(Editorial note).

* * *

With the death on New Year’s Day 1960 of Max Huber, who two days previously had reached the age of eighty-six, Switzerland lost one of her most outstanding exponents of international law since Émer de Vattel. He was given an impressive funeral in the Fraumünster in Zurich at which, in accordance with his last wishes, the parish priest delivered the oration and this was followed by a tribute by Mr. Max Petitpierre, President of the Confederation, to the way in which he had always placed his country’s interests before his own.

There were many facets to Huber's personality and he possessed considerable charm. In spite of an innate reticence, he excelled in the art of establishing human relationships to such an extent that those who had dealings with him were convinced that their own problems were also of all importance to him. At all events and as he always maintained, he considered himself to be a jurist first and foremost, believing that, in legal matters, the law of nations and above all international relations were of far greater importance than intellectual speculations. Although throughout his long life he interested himself in many different problems, social, economic, historical and religious, and his thoughts underwent a gradual evolution, public international law remained for him the centre of attraction. On leaving school he became so imbued with the humanist traditions of international law that he saw that the goal for which he would strive throughout his life would be the regulation of international peace. He often said what a lifelong influence Bertha von Suttner's book (Die Waffen nieder!) (No More Weapons) had had on him, as had above all the close friendship between his own family and that of the son of Johann Caspar Bluntschli, author of a standard handbook on International Law in the second half of the Nineteenth Century.

We know these facts from Fritz Wartenweiler's excellent biography and also from the autobiographical notes of a journal which he kept regularly at the most decisive moments of his life. This had been done at Bluntschli's instigation, with whom he had many other traits in common (both came from old Zurich families) and this greatly facilitated the work of his biographers. In these notes he describes in detail his own development and the successive stages of his career in the light of the history of his time. In the same way as Bluntschli he noted down with exactitude events both great and small in which he had taken part and the effect that these had had in the development of his own character. Unlike his predecessor, however, when analysing his enormous activity he does not allow the least expression of self-satisfaction to creep

1 Rotapfel Publishers, Zurich, 1958.
2 This applied especially to the fourth volume of his miscellaneous essays (Rückblick und Ausblick), which contain a series of autobiographical notes. Cf. his own biography, Schweizer Köpfe, 1940.
in, neither is there any trace of enviable satisfaction with himself and with his own work which Georg Jellinek so rightly remarked upon, on the occasion of Bluntschli’s hundredth birthday, as being a characteristic trait of this famous and distinguished Swiss, who ended his scholarly career at Heidelberg 1.

Max Huber had, like many other jurists who were given to self-criticism, an insatiable urge to widen his knowledge. No sooner had he put pen to paper or expressed his views aloud on some subject, than he had a feeling of dissatisfaction. However, like his great predecessor, Huber was always driven by the urgency of a tremendous activity. From his youth onwards until the very last days of his life, the motive force which drove him to realize practical projects was linked with a desire to perfect his theoretical knowledge. He was not one of those detached seekers, since he wanted to be in and of the world. What is significant is that, with all his intrinsic gifts which could have made a doctor or theologian of him, he chose without any hesitation, after finishing his classical studies at the Zurich Cantonal College, to devote himself to the study of law with a view to preparing himself for a political career.

Three university professors exercised a decisive influence on Max Huber. First of all there was Hermann Ferdinand Hitzig (1868-1911) of Zurich, who initiated him into the history of Roman law in a far different spirit from that which was prevalent at the time, especially in the way in which the Pandects were being taught and which exactly suited his own development. Huber had always in fact wanted to study the relationship and the lives of communities which were working out their own systems of legal order and this from the very outset of his career led him towards sociological problems which at that time were only beginning to be studied. Then in the atmosphere of Berlin, at the end of the century in which several outstanding personalities of the post-Bismarck era had chairs in the Faculty of Law, he came under the influence of two leading figures. Chief amongst these was Otto von Gierke, the famous law historian under whose guidance he made a remarkable study of institutions in the Swiss cantons from their origins, which was published in a collection of legal studies on the history of

MAX HUBER

German law edited by Gierke 1. This monograph could have been accepted as his doctor's thesis. The other leading professor at the University of Berlin, Bernhard Hübler, also exercised a considerable influence over him. Full of originality and possessing a many-sided personality, unlike Gierke, he was noted for the liveliness with which he gave his classes. Apart from a slight article on international magistrates, which was a preliminary study of the international organization, Hübler produced no other literary work. As a highly placed government official during the Falk era when Bismarck was in power, he had taken part in the "Kulturkampf", the campaign against the Catholic Church. After the Iron Chancellor had modified his policy he resigned from the Ministry of Education and assumed a chair at the Berlin Faculty of Law. Hübler had persuaded Max Huber to choose as his thesis one which would lead him eventually to a career in international law, when in point of fact he would have preferred to have submitted a thesis on the relationship between the jurisdiction of arbitration and the first Hague Conference. He was, however, dissuaded from doing this and Hübler advised his pupil to make his subject instead the succession of States, which would offer him such wide opportunities. In fact at that time, apart from a few excellent monographs mostly French or Italian, the field of study which was opened up by the political climate of the Nineteenth Century towards this subject was as yet entirely unexplored.

The chief merit of Huber's work lies in his strikingly accurate analysis of the practice of international law and especially of the international Conventions of the Nineteenth Century. From the theoretical point of view, Otto von Gierke's ideas, which were moreover very debatable and have since been generally discarded, concerning the development and the end of corporations, were in fact the origins of Huber's "Theory of the Succession of States from the Social Angle".2 This youthful work, which was so full of

1 «Die Gemeinschaften der Schweiz, auf Grund der Quellen dargestellt», Breslau, 1897.
2 Cf. Gierke: Die Genossenschafts-Theorie und die deutsche Rechtssprechung, 1887, p. 859 et seq. A detailed criticism of Max Huber's thesis was included in Guggenheim: Beiträge zur völkerrechtlichen Lehre vom Staatenwechsel, 1925, p. 35 et seq. (Contributions to the doctrine of international law in the succession of States), also a thesis accepted by the Law Faculty of the University of Berlin.
promise, attracted general attention and has often been quoted for its comprehensive documentation. Although the Faculty of Law which was called upon to make a pronouncement found certain flaws in his thesis, nevertheless he was awarded the rare distinction in Berlin of being mentioned "summa cum laude" chiefly on account of an excellent oral examination and for the work which he had carried out with such diligence and understanding on the practical problems involved in the succession of States.

II

A good illustration of Max Huber's tendencies at that time can be seen by the fact that no sooner had he so brilliantly completed his studies in Berlin than he turned all his energy into practical activities. Interesting himself in Swiss commercial and industrial expansion, he then undertook a long journey round the world, of which he gives an account in his journal (1906). His scholastic and literary activity dates only from his almost fortuitous nomination to the chair of public law at the University of Zurich. Walter Schücking, who had originally been nominated in order to fill the vacancy on Gustave Vogt's death in 1901, had declined to accept the appointment in view of its poor remuneration. The State Council, chiefly on Hitzig's insistence, then called upon Huber. At that time he was preparing himself for diplomacy and, as he afterwards admitted, he would never have embarked on an academic career if Schücking, Professor Extraordinary at Breslau, and with whom he was to be associated later, had accepted the Zurich professorship.

1 Huber first obtained the "venia legendi" as a lecturer (1902). In the following year he was appointed professor extraordinary and titular professor in 1914. On resigning his appointments in 1921, he became honorary professor. Referring to his academic activities, in which he was chiefly associated with Jacob Schollenberger (who had formerly been in the cantonal administration and who was a profound thinker who has since been somewhat neglected), Gagliardi wrote in The University of Zurich, 1833-1933 (published in 1938): "Apart from the study of public law (both Swiss and general), of ecclesiastical law, and of the specialized law of waterways, more and more importance was attached to public international law at lectures and study periods." As regards the question of the Zurich professorship offered to Schücking, see Max Huber: Walter Schücking und die Völkerrechtswissenschaft, Die Friedens-Warte, year XXXV, 1935.
Huber was often to complain later that he had only become a university professor by chance. He did not feel that he was in any way suited for such a calling for which he had not prepared himself sufficiently. This self-criticism was only partly justified. According to many students and in spite of the fact that he had little taste for routine teaching and that he had a natural shyness, which he was never able completely to overcome, he exercised a most stimulating influence, especially during conferences and courses, over the most gifted students and those who showed particular interest in law. As a result, it could also be seen clearly that under his direction the University of Zurich produced a whole series of most impressive theses on international law. This had certainly not been the case before his time nor was it so immediately after he left the University.

The astounding energy which he showed between the beginning of his academic career and the time when his practical activity in the field of international law was to absorb him more and more, was truly remarkable for the number of studies which he published. In his inaugural address, which was full of original ideas on the stages in the development of the notion of the State 1, as in his thesis “The Succession of States”, Gierke’s influence could clearly be seen. He attempted to establish a typology of subjects in public law and to explain their intrinsic relationships with each other, in order above all to prove that from the legal point of view the transformation from federation to unification of a State was inadmissible. As far as I am aware, this address was little remarked upon by his audience, no doubt on account of its somewhat theoretical and unco-ordinated character. This did, however, serve as the theme for two monographs which laid the foundation of Max Huber’s reputation, namely his study on the sociological basis of the law of nations and the international community, which appeared in the Year Book on Public Law in 1910, and his report on the equality of States, which is complementary to that study and which can be found in the commemorative pamphlet published by foreign lawyers in honour of Joseph Kohler’s sixtieth birthday (1909).

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1 Swiss Law Review, N. F. Vol. 23, 1904.
2 Note however the controversial nature of G. Jellinek’s observations: Allgemeine Staatslehre, 3rd Ed., 1914, p. 783, yearbook 2.
To what can one attribute the fundamental depth and variety in the writings of this Zurich scholar? It seems to me that four factors were involved. In the first place, on reaching his thirties he had attained a certain maturity of spirit which, combined with his highly receptive capabilities and his facility to assimilate other people's ideas, gave Huber the strength to shape and to concentrate his own thoughts. His suppleness and the clear way in which he expressed himself in well-constructed sentences greatly helped the marshalling of newly acquired ideas which he set out in an original manner.

Furthermore, it is essential to realize the importance of an experience which Huber underwent at the age of thirty-two. New horizons opened out before him when, at the instigation of Ludwig Forrer, President of the Confederation, he took part as third Swiss delegate in the Second Hague Peace Conference. This in fact gave him the opportunity of submitting his well-known draft "optional clause" relating to the Court's obligatory jurisdiction which we shall come across later, but which was unacceptable at the time. He was also the better able to appreciate the political conditions in which that international organization operated as well as the rôle of the great Powers in the community of States. He was later to follow up these observations in the two treatises which have been mentioned above.

Huber came under yet another influence: that of the theory of sociology. He noted the permanent reciprocal interchanges which exist between legal and sociological elements, asserting that "in fundamental legal concepts such for example as the family, property, the authority of the State, communities, legal and sociological elements are constantly interacting on each other and are so indissolubly linked through their mutual relationship that jurisprudence as a technique... is the best source of law" 1. Franz Oppenheimer's Study on the State and his economic doctrine enabled him to see more clearly the relations which exist between the State and the economy.

Finally, Huber's high opinion of tradition as a factor of social importance gave him an appreciation of the rôle of general history,

1 "Beiträge zur Kenntnis der soziologischen Grundlagen", Public Law Year-Book, 1910, p. 61.
particularly from the diplomatic point of view, in establishing political principles and in interpreting the rules of public international law. The legal training which he had received in Berlin was of considerable assistance to him in reaching these conclusions.

The strength of these publications, in which the origins of his own inspiration and the methods of his future work were demonstrated, lay less in their reasoned presentation, the finesse of their legal exposition or in the originality of their doctrine, than in his thoroughly original conception of public international law. This, he regarded from the functional or rather the political angle. The introduction of this method, which extended far beyond the German language frontiers, was his great achievement which was unrivalled and in many respects unique. This was later to have considerable results. A short time ago Charles de Visscher, former judge of the International Court of Justice, acknowledged him as his master and the chief exponent of this method by dedicating the first edition of his book *Theory and Reality in International Law* (1953) to Max Huber.

The "Sociological Principles" were above all recognized by Georg Jellinek, a leading figure in public law, whose influence was also felt outside the German-speaking countries and who towards the end of his life abandoned Paul Laband's legal methods, to which he had adhered in his youthful publications, in order to turn towards a sociological and political concept of the teaching of public law. After Jellinek's unexpected death, on 12th January 1911, Laband and Piloti invited Huber to join the editorial board of the *Public Law Year Book*, which was the most highly considered publication on the subject in the German-speaking countries. To this he had already contributed a valuable study on the sociological foundations of public international law as well as a very well documented essay which attracted considerable attention on arbitration procedure and the laws and customs of land warfare, following on the Second Hague Peace Conference of 1907. This essay was to a certain extent a critical summary of the results of that international meeting. Huber worked as co-editor of the *Year Book* until the outbreak of war in 1914. He then considered, no doubt with some justification, that such activities were incompatible with the new responsibilities which had been entrusted to him by the Swiss Confederation and he resigned from his post.
Apart from occasional articles, his principal activities during the years immediately preceding the world war, consisted of two tasks. In the first place, the Swiss Federal Council had instructed him to make preparations for the Third Hague Peace Conference which was due to take place in 1915, and secondly he wrote a comprehensive article on the international laws of war for Stier-Sombo's manual of public international law. This, however, only remained in manuscript form since he thought that such a work could no longer be considered sufficiently up-to-date in view of the revolutionary changes which were then taking place in the techniques of warfare and in the laws of war. Unfortunately, after the war he found no time to revise his manuscript, although he generously placed it at my disposal when I was preparing the chapter on the laws of war in my treatise on public international law. This was a considerable help to me and I always regretted that this work, which was written in such a fluent style and in which the subject matter was dealt with in such a personal manner, had not been made available to a wider public.

III

During the 1914-1918 War his activities were to undergo a radical change.

In his preparatory work for the third Peace Conference, Max Huber had very close relations with the Political Department and these were to continue throughout the war years. He produced a large number of expert reports which dealt chiefly with such questions as the rules of war and neutrality. These widely assorted documents are at present in the federal archives awaiting publication in the collection being prepared under the direction of the Political Department. From a consulting rôle Huber was to co-operate on a regular basis when he became permanent adviser to the Swiss


2 During this period (1914) the "Swiss Society for International Law" was founded on Max Huber's initiative and of which he became the first president. Cf. H. Fritzsche, Die Schweizerische Vereinigung für Internationales Recht (1914-1944), Tribute to Max Huber, 1944.
MAX HUBER

Government in all matters relating to the international organization which was then in process of realization. He owed his nomination to this post to Federal Councillor Felix Calonder, with whom he had close ties of friendship and was able to triumph over a certain amount of initial opposition on the part of some of his colleagues on the Federal Council. It was then that Huber showed all the tact and political acumen of which he was capable. Whilst he perfectly understood the new political climate, he also realized very clearly the necessity for combining the past, the present and the future. He never forgot Switzerland's interests. He was also fortunate in finding in Felix Calonder, then head of the Political Department, who had for a long time been trained in the science of international law, a chief lacking in any form of jealousy, who made him take a leading position in the political field, who encouraged him unrestrainedly and who supported his colleague with the full weight of his own authority.

During the summer of 1918, Huber began work on a memorandum of some importance on the "Problems of the League of Nations" which the Political Department submitted to the Federal Council. This work was to serve as a basis for the deliberations of an expert committee presided over by Calonder and on which Huber was rapporteur. In spite of the sharp opposition, in particular from the Federal Judge Merz, the committee drew up a Swiss draft agreement with the object of forming a League of Nations, making neutrality an essential element of the international organization, which, in my own opinion, was debatable. In spite of this, however, the Swiss draft for a League of Nations—

1 See Max Huber, Koexistenz und Gemeinschaft, Völkerrechtliche Erinnerungen aus sechs Jahrzehnten, Swiss Year Book of International Law, 1955, vol. XII and in particular p. 19 et seq.
2 In the Annuaire suisse de Droit international (Swiss Year Book of International Law), vol. IX, 1952, p. 7 and following. Max Huber wrote a moving obituary notice of Calonder, which was republished later in his "Essays and Collected Speeches" (Rückblick und Ausblick, 1957, p. 411 et seq.). At the end he made this appropriate appraisal: "In Calonder, Switzerland possessed not only a remarkable statesman, but also an equally outstanding exponent of public international law. All those who had the privilege of working with Calonder and had had human or professional dealings with him also knew him as a man of complete integrity who had always been animated by a spirit of inflexible justice and had to the highest degree a consciousness of his own responsibilities."
which in fact exercised no influence whatsoever on historical events nor above all on the draft Covenant of the League of Nations which was formulated at the Paris Peace Conference—is a document of which too little notice was taken at the time. It contains in fact the guiding principles of our foreign policy relative to Switzerland's participation in the international political organization and it is for that reason, thanks to its constructive character, that it has lost none of its topicality.

This work was soon to be followed by the famous message of the 4th of August 1919, in which Switzerland was to assume membership of the League of Nations. This message on the one hand fulfilled Calonder's hopes in its very objective exposition of the arguments in favour of and against accession to the Covenant. (In this respect, Huber had faithfully followed the instructions of the chief of the Political Department.) On the other hand, however, it contained—and this was rare in a document of such a kind—extremely profound political reflections in which the imprint of his "Sociological Principles" and his study on the "Equality of States" was clearly revealed. The question of the political organization of the League of Nations is here placed in a wide historical and political context and its various facets, such as the prevention of war, the solution of political and legal disputes and the disarmament programme, are all treated in such a manner that they appear as apposite today as when the message was originally delivered. The profound historical sense, the interpretation of the Covenant of the League of Nations, which, in the absence of any sort of practical experience, required a considerable amount of political imagination, and the seriousness with which political considerations were balanced were allied in this document with elements of a moral and metaphysical nature.

As a result of his participation in the work of the Political Department, Huber found himself being associated with the negotiations for Switzerland's entry into the League of Nations. From March 1919 it fell to him, in co-operation chiefly with the Federal Councillors Calonder and Ador and Professor W. E. Rappard, to find a formula which could reconcile such a decision with the maintenance of neutrality. The basic argument which was used was that Switzerland, having abrogated its occupation rights in
Haute Savoie and by renewing Switzerland's perpetual neutrality, which had been established on November 20, 1815, article 435 of the Versailles Peace Treaty, made of this perpetual neutrality one of these "international obligations for the maintenance of peace" which are in accordance with article 21 of the Covenant of the League of Nations. On this basis it then became possible to obtain the famous London declaration of the League of Nations Council of February 13, 1920, which entailed the task for Max Huber of clarifying with Professor van Hamel of the Netherlands, Chief of the Legal Section of the League of Nations, the implications of this perpetual neutrality in the light of military action which might take place within the framework of the League of Nations through the Covenant's provisions for collective security which had just been agreed.

The declaration to which these conversations had led has now become part of the history of the law of Swiss neutrality as defined in Huber’s own terms, which, in my opinion, are not entirely conclusive but which are nevertheless attractive, of "differential neutrality" or rather of the "differential status of neutrality". The idea was that whilst Switzerland should participate in certain activities, including those of an economic character, in the interest of collective security, she should, however, uphold everything which constitutes the essentials of the status of neutrality by abstaining from any sort of military participation in intervention by the League of Nations against a State recognized as having been guilty of aggression.

Such a procedure, whose value within the legal framework of the League of Nations was indeed problematical, was not able to be put into practice. Furthermore, the chance of achieving a rapid realization of the system of collective security had been over-estimated. Huber, however, had always defended the policy which was carried out at the time and in which he partici-
pated in such an outstanding manner. In his fine funeral oration for Calonder, he expressed himself in these terms: "Such a policy enables our country to adopt an attitude which the present head of our foreign policy has described as 'neutrality and solidarity', which may appear to be paradoxical but is in fact the only formula which conforms to historical facts and to the political and ethical traditions of our country" 1. And in his private notes, of which only extracts have been published, can be found this particularly important observation on the Resolution of the League of Nations Council of February 13, 1920:

"Reflecting on the situation before going to sleep, I felt a certain exaltation about how I had taken no small part in a European political act, according a special position for my country, which I hope will not be to its disadvantage, within the organization of States and giving recognition to the state of perpetual neutrality. By so doing, this state, which had become somewhat discredited towards the end of the war, was thus shown to be of interest to the whole of Europe. But I also felt a considerable amount of responsibility since this particular form of neutrality which had been agreed upon by the League of Nations, also involved certain risks. By accepting the London declaration, Switzerland had embarked on a stage on which she had not ventured for a long time. In other words, she was to participate, admittedly in a restricted manner but in one which was nevertheless of importance to her, in the graduated system whose object was the collective maintenance of peace. In so far as this system shows itself to be effective and conscientiously applied, no sacrifice can be too great and any reservations which Switzerland may make or any demands which she may exact with the object of making profit out of abnormal conditions would be difficult to justify. But if this system, which has been established in order to safeguard peace, does not inspire confidence and were to serve as an instrument to further the interests of the Powers, then Switzerland will be seen to have committed herself too far. For that very reason this has been a compromise solution, although a necessary one and as such it is entirely satisfactory" 2.

Besides, Max Huber was always to hold the opinion that Switzerland should try to return to an integral form of neutrality; although he did not take this view into account in his works which dealt with the problem of Swiss neutrality 3, but he acted in this sense when the so-called Blockade Commission of the League of

1 See Max Huber: "Vermischte Schriften", vol. IV, Rücksicht und Ausblick, p. 418.
2 See Wartenweiler, op. cit., p. 122.
Nations interpreted the use of sanctions within the framework of article 16 of the League of Nations Covenant. The third Commission of the Second Assembly of the League of Nations 1 followed up this interpretation by stating that an act of war would not automatically lead to a state of war and that in consequence a member State could not be obliged automatically to participate in sanctions on a decision made by one of the political organs of the League of Nations. Thus to abandon neutrality, at least theoretically, was left to the free choice of the member States of the League of Nations.

This opinion of Huber's was to be given fresh encouragement by a Federal Council report, which he had himself drafted, of December 11, 1919 2, by which Switzerland's active participation in the implementation of arbitral jurisdiction in all its forms is in fact only applicable to conflicts which have legal implications or which depend upon judicial decisions. The German-Swiss Convention relative to arbitral and conciliatory jurisdiction is based upon this opinion, the text of which was drawn up with Huber's help and which constitutes a veritable model agreement. This agreement was to be followed by a number of arbitral and conciliatory conventions agreed to by Switzerland, in which he took no part and which differ in certain respects from his original idea. The report can be regarded as being complementary to the message of 1919 since it partly renewed those ideas which the Swiss draft of the League of Nations had attempted to put into effect. Huber had underlined in this report the importance of conciliation without political bias, thus laying the foundation of that most useful procedure which he himself described as "an issue enabling one to give ground without abandoning one's principles". On one of the rare occasions on which a session of the conciliation commission took place and which Huber presided, he was able to give a trial to the instrument which he had himself helped to create. He was President of the conciliation commission in 1934 which was engaged in settling the Belgo-Luxemburg dispute arising


out of the smuggling of spirits from Luxemburg into Belgium. He was fully satisfied with its results, since he remained convinced that conciliatory procedure was applied only too rarely in the practice of international law.

Max Huber’s participation in the League of Nations’ preparatory work and in the arbitral procedure which had recently been started won the confidence of the Federal Councillor Motta, who had succeeded Calonder as head of the Political Department. As Motta’s adviser and as a Swiss delegate, Huber took part in the first Assembly of the League of Nations, during which he successfully proposed the famous compromise which was subsequently to become so important on the recognition of obligatory jurisdiction. This was the provision of the Court’s Statute (art. 36, para. 2, which laid down that member States could, in the regulation of disputes of a judicial character and under reserve of reciprocity, declare that they would accept to be summoned to appear before the High Court of Justice at The Hague by another member State which had also acceded to the optional clause recognizing obligatory jurisdiction.

But before this, Huber had written a unique study of some importance on the international political organization, dealing with the constructive principles in the League of Nations Covenant, which were based on a communication of December 15, 1919, made to the Society of Berne Lawyers. Once again, as in his “Sociological Principles” and the “Equality of States”, Huber’s politico-social theory was revealed in all its quality. In this he gives due prominence to each element lying at the foundation of the League of Nations Covenant: to the interplay of political forces

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1 For a description of Motta’s early activities as head of the Political Department, see Max Huber, Rückschlag und Ausblick, 1957, p. 427 et seq.
2 See especially Guggenheim: Traité de droit international public, 1954, vol. II, p. 120, note 2, in which more details are given concerning the circumstances surrounding the draft which Max Huber had already submitted to the Second Peace Conference of The Hague.
3 See also Guggenheim: “Der sogenannte automatische Vorbehalt der inneren Angelegenheiten gegenüber der Anerkennung der obligatorischen Gerichtsbarkeit des internationalen Gerichtshofes in seiner neuesten Gerichts-praxis.” Tribute to Alfred Verdross, 1960, p. 119 et seq.
at the end of the First World War which, by leaning on traditional rules, accounted for the introduction of extremely daring innovations, thanks chiefly to concerted Anglo-American action, and led to plans for setting up an international peace organization in so far as they "aimed at realizable objectives based on war-time experience with the courage to make radical innovations which had hitherto been considered unrealizable."

IV

On 14th September 1921, Max Huber, who was in his 47th year, was appointed, after much balloting in the Assembly and in the Council of the League of Nations, to the eleventh and last seat on the Permanent Court of International Justice which had just been established: a record for a man of his age which has not since been repeated. It was to be the beginning of a particularly active but short period for him since it only lasted nine years and which he was himself to cut short when he resigned from the Court. He thus strangely restricted himself in participating in the drawing up of the International Law of Peace. Since then in fact he limited himself to giving occasional advice, to participation in the Twelfth Assembly of the League of Nations (1931) and in the Disarmament Conference at Geneva, and also in working with the Institute of International Law. His position as a magistrate developed in him to the highest degree all the additional aptitudes of which he was already possessed, such as the ability to get to the heart of documents, an intimate knowledge of legal problems, remarkable judgment and last but not least, the realization of the need, in spite of the hard matter-of-fact considerations, for contributing to the building up of a community devoted to peace without ever losing sight of humanitarian as well as of constructive objectives connected with public international law. It was not always easy for Max Huber to agree with the collegiate views of the judges and he found himself obliged on several occasions to avail himself of the right to vote independently, thus voicing opinions which were considered to be dissident and highly individual. This he did on one occasion together with his Italian friend and colleague,
Professor Dionisio Anzilotti, whose character differed so greatly from his own. This occurred during the well-known case of the S/S *Wimbledon*; the two judges would have preferred to have upheld the customary law of neutrals in opposition to the law of neutrals as defined by the restrictive legal clauses of the Versailles Peace Treaty¹.

It has not yet been possible to gain access to documents relating to the work of the Permanent Court of International Justice in which Huber took part. His contribution to the revision of the Court's Rules, which has been published, however, does give an idea of how far he had gone in establishing a procedure of international law untrammelled by restrictions. Furthermore, certain of his opinions, for example the advice which he gave the Court in the Mosul case (series B, No. 12) so well reflect his own basic political views on the very essence of the equality of States and of international jurisdiction that it is not difficult to be made aware of the active part which he himself had taken in these deliberations.

But Max Huber had an opportunity of showing his consummate skill even more clearly in matters of jurisprudence when he was given the exceptional honour of acting as sole arbitrator on two occasions during his magistrature at The Hague. The first of these cases (1923/24) was the award, which was accepted by the two parties concerned, namely the British and the Spanish Governments, of compensation for damage to British property made against Spain in Spanish Morocco². From two points of view the meaning of this arbitral award goes further than the limits of the litigation itself. Firstly by its definition of the original motives for the dispute which had been submitted to arbitral jurisdiction, a question still ill-defined when the award was made, and secondly, because it made a profound analysis of certain special problems concerning international responsibility and above all in the way it made a differentiation in the responsibilities of State organs, especially when dealing with revolutionary situations in the underdeveloped countries.

¹ Permanent Court of International Justice, Series A, No. 1, p. 35 et seq.
² Case of British property in Spanish Morocco, arbitral award of 1st of May, 1925, *Reports of international arbitral awards by the United Nations*, vol. II, p. 615 et seq.
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The award which was made in the “Island of Palmas Case” in a dispute in which the United States was opposed to the Netherlands, had perhaps an even greater influence on the evolution of public international law. This award was also made by the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, of which Max Huber was also a member for many years (1922 to 1951) and which established important principles in connection with territorial prerogatives. These principles could not only be regarded as being important precedents for future arbitral and judicial decisions, since the award made in the Island of Palmas case also considerably strengthened the probative procedure, a procedure which had not been studied to any considerable extent. In fact, the probative rules which had been developed by Huber greatly influenced the judicial procedure of the International Court of Justice after the Second World War.

The role of sole arbitrator particularly suited Max Huber, although he was not entirely satisfied with his collegiate activity at the Permanent Court of International Justice. According to him he was not able to give free rein there to his creative temperament and in spite of the confidence which had been placed in him by his colleagues who had entrusted him with the presidency of the Court in 1924 for three years, he never felt entirely in his element. His chief regret was that the member States and the political bodies of the League of Nations had not assigned to the Court of Justice a sufficient number of important political problems and that consequently the Court had been merely reduced to interpreting treaty rights in international law. Max Huber realized, however, during the course of private discussions, that it had been a wise decision not to submit to the Court, at the beginning of his term of office, judicial problems which would probably have been too difficult or too complex to resolve on account of the lack of homogeneity which existed in the composition of the Permanent Court of International Justice. He was consequently considerably relieved when Belgium’s complaint against China on the question of maintaining the 1866 agreement on capitulations which had

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been unilaterally denounced by China was withdrawn, thus enabling him to abandon the provisional measures which he had made in favour of Belgium and which had weighed heavily on his conscience. He considered that it was not for the Court of Justice to discuss the effect of the clause "rebus sic stantibus", nor the conditions for applying this clause on the basis of international custom. He was in fact of the opinion, as he informed me, that such "climbing up the slopes of Mont-Blanc" in matters of public international law was premature for the jurisdiction of the law of nations.

Max Huber therefore declined to accept the renewal of his mandate as judge in 1930, in order to devote himself to the humanitarian ideas of the Red Cross, which were to occupy him more and more. These ideas were also to lead this famous jurist and international judge in the direction of moral rearmament and the ecumenical Church movement.

This abandonment of international law properly speaking had several results. For the Court of Justice itself the departure of this intelligent and independent jurist who had always directed his efforts to the setting up of an exemplary judicial procedure was a considerable loss. Furthermore, his resignation had the effect of isolating one of the most eminent judges of the inter-war period, D. Anzilotti, who had been mainly supported by Max Huber, and who had succeeded in giving due attention to the drafting of the remarkable and detailed reports, so characteristic of the Court's first period of activity (1921-1930), as satisfactory in international law as has been the application of the State Council's procedure for the future of administrative law in France. During the second period of the Permanent Court of International Justice (1931-40), Anzilotti was forced into opposition and expressed himself by a number of dissenting and individual opinions which were moreover always remarkable.

Although he showed more reservation after leaving the Permanent Court of International Justice, Huber continued to interest

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1 Unilateral denunciation of the Capitulations in China. Permanent Court of International Justice, Series A, Nos. 8, 14 and 16.
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himself in public international law in his new activities as a president of the International Committee of the Red Cross. He contributed to the progress of the Law of Nations by taking more and more part in the work of the Institute of International Law, of which he had been a member since 1921 and an honorary member since 1950—which was a rare distinction—by propagating above all the idea which he had had during his work with the Red Cross that it is necessary to protect the rights of individuals out of respect for their dignity as well as ensuring for them a minimum standard of humane treatment, as guaranteed by international law. He had only once acted in the capacity of rapporteur with the Institute of International Law, in connection, it is true to say, with an extremely important matter, since it was a question of evading political pressure in the appointment of the Court judges and of preparing amendments to the statutes of that Court 1. He had often had, however, to intervene as a member of a Commission in written discussions on his colleagues' reports which he always did with effect. If he had not analysed with so much insight the close relationship which exists in each case between the application of a rule and its political undercurrents, neither his written "observations" nor his oral interventions would have attracted the attention which they increasingly aroused. In fact, one of the most significant remarks which a young Swiss associate of the Institute could have made was to note the considerable esteem in which Huber was held in this association which was as critical as it was famed, an esteem which was not connected with his Swiss nationality, his highly placed social position nor his brilliant career, but purely and solely with his own personality.

One felt that everything which Max Huber undertook occupied him completely as a man. In spite of the diversity of his tireless activity which allowed him to devote only a part of his time to public international law, he succeeded in acquiring a deeper knowledge than many scholars who were specialists in a single branch of learning. He also succeeded in being of service to the

1 Study of amendments to the Statutes of the Permanent Court of International Justice, Annuaire de l'Institut de droit international, 1954, I, p. 4 et seq. (See Proceedings of the meeting at Aix-en-Provence), Annuaire de l'Institut de droit international, 1954, II, p. 61 et seq.
MAX HUBER

development of the Community of Nations to such an extent that the law of nations will always be proof of this. One can, however, only regret that the cause of humanity, especially on account of his work with the Red Cross, which absorbed the greater part of his time, did not allow him, after he had abandoned his position as a judge, to put into effect a plan which he had had in 1930. After finishing his successful studies in Berlin, he had wanted to write a monograph about the spirit of the Law of Nations based on Rudolph von Jhering's "Spirit of Roman Law". When I visited him for the last time in his home in Zurich at the beginning of December 1959, he still spoke with sorrow at having abandoned this project. Max Huber's exceptional scientific gifts, his intellectual qualities combined with his moral energy would certainly have allowed him to have put this inspiring plan into effect.

Max Huber also knew that the spirit can create far more enduring values than can any institution or official body. And if he held the solution of problems which went beyond the "Jus gentium" closest to his heart, he had reasons for this which went further than rational facts and which in fact fall outside all rules of criticism. Switzerland can be proud of having produced not only Emer de Vattel, Johann Caspar Bluntschli and Alphonse Rivier, but also Max Huber in the first part of the XXth century, a scholar of world repute who had so greatly enriched both the theory and the practice of the law of nations.

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INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

† Marcel Junod

Member of the International Committee of the Red Cross

It was with consternation that the International Committee learnt on June 16 of the death of Dr. Marcel Junod, who had been nominated member in 1952 and had been its Vice-President in 1959 and 1960. It remains profoundly grateful to him for the important part which he had taken for so many years in its work, accomplishing its tasks, first as a delegate then as a member, with so much intelligence and devotion.

The Red Cross world has also been greatly saddened by this loss. As soon as the news of his death became known, messages of sympathy poured in to the ICRC from the National Societies, the League and from numerous directors of the Red Cross and of international institutions.

The life of Dr. Junod had been intimately connected, since 1935, with that of the Red Cross. Responding to the appeal of the ICRC, he had then gone as delegate to Abyssinia where war was raging. In 1936 he went to Spain, in which country he was general delegate throughout the civil war. On the outbreak of the Second World War, Dr. Junod once more placed his services at the disposal of the ICRC and undertook missions in a number of countries, notably in Belgium, France, Germany, Japan, Norway, Sweden and Turkey. He also went to Hiroshima shortly after the explosion of the first atomic bomb.
MARCEL JUNOD
1904 - 1961
Spain, 1937

Germany, 1939

Japan, 1959
In 1948 he was in charge of a mission to China on behalf of the International Children’s Emergency Fund.

When he was nominated member of the ICRC, his wide experience was of great value to the institution to which he always gave useful counsel. In 1959 he went to Japan where he occupied himself with the repatriation of Koreans. Last year he accompanied the President of the ICRC to Warsaw and to Moscow and undertook another long mission, his last, to the Far East and America.

The above is only an outline of his activities. In 1947 Dr. Junod published Le troisième combattant a book in which he described the daily experiences of a delegate of the ICRC in the midst of every sort of danger. He thus testified to the Red Cross ideal which was his inspiration and which he never ceased to serve, carrying out this duty, in the words of Max Huber in his preface to the book, with the “staunchest fidelity to the cause of the Red Cross.” Dr. Junod admirably defines the rôle of “the third combatant”, as will be seen by the following quotation, of which furthermore he was the incarnation, he who had followed so many roads across the world driven by his faith in humanity.

“ No matter what their intrinsic value and significance, texts rely for their application on the action of men.

Again and again on the missions which took me to theatres of war I have had the lively impression that I too was a combatant engaged in battle.

A battle must be waged against all those who violate, or neglect, or know nothing of, the provisions of these Conventions. A battle must be waged for their proper application and for their extension. And if the texts should prove imperfect then a battle must be waged to secure recognition for their spirit. Whoever accepts such a mission is in no way exempt from the risks of battle, but he must become blind and deaf to the reasons why it is being waged.

There are never more than two adversaries engaged in battle. But these adversaries are apt to find that suddenly in their midst is a third combatant—a warrior without weapons.

He fights for everything which human combat spoils and destroys. He appears wherever a human being is left, under no

1 Plate.
matter what form, at the mercy of his enemy. His only aim is to prevent the victor, whoever he may be, from relentlessly persecuting the vanquished."

At Marcel Junod’s funeral, Mr. Léopold Boissier, President of the ICRC, paid a final tribute by saying of him, that he had been . . . "the most accomplished of the delegates of the International Committee of the Red Cross. I mean the most accomplished since, from the large host of those who have expended themselves and are still doing so, in order to come to the aid of the victims of wars and of internal disturbances, none had had such varied experience with so many opportunities of displaying his qualities of abnegation, courage and humanity."

Mr. Boissier recalled that the civil war in Spain had left its deepest mark on Dr. Junod. "In such a conflict the Geneva Conventions, then in force, did not give to the delegates of the International Committee the means of fully accomplishing their mission of a neutral intermediary between the two adversaries. That did not matter . . . for Marcel Junod, full of faith, did more than his duty. By his unceasing interventions with both sides, by appealing to what remained human in a struggle which until then had been without mercy, he succeeded in saving thousands of lives. Thanks to him, condemned men were spared and hostages who had been destined to die were saved and exchanged. A delegate of the Committee is not only someone who relieves suffering. He is also a witness. He informs Geneva of the experiences which he has made and draws the attention of his chiefs to the ameliorations which should be made in humanitarian law so that man, if he must suffer, shall suffer as little as possible.

Across the Geneva Conventions which were revised and completed in 1949, one can hear the voice of these witnesses calling out their urgent message."

Marcel Junod was a man of action and also a man of feeling and of this he gave proof on many occasions. For him the Red Cross was a means of putting his own sense of human fellowship into practice. By serving that cause he fulfilled himself best and knowing this, he was always ready to respond to an appeal and to leave on a mission, as if he were giving something of the best which was in him.
“He was everywhere and always a faithful and enthusiastic person,” continued Mr. Boissier, “faithful because he was a man of the Red Cross body and soul, a body which alas! he never bothered about and a soul which was filled with love of his neighbour, of those in hospital or prison camp who were close to his heart, that heart, which, I repeat, never abandoned anyone. And above all, that enthusiasm, the irreplaceable gift which overcomes all obstacles.

Marcel Junod acted with certainty and joy, convinced that he brought with him a message of life. Because he gave all to the Red Cross, he believed that it could for its own part obtain all. And this sense of completeness was reflected in his fine face, with its pure and direct look.”

† Maurice Thudichum

With the death scarcely six months ago of William Michel, the International Committee has suffered another loss when Maurice Thudichum died on June 5, 1961.

In 1941 he entered the service of the ICRC as technical director of the British Section of the Central Prisoners of War Agency. He became its assistant-director in 1943 and it was in this capacity that he organized the ICRC action in favour of dispersed families. In 1946 he took over the German Section of the Agency and carried out various missions especially in Germany and in the Near East.

From 1948 to 1951, he was in charge of the International Tracing Agency at Arolsen, at that time under the control of the International Refugee Organization and which was later to be entrusted to the ICRC.

In 1956 and until October 1957 he once more took part in Red Cross work as delegate of the ICRC first in Port Said, then in Cairo, where he ensured the protection of numbers of victims of the events. In 1958, he undertook a short mission to Cuba. Finally,
in August 1960, he accepted to go to Leopoldville, where he directed the delegation of the ICRC in the Congo until February 1961.

These brief indications show the faithful and continuous nature of the services which Mr. Thudichum rendered to the institution of Geneva. In order to bring to mind the effectiveness of his co-operation, one should also recall his high qualities of intelligence and mention the speed with which he made decisions, his energy and his courage.

At Maurice Thudichum’s funeral, Mr. Martin Bodmer, paying a moving tribute of gratitude on behalf of the ICRC, ended with these words: “In saying farewell to him, we also wish once more to say, thank you. And we say this not only in the name of our institution, but also in the name of all those victims whose distress he had worked so hard to relieve.”
NEW MEMBERS OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

At its plenary session on June 1, 1961, the International Committee of the Red Cross elected two members: Mr. Samuel Gonard and Mr. Hans Meuli.

Born in 1896 at Neuchâtel, Mr. Gonard is Bachelor of Laws, Colonel-Commandant of a Corps in the Swiss Army and a former professor in the military section of the Federal Polytechnical School in Zurich. After having been an officer instructor and having studied at the Ecole de Guerre in Paris, Mr. Gonard was appointed in 1939 Chief of Personal Staff to General Guisan, who had himself been a member of the ICRC from 1945; he was then successively Chief of Operations and Assistant Chief of the General Staff. He subsequently became a Divisional, then an Army Corps Commander.

He recently gave a course of lectures on the history of war to the University Institute of International Graduate Studies in Geneva.

The International Committee will be pleased to have as an associate in its humanitarian work, Mr. S. Gonard, who is shortly relinquishing his military duties, and it can assure him of an active and a very useful participation in the tasks of the Red Cross.

Born in 1897 at Marstetten (Thurgovie), Mr. Hans Meuli studied at Basle and Geneva, then practised medicine in his canton of origin until 1946, when he was appointed Chief Medical Officer of the Swiss Army. This appointment he held until May 1960.

During the first and second world wars he held commissioned rank in the Army Medical Service, was promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1945 and subsequently held the rank of Colonel commanding a Brigade. On the international level his activities have also been very considerable. In particular he represented his
country at the last three International Conferences of the Red Cross, as well as at the Diplomatic Conference of Geneva of 1949. He has also published articles on military medicine, the history of medicine and the problem of the disabled.

The International Committee has great pleasure in being able to count on Mr. Meuli's co-operation, especially as he has already rendered valuable services by taking part in a number of meetings of experts, which it has convened. It has need of the enlightened advice of persons of note, who have had much varied experience which they will be able to place whole-heartedly in the service of the humanitarian ideal. It is for this reason that the International Committee will find the counsels of Mr. Gonard and of Mr. Meuli most valuable.
Continuing an activity which the ICRC first undertook over two years ago, ICRC Delegates have recently completed a series of eighteen visits to places of detention for Algerians in France.

Political detainees at places of assigned residence at Vadenay, Saint-Maurice l’Ardoise and Larzac and at the Centre d’identification judiciaire of Vincennes were thus visited, as well as fourteen penitentiary establishments in Paris and in the provinces.

During these visits, clothing and cigarettes were distributed to the persons under detention. Wherever they went, the Delegates of the ICRC were able to talk without witnesses and at length with detainees of their own choosing and with those who had expressed the wish to speak with them.

At the end of May, ICRC Delegates also visited the Thol centre of assigned residence at Neuville s/Ain, where a certain number of French nationals were interned following the events at Algiers at the end of April.

In accordance with their usual practice, the Delegates of the ICRC presented their observations and suggestions to the responsible authorities on the spot and they will shortly submit a general report to the French Government.

The last visits to places of detention in France had been carried out in the spring of 1960.
Germany

FEDERAL REPUBLIC

As announced in last month’s issue of the International Review, the President of the ICRC recently paid a visit to Germany. In Bonn, he attended the ceremonies which marked the resignation of Dr. Weitz, President of the German Red Cross in the Federal Republic; he then proceeded to Arolsen, where he visited the International Tracing Service.

On the occasion of the ceremony held in Dr. Weitz’ honour, which followed the General Assembly of the German Red Cross, Mr. Leopold Boissier gave an address which we are pleased to publish below.

“...It gives me great pleasure to take part in this impressive ceremony, for it enables me to pay a twofold tribute: to a man, the President, Dr. Weitz, and to an institution, the German Red Cross.

It is often difficult to speak of someone who is your colleague and friend, for friendship cannot be analysed. It is the result of a multitude of affinities which develop in an atmosphere of mutual confidence and in the desire to fulfil to the best of our ability the task assigned to us. Is Dr. Weitz not one of the best friends of the International Committee of the Red Cross and of its President—one whom we have always welcomed to Geneva with affection and respect?

From the outset, Dr. Weitz impressed us by the double aspect of his rich personality: on the one hand, his keen sense of reality enabled him to lead the German Red Cross towards concrete and immediate action. There is no better training for a position which demands constant action than the administration of a large city, where manifold problems requiring instant decisions, common-sense and knowledge of one’s fellowmen have to be solved each day.

1 Plate.
At the German Red Cross in the Federal Republic in Bonn. Mr. Boissier, President of the ICRC, Mr. Lübke, President of the Federal Republic, Dr. Weitz, Mrs. Lübke. (From left to right).

THE PRESIDENT OF THE ICRC IN GERMANY (FEDERAL REPUBLIC).

At the ITS in Arolsen. Mr. Boissier with Mr. Burchhardt, Director of the ITS, on his left and Mr. de Cocatrix on his right.
Dr. Weitz placed his knowledge of his fellowmen and their needs at the service of the German Red Cross, thus making it a living and efficient community, in which each member works with conviction and enthusiasm.

However, on the other hand, Dr. Weitz revealed the second aspect of his personality by putting into practice the words of the Swiss writer Alexandre Vinet: “One has to take man where he is, but not leave him there.” Thus, he reminded the members of your Society and the German people that the Red Cross is based on universal principles which give it its unique authority and meaning. These principles have enabled it to survive all the disasters which have befallen humanity during the past hundred years.

A perfect example of this is the remarkable revival of the German Red Cross after the last war, when it once again recovered the initial stimulus which it had received from Henry Dunant and which had led to the creation of the first National Societies in Württemberg and Oldenburg. Even before 1950 the Landesverbände contributed actively to the great task of reuniting families, which brought together 400,000 persons who had been lost or cut off from their relations. Since then, the German Red Cross has co-operated with the International Committee in all the different fields of its work.

As regards the principles of our movement, the German Red Cross has always made a study of its moral and legal foundations, and the Geneva Conventions have always occupied an important place in the Society’s publication. It has also constantly aided and supported the work of the International Committee. This work is often difficult, particularly when it implies acting on behalf of the victims of civil wars, revolutions or internal disturbances which are still convulsing parts of the world. In such cases, the International Committee is obliged to penetrate the sovereignty of States in order to demand fair treatment for those who have taken arms against them.

On every occasion, the International Committee has been generously supported by the German Red Cross: in Hungary, during the revolution in the Lebanon, on the occasion of the Suez Crisis, in Algeria and at present in the Congo. I should like
to express my gratitude to the German doctors who, in answer to our appeal, have carried out such magnificent work in a country where insecurity and fear reign. We assigned these doctors to particularly dangerous posts because we knew that we could count on them. We were right in doing so. Everywhere in the world the German Red Cross is at work efficiently and generously.

A few weeks ago a Delegate of the International Committee in the Congo had to visit one of the most insecure regions of the country. He was accompanied by an escort of Ghanese soldiers. He got into the jeep of the commanding officer, which was followed by a lorry full of soldiers, all armed to the teeth. After a while the Ghanese officer turned to him and asked: “Don’t you have any weapons?” “No”, he replied, “a representative of the Red Cross is never armed.” The officer was silent for a while, then he turned to the man from Geneva again: “Then you are without protection?” “Of course”, answered our Delegate, showing him the little cross on his jacket. The officer said nothing, then suddenly he took off his revolver, threw it to his orderly and commanded the escort to return.

Alone and unarmed, the Delegate and the officer continued towards the unknown and danger.

Thus the whole Red Cross movement continues to move forward, fulfilling its duty. It has confidence in the future, since it is in itself a hope. And hope is what we all need in these times.”

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Iceland

The Secretary-General of the Icelandic Red Cross made a broadcast early in the year of which a summary is given below:

Progress in technical methods has, to some extent, reduced the dimensions of our globe and the nations of the world may be compared to families of varying sizes which are becoming increasingly conscious of their joint responsibilities. No nation can remain
unconcerned about the misfortunes of another. When a national disaster strikes one nation, the others go immediately to its aid.

The Red Cross (Red Crescent, Red Lion and Sun) Societies have been particularly active in this field. The Red Cross Idea was originally directed only towards the care of wounded and sick on the battle-fields, but with the development of these Societies it has been extended much farther afield. The Centenary of the Red Cross Idea was in fact celebrated two years ago. The Idea was born on the battle-field of Solferino in 1859.

The ideal which guides our movement has, however, always been upheld by the Icelandic people and it can be traced back to the ancient sagas. Thus the Saga of Viga-Glums relates the part played by his wife during the Battle of Hrisateig (about 1000 AD) in calling women to her aid to dress the wounds of the survivors of either side. One man’s shoulder was hewn off and exposed his lung; this Saga says that Halldora dressed the wound and remained with him until the end of the battle.

The Red Cross may be looked upon as the first example of an international organisation for mutual aid in time of danger. It is comforting, for instance, to know that during January ten milk distribution centres were opened under the auspices of the Icelandic Red Cross for refugee children in Morocco and that this Society sent a contribution towards the building of a new hospital in Agadir to replace the one destroyed by the earthquake.

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Italy

The provincial Committee of the Milan branch of the Italian Red Cross has recently made an innovation which would seem to be unique in the Red Cross world. A 24-hour emergency medical service has been set up to which requests can be made to visit people in their own homes. An ambulance with a doctor or a surgeon in attendance can be made immediately available to the required address merely by dialling a number. The ambulance contains
everything necessary for medical or surgical treatment, including a blood transfusion unit and up-to-date equipment for treatment by oxygen and resuscitation. If required, an oxygen-bottle can be left with the sick person.

The Milan Committee possesses six ambulances of this type which are posted in different parts of the town. They have radio-telephonic links with each other and can furthermore transport sick persons throughout Italy and even abroad. The service is free for members of the Red Cross.

The inestimable benefits of such a service in a large town can be readily imagined and the Milan Committee of the Italian Red Cross is to be congratulated for its enterprise.

We have recently received figures indicating, for each type of illness, the number of requests made to the emergency medical service to visit people in their homes between June and December, 1960. That these calls totalled 539 during that period conclusively proves the usefulness and effectiveness of this new activity.

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Pakistan

From Karachi the ICRC has received news concerning the joint annual General Meeting of the Pakistan Red Cross and the St. John Ambulance Association, which was held some time ago, attended by a large audience. The meeting was presided over by Field Marshal Ayub Khan, President of Pakistan, who is also the President of these two institutions. After welcoming the delegates, the President reminded his listeners of the threat, which now hangs over the world, of a war, and expressed his hope in the Red Cross, whose humanitarian work represents such an important and calming element for the maintenance of peace.

The President then went on to speak of the work carried out by the Pakistan Red Cross, the St. John Ambulance Association
and the St. John Ambulance Brigade, which is a perfect example of harmonious mutual aid; these three organisations have, indeed, contributed to a great extent towards implementing the medico-social programmes of the Public Health authorities.

The President reminded his listeners that a Pakistani nurse had been awarded the Florence Nightingale Medal, and in this connection, he went on to speak of the difficulties with which the institution has to contend, due to the shortage of nurses. Recognizing that this is a problem which nowadays faces nearly all countries, he urged the educated girls of Pakistan to join those who had already taken up nursing as a profession, which is one of such capital importance for the country.

The speaker then commented on the work carried out by the National Red Cross in the areas of Eastern Pakistan which had been devastated by the cyclone in 1959. In response to an appeal from the authorities, the Society sent clothing, medicaments and vitamins of a total value of 1,500,000 rupees to the victims; the shipment of these relief supplies from Western Pakistan was the first to reach the scene of the disaster at Chittagong. However, even so, the shortage of personnel made itself felt: "It is reassuring that the instructional work of the St. John Ambulance Association (Pakistan)"—continued the President—"marked an increase during 1959. The need for trained first-aid workers is felt even in the western countries, which are far more advanced and have a larger number of doctors."

Field Marshal Ayub Khan also expressed his satisfaction at the results obtained by the Junior Red Cross, which plays an important role by teaching school-children the elementary principles of hygiene and health, thus enabling them to acquire the habit of cleanliness. The Juniors also contribute towards fostering international friendship among the younger generation of different countries.

In conclusion, it should be mentioned that the St. John Ambulance Association held training courses in first-aid and home nursing, which were attended by 88,765 men and women; about 66,000 trained workers have rendered valuable service in these fields throughout the country. As regards the St. John Ambulance Brigade, it has 54 Ambulance Divisions, three Ambulance Corps
and one Cadet Nursing Division—which represents an increase of
two Ambulance Divisions in one year. The membership of this
institution has now reached 2,310, including 129 women.

Together with other humanitarian institutions, the Pakistan
Red Cross Society continues to make every effort in order to
achieve its aid programme as efficiently as possible on behalf of
the Pakistani population.
A book has recently been published which cannot fail to arouse the interest of many of our readers, especially of all those who have followed in one way or another the life of this great friend of mankind. A friend of mankind is indeed what he was—and continues to be—in many fields, for, as is universally known, his gifts are remarkable in more than one sphere. This book is not only an autobiography, but also a kind of "focussing mirror" in which a variety of topics seem to be reflected in a unity of thought: the desire to reconcile the impulses of his heart and mind with his actions. Thus, in writing his life-story, the author analyses the various influences which have inspired his writings and combined to make him a thinker of world-wide renown.

The first chapter, which deals with Albert Schweitzer's childhood and his years at school and University, shows us that, from his earliest days, he experienced the influence which was later to prompt him to seek in his faith and in music, especially in Bach, the moral inspiration which has guided him throughout his life's work. This eminently spiritual atmosphere left a lasting mark on Schweitzer and helped to form his moral philosophy in which thought and action become one, a perfect unity, in spite of the variety of spheres in which he moves.

We should like to remind our readers in this connection of a very interesting and moving publication, written by 30 outstanding figures at the request of the "Amis d'Albert Schweitzer" association—a publication which was commented on in the Revue internationale several years ago.

1 ALBERT SCHWEITZER: Ma vie et ma pensée, Editions Albin Michel, 22, rue Huyghens, Paris.
The book which we wish to present to our readers to-day admirably reflects the variety of Schweitzer's interests; he discusses an extremely wide range of subjects, revealing a mind which inclines equally towards contemplation as towards action. A few of the chapter headings prove this point: Musical studies—Piano technique—Research work into the Life of Jesus—French and German languages—Work on Bach—Fight to save old organs—Civilization and Ethics—Higher and lower forms of life, etc.

But apart from these chapters, which reveal Schweitzer's preoccupation with moral and spiritual problems, we read with the same interest those which deal with the man of action whose life is dedicated to an ideal contiguous to our own: to serve. We shall linger awhile on this aspect of the book.

"I decide to become a doctor in the jungle" is the title of the chapter in which Schweitzer describes how a slow evolution, prepared by philanthropic ideas which were to mould him for his future task, led to a turning-point in his life: "It seemed unthinkable to me that I should be able to live a happy life while so many others around me were fighting against necessity and illness. Already at school I had been troubled on discovering in what unhappy family circumstances some of my friends lived and comparing them with my own almost ideal home-life in Gunsbach."

In 1905, at the age of 30 and already Professor of Theology in Strasbourg and preacher at St. Nicolas' Church in the same town, Schweitzer determined, much against the wishes of his family and friends, especially of those who admired his talent as an organist, to undertake active humanitarian work; he thus embarked on the road which was to lead him, in accordance with his own desire, into the jungle, choosing what is perhaps the most arduous task of the medical profession: complete self-sacrifice in order to look after the outcasts of the African bush.

"I wanted to become a doctor so that I could work without words. My work had consisted in words for years; I had taken pleasure in my rôle as professor of theology and preacher. But now, my new work would consist not in speaking of the religion of love, but of practising it."

These few lines, chosen at random, seem to reveal the whole man.
He knew that in the jungle he would be able to devote himself to his task as he wished, that is, unreservedly. However, that did not prevent him from keeping in touch with Europe, especially in his campaign to save old organs which the enthusiastic organist in him considered vastly superior to those built according to modern techniques. This caused his friends to remark: "In Africa he saves old negroes, in Europe old organs".

Albert Schweitzer describes, not without a touch of humour, the period of his life in which he was studying to become a doctor. The chapter "Medical studies (1905-12)", opens with the pungent remark: "When I presented myself to Professor Fehling, then Dean of the Faculty of Medicine (of Strasbourg) as a student, he wanted to refer me to one of his colleagues in the psychiatric department".

The reader cannot help being struck by the remarkable courage and perseverance of this 30-year-old student, already eminent in the field of thought. We see him not only attending the courses of the Faculty of Medicine in Strasbourg and later at the centre for tropical diseases in Paris, but also finding the time and energy to write treatises on music and the history of religion and organizing concerts and collections in order to fulfil a plan he had been dreaming about for a long time: to set up a small hospital in Africa after completing his studies. The reader heaves a sigh of relief when, after overcoming so many obstacles, the author finally arrives in Lambarené in the spring of 1913, accompanied by his wife, equally dedicated to his task.

The initial difficulties which faced them would have seemed insurmountable to anyone but Schweitzer. "The missionaries gave us a warm welcome in Lambarené. Unfortunately they had not been able to erect the little corrugated-iron hut, in which I had intended to start 'practising', through want of labour... I therefore had to choose as my 'consulting-room' an old hen-house close to our own house". At the very outset, Schweitzer was able to confirm the wisdom of his choice of Lambarené, for patients came from all directions, from as far as 200 miles away, in their dug-out canoes along the Ogooue river and its tributaries. But the work was overwhelming and Schweitzer needed all his energy...
and will to serve, sacrificing himself to the utmost, in order to bring relief to this place of misery, need and disease: malaria, leprosy, sleeping sickness, pneumonia, heart troubles, etc., all of them illnesses which require continuous treatment; in addition, we should mention the surgical cases, for in these countries a doctor has to deal with every aspect of the medical profession.

Schweitzer’s remarks on his first contacts with the native population are very striking, as is shown by the psychologically interesting passage which follows: “Among primitive peoples one must never try to give the patient or his family hope if there is no reason to hope. If a patient should die without the doctor having warned his family, they conclude that he did not know the illness nor its consequences. With native patients one has to speak bluntly and tell them the truth… Death is something very natural to them. They do not fear it, but look upon it calmly.”

Thus Dr. Schweitzer set to work, ably seconded by his wife, herself an equally courageous nurse. And indeed, courage is what was needed! “… In a few months, the hospital was offering shelter to about forty patients daily”. We should add that not only did they have to be provided for, but also all those who had accompanied them and were waiting to take them back to their villages.

This was the beginning of a memorable period of long friendship with these natives whom Schweitzer came to understand and love. Necessarily, things did not always run smoothly and the European intellectual and sensitive artist often had to face incomprehension or struggle to keep his own enthusiasm in the right perspective. One of Schweitzer’s remarks in this connection is significant: writing of the unfortunate period when he and his wife were interned during the First World War, he recalls two policemen sent to conduct them, who were particularly patient with them: “How many times the memory of those two policemen has made me practise patience when I considered that my impatience was justified!”

Then came the dark years of the First World War, his and his wife’s arrest, the internment camps and all the misery and unhappiness of this period of violence and contempt. The author speaks of it with magnificent serenity and detachment, his philo-
phical mind enabling him to draw the lesson of this great upheaval. In this connection, the passages entitled "August 1914", "The crisis of civilization" and "The negation of life" contain valuable guidance.

Moreover, Albert Schweitzer draws a lesson even from the most insignificant events—and often with a touch of humour. For example, at the internment camp, circumstances made a shoe-maker become camp cook and when he succeeded in delighting the internees with his meals, he explained: "You have to know a bit about it, maybe, but the main thing is to cook with love"—and the author adds: "Since then, whenever I hear of someone becoming Minister of something about which he knows nothing, I no longer worry about it as I used to, but on the contrary, I hope that he is just as capable as the shoemaker at Garaison was as a cook."

To his great satisfaction, Schweitzer was able to continue acting as a doctor at the camp of Garaison; since he had brought most of his medicaments and instruments, he treated a large number of patients, especially those brought back from the colonies.

We should like to quote another passage which demonstrates Schweitzer's thirst for knowledge in all fields: "Books were not necessary in order to learn at the camp. There was a specialist on hand for every subject one wanted to know about. I made good use of this unique opportunity and gathered information which I should normally never have been able to obtain on subjects such as finance, architecture, the building and running of mills, cereal crops, stove manufacture and many other things". We can be sure that all this knowledge proved useful when he had returned to Lambarené and faced the immense task of turning this village into a hospital centre of world-wide fame with the sole help of a few assistants.

He did indeed return to Lambaréné after the war, shortly before Easter 1924. But the sight which awaited him was discouraging to say the least: apart from one small corrugated-iron hut, nothing remained of all he had built up with so much difficulty. During his seven years' absence, all the other buildings had disintegrated and lay in ruins. He therefore set to work afresh: "In the mornings I was the doctor, in the afternoons an architect". In addition, it was impossible to obtain labour and the number of patients
grew. By the autumn of 1925, the old hospital was more or less rebuilt, but inadequate: dysentery, mental illnesses, etc., added to the difficulties. “We went through terrible moments.” And the reader shares in the despair of Schweitzer’s position until in 1927 part of the buildings of the new hospital were completed and ready to receive the patients, including the mental patients, who could at last be lodged in attractive cells with wooden floors instead of the damp earth which was all they had known until then: “For the first time since I had been working in Africa, my patients had accommodation worthy of human beings.” What a wonderful reward for such a generous man as Schweitzer!

The book closes on this period of his life, that is, in 1931. The depth of Schweitzer’s thought makes this a remarkable book. The reader will find an abundant store of profound and valuable reflections, while the philosopher, theologian, sociologist and musicologist will all be able to draw on the interesting ideas put forth and perhaps find encouragement in the author’s perseverance and dedication. Finally, in spite of the occasional austerity of the subject-matter, the book cannot fail to appeal with its frequent touches of humour.

J. Z.
MISCELLANEOUS

FREEDOM FROM HUNGER CAMPAIGN

As will be remembered, the United Nations’ Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), one of the specialized agencies of the United Nations, has launched a “Freedom from Hunger Campaign”, which started in 1960 and will last five years, during which time collective action is to be taken everywhere in the world where food supplies are inadequate. On various occasions, the Revue internationale has already published information in connection with this campaign and analysed the participation of non-governmental organizations, thus emphasizing the extreme interest of the Red Cross in the success of this humanitarian movement.

Recently, Mr. J. J. G. de Rueda, Mexican Red Cross Delegate in Europe, in one of the ICRC radio broadcasts, once again reminded his listeners of the importance and moral significance of this campaign in the following terms:

"In my previous talks on the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, instituted by the FAO, which is, I repeat, the specialized agency of the United Nations for Food and Agriculture, I dealt in the first place with the importance of this prime necessity from the Red Cross point of view. It is a fact that sustenance of the body is our first need and the present unequal distribution of foodstuffs is the cause of serious disturbances in human relations, and also, without a doubt, in the physical development of the individual and of the human race in general.

It is curious to note the two principal categories of human suffering, on the physical side alone, for which help is forthcoming. Let us take two examples: accidents and illness. In the case of collective accident,

1 See the French editions of July and September 1960 and January 1961.
this is a spectacular occurrence attended by much publicity which promotes generous response on the part of the general public, who are informed through the medium of the Red Cross. Witness earthquakes, floods, etc. Other cases, for which the United Nations has a specialized agency, the WHO, are those illnesses termed social, epidemic or endemic.

Thus the problem of the improvement of the lot of man in the face of suffering is largely met.

The lack of food, in other words hunger, is known and recognized by all—despite which, this endemic wrong has not been systematically attacked.

It is thanks to Dr. Sen, Director-General of FAO, that a systematic approach to the solution of this world-wide problem is being made, as well as a drive to stir the public conscience.

Due acknowledgment must be paid to the value of his initiative, which nobody, as I have pointed out on several occasions in these broadcasts, can ignore or remain indifferent to in the face of the lamentable sight which the world presents in this respect.

On a lesser scale, the Battle of Solferino presented a similar situation to Henry Dunant. Despite the fact that everyone knew of the suffering brought about by war, nobody had organized the relief work which we have today in the Red Cross and which has been functioning for over a century.

My most earnest wish is that this "Freedom from Hunger Campaign", which is gradually being built up and to which we should all without exception contribute, should have the success in expansion that the Red Cross has known, and that, at the same time, the human conscience should awake in order to improve this inequality in world food distribution. This, in actual fact, should take place through an awareness of conscience, which, although unable to propose an immediate solution, should nevertheless make for quicker progress, thus avoiding new and more serious trouble."

In order to provide details of the "Freedom from Hunger Campaign" and to illustrate its development, the FAO has published various pamphlets and brochures. "... Much lip service is paid to the need for action (against hunger), more often than not without any real notion of the true state of affairs, of what is at stake and what must be done about it." These words are taken
from the preface to Freedom from Hunger — Outline of a Campaign, an FFHC brochure published by FAO. They were written by FAO’s Director-General, Dr. B. R. Sen, and summarize the thinking which led to the Campaign’s creation.

The brochure itself is a comprehensive and practical introduction to the Campaign. It takes up in succeeding chapters “The Problem”, “What Can Be Done”, “How the Campaign Operates” and “How You Can Help”, and it ends with the words “Act now. The need is urgent. The results may decide whether the future will be marked by chaos or welfare.” An illustrated section gives glimpses of the ravages of hunger and what is being done to repair them and prevent their recurrence.

A companion Campaign publication is The Basic Freedom—Freedom from Hunger. This is a selection from speeches on the Campaign by Dr. Sen spanning the whole period from its conception more than two years ago to its inauguration.

The Basic Freedom sets what might be called the over-all philosophy and main guide-lines of the Campaign, but it is also a review of the facts, figures, concrete experiences and technical analyses of hunger and its elimination.

Illustrating The Basic Freedom is a striking series of figures, charts and graphs prepared by FAO’s Public Information Service and first used with great success at the recent annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

Two important personalities of the English-speaking world have recently assured the Director-General of FAO of their support.1

The President of the United States, John F. Kennedy, has already announced that the United States is prepared to contribute $40 million in food commodities towards an initial reserve of $100 million, to be administered by FAO and used to relieve hunger and improve nutrition in underdeveloped countries.

Speaking at a White House press conference, President Kennedy said: “I am pleased to announce that the United States has offered concrete support to a broad-scale attack by the United Nations upon world hunger. I have instructed the Food for Peace Director

to offer $40 million in food commodities towards an initial reserve of $100 million. This will be administered by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization. I am informed that other United Nations members will also make similar contributions. The food will then be used to relieve hunger and improve nutrition in underdeveloped countries of the world. Our participation in this project will complement rather than diminish our existing Food for Peace Program."

Earlier, President Kennedy had written to the Director-General to express the full support of the United States Government for the Freedom from Hunger Campaign. President Kennedy's letter read:

Dear Dr. Sen,

I deeply regret that my full schedule prevented me from meeting you during your recent Washington visit. Since, unfortunately, I could not see you as planned, it is gratifying to me that my senior advisors in the Departments of State and Agriculture and my Executive Office had the opportunity to hold discussions with you concerning the FAO's Freedom from Hunger Campaign and our Food for Peace Program.

Together with my assurances of full endorsement and support by the United States Government for the FAO's Campaign, I would like to express my personal interest in the success of both these programs, emphasizing our desire to co-operate in every feasible way in the global attack on hunger and malnutrition.

I understand that my advisors stressed the close complementary relationship of the Freedom from Hunger Campaign and the Food for Peace Program. We view this as a challenging opportunity to join you in exploring every possible avenue for using our food abundances in striving for freedom from want.

I am looking forward to another opportunity to meet you. In the meantime we are proceeding with the establishment of a National Food for Peace Committee which I am requesting to participate actively in your Freedom from Hunger Campaign.

Sincerely,

(Signed) John F. Kennedy
In May, Prince Philip, the Duke of Edinburgh, visited the FAO Headquarters in Rome. In welcoming the Duke, Dr. B. R. Sen referred to the ideals and work of FAO and to the "eloquent gesture of Your Royal Highness" in support of the Organization through his visit.

After briefly tracing the background and history of FAO, which was established by the United Nations 15 years ago, Dr. Sen said:

"It has not only helped to transfer scientific knowledge and techniques to the less developed countries, but also to focus attention on agriculture as the spearhead of progress in predominantly agricultural economies. If today we see the developing countries giving primacy to agriculture in their national plans, it is in some measure at least due to the efforts and counsel of FAO."

Dr. Sen pointed out that the "unprecedented rate of population growth" tends to offset the progress which is being made in many countries, and that the Freedom from Hunger Campaign launched by FAO seeks to create "public awareness of the nature of the problem which faces us."

The Duke then spoke as follows:

"Every now and then I seem to find myself travelling about the world and often to the remoter regions. I enjoy these journeys very much; the different peoples and cultures, the different scenery and problems and, of course, the inevitable FAO man. It isn't his fault that I usually meet him in his best clothes at a garden party or a reception, but that has never stopped him from telling me with pleasure and enthusiasm about his work.

Having seen some of your activities in the field—or almost in the field—I am delighted to have this chance to pay a visit to the Headquarters of the Food and Agriculture Organization and to pay a tribute to the splendid work which it is doing for the people and countries who are so greatly in need of help and advice.

Most thinking people realize, if only vaguely, that a great fraction of the world's population is both underfed and badly fed, but it was only when I was preparing a lecture to the Engineering Institutions in London recently that I discovered for myself some of the grim facts.

Over half the population of the world exists on a diet that would quickly reduce the average European to skin and bones. That's
bad enough, but, in addition, the total world population is increasing at such an alarming rate that it makes the work of the Food and Agriculture Organization even more urgent if it is to make any significant impression. The race between the growth of population and the provision of adequate food resources is desperately close.

It is relatively easy to assemble and marshal impressive facts and figures in order to demonstrate the lopsided world food situation, but it is quite another matter to distil the underlying causes of this depressing and dangerous situation. Nevertheless, it is essential to establish the causes if the cure is to be really effective. Hunger is obviously due to lack of food, but this lack of food may be due to any number of reasons, some purely technical and some very human.

Technical know-how can achieve wonders, but only if it is tactfully and thoughtfully integrated with the prevailing local conditions. Change of any kind cannot be entirely painless, but at least care should be taken to prevent it causing disruption or disintegration. This means that the expert must combine a sound technical knowledge with a lively and practical understanding of human nature, if he is to ease the oppression of stagnant tradition. It is a fundamental truth that while people of all races and cultures can agree about the practical and technical things in life, they most emphatically do not agree about customs and prejudices.

I believe that there are people of goodwill all over the world who not only support and endorse the activities of this Organization, but who are also prepared to give their active help. With the inauguration last year of the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, you have given them a chance to convert their concern for their less fortunate fellows into well directed action. The British Government have supported the campaign from the start and I am happy to tell you that the British National Committee has been formed with Lord De La Warr as Chairman, and that I have agreed to be Patron of the Campaign in Britain . . . ."

Prince Philip then concluded his speech by mentioning the contribution of Great Britain towards the Freedom from Hunger Campaign:

"I have no doubt at all that it will provide the means for the people of Britain to play a full part in this great co-operative effort
to set free the hungry half of this world who are trapped in the vicious circle of hunger, poverty, ignorance and disease.

Before this campaign has run its course, a great many people will have rendered valuable services to humanity and countless others will be taking their first steps into a new and a fuller life. But in the meantime let us all remember the melancholy saying of the 18th century poet, Thomas Hood:

\begin{quote}
Oh God, that bread should be so dear
And flesh and blood so cheap."
\end{quote}

Finally, we give the concluding remarks in a speech by Dr. B. R. Sen, whose text has appeared in a pamphlet recently published by FAO\(^1\).

"It was clear from the beginning that nothing less than heroic efforts would be needed if the people of the world were to be provided with food adequate in quality and quantity for a healthy and vigorous life.

We live in a truly exciting age. Science has brought new visions of man's mastery over Nature. But the achievements of science must be matched by the triumph of human dignity. Without that, the ultimate human purpose of science will not be fulfilled. What the world needs most today is not merely a wider exchange of material benefits, essential though it is, but also a conscious dedication to the right of man to grow to his full stature, regardless of the place of his birth, the colour of his skin, or of the faiths and beliefs he might cherish. I invite you to support the Campaign in the name of this human solidarity, without which all our efforts to banish hunger from the world will lose their true meaning and purpose."

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{1} The Basic Freedom—Freedom from Hunger, FAO, Rome, 1960.}
The Red Cross of the German Federal Republic has recently produced a catalogue of the main publications in German on the Red Cross since its foundation nearly a hundred years ago. To this list has been added a selection of works published by the International Committee of the Red Cross, the League of Red Cross Societies and the National Red Cross Societies. These works are divided into 7 chapters under the following headings:

1. The International Red Cross (its origins, growth, character and organization);
2. The legal position of the Red Cross, the protection and abuse of the Red Cross emblem;
3. Publications on the Geneva Conventions, humanitarian law and International Law;
4. Henry Dunant and other personalities connected with the work of the Red Cross;
5. The Red Cross in literature;
6. The German Red Cross Society (general observations, nursing, the sections and bodies of the Society, youth and the Red Cross);
7. Periodicals, place and date of International Red Cross Conferences, official bulletins of the National Red Cross Societies.

This catalogue is simple to handle and will prove to be of great value. The Red Cross of the German Federal Republic is to be congratulated on its happy initiative.

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1 Deutsches Rotes Kreuz, Schriftenreihe Nr. 21, Bonn, 1960.

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HENRY DUNANT

by

STEPHAN MARKUS

This book, which was first published in 1946, has recently been reprinted in the original German version. The text has been revised by the ICRC and contains a preface by Mrs. Iconomow, a member of the staff of that institution, which describes the rôle of the Red Cross over a period of nearly a hundred years. She points out that only a neutral organization could have intervened in conflicts which have broken out since the war of Schleswig-Holstein. This demonstrates the triumph of Henry Dunant's idea, which he himself so admirably implemented in his thought and in his actions.

L'AFFAIRE DU LACONIA

by

LÉONCE PRILLARD

The sinking of the Laconia on the evening of the 12th September 1942 off the West coast of Africa was one of the great dramas of the sea. The author's researches and his accurate documentation have resulted in revealing the actions of all the protagonists during the hours of darkness and the days which followed. And if these are matters of keen interest to the naval historian, they also reveal most vividly that the subsequent rescue operations can be regarded as being a fine example of humanitarian action in time of war. Although these operations were carried out by no less than four German U-boats (including U.156 which had sunk the ship), one Italian submarine and three French warships from Dakar, the rescuers methodically continued their task throughout six days, at considerable risk from hostile action.

1 Ott-Verlag, Thun.
There had been nearly 3,000 passengers and members of the crew on board the *Laconia* when she sailed from Port Said. These included details of the British armed forces and 80 women and children returning to the United Kingdom, some Polish troops and 1,800 Italian prisoners of war. There were a little more than one thousand survivors. Many of those who escaped the agonies of thirst, the merciless rays of the sun and the shark-infested seas paid tribute to their rescuers.

The finest traditions of the sea and humanity were thus upheld by all who had taken part in the rescue.

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**HOMELESS NO MORE**

by

S. Gродка and G. Henes

In its December 1960 issue, the *Revue internationale* convincingly stressed the importance of private aid to refugees on a world scale. The National Council of Churches in New York has recently published a report on the settlement under its auspices of 113,000 refugees during the course of the past few years. This pamphlet, which has been produced in English in New York, is a particularly interesting testimony of what private initiative has been able to achieve for refugees.

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1 The National Council of Churches in the USA, New York, 1960.
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.

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

ART. 3. — The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva. Its emblem shall be a red cross on a white ground. Its motto shall be "Inter arma caritas".

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

(a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies;

(b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition.

1 The International Red Cross, comprises the National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies. The term "National Red Cross Societies" includes the Red Crescent Societies and the Red Lion and Sun Society.
(c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions;

(d) to take action in its capacity as a neutral institution, especially in case of war, civil war or internal strife; to endeavour to ensure at all times that the military and civilian victims of such conflicts and of their direct results receive protection and assistance, and to serve, in humanitarian matters, as an intermediary between the parties;

(e) to contribute, in view of such conflicts, to the preparation and development of medical personnel and medical equipment, in cooperation with the Red Cross organizations, the medical services of the armed forces, and other competent authorities;

(f) to work for the continual improvement of humanitarian international law and for the better understanding and diffusion of the Geneva Conventions and to prepare for their possible extension;

(g) to accept the mandates entrusted to it by the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its rôle as a specifically neutral and independent institution and consider any question 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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PAILLARD S.A.
Yverdon Switzerland
Some publications
of the ICRC

The International Committee publishes works on law and on humanitarian ideas. The following have been published or reprinted recently:


Commentaries published under the general editorship of Jean S. Pictet, Director for General Affairs of the International Committee of the Red Cross. (Translated from the original French):


Some publications of the ICRC


The Red Cross and Peace, by Jean-G. Lossier. — Geneva, 1951. 31 p., Sw. fr. 2.—

The Red Cross and Peace, by Jean S. Pictet. — Geneva, 1951. 11 p., Sw. fr. 1.—


Some Advice to Nurses and other Members of the Medical Services of the Armed Forces, by Lucie Odier, Member of the ICRC. — Geneva, 1951. 9 p., Sw. fr. 0.25.


The above publications can be obtained from the headquarters of the ICRC, 7, avenue de la Paix, Geneva (Switzerland).
Addresses of Central Committees

AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent, Kabul.

ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga Barrikadave, Tirana.

ARGENTINE — Argentine Red Cross, Grisayen 2508 (R.7), Buenos Aires.

AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Finders Street, Melbourne.

AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 5, Gunghaus-strasse, Vienna IV.

BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, Chaussé de Vleurgat, Brussels.

BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, 135 Avenida Simon-Bolivar, La Paz.

BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Prac;a da Cruz Vermelha 10-12, Rio de Janeiro.

BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boulevard S.S. Bivouc, Sofia.

BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boulevard S.S. Bivouc, Sofia.

CAMBODIA — Cambodian Red Cross, 8 Vithel Ang Norm, P.O.B. 94, Phnom Penh.

CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95, Wellesley Street East, Toronto 5.

CEYLON — Ceylon Red Cross, 104, Turret Road, Colombo VII.

CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria, 0110 Santiago de Chile.

CHINA (People’s Republic) — National Red Cross Society of China, Peking.

COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65 Apartado nacional 17-12, Bogota.

COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 5a Sur, Apartado 1023, San Jose.

CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Ignacio Agramont 451, Havana.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Tomasovska 18, Prague III.

DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Flatanvej 22, Copenhagen V.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1295, Ciudad Trujillo.

ECUADOR — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Avenida Colombia y Elisalde 118, Quito.

ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Addis Ababa.

FINLAND — Finish Red Cross, Tulasankatu 1 A, Helsinki.

FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17, rue Quentin-Bauchart, Paris 89.

GERMANY (Dem. Republic) — German Red Cross in the Democratic Republic of Germany, Kaisersetraße 2, Dresden.

GERMANY (Federal Republic) — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, Bonn.

GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, Accra.


GREECE — Greek Red Cross, rue Lyceioiou 1, Athens.

GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 4a Calle 11-42, Zona 1, Guatemala.

HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, rue Fèvra, Port-au-Prince.

HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant, Tegucigalpa.

HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant, Tegucigalpa.

HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, Budapest 19.

ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Thorvaldssenstreet 6, Reykjavik.

INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, New Delhi 2.

INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, Djakarta.

IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 25 Westland Row, Dublin.

ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, Rome.

JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 5 Shibuya Park, Tokyo.

JORDAN — Jordan Red Crescent, Amman.

KOREA (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Pyongyang.

KOREA (Republic) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, Korean Red Cross Building 58-3 Kae Nam San-Dong, Seoul.

LAOS — Laotian Red Cross, Vientiane.

LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, Beirut.
ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

LIBERIA — Liberian National Red Cross, Ducon Hall, 109 Poni st., Monrovia.

LIBYA — Libyan Red Crescent, Sharia Gasser Hamed, Benghazi.

LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, Vaduz.

LUXEMBURG — Luxemburg Red Cross, Porte de la Ville, Luxemburg.

MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Sinaloa 20, 4to piso, Mexico 7, D.F.

MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, quai des Etats-Unis, Monaco.

MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People’s Republic, Ulan-Bator.

MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, rue Calmette, Rabat.

NETHERLANDS — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsengracht, The Hague.

NEW ZEALAND — New Zealand Red Cross, 61 Dixon Street, Wellington C.I.

NICARAGUA — Nicaraguan Red Cross, 12 Avenida Nordeste, Managua, D.N.C.A.

NIGERIA — The Nigerian Red Cross Society, 2, Makoko Road, P.O. Box 764, Lagos.

NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 38B, Oslo.

PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Cross, Fiere Street, Karachi 4.

PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, calle Andre Barbero y Artigas, Asuncion.

PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Tarapaca 881, Lima.

PHILIPPINES — Philippines National Red Cross, 600 Isaac Peral Street, P.O.B.280 Manila.

POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, Warsaw.

PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, Lisbon.

ROMANIA — Rumanian Red Cross, Strada Elvira Aman 29, Bucharest.

SALVADOR — Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente, San Salvador.

SAN MARINO — San Marino Red Cross, San Marino.

SOUTH AFRICA (Republic) — South African Red Cross, 364, Barclays Bank Building, 14 Hollard Street, Johannesburg.

SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, Madrid.

SUDAN — Sudanese Red Crescent, Khartoum.

SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Artillerigatan 6, Stockholm 14.

SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, Berna.

THAILAND — Thai Red Cross Society, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Bangkok.

TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 1, Avenue de Carthage, Tunis.

TURKEY — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, Ankara.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC — Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Republic, 34, rue Ramses, Cairo.

URUGUAY — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre, 2900, Montevideo.

U.S.A. — American Red Cross, National Headquarters, 17th and D Streets, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

U.S.S.R. — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Koszynskiy Most 18/7, Moscow.

VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andres Bullo No 4, Caracas.

VIET NAM (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68, rue Ba-Trieu, Hanoi.

VIET NAM (Republic) — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, Duong Hong-Thip-Tu, Saigon.

YUGOSLAVIA — Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, Belgrade.