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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW
OF THE RED CROSS

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HEALTH PROTECTION
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IN DISASTER SITUATIONS
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IN THE INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

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The Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross and Red Crescent: Their origin and development

by Jean-Luc Blondel

1. The Principles in the history of the Red Cross: from 1863 to 1952

From the very first, the founding members of what was to become the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement realized that it was necessary to comply with a number of essential principles. The work of the Red Cross and Red Crescent is based on the fundamental idea of impartial assistance to anyone who is suffering, whether friend or foe.

This idea, which was conceived on a battlefield, was expressed in the resolutions and declarations of the first Conference, held in October 1863, and in Article 6 of the Geneva Convention of 22 August 1864, which provided that "wounded or sick combatants, to whatever nation they may belong, shall be collected and cared for". To make this injunction feasible and effective, the 1864 Convention gave ambulances and medical personnel a new status, thereafter termed neutrality, which guaranteed their protection from attack by the belligerents.

It was not long before members of the Movement were speaking of Principles, or Fundamental Principles. As early as 1869, at the Berlin International Conference, the ICRC was assigned the task of safeguarding and spreading knowledge of those Principles.1

1 Excerpt from Gustave Moynier's speech, approved by the Conference. Records of the proceedings of the International Conference held in Berlin from 22 to 27 April 1869, p. 264: "We believe that the raison d'être of the International Committee is also to act as a moral and historical link between all central committees, to be a guardian, as it were, of the 1863 resolutions which constitute the committees' common charter.
In the early years, unity of thought within the Movement was ensured by the similarity of the individuals involved and, less directly, by their common cultural background. Although there was no written agreement on the subject, certain notions soon became recognized as essential to the Red Cross idea. As Gustave Moynier, one of the Movement's founders, said: "The Societies, which are all members of the Red Cross federation, are bound one to the other by their more or less formal undertaking to conduct themselves in accordance with identical rules. These rules or principles are four in number: **centralization, foresight, mutuality and solidarity**. Moynier defined them as follows:

— the principle of centralization means that there can be only one Red Cross Society per country (centralized control), and that its activities must embrace the whole country;

— the principle of foresight requires the Societies to be ready at all times, and to make preparations in peacetime for humanitarian activities in time of war;

— the principle of mutuality means willingness to assist all wounded and sick people, regardless of their nationality;

— the principle of solidarity requires the Societies to help each other.

Moynier said that the ICRC should act as "the voluntary guardian of these Principles so crucial to our work" and called on it to use "its influence, if need be, to ensure that they are adhered to". In addition, to be admitted into the Movement, new Societies had to respect and undertake to respect at all times the following conditions: foresight, solidarity, centralized control, activity throughout the national territory.

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2 Moynier G., "Ce que c'est que la Croix-Rouge", Bulletin international, No. 21, January 1875, pp. 1-8.

3 "Essential conditions to be met by all Red Cross Societies (in accordance with decisions adopted by the International Committee):

1. Belong to a country where the Geneva Convention is in force.
2. Belong to a country where no other such society has been recognized by the International Committee.
3. Be recognized by the government of its country as auxiliary to the army medical services.
4. Bear the name "Red Cross Society".
5. Adopt the symbol of a red cross on a white ground.
6. Be headed by a central committee, which alone represents it in dealings with other Societies.
When the ICRC drew up its first Statutes in 1915, it set itself the task of “safeguarding the fundamental and universal Principles on which the Institution is based” (Article 3), without being more specific. It was only when its Statutes were revised in 1921 that the ICRC set forth those Fundamental Principles, namely “impartiality, action independent of any political, religious or economic consideration, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of its constituent members”.

At the same time, the 10th International Conference of the Red Cross, held in Geneva in April 1921, adopted a resolution reading: “The Conference approves the activity of the International Committee in peacetime. It recognizes the Committee as the guardian and propagator of the institution’s fundamental moral and legal Principles and assigns it the responsibility of ensuring that those Principles are respected and that knowledge of them is spread throughout the world”.4

Following the Second World War, the XIXth session (Oxford, 1946) of the Board of Governors of the League of Red Cross Societies accepted the proposal of a Commission of National Society representatives and issued a long declaration on the Principles which was later included in the International Red Cross Handbook.5 These “new” Principles, which were explicitly added to the four Principles set forth by the ICRC, are thirteen in number, and there are also six rules for their application; the principles and the rules for application take up the following points:

**The “Oxford Principles”**

1) National Societies as voluntary, autonomous organizations, open to all;

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4 10th International Conference of the Red Cross, Geneva 1921, Resolution XVI (“International Organization of the Red Cross”), para. 3. Records, p. 221.

2) their recognition by the Government, the Society’s auxiliary char-
acter;
3) protection of the emblem;
4) the National Societies must spread knowledge of the principles;
5) promoting peace;
6) the principle of humanity in time of war (general activities);
7) alleviating the consequences of natural disasters;
8) the fight against epidemics; public health concerns;
9) democratic organization;
10) financing (membership fees, donations);
11) instructing youth in the Red Cross ideals;
12) independence;
13) membership of the League.

Application of the principles:

1) the fight against abuses of the emblem;
2) training personnel;
3) preparing for services in wartime (acting as auxiliaries to army
medical services, assisting prisoners of war, forwarding information
and Red Cross messages, tracing the missing and reporting on the
wounded);
4) independence and voluntary service;
5) promoting Youth Red Cross activities;
6) training first-aid workers.

Apart from a brief recapitulation, in the introduction, of the four
Principles laid down by the ICRC, this declaration consists almost
entirely of a statement of organic principles and matters of policy. The
principle of neutrality is not mentioned, becoming merged with that of
impartiality, but an important mention is the one stating that National
Societies must be representative.

The 18th International Conference of the Red Cross (Toronto,
1952) reaffirmed the Oxford Principles, in order “to maintain the
tenets of impartiality, political, racial, religious and economic inde-
pendence, universality of the Red Cross, and equal rights of National
Societies, which are the cornerstones of the Red Cross Movement”
(Resolution X (a)).

There is thus a certain ambiguity as to which Principles, the
“Fundamental Principles” or those constituting the “cornerstones”, are
to be considered as paramount, as truly fundamental. Some doctrinal
clarification seems to be necessary.

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2. Elaboration of the Principles

We have seen that Gustave Moynier formulated the first Principles (centralization, foresight, mutuality and solidarity) very early on and that these were essentially practical (or organic) in nature.

Later, in 1920, Edmond Boissier, a member of the ICRC, wrote about Red Cross ideals as follows: "The Principle which has always been recognized and proclaimed by all the Societies united under its banner is that of universal charity in the service of suffering humanity, without regard to religion, race or nationality. Charity and universality, along with independence and impartiality, are the essential and distinctive characteristics of the Red Cross". 6 This statement of the Principles was not, however, accompanied by a commentary.

It was Max Huber who revived doctrinal discussion within the Red Cross. Although he did not write a detailed treatise on the subject, Huber nevertheless made a thorough study of the Principles.

Huber's work on the subject was concerned mainly with the principles of humanity and neutrality (which had obviously not yet been exactly defined). His own spiritual convictions undoubtedly had a great influence on his legal thought and his conception of Red Cross work; this is especially evident in his definition of humanity—which calls for a feeling of compassion and sensitivity towards the suffering of others—as a principle close to the teaching of many religions and social philosophies. His personal convictions also led him to respect those of others and made him aware of the importance of philosophical, religious and, of course, political neutrality. 7

In his writings on neutrality, Huber discusses the primary purpose of the Red Cross, which is reflected in the Principles: to bring relief without discrimination to victims of armed conflict and natural disasters. A natural consequence of this position is the refusal to become involved in political and ideological disputes which, sooner or later, would divert the Red Cross from its essential task. Politicization has always been the prime enemy of the Movement, which defends itself

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7 "The Red Cross realises that it is man's conscience, his inmost sense of responsibility, which dictates his every action in favour of his fellow creatures. In order not to offend these sacred sentiments the Red Cross must adopt an attitude of neutrality to religious and philosophical conceptions. Such neutrality is an attitude not of indifference, but of respect". Excerpt from Max Huber's address to the 15th International Conference of the Red Cross, Tokyo, 20 October 1934.
by recalling the essence of the Principles, namely, impartial assistance to alleviate human suffering.

It is to Jean Pictet that we owe the first, and so far the only, complete exploration of the Principles. In his *Red Cross Principles* (1956), he makes a detailed analysis of the basic reasons that motivate the work of the Red Cross and Red Crescent. He ends the book by listing, as a summary, 17 Principles which he divides into two categories:

--- **Fundamental Principles**: Humanity, Equality, Due Proportion, Impartiality, Neutrality, Independence, and Universality.


Pictet’s book on the Fundamental Principles, begun on his own initiative, eventually brought about a revision of the Fundamental Principles as set out in the 1946 Oxford Declaration. However, the move to revise the Principles came not from the ICRC, where Pictet was Director of General Affairs, but from the Japanese Red Cross, whose Director of Foreign Affairs, Masurato Inoue, had translated Pictet’s book into Japanese. In 1958 the Japanese Red Cross formally requested that the Oxford Declaration be replaced by the summary appearing at the end of Pictet’s book.

### 3. The definitive adoption of the Fundamental Principles

The League agreed to examine the question and proposed that a joint ICRC/League Commission be formed to make a detailed study. The ICRC appointed a small delegation (made up of Jean Pictet and Frédéric Siorlet, ICRC Vice-President) which had eight meetings with the two League representatives (Henry Dunning and W. J. Phillips, respectively Secretary General and Deputy Secretary General). This working group drew up a text which, after consultation with the Chairman of the Standing Commission and the Presidents of the ICRC and the League, was sent to the Central Committees of the National Societies for their views (circular of 24 June 1959).

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9 First meeting: 4 November 1958; second meeting: 14 April 1959.
Twenty-six Societies replied. Of these, fourteen simply approved
the proposed text while twelve others made comments, some in
considerable detail. The Standing Commission then instructed the
study group to draw up a second draft of the Principles, incorporating
such of the National Societies’ proposals as the group might deem to
be justified. The group submitted this second draft to the Standing
Commission, which adopted it on 6 October 1960 with few alterations.

At its October 1960 meeting, however, the Standing Commission
made the following addition, concerning peace, to the last sentence of
the principle of humanity, at the request of Professor G. A. Miterev,
Chairman of the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of
the USSR: “It promotes mutual understanding and friendship amongst
all peoples, thus developing the spirit of peace, and contributing to the
elimination of war”. The wording of this addition, considered by many
to be out of place in such a declaration, was already the result of a
compromise. Not satisfied, Professor Miterev raised the subject again
when the Standing Commission met on 24 March 1961. He proposed
adding a new fundamental principle stating the “peace-loving” char-
acter of the Red Cross. This was rejected.

The draft text adopted by the Standing Commission was submitted
to the XXVIth meeting of the Council of Delegates, held in Prague in
October 1961 and attended by 58 out of the then 82 recognized
National Societies and by the League and the ICRC. At the very start
of the debate the Soviet Alliance again proposed the inclusion in the
Fundamental Principles of a peace principle, in fact the one already
rejected by the Standing Commission. The Soviet proposal was
supported by Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania and—in a
somewhat modified version—by Yugoslavia, while France, the United
Kingdom, Brazil and the Philippines were against.

In the end, the American and the Soviet representatives agreed
behind the scenes on a compromise text, worded as follows: “The Red
Cross promotes mutual understanding, friendship, co-operation and
lasting peace amongst all peoples”. This text replaced the last sentence
of the draft submitted by the Standing Commission.

The only other change made by the Council of Delegates
concerned the text of the principle of neutrality, in which the word
“racial” was inserted between “political” and “religious” to draw a
closer parallel with the principle of impartiality. The amended text was
adopted unanimously.

The Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross were finally adopted
at the 20th International Conference of the Red Cross, held in Vienna
in 1965. The Prague draft was adopted unanimously and without
It was also decided that the Principles would be read aloud at the opening of each International Conference of the Red Cross.

In 1979, the Henry Dunant Institute published a Commentary by Jean Pictet on the Fundamental Principles. This authoritative and perceptive treatment of the subject has lost none of its relevance today.

4. Current tasks

Since 1965 many talks and seminars devoted to the Fundamental Principles have helped to promote knowledge and understanding thereof. The importance of the Principles was also underscored at the 25th International Conference in Geneva in October 1986, when they were incorporated into the preamble to the Statutes of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, revised on that occasion.

At the Council of Delegates preceding the 25th International Conference, Dr. Janos Hantos, then President of the Executive Committee of the Hungarian Red Cross and member of the Standing Commission, invited the International Committee of the Red Cross to carry out an in-depth study on respect for and dissemination of the Fundamental Principles, intended to improve understanding of the Principles and demonstrate their relevance in the Movement's everyday work, thereby enhancing its unity and effectiveness. The study is currently under way: the ICRC submitted its first interim report to the Council of Delegates in October 1989 and the following year carried out a survey with the help and participation of National Societies; a second progress report will be submitted to the Council of Delegates in November 1991.

The study is first and foremost intended to define, in a clear and concise manner, the scope and significance of the Fundamental Principles, in view of new situations, questions and problems relating to their application which have arisen in recent years. In the wide range of cultural and geographical settings in which the various components of the Movement carry out their activities, the Fundamental Principles remain an essential point of reference for them all. The Principles are the only doctrinal text common to the whole Movement. They are an expression of its unity in time (continuity) and space (universality). This common identity and internal cohesion are what make the Movement unique and enhance the effectiveness of its work. The Principles are also important in that they embody the Movement's fundamental concern, which is to alleviate human suffering, without discrimination or prejudice of any kind.
The requirement that the Principles be respected and disseminated is hence an integral part of them. The Movement is therefore currently faced with a twofold task: to put over this statement of Red Cross and Red Crescent identity in its modern-day reality and make it better understood, both within and outside the Movement, and to strengthen its commitment to activities in the field so as to demonstrate in practice the importance and relevance of the Principles in the work of the Red Cross and Red Crescent.

Jean-Luc Blondel

Jean-Luc Blondel was born in 1953. He studied in Lausanne, Göttingen and Washington and holds a doctorate in theology. He became an ICRC delegate in 1982 and has carried out missions to El Salvador, Jerusalem and southern Africa. He is currently Head of the ICRC’s Division for Principles and Relations with the Movement. The Review has published several of his articles, including "Assistance to protected persons" (No. 260, September-October 1987, pp. 451-468) and "The meaning of the word ‘humanitarian’ in relation to the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross and Red Crescent" (No. 273, November-December 1989, pp. 507-515).
Switzerland's Humanitarian Tradition

MILESTONES FOR THE SWISS CONFEDERATION
AND THE SWISS RED CROSS

This year the Swiss Red Cross is celebrating its 125th anniversary. On this occasion, the Review is happy to include the following two articles: one deals with the historical development of the National Society and the other with the challenges it faces on the threshold of a new millennium.

This anniversary was marked by several official events in Lucerne on 1 and 2 June 1991, at which the ICRC was represented by Mr. Cornelio Sommaruga, President, and by Mr. Claudio Carasch, Vice-President. In addition, the Swiss Red Cross has inaugurated a travelling exhibition entitled “Meet the Swiss Red Cross” which will visit all parts of the country throughout the year.

As the President of the Swiss Red Cross, Dr. Karl Kennel, said, this exhibition is intended to familiarize the Swiss people with their National Society and increase their confidence in what it does; the Society will continue to be guided by the principles of humanity and solidarity.

* * *

Geneva has also been the scene of numerous humanitarian events in connection with the Confederation’s 700th anniversary (see p. 385).

Lastly, the humanitarian activities of the Confederation and its institutions, particularly the ICRC, are illustrated by an exhibition of photographs on display at the ICRC headquarters from 1 June to 31 October 1991.
Rather than serving as a pretext for noisy celebration and self-congratulation, the 125th anniversary of the founding of the Swiss Red Cross should be an occasion for reflection on our institution’s development, its role within the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and its special situation as the National Society of Switzerland. This is a worthy undertaking, an attempt, as the historian Marc Ferro put it, "to capture time and make it intelligible to others". But anyone who embarks on such a venture must be careful to avoid rewriting the past according to his own preferences and giving an idealized picture of this humanitarian organization, which has had its share of tensions, setbacks and contradictions, some of them still unresolved.

* * *

Of what interest is a study on the National Society’s past to those who are shaping its history today?

Looking back to the origins of the Swiss Red Cross involves an endeavour to understand the circumstances that have prompted thousands of people to join the ranks of volunteers who perform its humanitarian work. It is a way of defining the basic identity of the institution and determining what makes it different from other charitable associations. It also enables us to discover the general principles governing its internal workings, the driving forces deep within it and the lines along which it has developed.

* * *

The Swiss Red Cross has its own history, which is distinct in many respects from that of its sister Societies in France, Germany, Italy and Spain. Its history is intimately linked with that of Switzerland itself; the former cannot really be understood without understanding the latter. The Red Cross ideal, though universal in terms of the principles on which it is based, manifests itself differently in each Society. Thus in Switzerland, “how could the personality of the Swiss Red Cross fail to be shaped by the structure and history of our country and by the characteristics of our people?" Before demonstrating just how true this is, it is worth taking a somewhat iconoclastic look at the relationship between the Society and Switzerland. Is that relationship so close that the destiny of one can legitimately be viewed as inextricably linked with that of the other? The fact that the International Red Cross has adopted as its emblem our national flag with the colours reversed may reinforce the tendency to consider Switzerland not only as the cradle of the Red Cross but also as its natural home. However, the idea that Switzerland is the perfect incarnation of the Red Cross ideal is not one that can be embraced unreservedly. Moreover, one cannot ignore the effect that the immense prestige enjoyed by the International Committee of the Red Cross, that “exclusively Swiss” organization, has on a people that tends to make no distinction between the ICRC and its own National Society. This confusion complicates public relations and fund-raising campaigns by the two organizations but illustrates both the profound unity of the Movement and the fact that the public sees the Red Cross in terms of its activities rather than its administrative structure.

* * *

In the early years, expansion of the Swiss Red Cross was hampered by a number of obstacles, not least the indifference shown by the population and the authorities.

Indeed, when Switzerland set up a Society for relief to the wounded in 1866, ten other European States had already taken such an initiative. Why this apathy about the enterprise launched by Dunant, Moynier, Dufour, Appia and Maunoir, our compatriots on the

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Committee of Five? Was the main reason, as Alexis François has suggested, the "phlegmatic national temperament" of the Swiss?3

The best explanation for this surprising phenomenon is the permanent neutrality that has kept Switzerland out of international conflicts, and which was a sine qua non for the success of the International Committee. As the Reverend Wernly, one of our Society's early promoters, pointed out in his *Mémoire des vingt-cinq premières années de la Croix-Rouge*, published in 1888:

"With its neutrality assured and its strict policy of non-aggression, the country seemed to be in no danger of being obliged to take part in a war and of having to take exceptional measures to assist the military medical services".4

Setting up a National Red Cross Society in Switzerland was thus such an arduous task that it had to be undertaken twice – in 1866 and again in 1882!

The *Association for Relief to Swiss Soldiers and their Families*, which was founded on 17 July 1866, existed for only a brief period. Although it did remarkable work in 1870-71 during the Franco-Prussian War, by the 1880s it had fallen into abeyance.

The rebirth of the Red Cross in Switzerland was brought about by two men: Walther Kempin, a pastor from Zurich who was deeply involved in social issues and public health problems, and Ernest Moecckli from Bern, a non-commissioned officer in the army medical services who was alarmed at the services’ shortcomings, notably as regards training.

Together, on 25 April 1882, they laid the foundations of the *Swiss Central Red Cross Society*, whose stated purpose was to "do everything possible to improve care for the sick and disabled in both wartime and times of peace".

The new Society's beginnings were difficult and it was beset by a number of crises due to rivalry between its leaders, weaknesses in its internal organization and the absence of sustained cooperation with the authorities, particularly the army. In 1895, the Society had only 8,700 members in 19 regional branches and only 70,000 francs in the bank. Sizeable portions of the country – especially the French and Italian-speaking regions – were unreceptive to its message. Thanks to support from the federal government and the adoption of a methodical

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programme combining both civilian and military tasks, it managed to achieve a respectable size by the time the First World War broke out. The number of local branches grew from 20 in 1898 to 50 in 1914, and membership from 11,000 to 36,000 over the same period. Expenditure by the central treasury rose markedly, from 6,500 francs in 1896 to 136,000 in 1914, while that of the local branches rose from 39,000 in 1903 to 188,000 in 1914. Thus it took half a century for the Swiss Red Cross to take firm root and we have the paradox of a country that was the cradle of a universal movement but had little inclination to give substance to the ideals of its own philanthropists.

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Since then, however, the relationship between the National Society and the authorities has grown much closer at all levels. A series of government and parliamentary decrees has gradually given the Swiss Red Cross a special legal status. A federal decree of 1903 concerning voluntary assistance to the wounded and sick in wartime guaranteed the Society regular financial support and recognized it as the only organization responsible for voluntary medical assistance, a mission that was to become the basis for the Society’s leading role in the training of nursing staff. Another milestone was the federal law of 1910 protecting the red cross name and emblem. More recently, in 1951, a federal decree declared the Swiss Red Cross to be the only Red Cross Society in the country and gave it a mandate to promote voluntary medical assistance, provide a blood transfusion service to meet both civilian and military needs and train nursing and paramedical personnel. The latter task is governed by a special agreement, signed in 1976, which delegates to the Swiss Red Cross certain functions that are normally the responsibility of the cantonal authorities. The devolution of such duties on a National Society – a private association – is doubtless unique in the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. Federal refugee legislation has also recognized the Swiss Red Cross as a charitable organization authorized to become involved in various stages of the processing of asylum requests.

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Another point that the Swiss Confederation and the Swiss Red Cross have in common (although it is best to approach this subject with caution to avoid any hint of undue or ideologically motivated criticism) is that they are both governed by the same elite. There is a
kind of osmosis, a similarity of views between their respective leaders that have established a privileged relationship—going beyond their formal links under the law—between the National Society and the economic, political and military powers that be. But this status has sometimes given rise to a degree of confusion between the humanitarian purpose of the Society and the interests of the State: can it be assumed that what was good for Switzerland was always good for the Red Cross? It has also brought with it the risk of the Red Cross being identified with a select social group and being criticized for elitism and hypocrisy ("the Red Cross is nothing but a sop to the conscience of the Swiss bourgeoisie!").

The democratic, federalist tradition of the Swiss State has served as a model for the organization of the Swiss Red Cross which, after several fruitless attempts at centralization, finally fell in a pattern of cantonal, regional and local branches, which sometimes enjoy considerable autonomy. This system has not been without its drawbacks, sometimes serious, such as the excessive disparity in the circumstances of the various branches, some being rich, powerful, well equipped, well staffed and active over a large area, while others have very modest resources, enjoy little support, are confined to a small locality and lack coordination in their activities. This inequality persists in the Swiss Red Cross, along with the very wide freedom of action and organization enjoyed by its associated bodies, now called corporate members. The best known of the latter is the Swiss Samaritan Alliance, which was set up in 1888 and has never given up its independence. Attempts to amalgamate the two have always failed, although the rivalry of former times has given way in recent decades to a staunch spirit of constructive cooperation.

As is the case with the Swiss Confederation, the National Society’s central bodies have gained in influence at the expense of peripheral structures, particularly the branches. This is largely due to the fact that each time a new task has been entrusted to the Swiss Red Cross, the central services at have had to be strengthened and have thus expanded from year to year. For example, the Nursing Secretariat, which had a handful of staff members at the end of the Second World War, has now grown into the Vocational Training Service and employs over 70 people. Then there is the Central Blood Transfusion Laboratory, which was set up in Bern in the early 1950s and now employs several hundred people, and the Society’s headquarters itself, which has
assumed proportions that its founders at the turn of the century could scarcely have imagined, going from a staff of four in 1906 to almost 140 today.

The growing professionalization of the Society's activities and the necessity for nationwide coordination and planning have also favoured the gravitation of responsibilities towards the centre. A similar pattern can be observed in individual cantons that comprised several branches or sub-branches (as many as 20 in the canton of Vaud in 1936), where the branches in the biggest towns have gradually become predominant. This comparison of the structure of the Swiss Red Cross with that of the Swiss Confederation could be extended to many other areas. What it would show, basically, is that a balance has been struck between the extremes of federalism and centralism and that the golden mean of unity amid diversity has proved narrow but beneficial and, above all, in harmony with the Swiss mentality and the requirements of humanitarian work.

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The policy of armed neutrality which our country has followed since 1815 has been a constant - and sometimes decisive - influence on the Swiss Red Cross.

The Society's activities, more perhaps than those of the ICRC, have developed and been perceived as the corollary of that policy: having itself avoided the horrors of war, Switzerland had a moral duty to take action in behalf of countries in conflict and show a generous response to the suffering of war victims, both civilian and military.

Four examples may be cited to illustrate this perceived duty to demonstrate solidarity towards the outside world: the internment of the "Bourbakis" (French soldiers) in 1871, the dispatch of medical teams to the front during the Balkan Wars in 1912-13, the repatriation of seriously wounded soldiers during the First World War and the Save the Children programme during the Second World War. These were all costly, large-scale operations and it is perhaps worth describing them as they left their mark on the collective memory and helped establish the reputation of both our Society and our country.

Conflict broke out in July 1870 between France under Napoleon III and Bismarck's Prussia. The latter quickly gained the upper hand and French forces were obliged to capitulate, one unit after the other. The eastern armies under General Bourbaki had been ordered to push eastwards across Burgundy and Franche-Comté, just north of the Swiss border, towards Alsace. At Héricourt they ran up against invincible
German positions and had to retreat to Besançon, then Pontarlier, “through an exceptionally harsh winter on roads covered with more than a metre of snow”. Finally, exhausted, they had no choice but to seek refuge in Switzerland.

The Swiss border along the Jura mountains was guarded by the Swiss army under the command of General Hans Herzog from Aarau. On 1 February 1871 an internment agreement was signed at Les Verrières and General Bourbaki’s 85,000 men were allowed to enter Switzerland, after laying down their arms, at the main crossing points of Les Verrières, Vallorbe and Jougne.

At news of this, a wave of enthusiasm swept through the population, “which showed by its actions that it fully shared Henry Dunant’s principles”.5 Under the auspices of the Red Cross and government authorities, “rich and poor vied to show hospitality and charity and provide care for the sick”.6 This resounding demonstration of solidarity inspired a number of artists such as Edouard Castres, who painted the famous “Panorama of Lucerne”, Albert Anker and Auguste Bachelin.

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During the 1912-13 Balkan Wars, the Swiss Red Cross was asked to help. In February 1913 it sent five medical teams to war zones in Serbia, Albania, Montenegro, Bulgaria and Greece (the famous Vaud-Geneva ambulance). The teams were well equipped and well trained and performed excellent work treating thousands of wounded people. This made an enormous difference: the Montenegrin army, for example, was 25,000 men strong but had only seven doctors! Nor was Turkey forgotten. Donations of money and shipments of clothing and food helped to relieve the suffering endured by the Ottoman army. The Swiss Hospital in Constantinople, run by a former student of the well-known Lausanne surgeon César Roux, treated hundreds of patients.

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6 Edgar Bonjour, La Neutralité suisse, synthèse de son histoire, A la Baconnière, Neuchâtel, 1979, p. 71.
During the First World War, the Swiss Red Cross again engaged in large-scale international activities. For example, it repatriated wounded and sick soldiers on special trains, traced prisoners and missing servicemen in conjunction with the ICRC’s Tracing Agency, sent relief supplies to the inhabitants of Vienna (early 1919) and to Swiss citizens in countries affected by the war. Arranging for the exchange of sick, wounded and disabled prisoners of war between the belligerent States consumed a considerable portion of the Society’s resources. Over a period of five years, from 1915 to 1920, it repatriated over 80,000 prisoners of war including 17,000 Germans, 30,000 French and Belgians, 13,000 Austrians and Hungarians, 3,200 Serbs and 17,500 Italians. For this purpose, hospital trains were fitted out to transport 300 to 350 people at a time. Each one was accompanied by Red Cross staff, trained nurses, volunteer first-aid workers and doctors. On 1 March 1915, the first two such trains left Bern, one on its way to Lyon in France and the other to Constance in Germany. In all, the Swiss Red Cross organized over 300 such trains to various destinations such as Constance, Lyon, Como, Monza, La Spezia, Munich, Stuttgart, Feldkirch and Héricourt.

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During the Second World War, the Save the Children programme for children in belligerent countries – “the innocent victims and Europe’s hope for the future” – was without doubt one of our finest endeavours. Some 100,000 Swiss families took in over 180,000 children for three-month periods and thus gave true meaning to the country’s role as a neutral State. These “Red Cross children” came mostly from France (67,000), the Benelux countries (16,000), Germany (23,000), Austria (27,700), Italy (5,500) and Hungary (5,300). In addition to receiving children in Switzerland itself, Save the Children organized large-scale assistance programmes in most European countries affected by the conflict: orphanages and school canteens were organized, food, clothing and medicines distributed, medical dispensaries opened, a sponsorship project set up whereby people could send individual children regular relief parcels, etc.

This generosity shown to children from neighbouring countries cannot, however, obscure the fact that on a number of occasions cold reasons of State silenced the call to humanitarian duty, especially when political opportunism prevented French Jewish children from being taken in. In that case, selfishness combined with fear to bring
about unconditional acquiescence with Vichy French legislation that ran counter to individual dignity.

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Since 1945, Switzerland has given a new interpretation to its policy of neutrality. As Edgar Bonjour put it, “this principle... which was formerly applied in a restrictive and even negative way to limit contacts and as a pretext for inaction, has now become associated with notions of solidarity, universality and willingness to help”.7 This has brought with it a more active foreign policy, especially in relations with the Third World, through the advent of Swiss development aid. The Swiss Red Cross has contributed to this effort since the 1950s with a number of programmes aimed mainly at promoting health, consolidating local community services and strengthening National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies in the Third World.

Nor has emergency assistance been neglected. On the contrary, thanks to coordination between the various organizations and public support for fund-raising campaigns launched on radio and television by the Swiss Red Cross, large sums have been collected each time a natural disaster has struck (Greece in 1953, Yugoslavia in 1972, Italy in 1980, Mexico in 1985, Armenia in 1989, etc.). Almost sixty countries have received Swiss Red Cross assistance in recent decades.

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Finally, mention must be made of the role played by the National Society in setting up public health services in Switzerland. The modern idea of the Red Cross as a “force for the promotion of hygiene and the dissemination of sound ideas and practices in the field of health”8 really took hold in the 1920s, thanks partly to encouragement from the League. Among the initiatives that demonstrate the leading role played by the Swiss Red Cross in health matters at the time were its courses for the public, social welfare and health centres staffed by nurses specially trained to treat poor people in their homes, advanced training for nurses, programmes to control epidemic diseases (in particular tuberculosis) and promotion of ambulatory medical care.

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7 Edgar Bonjour, op.cit., p. 228.
8 Alice Favre, in La Croix-Rouge suisse, 1 May 1910.
Following a series of plebiscites, the federal parliament adopted legislation to set up health and accident insurance in 1911, an old-age pension fund in 1947, disability insurance in 1960 and, more recently, occupational provident schemes. This development of a social security system in Switzerland has been closely followed by the National Society. The expansion, beginning in the 1960s, of its volunteer services in the areas of medical care and social services (transport for disabled people, mobile libraries, social and educational programmes in orphanages and other institutions, training for Red Cross health auxiliaries, etc.) has provided an appropriate response to the demands of a population that is ageing and thus increasingly under medical supervision.

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In spite of the difficulties – largely attributable, as we have seen, to the country's neutral status – of establishing a Red Cross Society in Switzerland, the ideals of Henry Dunant have become a vital part of Swiss culture, in both its national and its international aspects. The assertion that "the Red Cross is Switzerland's finest gift to the community of nations" should not be give rise to self-satisfaction. On the contrary, the close relationship between the Red Cross and Switzerland creates special obligations for the Swiss people and the country's government. Shall we be capable of taking other fertile initiatives, following the example of the Geneva Committee in 1863? Or shall we be increasingly concerned with preserving our material well-being, forgetting that tiny Switzerland can achieve a universal dimension only through humanity and greatness of spirit?

Philippe Bender
Deputy Head
Department of Health and Social Affairs
Swiss Red Cross

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ANNEX

The Swiss Red Cross (SRC) from 1866 to 1991


1870/1871: During the Franco-Prussian War, 85,000 soldiers from General Bourbaki’s army interned in Switzerland. In almost all the cantons, committees working under the Red Cross banner.

1882: The Swiss Central Red Cross Society set up to replace the inactive Association formed in 1866.

1898: The Central Secretariat for Voluntary Medical Assistance established to coordinate the work of the Central Red Cross Society, the Swiss Samaritan Alliance (founded in 1888) and the Swiss Society of Military Medical Personnel (founded in 1882).

1899: The Lindenhof School of Nursing set up by the SRC to train both professional and auxiliary nursing staff to care for the sick and injured in time of peace and in wartime.

1903: A federal decree on voluntary work to help the wounded and sick in wartime confirmed the leading role of the Swiss Red Cross in this area and thus in the development of nursing care.

1908: Messina earthquake (100,000 dead): emergency assistance and reconstruction programme.

1910: Adoption of the federal law protecting the red cross name and emblem.

1912/1913: Medical teams sent to the countries involved in the Balkan wars.

1914-1918: The SRC mobilized to reinforce the army medical services during the First World War. It was also assigned other tasks: social welfare assistance for destitute Swiss soldiers and repatriation of sick and wounded prisoners of war on hospital trains. Campaign to control Spanish influenza.

1922: Food aid and a team of volunteers sent to assist victims of the famine in Russia.

1925: First directives issued on professional nursing training.

1925: Several social welfare and health centres set up by various SRC branches. Services to civilians accounted for an increasing part of the Society’s work.
1936·1939: Evacuation of 2,500 children, women and elderly people from Madrid during the Spanish Civil War.

1939·1945: Second World War. In Switzerland, action taken by the SRC to help servicemen and the civilian population by making its personnel and equipment available, organizing a blood transfusion service and promoting nursing care. At the international level, the “Save the Children” programme launched (180,000 children from belligerent countries taken in by families in Switzerland), aid programmes set up in almost all European countries, assistance provided to civilians and servicemen interned in Switzerland and help given in evacuating 20,000 concentration camp inmates.

1949: The SRC assigned the task of meeting civilian and military blood needs and the Central Blood Transfusion Laboratory set up in Bern.

1950: Opening of the Zurich College of Nursing (followed by the Lausanne College in 1956). Health-care courses set up for the general public and a growing number of medical care and social welfare activities organized (work therapy, voluntary services and training of health auxiliaries). Involvement of the SRC in civil defence.

1956: Reception facilities set up for 10,000 Hungarian refugees arriving in Switzerland following the crushing of the revolt in Budapest.

1959: Similar arrangements made for 1,350 Tibetan refugees fleeing the Chinese invasion of their country.

1960·1990: In conjunction with the Swiss Confederation and a number of charitable organizations, SRC participation in emergency relief, reconstruction and development operations in some 60 regions throughout the world including the Congo, the Sahel, Indo-China, Yugoslavia, Ethiopia, Algeria, Italy, Mexico, Colombia, Bangladesh and Armenia.

1976: An agreement signed between the Swiss cantons and the SRC assigning the latter the task of formulating rules and standards for the training of nurses and nursing aides, medical technicians and other health-care staff.

1981: Recognition of the SRC by the Swiss federal authorities as a charitable organization within the meaning of the legislation governing the granting of asylum. Services set up by the SRC to help recognized asylum-seekers and refugees.

1991: The 125th anniversary of the SRC falls in the same year as the 700th anniversary of the Swiss Confederation, a coincidence which highlights the close relationship between Switzerland and the Red Cross.

P. B.
Challenges facing
the Swiss Red Cross at the dawn
of a new millennium

by Kurt Sutter

One hundred and twenty five years after it was founded, the Swiss Red Cross (SRC) benefits from the fact that people in Switzerland remember Henry Dunant and his achievements. Though most of them do not know exactly what the SRC does or distinguish between the various Red Cross institutions, 98% of the adult population are nevertheless familiar with the Red Cross, and consider it to be a good and important organization.

This goodwill is a great help to the SRC in that the confidence placed in us holds promise of the support the SRC will need to deal with the humanitarian tasks of the future. At the same time, however, it creates an obligation for the SRC in view of the developments forecast for our country.

If the SRC is to meet the challenges that lie ahead, it must:
- demonstrate its operational capacity at home and abroad;
- further develop its own structures and facilities for cooperation with its partners in the national and international arena;
- win the necessary support through modern public relations work to inform and convince the government, business circles and the general population.

To be sure, these various goals are interrelated: the restructuring of our Society, for example, will correspond directly to its changing tasks, and new projects will require well-timed public relations programmes.

Several important issues for the future of SRC operations at home and abroad are discussed in some detail below. The conclusion deals concisely with new forms of cooperation within the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.
I. CHALLENGES IN DAY-TO-DAY RED CROSS
   WORK AT HOME

A. What lies ahead for Switzerland?

There are enormous challenges ahead for the Red Cross, even in wealthy Switzerland, as shown by forecasts for the Swiss public health, social welfare and emergency services:

• **Growing number of elderly people**

   The proportion of elderly people in the population as a whole will rise markedly, whereas the number of young people entering medical and paramedical professions will drop. Self-help and non-professional help will play a far greater role in providing care for the sick and the elderly than in the past 20 years, even though the already high proportion of non-Swiss nursing staff continues to rise.

• **Gaps in the coordinated medical services**

   In spite of the new system of coordinating all public health and emergency medical services and in spite of considerable public relations work, it has not been possible in recent years to recruit sufficient staff to deal with possible natural or man-made disasters. There are not enough Swiss women who are willing to volunteer for the medical services of the Swiss civil defence organization or those of the army.

• **Too few blood donations**

   We are proud to note that Switzerland is completely self-sufficient in blood products. The foremost blood-donation service in the country is unquestionably that of the SRC. However, the number of blood donors is declining slightly every year and shortages are beginning to appear here and there in the summer holiday period.
• **Growing numbers on the fringes of society**

It has been somewhat of a shock in recent months to learn the results of surveys showing that 10-15% of the Swiss population live beneath the poverty level and that a further 10% are in danger of sinking below that level. Poverty is most frequently found among old people who, not having contributed to any supplementary pension fund, receive only small basic state pensions, as well as single parents, the chronically unemployed, drug addicts and people whose lives have been disrupted by personal hardship (divorce, illness, etc.).

More and more people are in danger of being marginalized (drugs, AIDS, poverty, alcohol, etc.) and no longer being able to meet their most basic needs. This includes the growing number of homeless people.

• **Asylum-seekers and refugees**

A steadily growing group on the fringes of society consists of asylum-seekers and people with acknowledged refugee status. With Swiss refugee policy virtually at a standstill, the sharply rising number of applications for asylum cannot be processed within 3-6 months and the sheer number of asylum-seekers not only exceeds the available accommodation but is touching off a dangerous xenophobic reaction in the population. Such xenophobia is a manifestation of fear vis-à-vis representatives of strange foreign cultures who are perceived as a threat to the standard of living achieved by the local Swiss.

B. What are the implications for the Swiss Red Cross?

**Strengthening people’s ability to help themselves**

For many years, the SRC has been organizing public courses in health maintenance and home nursing.

It is an unfortunate fact that people are often interested in such a course only when a family member has fallen ill and they have to learn how to care for him. Learning how to care for sick people means facing up to an unpleasant aspect of life which most people would rather ignore as long as possible.
The SRC must therefore constantly seek new ways of promoting these courses, making them an attractive leisure activity. It will also have to seek and test various new methods of disseminating information.

In all probability, however, the number of people attending these public courses will rise in the next 10 years, mainly because the limited capacity of hospitals and nursing homes will force more and more people to take care of relatives and neighbours.

The SRC’s main task will thus be to ensure that people know what courses are on offer and are able to take the SRC course they need within the shortest possible time.

Offering a wide range of volunteer activities

- Overburdened state services

Since the Second World War, the Swiss have become used to ridding themselves of difficult medical and nursing-care cases by ‘unloading’ them in state institutions. Growing materialism and a leisure-oriented mentality have not exactly facilitated the SRC’s attempts to encourage as many people as possible to take on volunteer humanitarian commitments. This probably ties in with the above-mentioned slight but steady decline in blood donation.

However, the situation is likely to change by the year 2000. When state services are no longer able to cope with all the social welfare and nursing-care needs, and everyone has to face the painful fact that life means giving as well as taking, people will once again become more willing to do their share.

- New trends in volunteer work

Whether people are prepared to do volunteer work partly depends on whether they can find an activity that they like doing. The range of SRC volunteer activities is very broad and in some regions includes ‘meals on wheels’, visiting services, mobile libraries and transport services. Other important activities are home nursing, assistance for refugees and administrative work. The SRC’s goal is to provide the greatest possible variety of volunteer activities for all sectors of society, including young people.
It is interesting to note that technological innovations can make new volunteer activities possible. Twenty years ago, for example, buses specially designed for disabled people were put into service not only to take people confined to wheelchairs in institutions on an outing once a year, but also to arrange get-togethers with school classes or give them and the volunteers taking care of them a chance to share new experiences. The advent of such buses has therefore served to motivate volunteers.

Recent years have seen a growing number of personal alarm devices in Switzerland. These are small radio transmitters that elderly or disabled people living alone wear around their neck or like a wrist-watch. Should they have an accident, they can press a button on the device that activates their telephone to call a neighbour, a relative or the police.

These devices need to be checked twice a month, meaning that someone must go to the person’s home. This has led to a new SRC visiting service. The alarm device gives the Red Cross volunteer a reason to come by every two weeks, the visit usually extending to a chat over tea or coffee.

The more challenging the task, the more closely volunteers must be supervised by professionals for whom the ability to work together with non-professional assistants is becoming increasingly important.

The SRC leads the field in Switzerland when it comes to ensuring optimum cooperation between professionals and non-professionals. It will have to place even greater stress upon this aspect of its work in future.

In recent years, the number of Red Cross volunteers and assistant nurses has steadily risen, but not as fast as have the needs.

- **New opportunities for non-professional staff**

With staff shortages growing serious, hospitals, old people’s homes, nursing homes and out-patient services have been increasingly obliged to hire non-professional assistant nurses on full-time or part-time basis. This arrangement suits many women looking for paid work. Often their tasks as housewives and mothers have led them to give up their previous jobs and, unable to become reintegrated in their original profession, they are now looking for jobs either because they need the money or for their own self-esteem (feeling exploited in the woman’s traditional domestic role).
As a result, the SRC is becoming the nation’s leading institute for the training of non-professional nursing staff. In several cantons, the SRC recruits and trains assistant nurses for the various institutions that need them. SRC nurses advise the professional staff who will be working together with the assistant nurses, arrange for the latter to meet and discuss their experience, and ensure that their training goes on.

As the SRC also organizes and supervises the training of qualified nursing staff, it will do even more in the future to ensure that professionals are prepared for working together with non-professional assistants.

**Medical services when disaster strikes**

Changes in East-West relations have prompted a discussion about the future of the Swiss army. Plans to reduce the army’s size will also affect the SRC, as it helps with the military medical services.

The reform of the army, scheduled for 1995, will therefore be accompanied by a reform of the civil defence organization. Both will entail a reorganization of the medical services for natural and man-made disasters. As already mentioned, these services are extremely short of staff.

The SRC’s own favourable experience can help, however, in planning for these reforms. Over the past four years the SRC has in fact, at minimal cost to itself, managed to attract almost one thousand former nurses to a two-day introductory course on medical care in disasters. Many of the participants said that they would be interested in further training and would be prepared to join in a Red Cross disaster-relief programme.

The Swiss Samaritans, an organization of first-aid volunteers that is affiliated to the SRC, has likewise found that many of its 50,000 members would be prepared to take part in disaster-relief work.

Thought is therefore being given to the possibility of both organizations jointly assuming responsibility for local first-aid posts. The SRC would provide the professional staff, the Samaritans the volunteers. Trials with this system will probably begin in 1992. It promises a way for the SRC and the Samaritans to provide sorely needed staff for the coordinated medical services.
Involving marginalized groups in Red Cross work

There is again visible poverty in Switzerland, due partly to the appearance of drug abuse in a number of cities and towns in the German-speaking part of the country, but also to soaring rents resulting from sharp increases in the mortgage rates. Both these causes of hardship in certain sections of the population have sparked a great deal of public debate over the past two years.

The problems associated with poverty will certainly loom ever larger for the SRC in coming years. The Red Cross cannot be expected to provide direct financial assistance to individuals or families. In any case, a social assistance safety net exists in Switzerland. But many poor people are ashamed of their situation or simply do not know what possibilities exist. This is where local branches of the SRC can play a role by offering encouragement to those in need, advising them in a tactful and kindly manner so that they can retain their dignity, approach the authorities without feeling humiliated and receive the assistance to which they are entitled.

• Drugs and AIDS: help is possible, but there are limits

In addition to the precautions taken within its blood donation service, the SRC has been working since 1988 to deal with the AIDS problem. But the SRC has nothing to do with the information campaigns being conducted among the general population and in schools. It limits its work to imparting more specific information during its public courses on medical care and preparing both its own personnel and non-Red Cross health workers to assist HIV-positive people and AIDS patients.

The Zurich branch in particular is active among drug users in the struggle to prevent the spread of AIDS. It is thought that drug addiction (including secondary manifestations such as prostitution) will become the main focus of the fight against AIDS.

The SRC is closely following the controversial debate on drug abuse and how to tackle it. Its sole concern in this is to stop the spread of AIDS. More ambitious objectives are for the moment unrealistic: social welfare activities for drug addicts would require highly qualified specialists and changes in the law. Reintegrating drug addicts into society is otherwise simply impossible.
Since opinions diverge widely as to the policy to be adopted towards drug addiction and those afflicted by it, any SRC activity in behalf of the latter inevitably comes in for criticism and the Society must use sound Red Cross arguments in its defence. But such arguments are not always understood, with the result that the SRC is from time to time refused contributions. Learning to cope with such conditions is a new challenge for the SRC and its local branches.

Steadfast help for refugees

When it comes to Switzerland’s asylum policy, we encounter political controversy of the same order that surrounds drug addiction. The right of asylum-seekers to receive humanitarian assistance from the Red Cross, and the latter’s duty to help them, regardless of whether or not their request for asylum is ultimately granted, constantly have to be made clear at all levels within the SRC. It is nonetheless already one of the two biggest refugee relief organizations in Switzerland and its allocation of staff and funds to this work has grown at a higher-than-average rate over the past three years.

It looks as though the SRC’s refugee-related work, too, will grow still further in the future as, among other things, it is becoming more and more difficult for state services to meet medical needs. For example, the University of Berne is currently conducting a study on refugees in Switzerland who have been tortured in their country of origin. Switzerland does not yet have the specific modes of treatment required to help such people.

Another area in which the SRC will be increasingly active in future is measures to conduct quick border checks on asylum-seekers to prevent the introduction into the country of dangerous communicable diseases.

2. CHALLENGES ABROAD

Assistance abroad has been an integral part of the SRC’s work for many years. In the past two decades, the extent of these activities has continuously grown, with dramatic surges when major disasters occur.

The SRC is currently engaged in emergency relief projects, reconstruction work (of a humanitarian nature) in disaster areas and development cooperation. In all three domains it has the official status of
partner to the relevant Swiss government agencies and thus is able to make use of public funds.

As the Society of a country in the heart of Europe, the SRC, like others, has questions of future cooperation between European National Societies to resolve.

Viewed from the angle of the fundamental principle of humanity, the prevention of human suffering is the best form that Red Cross work can take. Let us therefore look first at the SRC's commitment to development cooperation and the challenges involved, before going on to the more traditional tasks of emergency relief and reconstruction. Finally, we shall consider a few aspects of European cooperation.

A. Development cooperation

The goal of the SRC in this domain is to help check the mounting impoverishment of the Third World and to promote improvements in the health of the people living there. By so doing, the SRC intends to help redress the balance in standards of living not only between North and South but also within each Third World country, and generally preserve human life.

Conducted in close cooperation with its local partners, the SRC's projects are specifically designed to foster self-determined, balanced social development.

SRC projects also regularly aim to improve communication, encourage the use of appropriate technologies, protect the environment, promote cultural exchanges and improve the management skills of the Society's local partners.

Every operational objective is compatible with the organizational development of the local partners, in particular that of other Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

- Primary health care is a key concern

The SRC will continue to attach great importance to primary health care and community development. It will concentrate on countries where needs are greatest and where other pressing requirements make a reduction in government expenditure on public health and education imperative.
In its work to improve primary health care, the SRC concentrates on training “health promoters” and building up self-help community organizations, in particular in rural areas. In addition, support is provided in specific medical areas such as ophthalmology, blood donation services in Africa (including HIV checks) and intermediate health-care services, in particular in Indo-China. When possible, several projects in one country are combined to form a national programme so as to share resources and increase effectiveness.

The needs of the Third World are enormous. There is no limit to the possibilities for SRC projects around the world. Red Cross work has always been, and continues to be, the difficult task of making as much humanitarian progress as possible with far too little staff and money.

The SRC must therefore be very rigorous in selecting its priorities and must often turn down requests for help. Its responsibility towards its donors requires the SRC to demand a high degree of efficiency not only from its staff but also from its local partners. Nothing would hurt the SRC’s credibility more than media reports about mismanagement in its development projects. Regular monitoring by the Society itself and evaluations by outside experts are therefore an integral part of SRC development projects.

B. Humanitarian assistance

The SRC has been saying for years that emergency disaster relief should be provided with greater restraint, ensuring that it is appropriate and thus efficient. This recommendation remains as valid as ever. Disaster situations are still being misused to get rid of excess food stocks or to promote exports.

- Image-boosting — a dangerous obsession

The pressure created by the modern media (television teams seem to be at the scene of a disaster almost before the very first relief workers arrive), which are after sensational stories to catch the public eye, encourages the tendency of many humanitarian organizations to deploy huge human and material resources to get into the limelight and only then look around for a way of legitimizing their presence.
However it may wish to maintain its media image, the Red Cross must resist the temptation to follow suit.

This refusal can, in the short term, prove difficult and costly in terms of image. The SRC, for example, risked criticism when it refused to take part in an emergency programme to send relief parcels which was being promoted by major retailers and local radio stations. Nothing would have been worse, however, than to have been involved in an operation that was recognized by SRC representatives on the spot to be unnecessary. The competing media would certainly have criticized the SRC’s misjudgement. The Red Cross does not need to react faster than it already does with its modern means of transport and communication. What it must do, above all, is remain reliable and credible for the general public on whom it depends.

- **Tried and tested cooperation**

In Switzerland, the government-financed Swiss Disaster Relief Corps, the Swiss Federal Air Ministry, two member organizations of the SRC, namely the Swiss Airborne Rescue Service and the Swiss Association of Rescue Dog Handlers, and the SRC itself with its store of equipment and experts experienced in sending and distributing relief supplies have all banded together to form a “life line”. It has a firm policy of launching relief action only on the basis of well founded and specific appeals for help from countries concerned or of reports from its own investigation team.

The SRC thus refuses to be drawn into poorly organized but media-hype relief operations. Like all other private aid organizations, however, it is faced with the fact that part of its previous high-profile emergency aid is being superseded by food aid from governments, sometimes also using military units (means of transport).

- **A new role for the Red Cross**

It goes without saying that traditional aid organizations still have a role to play, but that role tends to be discreet and inconspicuous. The desire, particularly in military circles, to appear in a good light at the expense of the Red Cross is a long-term problem and requires changes in the ground rules for cooperation. Would it not be possible to put military units temporarily under Red Cross command?
When the acute phase of a disaster is over and the media have departed, the Red Cross and other experienced aid organizations remain behind to get to grips with the vital task of reconstruction.

After the initial emergency response, reconstruction work often leads into longer-term development cooperation. We are increasingly forced to recognize that natural disasters and the ravages of conflict are only the visible and most spectacular part of chronic crises with economic, ecological and political causes. Being brought face to face with the immediate needs of a disaster area should not blind us to the root causes of the problem or prevent us from taking appropriate action to help the most disadvantaged people in the Third World.

The knowledge that reconstruction must follow in the wake of disaster will in future influence the conduct of emergency operations to a greater extent than previously. Among other things, care must be taken as regards the delivery of foodstuffs and clothing that quickly have a disruptive effect on local markets. The local procurement of supplies will probably continue to gain in importance.

3. NEW AREAS OF COOPERATION IN EUROPE

Like many of its sister Societies, the SRC has separate departments for internal and foreign affairs and they have long worked practically independently of one another. This has been possible because their respective tasks were very different.

Over the past three years, however, mass migrations and the growing number of refugees have brought about a change in this respect. It started when counselling offices for asylum-seekers who have been turned down by the Swiss authorities were opened by the SRC branches in Lausanne and Geneva in late 1985 and early 1986 respectively. The increasing number of such cases has prompted the SRC’s Refugee Service, which is attached to its Internal Affairs Department, to study the situation not only in the asylum-seekers’ countries of origin but also in potential host countries.
• Coordinated thought and action to deal with complex problems

Since 1989, when means of tackling the root causes of forced migration and refugee flows began to be considered in Switzerland, an exchange of views has been established between the SRC’s Internal Affairs and Foreign Affairs Departments.

At the same time, the refugee services of the various Western European Red Cross Societies have begun working together very closely to share their experience and seek solutions. Policy matters have also been discussed.

International contacts have thus ceased to be the prerogative of departments for international humanitarian assistance and development cooperation.

In addition, an AIDS task force was set up two years ago by the North American and Western European Red Cross Societies. This is yet another example of international contact between domestic services.

It is becoming increasingly clear that virtually every activity carried out by the domestic services of Western European National Societies stands to gain by a regular international exchange of experiences even though what works in one country cannot automatically be taken over by another. Joint discussion about the process of political integration in Europe is of growing importance and the social consequences of that process have quite rightly been raised on several occasions at international Red Cross meetings.

• Improvisation will not be enough

All this is still largely unstructured and is often the result of spontaneous initiative. There is as yet no satisfactory, institutionalized pan-European Red Cross forum. It does not exist in Western Europe, where the SRC as the National Society of a non-EC country considers itself fortunate to be able to take part in international meetings, to say nothing of Europe as a whole from the Atlantic to the Black Sea.

Cooperation with the Red Cross Societies of the former Eastern bloc is therefore a new experience for the SRC. This task will probably have to be shared by our Society’s Foreign Affairs and Internal Affairs Departments, because of its dual nature. On the one hand, the recent political upheavals in Eastern Europe have left some National Societies there in a void, reducing them to the same level of development as some National Societies in the Third World. At the same
time, however, the National Societies of Eastern Europe find themselves confronted with tasks for which the know-how of the internal affairs departments of their sister Societies in Western Europe is needed.

Thus along with the changing political scene, reorganization and reorientation is the order of the day for the Red Cross in Europe. The Swiss Red Cross has no pat solution to offer, but it is ready to take part in the search.

Kurt Sutter
Deputy Secretary General
Swiss Red Cross
"THE HUMANITARIAN SPIRIT OF GENEVA"

The Swiss Confederation is celebrating its 700th anniversary this year and numerous commemorative activities are being organized throughout the country. In Geneva several events focusing on the city's humanitarian and international vocation have already been held.

A ceremony to commemorate the first international mission to assist wounded soldiers, which was carried out in June 1859 on the Lombardy front by four delegates of the Geneva Evangelical Society, was held by the Henry Dunant Institute, the Geneva Red Cross, the Evangelical Society itself and the Oratory Parish Community on 12 February 1991 in the presence of representatives of the Republic and Canton of Geneva, the City of Geneva, the ICRC and the various associations concerned.

A commemorative plaque was laid by the organizers to recall that this mission of assistance and observation served as an inspiration for the work later carried out by the Red Cross in numerous theatres of operations, for Henry Dunant had it in mind when he proposed, at the time of the founding of the Red Cross, the establishment of relief societies auxiliary to the armed forces' medical services and neutral status for medical personnel and wounded soldiers. The Committee of Five was undoubtedly also following the same example when it decided in 1864 during the Danish War to send Louis Appia to the Austro-Prussian front and Captain van de Velde to Denmark.

* * *

Another ceremony was held on 21 March 1991 to honour General Guillaume-Henri Dufour, a co-founder of the Red Cross who has been described as the most popular and well-known Swiss public figure of
the nineteenth century. During the ceremony, organized by the Geneva Historical and Archeological Society, a plaque was unveiled on the house where he lived for thirty years and worked with Henry Dunant to found the Red Cross. Mention was made of the extent to which General Dufour, a hero of Switzerland's Sonderbund War of 1847, had provided a lesson in humanity in the midst of fighting by his instructions to his troops and had shown an awareness that restraint on the battlefield was the first step towards reconciliation. General Dufour also played a key role in establishing an inseparable link between the Red Cross and Switzerland, a fact that merited recollection during this 700th anniversary year.

* * *

On 8 May 1991, World Red Cross and Red Crescent Day, representatives of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, the Republic and Canton of Geneva and the City of Geneva inaugurated a Red Cross historical walk, which will remain open to the public until October. Organized by the Henry Dunant Society and the Geneva Red Cross, this walk through Geneva's old town connects twenty sites that played a significant role in the past 125 years of Red Cross history. These sites, marked by descriptive panels, include the house in which Henry Dunant was born and the Collège Calvin where he completed his secondary studies, the former Saint-Pierre Casino where the first Committee, which was subsequently to become the ICRC, was formed, the homes of Gustave Moynier, Henry Dunant and Théodore Maunoir, the Palais Eynard where the Geneva Red Cross came into being, the Palais de l' Athénée where the First International Conference of the Red Cross was held in October 1863, the Town Hall where the Diplomatic Conference of 8 to 22 August 1864 met, discussed and adopted the original Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded in Armies in the Field, the Rath Museum where the ICRC set up the International Prisoners of War Agency in October 1914, the first headquarters of the League of Red Cross Societies, the

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first Geneva nurses' station and the headquarters of the Geneva Samaritans.

At the inaugural ceremony in the Geneva Town Hall the President of the ICRC, Cornelio Sommaruga, spoke as follows:

"We are gathered here in the very cradle of the Red Cross, in the crucible of charitable endeavour that gave rise to and continues to sustain the work of the ICRC. We are at the very spot at which the generous impulses and initiatives of several years converged and assumed tangible form in the signing, in 1864, of the First Geneva Convention, thus scoring a great victory for humanity and launching a universal Movement of unprecedented scale whose members strive today, as in the past, to carry forward the work begun in Solferino.

The Red Cross historical walk [...] is a fitting commemoration of the Confederation's 700th anniversary in that a parallel may be drawn between the humanitarian values of the Red Cross and those adopted by our forefathers in 1291 when the Swiss Confederation was founded: mutual assistance in the face of violence, a sense of a common heritage, respect for fellow human beings, a spirit of solidarity, humility, tolerance and a desire for conciliation and arbitration. We must not forget that it is these virtues, nurtured over the centuries in our homeland, which constitute our strength and which the ICRC has been striving steadfastly to promote for the past 128 years by a mobilization of humanitarian endeavour [...].

To retrace the origins of the Red Cross by following in the footsteps of Henry Dunant is for all of us to gain a heightened awareness of its underlying inspiration. This journey through time sheds new light on the circumstances that shaped our vocation, strengthens our resolve never to compromise our ideals and reminds us that solidarity is never more effective than when it finds expression in the sharing of humble tasks. It also impresses upon us the need to remain always in the vanguard of efforts to bring about true peace".

* * *

Geneva's official celebration of the 700th anniversary, an event entitled "Geneva: a humanitarian tradition", was held on 1 June 1991. During this event the "Road to Peace" and its "Archway to Peace" were inaugurated in the presence of numerous officials, including Federal Councillor René Felber, the President of the Geneva State Council, Bernard Ziegler, the President of the Basel-Land State
Council, Hans Fünfschilling, the Director-General of the United Nations Office at Geneva, Jan Martenson, and ICRC President Cornelio Sommaruga.

The "Road to Peace", which curves up between the United Nations building and ICRC headquarters in Geneva, is marked by seven arches set at intervals along it and connected by a string of flags from all nations suspended above them. The arches, which symbolize humanity's progress towards peace, consist of separate branches that reach towards each other without joining until the final arch where they meet "like hands linking the United Nations and the Red Cross".

During the inaugural ceremony Bernard Ziegler spoke about the major challenges facing Switzerland on the threshold of the twenty-first century. René Felber then highlighted the importance of humanitarian commitment and solidarity with the underprivileged peoples of the world and launched a fervent appeal for greater respect for the Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols. Jan Martenson stressed the humanism and outward-looking spirit characteristic of the city of Calvin, which he said had undoubtedly been strongly conducive to the exceptional development of international life in Geneva. This point was endorsed by Hans Fünfschilling, who paid tribute to Geneva's international and humanitarian tradition. Lastly, Cornelio Sommaruga, in an address entitled "Peace through Solidarity", said that the "Road to Peace", a symbol of Geneva's international and humanitarian vocation, stood for the "steadfast and repeated efforts of humanitarian organizations to alleviate suffering, ensure respect for humanitarian law, fight injustice, underdevelopment and disease, promote the use of peaceful means of resolving conflicts and encourage international understanding through dialogue".

* * *

The International Red Cross and Red Crescent Museum has also contributed to the 700th anniversary celebration by mounting an exhibition entitled The Face of Humanity in cooperation with the Geneva Red Cross, the ICRC, the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, the Association of Geneva Samaritan Societies, the Henry Dunant Institute and the Henry Dunant Society.

The exhibition, which opened at the Museum on 30 May and will remain on display until 30 October, consists of drawings by 37 Swiss and foreign illustrators and cartoonists depicting in sometimes naïve, sometimes acerbic, but always humorous terms the principles and
activities of the Red Cross and Red Crescent. The drawings, which were donated to the Red Cross by the artists, are for sale and the proceeds will be used to purchase first-aid kits for young Gambian Red Cross relief workers.

J.M.
ADDRESS BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

I should like to welcome you all to this important meeting which will consider the implications of the possible use in the future of a new type of weapon, and of a new method of warfare.

The International Committee of the Red Cross has the tasks, inter alia, of working for the faithful application of humanitarian law and preparing for its development. Its aim is, and has always been, to attempt to reduce the suffering caused by war as far as possible in relation both to the methods of warfare and to the protection and assistance to be given to victims. Its concern as to the effects of weapons is an old one. I am referring in particular here to the efforts which the ICRC undertook formally to outlaw the use of chemical weapons. We published in February 1918 an appeal that strongly protested against the use of poison gas, referring in particular to the terrible suffering it inflicted on soldiers. The ICRC appealed to the sentiment of humanity of the governments of the time and subsequently sent letters to the League of Nations and to governments urging them to conclude an agreement prohibiting the use of chemical weapons. This eventually led to the signature of the 1925 Protocol. Since that time the ICRC hosted two expert meetings in the 1970s which studied a number of modern weapons. The direct outcome of those meetings was the Convention adopted in 1980 by the United Nations, commonly referred to as the Inhumane Weapons Convention. However, discussions begun during those expert meetings were not completed; in particular it was agreed that further research was necessary on the effects of certain new weapons, and that information on other weapons, including laser weapons, was so scanty and undeveloped at that time as to preclude any real analysis. The present range of the
1980 treaty is thus very limited and does not fully meet the concerns of experts as to the suffering that some weapons may unnecessarily cause.

The terms of the ICRC appeal of 1918 continue to be of importance today. In this appeal the Committee recalled that the purpose of the law of war is to limit cruelty, but that far from achieving this aim, the progress of science had only aggravated suffering so that war would soon become a method of general and merciless destruction. The fears expressed in the appeal of 1918 have unfortunately proved all too justified. The weapons used in the Second World War indeed caused exceptional destruction and now the world has accumulated means of destruction of unprecedented proportions. Wise guidance on the use of new technology is therefore essential for our common good and indeed ultimate survival. The havoc that scientific developments could wreak must not be accepted as inevitable, as if technology were an independent beast that cannot be controlled. Total liberty of arms development, however attractive it may seem from the point of view of certain specific interests, could ultimately lead to disaster for all.

Here we may use an analogy of particular relevance today: industrial developments in the past, which were carried out without concern for the environment, were not undertaken with the intention of destroying the planet, but they have in fact led to this real possibility. Each of these developments, mostly undertaken for perfectly valid reasons, did not seem of dramatic importance when taken separately, but their accumulated effects has led to very serious consequences.

In the same way, inhumane treatment of a few people may be a troubling symptom of a general unconcern as to the treatment of people in general, and this in turn tends to lead to widespread cruelty.

As far as the development of weapons is concerned, the ICRC has become aware of a very disturbing trend which could seriously undermine the essence of humanitarian law. This trend is the increasing indifference to the suffering of soldiers — an increasingly cynical acceptance of horror and cruelty inflicted on them without thought as to whether this is fully necessary for military purposes. Although concern for the civilian population is fortunately taken seriously, it is with alarm that we are witnessing the suffering of soldiers being dismissed as a non-issue. Lip-service is being paid to the rules, but we have seen a tragic lack of real interest in the reason for these rules and even less interest in their conscientious implementation. Soldiers are human beings, yet they are increasingly being treated as objects. The essence of humanitarian law is respect for human beings, to be implemented as best as possible in situations of armed conflict. Inten-
tionally inflicting long-term suffering on soldiers, which will affect their families and the society they live in, has long-term negative implications on the fabric of society and on relations between States. Indifference to the fate of persons undermines the moral force of a society and runs counter to efforts to respect human rights and human dignity. If the tragedy of war cannot be avoided, then at least we surely have the means of reducing the effects of the tragedy. The fundamental philosophy of humanitarian law was already indicated in the 1868 St. Petersburg Declaration and repeated in later treaties, namely that:

"...the progress of civilization should have the effect of alleviating as much as possible the calamities of war...".

It is interesting to note that this treaty prohibited the use of a type of bullet against soldiers at the request of the very State that developed it.

"Civilization" therefore means wisdom, insight as to the morality and long-term implications of what we are doing. Experience has shown that the desire to be one step ahead in the development of means of destruction has led to a costly and frightening arms race. Costly to everyone, because exclusive ownership of the new means is always short-lived, and the developer is then himself threatened by his own invention. Little or nothing is gained in the long term, and increased suffering, fear and expense ensue.

This true meaning of civilization underlies humanitarian law, and we firmly believe that it is urgent and essential for the modern world to take this seriously. The implementation of this philosophy had led to specific rules prohibiting the use of certain weapons, but there is evidence that much research is being done to discover yet new methods of destruction, doubtless involving large investments of money and effort. State representatives may then be obliged to defend the new inventions simply because they are there and may give a short-term advantage, or because they are still seeking ways to use the new inventions.

This, however, violates the fundamental purpose and spirit both of humanitarian law and also of arms control agreements which are better known amongst the public. Publicly limiting or abolishing existing or old weapons whilst secretly developing new horrors tragically misleads the population, which then believes that progress is being made, and which has the right to look to its leaders for the preparation of a better future. Justifying the development of new horrors by arguing that they are not worse than old horrors, or that
these methods have existed since the Middle Ages, does not lead to the progress of civilization. On such a basis we could never agree to try to eliminate torture for example.

On a more positive note, let me acknowledge that a lot of genuine work for the control of the development and use of weapons is being carried out and is to be encouraged.

All this is, of course, evident to you all, for I am privileged to be addressing an exceptionally experienced group of experts. The ICRC has intentionally invited you all here this week in your personal capacity so that you can carefully consider the particular subject we are discussing in the light of these fundamental considerations, a subject which has been addressed by three different gatherings convened by the ICRC since the International Conference of the Red Cross of 1986. We hope that this will allow a frank and constructive discussion, unencumbered by the limitations of strict prior governmental instructions. I wish you all an interesting and useful week and once again thank you very much for your presence and attention.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE ROUND TABLE

This address was given by the ICRC President at the opening of the fourth of a series of expert meetings which considered the use of new laser weapons to permanently blind enemy soldiers.

The ICRC had initially been alerted to this problem by the mention, in a number of technical and military publications, of the fact that both vehicle-mounted lasers and hand-held laser rifles are being developed which appear to have two purposes: the destruction of sensors on vehicles, and the targeting of soldiers’ eyes. Several governments voiced their concern about this development at the International Conference of the Red Cross in 1986 and the ICRC decided to study the subject in more detail.

The ICRC hosted a first Round Table in June 1989 which comprised technical and military experts in laser weapons, ophthalmologists, psychologists specialized in the effects of blindness and specialists in international humanitarian law. This meeting indicated that the problem was sufficiently serious to warrant further study.

On 31 May-1 June 1990 the ICRC hosted a working group of highly specialized experts who studied the characteristics of these laser weapons according to unclassified reports and assessed the effects that they would have. The experts found that for the anti-personnel/anti-
sensor weapons under development it was probable that the range over which permanent damage to the eyes is caused would be about one kilometer with a beam width of about 50 cm. A person who is at a greater distance than this may suffer only flashblindness or dazzle, but the exact ranges for these lesser effects cannot be determined because the laser is affected by atmospheric changes and the threshold between flashblindness and permanent blindness is very narrow. The experts pointed out that the technology now exists to make very small and light lasers that are dangerous for eyesight and also recalled the fact that range-finders and target designators mostly use lasers that are non-eyesafe. It would appear that a number of accidents have already occurred with range-finders resulting in permanent blindness, and concern was felt that these could be intentionally used for this purpose outside their normal role. The experts pointed out that the damage caused to the eye would be irreversible in the vast majority of cases and that there is no viable protection that soldiers can wear.

On 5-7 November 1990 the ICRC hosted a second working group which assessed the impact of blindness in the context of the effects of other battlefield injuries. The group included specialists in the effects of different types of injuries and psychiatrists specialized in battle trauma. The group found that blindness is exceptionally debilitating, even when compared with the worst of injuries, and that rehabilitation is difficult, allowing at best the recovery of only a fraction of the person’s previous skills. They also found that blindness-causing weapons increase the amount of mental illness suffered by soldiers: in most cases blindness causes severe and long-lasting depression and the fear of a weapon that can cause sudden blindness silently and invisibly is likely to be great.

The second Round Table of 9-11 April 1991 gathered 37 governmental officials from 22 countries, who attended in their personal capacity, and eight private experts. Its purpose was to use the information gathered by the working groups in order to study whether the use of such weapons to inflict permanent blindness amounts to cruelty that is excessive for military purposes, thereby violating international humanitarian law. The group also had the task of studying whether, irrespective of the legal assessment, there are sufficient policy reasons to take certain measures.

The President’s speech, given at the beginning of this meeting, indicated some of the difficulties that the ICRC has faced when carrying out its work on the legal and humanitarian problems that arise from the use of certain new weapons. Apart from the difficulty of access to information (research on new weapons development is
mostly classified), the ICRC has also found that the legal rule prohibiting the use of weapons that cause unnecessary suffering is frequently interpreted as narrowly as possible in order to limit practical restrictions in weapons development and use. The President therefore appealed in his speech to the participants to consider this question more generally in the light of major policy factors.

At the beginning of the meeting’s working sessions, the ICRC indicated that although it had not taken an official position as to whether the use of such weapons to permanently blind is already illegal under international humanitarian law, there is, in its opinion, a need for some sort of regulation given the seriousness of the situation as established by the two working groups of experts.

When considering the lawfulness of the anti-personnel use of laser weapons, the ICRC reviewed the legal rules that were of relevance for this discussion and indicated that as lasers are not inherently indiscriminate, the most pertinent legal provision for this discussion is the rule prohibiting the use of weapons of a nature to cause unnecessary suffering or superfluous injury. As this rule applies to both means and methods of warfare, a weapon may either inherently cause unnecessary suffering and thus all uses are prohibited, or it may cause such suffering in certain cases only. In making an assessment of whether the suffering caused is excessive in relation to the military purpose, a yardstick often used is whether another weapon, with a less serious consequence, could reasonably achieve the military aim. The ICRC recalled that in accordance with the wording of the 1868 St. Petersburg Declaration, anti-personnel weapons cannot render death inevitable or needlessly aggravate the suffering of disabled men. This principle appears to have been interpreted in not such a strict fashion as the wording may imply, since subsequent treaties have outlawed weapons which render death probable or cause excessive suffering in the majority of cases. The terror value of a horrific weapon was specifically rejected at St. Petersburg as a valid military aim within the meaning of this rule.

In making an assessment of the military value of laser weapons being used against soldiers, a number of military advantages of lasers were pointed out by participants during the discussion period: lasers travel at the speed of light and in a straight path, rendering ballistic calculations unnecessary, and the energy for laser weapons can be stored in renewable batteries, which are much lighter than heavy ammunition. Possible human targets for laser weapons include infantry, ground artillery teams, personnel using binoculars or sights, drivers of tanks and the crew of aircraft. Certain disadvantages were
also pointed out: lasers are affected by atmospheric conditions — warm air enhancing their effect and pollution and smoke reducing it. Lasers cannot be lobbed around a building or over a hill and have no effect on infantry if their backs are turned. It was generally considered that there is a military utility in the use of lasers against incoming aircraft in order to prevent an attack, although it was recognized that an aircraft definitely perceived as hostile would be shot down. Their use against tank crew was also thought possible in certain circumstances. On the other hand, it was thought that conventional weaponry would be more reliable for rendering infantry hors de combat. For any of these uses, lasers would be an additional weapon to those already existing rather than a replacement. Certain special cases were pointed out where the careful use of a laser would reduce the danger of collateral damage, such as the targeting of a sniper or a look-out post in a concentration of civilians.

The principal legal controversy arose in relation to the use of lasers against infantry. There was a great deal of argument around the fact that the laser weapons under consideration do not kill, whereas conventional weapons do. A number of participants pointed out that it would be fallacious simply to compare blindness with death. Weapons that render death inevitable or likely (e.g. poisoned weapons, dumdum bullets) are prohibited, whereas other anti-personnel conventional weapons produce a wide range of effects with statistically a one-in-four chance of death.

Given the disagreement as regards the assessment of the rule prohibiting methods or means causing unnecessary suffering, an extensive discussion took place on the policy factors that should be taken into account in deciding on possible regulation. Views were put forward to the effect that civilization would be taking a retrograde step if it countenanced weapons which inflicted the cruel and unusual punishment of blinding and that it was disheartening that at a time when intensive efforts were taking place to reduce weapons, discussions were being held on the introduction of new ones. Many participants thought that intentionally blinding was socially unacceptable. Some participants thought that lasers would not particularly add to the suffering already seen in war.

A great deal of stress was laid on the likely proliferation of the laser weapons under development, in particular the portable ones. It was pointed out that these weapons are easy to transport and store and that they would find their way into all kinds of conflicts, including internal ones. Another policy concern that was voiced was the spread of these weapons to international terrorism and organized crime.
The meeting lastly considered the possible types of legal regulation. The ICRC pointed out the various means that can be used to prohibit or restrict the use of weapons, namely, the total ban on the use of a weapon; the prohibition of certain uses of a particular weapon; the prohibition of weapons that have a certain effect; and, lastly, the prohibition of certain types of behaviour without any reference to the characteristics of a weapon.

Although a small minority of participants thought that no legal regulation was necessary, the majority was in favour of the last legal option, namely, the prohibition of blinding as a method of warfare and, more specifically, the prohibition of intentionally blinding soldiers or certain categories of soldiers. Many participants explained their preference for this solution by pointing out that the prohibition of blinding as such would be better understood than express limitations on battlefield lasers which are, in general, viewed favourably. This solution would also cover blinding by any weapon, not just lasers, which are partly or exclusively developed for this purpose.

A further suggestion was made that a regulation might be undertaken in anticipation of possible future developments, to prohibit the use of any means or methods of warfare of a nature to cause serious permanent disability by deliberately impairing specific and critical bodily functions.

With regard to the method by which a legal regulation could be undertaken, the two principal proposals put forward were a separate diplomatic conference for this purpose or an additional protocol to the 1980 Convention on weapons. Many participants saw certain difficulties with both of these courses, and thought that in any event the will of States to outlaw the intentional blinding of soldiers needs first to be established before the method is considered.

A first discussion to this effect could take place at the International Conference of the Red Cross and Red Crescent in 1991 in Budapest, which has this subject on its agenda.

Louise Doswald-Beck
ICRC APPEAL FOR RESPECT
FOR INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW
IN YUGOSLAVIA

The International Committee of the Red Cross is deeply concerned about the gravity of the situation in Yugoslavia and its consequences in humanitarian terms.

The ICRC calls on all the parties to respect international humanitarian law and to ensure that it is respected by everyone involved in the fighting.

The civilian population and people hors de combat must not be attacked and must be protected from any act of violence. Persons captured must be treated humanely and the wounded and sick must be cared for in all circumstances.

The ICRC urges all parties to respect the protective red cross emblem, so that those displaying it in the course of their humanitarian activities can do their work safely and without constraint of any kind. Misuse of the emblem is prohibited under international humanitarian law.

The ICRC also trusts that the parties concerned will continue to grant its representatives and those of the Red Cross of Yugoslavia and of the Republics the facilities required to enable the Red Cross to bring assistance to all victims of the clashes. (No. 1673/2 July 1991).
ICRC APPOINTS NEW MEMBER

At its latest meeting on 26 and 27 June 1991, the Assembly of the International Committee of the Red Cross appointed a new member, Ms. Francesca Pometta. Her appointment brings the membership of the Committee, which is composed exclusively of Swiss citizens, to 22.

Ms. Francesca Pometta is originally from Broglio in the Canton of Ticino. After receiving an arts degree from the University of Lausanne, she entered the Federal Department of Foreign Affairs in Bern in 1957 and subsequently held diplomatic posts in Paris, Washington, New York, Bern and Rome. In 1975, she returned to Bern to take up the position of Deputy Director at the Directorate for International Organizations, and in 1977 was appointed Ambassador in charge of the Directorate’s Political Division III (UN and international organizations, scientific and environmental matters, cultural affairs and UNESCO). From 1982 to 1987, she was Switzerland’s Permanent Observer at the UN in New York and then Ambassador to Rome from 1987 to 30 June 1991, when she retired from government service.

Ms. Pometta was Switzerland’s Head of Delegation at the International Conferences of the Red Cross in Bucharest in 1977 and in Manila in 1981. She was also a member of the Swiss delegation at the Diplomatic Conference on the Reaffirmation and Development of International Humanitarian Law applicable in Armed Conflicts, held in Geneva from 1974 to 1977.

Ms. Pometta will take up her duties on 1 September 1991.
Greece (19-23 May)

ICRC President Cornelio Sommaruga, accompanied by Mr. Jean-François Berger, regional delegate for the Balkan States, and Ms. Marlyse Schaer from the Division for Principles and Relations with the Movement were in Greece from 19 to 23 May 1991 at the invitation of the Hellenic Red Cross. The principal aims of their mission were to pay an official visit to the National Society and learn more about its activities, and to meet with the Greek authorities to discuss ways of promoting knowledge of international humanitarian law and other matters relating to ICRC activities.

At a meeting of the Hellenic Red Cross Council convened by Mr. Gerasimos Apostolatos, the Society’s President, Mr. Sommaruga reviewed the ICRC’s activities around the world, focusing on the operation carried out by the ICRC and a number of National Societies in the Gulf. A discussion ensued on a number of topics, including the coordination system used by the ICRC in conflict situations.

Following the meeting, Mr. Sommaruga was awarded a gold medal with laurel leaves, the National Society’s highest decoration, in recognition of his outstanding humanitarian service to the international community.

The ICRC President then visited the National Society’s “telemedicine” centre where he viewed a number of installations belonging to the long-range maritime medical information network (informing ships at sea of the location of first-aid stations and hospitals that could assist injured or sick people on board) and a computerized information system enabling specialists to give advice on treatment of patients at a distance. The system can, for example, transmit an electrocardiogram from a patient on a remote island to a heart specialist in Athens.

Mr. Sommaruga also visited the National Society’s Henry Dunant Institute. The mandate of the Institute, which was set up in March 1990, is to work closely with the universities to promote knowledge of
international humanitarian law. It organizes seminars and lectures and publishes material concerning the Red Cross and other social welfare organizations. Mr. Sommaruga assured the Hellenic Red Cross that the ICRC would provide the institute with support in the realm of publications and documentation.

* * *

While in Athens the ICRC President was received by Mr. Konstantinos Karamanlis, Greece’s Head of State, Mr. Konstantinos Mitsotakis, the Prime Minister, Mr. Tzannis Tzanetakis, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Culture, and Ms. Marietta Yannakou, Minister of Health, Welfare and Social Security, Mr. Yannis Varvitiotis, Minister of National Defence, and Mr. Georges Papastamkos, Deputy Minister for Foreign Affairs.

The government officials all expressed their appreciation of the ICRC’s vital humanitarian role and their gratitude for its work on many occasions in the past to assist conflict victims in Greece.

The discussions that followed focused on compliance with international humanitarian law, in particular the need to step up efforts to promote awareness of its principles and basic rules among members of the armed forces and the importance of ratifying the Additional Protocols. The President later talked with some of those present on more specific subjects such as the problem of misuse of the red cross emblem, ratification by Greece of Protocol II and financial support for the ICRC from the Greek government.

He also took advantage of the opportunity to give a general account of ICRC activities to President Karamanlis and the various ministers present.

Mr. Sommaruga gave two lectures, one organized by the National Society at the Athens Museum of Ethnology, where he appealed to governments, National Societies and the general public to strive for greater awareness of humanitarian issues, and the other at the Athens exhibition centre, where he spoke at the invitation of the Jean Gabriel Eynard Greek-Swiss Friendship League. This second lecture, which was held to mark the 700th anniversary of the Swiss Confederation, was entitled “The ICRC’s humanitarian mandate as reflected in its work in Greece and throughout the world”.

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Italy (21-22 June)

On the occasion of the 400th anniversary of the death of St. Aloysius of Gonzaga, who was born in Castiglione delle Stiviere, His Holiness Pope John Paul II met representatives of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement in the city’s Chiesa Maggiore on 22 June. The ICRC was represented by President Sommaruga, who had been invited to attend by the Mayor of Castiglione. The Mayor stressed how appropriate it was that the meeting should be held “in the very place where the Red Cross idea was born”.

In his address, the Pope spoke of the action taken on the battlefield of Solferino, and even in that very church, by Henry Dunant and the inhabitants of surrounding villages. Then, greeting Mr. Sommaruga and leading officials of the Italian Red Cross by name, he expressed his profound esteem for the work of the Red Cross, “which has rendered service to humanity on countless occasions, both in wartime tragedies and in the aftermath of natural disasters”. In a brief conversation with Mr. Sommaruga, the Pope expressed his admiration for the work of ICRC delegates throughout the world and made special mention of their activities in the Gulf region.

On 21 June, President Sommaruga was invited to give a talk on “Voluntary service and solidarity” at a round-table discussion held in Castiglione’s community theatre. The large audience also listened to talks by Monsignor Luigi Bettazzi, Bishop of Ivrea, and Professor Luigi Giannico, Commissioner Extraordinary of the Italian Red Cross.

Canada, United States (23-25 June)

At the 14th Inter-American Conference of the Red Cross, held in Ottawa from 23 to 27 June 1991, the ICRC President gave an opening address and took part in the Conference’s early sessions. Before leaving Ottawa, he had a meeting with Mr. de Montigny-Marchand, Under-Secretary of State at the Canadian Department of External Affairs.

* * *

Mr. Sommaruga went on to New York on 25 June to deliver an address at the invitation of the Council on Foreign Relations. This organization, which was set up in 1921 and now has some
3,000 members, is an authoritative voice on international affairs in the United States. In his speech, entitled "National sovereignty versus humanitarian needs: lessons from the Gulf experience", Mr. Sommaruga pointed out the limits to national sovereignty imposed by the Geneva Conventions and went on to give a precise definition of the humanitarian needs that the ICRC endeavours to meet in its work. He reviewed the ICRC's various activities during the Gulf war and pointed out that the parties to the conflict had invoked national sovereignty to oppose humanitarian activities in certain circumstances.

Finally, Mr. Sommaruga reaffirmed the necessity of maintaining a clear distinction between humanitarian action and political action, warning his audience against excessive use of the expression "right of humanitarian intervention" but urging them to do everything they could to strengthen, in all circumstances, the victims' "right to humanitarian assistance".

At United Nations headquarters in New York, Mr. Sommaruga met with UN Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar to discuss the possibility of convening a conference of the States party to the Geneva Conventions to deal with matters arising from the situation in the Middle East. They also reviewed current ICRC operations.


In the Red Cross and
Red Crescent World

XIVth INTERNATIONAL FESTIVAL
OF RED CROSS AND HEALTH FILMS

(Sofia, 25 May-1 June 1991)

The XIVth International Festival of Red Cross and Health Films, like the previous festivals in this series, was organized by the Bulgarian Red Cross in conjunction with the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

Unlike the previous festivals, however, this one was held in Sofia, the Bulgarian capital, and not in Varna, for reasons of economy.

More than 300 representatives from some fifty countries, from Red Cross and Red Crescent circles, the world of cinema and television and the medical profession, viewed 286 films which had been produced by various components of the Movement and by independent film-makers. The ICRC was represented at the festival by Ms. Michele Mercier, head of the Communication Department, and Ms. Jette Sørensen, Information Officer responsible for contacts with the National Societies.

The films selected were divided into two categories:

- Red Cross and Health documentary films for the cinema and television
  - Red Cross/Red Crescent films
  - Health and the environment
  - Science and education
  - Films for children

- Films based on fiction

Each category of film was submitted to a separate international jury. The jury for the first category consisted of Mr. Yuri Zhivot, Bulgaria (Chairman), Mr. Vassil Zhivkov, Bulgaria, Mr. Lionel Tardif, France, Mr. Junichi Nakagawa, Japan, and Mr. Alan Rettig, United States. The jury for the second category was made up of Mr. Ivan Andonov, Bulgaria (Chairman),...
Mr. Georgy Danailov, Bulgaria, Mr. Gaetano D’Ella, Italy, Mr. Alexander Lipkov, USSR, and Mr. Momcilo Stojanovic, Yugoslavia.

Mr. Alexandre Marinov, Head of International Relations at the Bulgarian Red Cross, said that the XIVth Festival was to be a “working festival”, which would pursue quality at all costs. This made the event a unique cinematographic forum for films dealing with most pressing and difficult present-day problems in the medical and social sphere. The 1991 Festival programme did indeed directly address topical subjects and the themes covered were central to the concerns of the international community.

As the Festival’s daily Bulletin put it: “The world we live in is a world of insecurity. Disease, war and natural disasters are constantly on the rampage. Entire nations are seething with turmoil, as they endeavour to be masters of their destinies and blaze new paths of socio-economic and cultural development. And in the midst of these upheavals is a human being, numbed with pain and suffering, or else levelling bold criticism at statesmen and politicians, and relentlessly seeking social justice and happiness, peace and love among all humans.

Children — the most vulnerable and defenceless among the inhabitants of this world — are once again in focus at this Festival. Suffering from incurable diseases or abandoned by their families, homeless starving vagrants in the streets of the big cities and in refugee camps, these young sufferers are a constant challenge to the complacency of the adults on whom they depend. Leading film directors of various nationalities have taken the risk of pleading for greater compassion and respect for the young children of the Earth, who must enjoy normal lives and proper education.

The environmental crisis that we are experiencing, the poisoned air, water, soil and food — do all these not deny human survival? Is life on our planet not endangered, and does an ecological catastrophe not loom on the horizon, and what about future generations if we live in fear of that danger? A group of works by the film industry and Red Cross Societies from different continents reflects a persistent search for an answer to these questions.

The socially significant diseases of our time have been a constant theme on the Red Cross screen. The prevention and treatment of diabetes and malignant tumours, the hazards of smoking, alcohol and drug abuse, affecting mothers and children in particular, have yet again exercised the minds of the film-making community.

The films devoted to AIDS, the scourge of the late twentieth century, will be another forceful reminder of the need for greater social awareness and a healthier life-style. Undoubtedly, these are also the films in the programme that will touch the viewers’ hearts, for they combine a high note of tragedy with an earnest appeal for deeper understanding and compassion for fellow human beings in distress.”
At the closing ceremony on 1 June, sixteen prizes were awarded in the presence of Mr. Guy Deluz, ICRC Director-General. The major awards were as follows:

- The “Golden Ship” of the President of the Bulgarian Red Cross was awarded to the Icelandic Red Cross film “Outcasts from Paradise”;
- The League Grand Prix was awarded to the Netherlands Red Cross film “Finger on the Pulse”;
- The Grand Prix for the best feature film was won by “Music Box” (USA), by Kostantinos Costa-Gavras;
- The World Health Organization’s Special Prize went to the United States for “The Feminine Mistake — The Next Generation”.

Third International Communication Workshop

During the Festival the third International Communication Workshop was held, the first one having taken place during the 1987 Varna Festival. Thirty-five participants from twenty-two National Societies took part in this workshop, which was organized by the ICRC and the League, in conjunction with the Bulgarian Red Cross. The main items on the agenda were: the “Communicators’ Guide”, a work intended to help National Societies in their efforts to implement the Movement’s information policy and its identity programme; future themes for World Red Cross and Red Crescent Day on 8 May; Red Cross/Red Crescent magazine; and assessing the results of the World Campaign for the Protection of Victims of War.

Jette Sørensen
JOINT COMMISSION OF THE EMPRESS SHOKEN FUND

CIRCULAR No. 82

Geneva, 11 April 1991

To all National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies

Seventieth distribution of income

The Joint Commission entrusted with the distribution of the income of the Empress Shoken Fund met in Geneva on 19 March 1991. The Ambassador and Permanent Representative of Japan in Geneva, His Excellency Mr. Hidetoshi Ukawa, attended the meeting and represented the Japanese Red Cross Society.

The Commission approved the statement of accounts on the situation of the Fund as at 31 December 1990 and noted that the balance available amounted to 424,560 Swiss francs.

In examining the 36 projects presented by 29 National Societies, the Joint Commission took into account the criteria revised and completed in 1990 on the basis of experience gained over the last few years. These criteria are designed to:

1) restrict the number of allocations so that the amounts allocated for each are sufficient to enable the approved projects to be successfully implemented;

2) give priority to developing Societies and, among them, to those that have least benefited from the Fund or, according to objective criteria, are in greatest need, thereby maintaining a reasonable degree of regional balance.

It is thus possible

a) to finance, up to a maximum of half of the funds available, projects to develop the human resources of the candidate Societies (scholar-
ships, training courses benefiting volunteers and paid staff members of both sexes equally);

b) to finance, up to a maximum of half of the funds available, purchases of material and equipment clearly corresponding to the objectives of the Fund (Art. 3 of the Regulations), apart from means of transport;

c) to restrict allocations earmarked for the purchase of means of transport (vehicles, ambulances, etc.), including spare parts, to half the funds available;

d) also to take into consideration one or more projects for a regional programme previously approved by the beneficiary Societies, the League and/or the ICRC. A maximum of 100,000 Swiss francs can be allocated each year, and this for up to five years. Every further allocation is subject to the submission of satisfactory progress reports by the beneficiary Societies;

e) to exclude requests from Societies that have not provided satisfactory reports on the use of a previous allocation from the Fund.

The Joint Commission decided to make the following grants:

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<th>Country</th>
<th>Project Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
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<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>1 radio station for the Red Cross Branch in Guadalupe, Province of San José</td>
<td>6,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>1 electricity generator to cope with emergency situations at the National Blood Bank</td>
<td>28,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>Preparation and printing of a basic first-aid handbook in the Fijian language</td>
<td>7,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>A 30-seater minibus for disaster preparedness, first aid and Youth Red Cross programmes</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>1 Toyota Land Cruiser ambulance for first-aid activities and vaccination programmes</td>
<td>35,000</td>
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Swiss francs
6) Morocco
   Purchase of first-aid training equipment, such as mannequins (dolls), slides, mattresses, etc. 35,000

7) Saint Kitts & Nevis
   1 minibus for 10 persons and wheel chairs, to expand Red Cross service to disabled 38,000

8) Seychelles
   First-aid equipment such as 1 rubber dinghy, 1 station wagon. Training dummies and life jackets to develop the Red Cross water safety programme 46,000

9) South Africa
   a) Construction of a Red Cross Community Centre in Botshabelo, Orange Free State Region; 34,000
   b) Partial financing of community development courses in the Natal Region 20,000

10) Tunisia
    1 mobile blood-collection unit on a Renault Master body, fully equipped 65,000

11) Venezuela
    Partial financing of a two-year health programme, including the purchase of dental care equipment, educational material, etc. 60,000

The above allocations total 424,000 Swiss francs; the unused balance of 560 Swiss francs will be added to the income available for the 71st Distribution (1992).

Depending on market conditions, the Joint Commission will decide whether purchase arrangements will be made by the League’s Logistics Service or directly by the beneficiary Society.

If a purchase on the local market has been envisaged or decided, the National Society shall submit to the Joint Commission an original offer or pro forma invoice, drawn up in English, French or Spanish and indicating a reliable date of delivery. If applicable and in accordance with internationally accepted business rules the Joint Commission will transfer 50% of the indicated price to enable the National Society to place the order. The balance will be transferred only upon receipt of the seller’s or manufacturer’s delivery.
form and of the final invoice on which the initial down payment is duly entered.

Pursuant to the Fund’s Regulations, each beneficiary Society must submit to the Joint Commission a report on results achieved in using the equipment purchased with the grant. The Joint Commission requests that these descriptive reports be sent not later than twelve months after receiving the allocation, accompanied, if possible, by photographs illustrating the activities carried out thanks to the allocation. The report should show whether the allocation has enabled the Society to implement the programme, and whether the programme has in fact met the needs of the population, so that the Joint Commission is in a position to form an opinion on results achieved.

The Joint Commission reminds beneficiary Societies of Article 6 of the Regulations which prohibits the assigning of the grant for purposes other than those specified without the prior consent of the Joint Commission.

Allocations remaining unclaimed or unused after twelve months will be withdrawn and added to the amount available for the next distribution.

71st Distribution — 1992

The 1991 income will be distributed in 1992. To help National Societies to file their applications in conformity with the Regulations, the Joint Commission will mail model application forms to all National Societies in August. It will also provide National Societies with criteria and guidelines regarding projects that could be financed — wholly or partly — by the Empress ShOken Fund.

Requests for allocations must be submitted to the Secretariat of the Joint Commission before 31 December 1991.

For the Joint Commission

International Committee
of the Red Cross

League of Red Cross and
Red Crescent Societies

M. Aubert (Chairman)
M. Martin
S. Nessi

P. Stenblick
B. Bergman
S. Davey

P. Tischhasser (Secretary)
Election of the members of the International Fact-Finding Commission

A meeting to elect the fifteen members of the International Fact-Finding Commission was convened in Bern on 25 June 1991 by the Swiss Federal Council, the depositary for the Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols. The Commission, provided for in Article 90 of Protocol I, is competent to enquire into any facts alleged to be a grave breach or other serious violation as defined in the Conventions and the Protocol and to facilitate, through its good offices, the restoration of an attitude of respect for the Conventions and the Protocol.

Only the first 20 States which made formal declarations accepting the Commission’s competence were entitled to elect members.¹

The following members were elected:
- Dr. André Andries (Belgium)
- Professor Luigi Condorelli (Italy)
- Professor Ghalib Djilali (Algeria)
- Dr. Marcel Dubouloz (Switzerland)
- Professor Frits Kalshoven (Netherlands)
- Professor Kenneth J. Keith (New Zealand)
- Dr. Valeri S. Kniasev (USSR)
- Dr. Erich Kussbach (Austria)
- Professor Daniel H. Martins (Uruguay)
- Professor Torkel Opsahl (Norway)
- Professor Allan Rosas (Finland)
- Dr. James M. Simpson (Canada)
- Dr. Carl-Ivar Skarstedt (Sweden)
- Dr. Santiago Torres Bernárdez (Spain)
- Professor Francis Zachariae (Denmark)

¹ As at 30 June 1991 a total of 22 States had accepted the Commission’s competence. Germany and Chile took part in the Conference as observers since their declarations of acceptance were to take effect only in August 1991 and October 1991 respectively.
Pursuant to Article 90, para. 1(f), of Protocol I, the Swiss Federal Council will make available to the Commission the necessary administrative facilities for the performance of its functions.

The Commission will undoubtedly provide an additional means of ensuring the implementation of and respect for international humanitarian law. Its duties will be complementary to but distinct from those of the ICRC, which will continue to carry out its traditional tasks while upholding its principles of impartiality and neutrality. Joint consultations on their respective working methods will be held by the Commission and the ICRC to further define their complementary roles.
PRELUDES AND PIONEERS

The precursors of the Red Cross
1840-1860

The Henry Dunant Society, which organized a highly interesting symposium devoted to its namesake in 1985, celebrated the 125th anniversary of the founding of the Red Cross in 1988 by inviting eminent figures from all walks of life to take part in a new intellectual pursuit: the discovery of the precursors of the Red Cross. The essays subsequently written on this previously unexplored subject have now been published in a book beautifully illustrated by Michel Roueche.

The challenge of portraying in a vivid and coherent manner the aspirations, activities and personalities of 18 precursors identified by the Henry Dunant Society has been successfully met in this work. Against the tragic backdrop of the Sonderbund War (1847), fighting in the Crimea (1853-1856), the War of Italian Independence (1859), and the United States Civil War (1861-1865), to mention only the major conflicts referred to, compelling portraits are painted of men and women who spared no effort and sacrificed their own health to alleviate the unbearable suffering of wounded soldiers left unattended on the battlefield.

Why was the Red Cross set up in 1863? How were its ideals shaped? Who really first had the idea of creating National Red Cross Societies and granting neutral status to the wounded and those who tended them? Did the Committee of Five know of the activities of the pioneers of humanitarian work, some of whom later claimed, for themselves and their countries, the honour of having conceived the ideas that gave birth to the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement? These are among the questions discussed in the essays.


The authors give various reasons for the abundance of initiatives taken during the nineteenth century to assist conflict victims. First of all there was the widespread suffering caused by innovations in the field of ballistics and the rampant spread of epidemic diseases. Several essays devoted to scientific discoveries and medical care and surgery in the armed forces at the time show that the number of soldiers seriously wounded in battle rose alarmingly owing to the invention of large-calibre, cylindrical and conical bullets with greater striking force and penetration, which caused internal organs to burst, shattered bones and were difficult to extract, and owing also to the increasingly rapid rate of fire of high-explosive shells. In addition, those who survived the rigours of battle ran a high risk of succumbing to fatal diseases such as cholera, typhus, gangrene and scurvy. In the Crimea, for example, 20,000 of the 309,000 troops sent by the French army died of wounds and 75,000 of illness.

This tremendous loss of lives became known to the victims' families not only through new methods of communication, such as the telegraph, but also through the press, which published letters from the front revealing the devastating nature of the fighting and the inadequacy of the care given by the armed forces' medical services. Although freedom of the press was not yet the rule everywhere, an essay analysing articles published in the Geneva newspapers from 1847 to 1863 shows that European public opinion was ripe for the Red Cross. This readiness was heightened by the fact that armed forces had recently begun compiling detailed statistics on casualties, leaving little to the imagination as to the death tolls of major battles.

Henry Dunant's generous ideas also fell on the fertile soil of growing social conscience during the nineteenth century. As Pierre Boissier wrote in his work on the history of the ICRC: "...the nineteenth century was a period of tremendous charitable impulses. Harriet Beecher Stowe, Tolstoy, Dickens, Balzac, Hugo, Zola, Dunant and many others besides brought humble people into literature and revealed their poverty and wretchedness. Engels and Marx pleaded the workers' cause. Others militated in favour of better conditions for women. Pacifist associations proliferated. [...] It was as if society was suddenly stricken with remorse for its victims". The growth of philanthropy in Geneva at the time also testified to this surge of solidarity and compassion.

Who are the precursors of the Red Cross identified by the Henry Dunant Society? Doctors, first of all, whose profession brought them in close contact with suffering on the battlefield. Foremost among them were Nicholai Pirogov, Lucien Baudens and Ferdinando Palasciano. Pirogov, a renowned Russian surgeon who in 1847 was reportedly the first to perform an operation under anaesthesia, took the praiseworthy initiative of organizing medical care for soldiers in the Crimea. He enlisted the help of nurses, which was a novelty in conservative nineteenth-century Russian society where women were
expected to take a passive role. Lucien Baudens, a French medical inspector who had seen his fellow countrymen cut down by Russian artillery fire while they were assisting wounded Russian soldiers, suggested the idea of drafting an international convention recognizing neutral status for medical personnel wearing a distinctive sign. Ferdinando Palasciano, a Neapolitan surgeon, also advocated in 1861 the principle of neutral status for the wounded in the battlefield, although he opposed it for army surgeons, who in his opinion would prefer to share the same fate as officers in the field.

The precursors also include women, some well known, such as Florence Nightingale in England and Clara Barton in the United States, others more obscure but no less praiseworthy: the Sisters of the Order of the Exaltation of the Holy Cross, whose patroness was the Grand Duchess Helena Pavlovna; the Daughters of Charity, who performed humanitarian work, often at the risk of their own lives, in such far-flung regions as Algeria, the Crimea, Mexico, Italy, Lebanon, the United States and Poland; and Countess Agenor de Gasparin, whose ardent faith inspired her writings and endeavours to gather assistance.

As underscored in several essays, the presence on the battlefield of women to tend the wounded was an innovation. Many of these women, some of whom worked as members of religious orders, and others who acted on their own initiative, corresponded with the families of the soldiers they tended, informing them when necessary of the sick or wounded man's death. The solace they provided is described in many texts of the period.

Humanitarian organizations were set up time and again at the outbreak of hostilities, only to fade into oblivion as soon as peace was restored. In Switzerland, for example, General Dufour, who in 1847 was given the task of dissolving by military means the separate alliance concluded by the Catholic cantons (the "Sonderbund"), praised a Zurich association set up to manufacture ambulances and transport the wounded. This short-lived initiative was considered by General Dufour, who supported the principle of humane treatment during hostilities, as a prototype of humanitarian action in situations of conflict.

Another humanitarian initiative was taken by the Russian philanthropist Anatole Demidoff, who set up a network of correspondents to help prisoners of war in the Crimea. These correspondents maintained contact with military and political authorities in several European countries, with whom they exchanged information on the identity and place of detention of prisoners and negotiated better conditions for them. The correspondents even succeeded in obtaining permission to visit certain prisoners. This experience underlay Demidoff's belief that the 1863 Geneva Conference, which he was himself unable to attend, should discuss the problem of prisoners of war. Although the Conference did not take up the matter, Henry Dunant later endeavoured to obtain protection for both wounded and able-bodied prisoners of war.
A key role was played during the American Civil War by the U.S. Sanitary Commission and the U.S. Christian Commission. The Sanitary Commission, an efficiently run secular organization made up of professionals, strove to assist in what it saw as the government's task of feeding, clothing and caring for the members of the armed forces. The Christian Commission, set up under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association, comprised volunteers who endeavoured to bring not only material assistance but also spiritual consolation to the troops. Despite some rivalry between the two Commissions, both products of the American tradition of voluntary social work, together they brought invaluable assistance to soldiers during the Civil War. At the same time, another precursor, Francis Lieber, drafted a code of conduct for the armed forces, which was adopted in 1863 by President Lincoln.

The Protestant-affiliated Order of Saint John of Jerusalem, which was devoted to caring for the sick and wounded in the hope of spreading the faith, supported the Red Cross from the very beginning, particularly at the 1863 Geneva Conference.

As detailed in the essays, many people and institutions during the mid-nineteenth century carried out activities similar to Henry Dunant's initiative at the battle of Solferino in 1859 or made proposals like his, sometimes even earlier, in an effort to alleviate the suffering caused by war. Many of the precursors were in contact with one another and some disagreed or even quarrelled. It still surprises people to learn, for example, that Florence Nightingale's opinion of Henry Dunant's proposal was not exactly favourable and that Henry Arrault waged a fierce battle, with the support of his friend George Sand, to obtain for himself and his country, France, recognition for having been the first to propose neutral status for ambulances and their crew.

Over and beyond such personal differences of opinion, history shows, as pointed out by Roger Durand, President of the Henry Dunant Society, in his excellent synopsis, that Dunant's proposal to the 1863 Geneva Conference included three ingredients that guaranteed its success:

— the idea of setting up permanent, voluntary relief societies already in peacetime (this idea was opposed by Florence Nightingale but supported by the French military officer Count Félix de Breda);
— the belief that such societies should cooperate with public authorities (although it was subsequently recognized that National Societies must retain a certain degree of independence so as to uphold the fundamental principles of the Red Cross, particularly neutrality and impartiality);
— the aspiration towards an international movement which, the founders believed, should not be confined to Europe.

The Geneva founders of the International Committee thus had a comprehensive view of the movement they were to launch. Acting in a private capacity, they did not, according to their own account, have a clear idea of their precursors' work although they did maintain generally friendly, and
It was unfortunately impossible, within the scope of these essays, to explore the activities of all the precursors. Nevertheless, the work answers various questions of interest to anyone intrigued by the subject. Perhaps one day it will be followed by another volume devoted to the work of pioneers from continents other than Europe and North America with whom Henry Dunant sought to establish contact his life long. The Henry Dunant Society will certainly publish any additional findings it may make on precursors throughout the world, thereby further documenting the history of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. Given the Society’s vitality, intellectual curiosity and eagerness to explore untapped sources of information, such a possibility does not seem so very unlikely.

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Roger Durand	 Précurseurs-fondateurs: les fils enchevêtrés de la genèse rubricrucienne

Marion Harroff-Tavel

“I HAVE DONE MY DUTY”*
Florence Nightingale in the Crimean War, 1854-56

In October 1854 in the Crimea, the war being waged against Russia by Turkey, Great Britain and France was at its height. Public opinion in Britain

was outraged when news came of the dreadful conditions which sick and wounded soldiers had to endure. Florence Nightingale, who was at that time Superintendent of the Hospital for Invalid Gentlewomen in London, received permission to go to Scutari, a suburb of Istanbul, to care for the wounded and sick in the hospitals there.

From the day she arrived in Istanbul on 4 November 1854 until she returned to England at the end of July 1856, Florence Nightingale kept up regular correspondence with her family and friends. Sue M. Goldie, who is an expert on Florence Nightingale and has written her biography, has traced more than three hundred of her letters, of which she has included about a hundred in her book.

These letters fall into three broad categories:

— long, detailed reports to the War Office, in which she proposed immediate measures for the practical reform of the entire hospital administration;
— letters to nurse-recruiting offices and to friends and colleagues describing the frightful conditions encountered daily in hospitals overcrowded with thousands of wounded and cholera-stricken soldiers;
— letters to her family where she speaks of her “heart sinkings”, her exhaustion (she worked practically round the clock). Mainly, however, they express her conviction to give of her best and her determination to see her work successfully concluded.

Most of Florence Nightingale’s reports to the War Office during her first six months in the field are included in the book to illustrate her reaction to the carelessness and lack of organization of the army medical services which she found upon her arrival at the military hospital in Scutari. Although some of these reports were strictly official, most of them are private and completely frank, since they were addressed to her friend Sidney Herbert1 who held a high position in the War Office. She told him from day to day of the almost insurmountable difficulties she had to face in an almost general atmosphere of hostility; in particular, she encountered opposition on the part of certain officials in charge of the army medical service, and found several nurses incompetent and unruly. However, after a few weeks in Scutari, her spirit of enterprise, energy and courage — plus powerful backing from Sidney Herbert — enabled her to organize the hospital more efficiently and to have female nurses admitted to military hospitals.

In April 1855, Florence Nightingale went to the Balaclava General Hospital in the Crimea where she met the same heads of the medical service who had done their utmost to oust her; the issue was finally resolved in March 1856 by the War Office which decided to entrust her with overall responsibility for the nursing services to the armed forces engaged in the Crimean War.

1 He was Secretary at War.
The War Office was convinced that a strongly centralized nursing department was needed and that Florence Nightingale was clearly the most competent person to establish and be the head of such a department.

While striving to reorganize the nursing service, she tirelessly devoted herself to taking care of the wounded and the sick, in particular soldiers with cholera (although her letters rarely mention this aspect of her work). Being very demanding towards herself, she expected blind obedience from her subordinates, and the nurses working under her were bitter in their complaints. Gradually, however, she came to appreciate what the difficulties were; she tried to gain a better understanding of her colleagues' problems and secure the best possible working conditions for them.

In recognition of her services after the Crimean War, the British Government established the Foundation of the Nightingale Training School for Nurses in St. Thomas's Hospital.

Because of her work in the Crimea, and later as head of her school for nurses, Florence Nightingale is looked upon as one of the chief founders of modern nursing techniques. In perusing these selected letters — each one reproduced in its entirety in Sue M. Goldie's work — the reader acquires an extremely vivid impression of her reactions, her frustration, her indignation and, especially, her enthusiasm and total commitment to her vocation as a nurse.

Yet this book is more than a tribute to Florence Nightingale herself and all that she accomplished during the Crimean War. By showing just how vital the work of nurses in the midst of armed conflicts is, it also helps to restore due recognition for the often inadequately appreciated services of those who, in tending sick and wounded soldiers, are after all closest to them in their need.

François Perret

PLANE OF VICTIMS

ICRC delegates on humanitarian mission

Should the work of an ICRC delegate be called a profession, a speciality, a state of mind, a way of life or a calling? There is no easy answer to this question. But one thing is certain: there is no other job quite like it. This is apparent from reading La Planète des victimes, the book devoted by Michel Goeldlin to ICRC delegates in the field.*


*
Responding to the ICRC’s desire both to have a well-written book about the work of its delegates and to promote better knowledge of its humanitarian activities, the writer Michel Goeldlin and his wife, the photographer Yucki Goeldlin, travelled to Angola, El Salvador and the Thai-Cambodian border to observe at first hand the many and varied tasks of a delegate. Few can equal Michel Goeldlin when it comes to setting a scene: he skilfully captures for his reader the geographical, climatic, political and social environment in which the ICRC works. Whether aboard a Hercules transport aircraft, in a refugee camp, in a relief-distribution centre or on the premises of a delegation, Goeldlin enables his reader to share, in his imagination, the everyday work of the delegate, the thousand and one problems that assail him, the doubts he must overcome, the joy of success and the frustration of failure.

In Angola, for example, the author vividly describes the arrival by air of seeds, medicines and blankets without which the isolated population of the Planalto cannot survive; the work of the surgeons and nurses at the Bomba Alta orthopaedic centre; help for lepers in Sao Jose; wounded people being taken to hospital; detainees in a re-education camp.

In El Salvador, the reader almost feels that he is present as a guerrilla of the Farabundo Marti National Liberation Front is taken to hospital for treatment, or as ICRC medical staff tackle the most urgent needs in rural areas where the danger comes not only from military operations, but also from cultural taboos. For a delegate, life consists of unexpected situations that must be dealt with immediately. Uncertainty is his daily fare; permission to go to some remote village may, for example, be granted one day and cancelled the next. But sick and undernourished children cannot wait. They have to be helped even if that means spending five hours to cover 60 km, bumping over impossible trails. Some solution will just have to be found. Being a delegate means being present in all circumstances, it means persuading the unco-operative guard at a military checkpoint that an ICRC vehicle has to be allowed to pass in order to save lives, it means chatting to young recruits to put over the fundamental humanitarian rules, it means moving heaven and earth to find the parents of a lost child, etc. And all the while the delegate must remain alert for anything new, display endless patience and generally rise above himself to be at the service of the victims of conflict.

At Site 2 on the Thai-Cambodian border, we enter another world, a “country that does not exist” but is peopled by 170,000 refugees living in cramped, impoverished and hazardous conditions. More come every day; others disappear. The delegates are constantly on the go, noting new arrivals, recording departures, searching for those who have disappeared and forwarding messages between camps. Site 2 was shelled while the author was there. He describes how ICRC delegates and their colleagues from the United Nations Border Relief Operation and the UNHCR evacuated the most vulnerable refugees to Site 3 and took seriously wounded people to the Khao I Dang hospital, where medical teams from the ICRC and National Societies worked around the clock.
Unforgettable characters emerge from this epic of human suffering, such as an amputee who calls himself “Fredy de Los Angeles”, a young Salvadoran ex-guerrilla who does not know who he is and whose case is being looked into by Jeanne from the Central Tracing Agency; Pikul, the Thai field officer who comes from the Golden Triangle and is utterly devoted to the Red Cross; Denise, a Swiss nurse abducted by guerrillas to tend one of their comrades; Barbara, a Canadian nurse, who must take terrible life-and-death decisions when she decides which of the wounded people arriving at the Camacupa hospital in Angola will receive priority care; Eric, who worked all out on the construction of a vast system to distribute drinking water throughout the Santa Cruz area, only to discover that the local inhabitants preferred to “go down to the river in the valley for their germ-laden, death-bringing water”.

Why, then, would anyone want to be a delegate? Goeldlin asked a lot of them this question. They replied that they did it to go to interesting places and accomplish something through work that “has more to be said for it, morally, than other spheres of activity”, to “improve the world”, to “give substance to such a weird concept as neutrality” and to “watch over the application of international humanitarian law”. Delegates often remember what they were told during their training: “The time will come, again and again, when you are acutely aware of your own powerlessness, of the limits of what we can do. You will find the enormity of the task discouraging. But you will also see that if you are able to save even one life, all the frustrations will have been worth while”.

Michel Goeldlin’s book is a tribute not only to the Swiss delegates of the ICRC but also to the local employees and the teams sent out by National Societies and other humanitarian organizations. The book and the striking photographs that illustrate it present a humanitarian profession that is fascinating and unique. It will doubtless inspire many others to follow the same vocation.

Jacques Meurant

JORNADAS DE DERECHO INTERNACIONAL HUMANITARIO

Round Tables on International Humanitarian Law

The first Round Table on International Humanitarian Law, organized by the Seville Provincial Assembly of the Spanish Red Cross and Seville University to mark the 125th anniversary of the Red Cross, was held from 5 to 7 May 1988. It was chaired by Professor Carrillo Salcedo, lecturer in public international law, and aroused such wide interest that a special course was organized on the subject from January to June the following year. The second
Round Table was set up within the framework of this course, on 4 and 5 May 1989.

A number of distinguished jurists presented papers on international legal instruments relating to armed conflicts, and these papers have now been published in the work mentioned above.¹

Adopting an interdisciplinary approach to international law, Professor Roberto Mesa, who teaches international relations at Madrid University, opened the discussions at the first Round Table with a presentation on international relations at the time of the inception of the Red Cross Movement, describing the contradiction between violence and the yearning for peace, which constitutes the moral foundation of international relations and finds expression in humanitarian activity. Professor Celestino del Arenal, who also lectures at Madrid University, expanded on this theme with special emphasis on the Red Cross and peace in today’s world. He demonstrated how the original purpose of the Red Cross, which was to provide assistance to the victims of armed conflict, has evolved to include an all-embracing concern for human life, freedom, dignity and justice and has gradually become a dynamic process of cooperation tending to establish lasting peace.

The law of war was introduced by Colonel D. José Luis Rodríguez-Villasante y Prieto, Judge Advocate in the Spanish Navy and Director of the Study and Research Unit at the Spanish Red Cross Centre for the Study of International Humanitarian Law. His outline of the history of international humanitarian law was followed by an interesting analysis of the sources and underlying principles of the law, with a reference to the legal basis for each principle.

The adoption of the 1977 Additional Protocols was an important development in the law of armed conflicts, in relation both to the conduct of hostilities and the protection of persons. José Antonio Pastor Ridruejo, Professor of international law at Madrid University and UN Special Representative on the human rights situation in El Salvador, concluded the first Round Table with a discussion of the obstacles that lay in the way of general endorsement of the Protocols. He also emphasized their universal scope in view of the special nature of their subject-matter and their purpose.

The second Round Table was entirely devoted to the law of non-international armed conflicts. Professor Roberto Mesa, who teaches international relations at Madrid University, gave a talk on developments in the area of international relations and the progress achieved in codifying the relevant rules.

¹ Jornadas de Derecho Internacional Humanitario (First and Second Round Tables on International Humanitarian Law), Seville University, Spanish Red Cross (Seville), Asociación de Investigación sobre temas Iberoamericanos (Association for Latin-American Studies), 2 vols., 1990, 97 pp. each.
Raul Benitez Manaud, researcher at the Interdisciplinary Research Centre, Independent University of Mexico, gave a detailed analysis of the crisis in Central America and of the conflict in El Salvador, emphasizing how closely political and military interests were intertwined, each momentarily gaining the upper hand, and the inevitably harmful consequences of this situation in humanitarian terms.

Jacques Meurant, Editor of the International Review of the Red Cross, reviewed the activities of the International Committee of the Red Cross within the context of the conflict in El Salvador, with special emphasis on the protection afforded to the civilian population, visits to detainees, family reunifications, material and medical assistance and the dissemination of the Red Cross principles and international humanitarian law.

With regard to the repression of breaches of Protocol II, José Luis Fernández Flores, Professor of international law and Supreme Court Judge, was of the opinion that the lack of definition of what constitutes a violation of the Protocol leads to the assumption that failure to comply with all or any one of the treaty’s provisions constitutes a breach. Breaches of Protocol II, as is the case for war crimes, can be repressed only if the necessary provisions are incorporated into national legislation.

As a conclusion to this second Round Table, Professor Pastor Ridruejo broached the question whether, from a legal standpoint, the rules contained in the Additional Protocols, or at least some of them, may be considered imperative. The reader is left to reflect on the imperative character of the nucleus of international rules pertaining to human rights which, according to the author, would help transform the provisions of the humanitarian treaties into principles of general international law.

The second volume, dealing with non-international armed conflicts, contains in annex a document from the Farabundo Martí National Liberation Front (FMLN) Secretariat for the promotion and protection of human rights, entitled ‘La legitimidad de nuestros métodos de lucha’ and dated 10 October 1988. This document sets out the main measures taken by the Front to protect the civilian population.

There can be no doubt that these two meetings and the many interesting papers published subsequently constitute a major contribution to the dissemination of international humanitarian law and complement national measures taken to fulfil the obligation to make IHL provisions as widely known as possible. The two volumes will thus be most useful for those involved in teaching and disseminating international humanitarian law.

Maria Teresa Dutli
PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Under this heading, the Review lists recent publications which may interest readers, particularly those engaged in research. These publications are available at the ICRC library or at the Henry Dunant Institute and selected works will be reviewed in future issues.

  
This book deals with three aspects of international and internal armed conflict: the use by States of armed force, the nuclear threat and violations of humanitarian law committed by combatants on orders from their superiors.

  
This book, the first volume of a series of studies dealing with the universal nature of the values underlying human rights, examines in particular the extent to which human rights are rooted in the major religions.

  
A collection of studies by eminent legal experts on various aspects of public international law, in honour of Professor Michel Virally.

- **Entre les lignes — La guerre du Golfe et le droit international**, N. Servais-Creaf, Brussels, 1991, 214 pp. (*Centre de droit international ULP*)
  
The opinions of a number of legal experts on various aspects of the recent war in the Middle East (in particular with regard to the law of armed conflicts and international penal law, the status of the Coalition Forces, the status of the neutral States and the rules of international law relating to protection of the environment).

A review of the causes of successive famines in Ethiopia, their consequences for the country’s population and the steps taken by Ethiopia and the international community to improve the situation.


A study of how the financing of ICRC activities has developed. The problem of fund-raising from the end of the 19th century to the present day.


These proceedings of an international symposium held to mark the bicentenary of the birth of General Dufour bring out the many facets of Dufour’s career: as man of science, engineer, town planner, soldier and co-founder of the Red Cross.


Comparative study of the perception and implementation of civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights in Western and Eastern Europe: common features and contrasts.


These volumes contain the papers presented at two seminars on international humanitarian law and the Red Cross, the first devoted to the law governing armed conflicts (1988) and the second to non-international armed conflicts, with special reference to El Salvador (1989) (see review on p. 423).

A detailed study of the 1979 Convention — its origins, an article-by-article commentary, extension of its provisions to cover terrorism and the relationship between terrorism and the law of armed conflicts.

• **Caroline Lang**, *L'affaire Nicaragua - Etats-Unis devant la Cour internationale de Justice* (foreword by Mohammed Bedjaoui), Librairie générale de droit et de jurisprudence, Paris, 1990 (Bibliothèque de droit international, tome 100), 302 pp.

Analysis of the two decisions handed down by the International Court of Justice in 1984 and 1986 after it had been called upon for the first time to rule on the major principles of modern international law.


International cooperation in disaster medicine, emergency medical services, comparative studies on disaster preparedness in various countries, and other aspects of the subject.

• **La protección jurídica internacional de la persona humana y el problema de los indocumentados**, Seminario realizado en La Paz, Bolivia, del 12 al 15 de noviembre de 1990, Alto Comisionado de las Naciones Unidas para los Refugiados, Comité Internacional de la Cruz Roja, Comisión Internacional de Juristas, Comisión Andina de Juristas, 1991, 188 pp.

These proceedings of a seminar on the international rules of law for the protection of the individual and the problem of stateless persons, convened in La Paz in November 1990 by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the ICRC, the International Commission of Jurists and the Andean Commission of Jurists, discuss human rights, international humanitarian law and the status of refugees and people without identity papers.
  A study of the development of the law of non-international armed conflict.

  General significance of the codification of international humanitarian law, with special reference to the rules protecting civilians from the effects of hostilities.

  Development of international humanitarian law applicable to internal armed conflict; study of the law currently in force and the problems in implementing it in the context of the El Salvador conflict.

  Historical and legal study of the work of this Third Reich agency responsible for looking into violations of the law and customs of war allegedly committed by the Allies and the Axis forces. Many case studies.

  This work discusses states of exception or emergency in Latin America and their impact on the implementation of human rights. It deals in particular with the rules of international law governing states of exception or emergency and the relevant monitoring mechanisms, both on the international level, within the framework of the United Nations, and on the regional level in the Americas. It also makes recommendations for the improvement of international monitoring mechanisms in this field.
ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT SOCIETIES

AFGHANISTAN (Democratic Republic of) — Afghan Red Crescent Society, Puli Hatchin, Kabul.
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DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Dag Hammerskjold Allé 26, Postboks 2600, 2100 Frederiksberg.
DOMINICA — Société du Croissant-Rouge de Dijonville, B.P. 94, Dijonville.
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Apartado postal 1925, Santo Domingo.
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SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Rainmattstrasse 10, B.P. 2665, 1007 Berne.

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THAILAND — The Thai Red Cross Society, Pratirata Building, Central Bureau, Rama IV Road, Bangkok 1044.

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TRENDAD AND TOBAGO — The Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 527, Port of Spain, Trinadad, West Indies.

TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19, rue d’Anglettere, Tunis 1000.

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UGANDA — The Uganda Red Cross Society, Plot 97, Buganda Road, P.O. Box 494, Kampala.

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES — The Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Emirates, P.O. Box No. 3324, Abu Dhabi.

UNITED KINGDOM — The British Red Cross Society, 9, Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1, 7ER.

USA — American Red Cross, 17th and D. Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.

URUGUAY — Uruguay Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre 1990, Montevideo.

U.R.S.S — The Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the U.S.S.R., L. Tolstomihutkisinujiavir, Moscow, 117305.

VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andin Boliv, N° 6, Apartado, 3185, Caracas 1010.

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

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ZIMBABWE — The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1406, Harare.

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- Spanish: REVISTA INTERNACIONAL DE LA CRUZ ROJA (since January 1976)
- Arabic: (since May-June 1988)

Selected articles from the main editions have also been published in German under the title Auszüge since January 1950.

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An independent humanitarian institution, the ICRC is the founding body of the Red Cross. As a neutral intermediary in case of armed conflict or disturbances, it endeavours on its own initiative or on the basis of the Geneva Conventions to protect and assist the victims of international and civil wars and of internal troubles and tensions, thereby contributing to peace in the world.
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