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RESERVATIONS TO THE GENEVA CONVENTIONS OF 1949

by Claude Pilloud

I. Introduction

The International Review of the Red Cross published in August 1957 a study concerning reservations to the 1949 Geneva Conventions for the protection of war victims. At that time a total of 66 States were bound by the Conventions and 18 of them had expressed their accession subject to reservations. In July 1965, the Review published an additional study on the same subject. At that date, the number of States bound by the Conventions had increased to a total of 106; of these, 20 had expressed reservations.

Since that time the Geneva Conventions of 1949 have become virtually universal and by 31 December 1975, 139 States had signed the Conventions, 21 of which had made reservations. It now seems necessary therefore to combine the two previous studies and to add new elements arising from the accession of new States. From the legal aspect, the adoption in 1969 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties provided a number of useful clarifications which had to be taken into account by eliminating or by modifying some of the opinions expressed in the previous studies.

The 1949 Geneva Conventions contained no clauses concerning reservations. Some parties considered that this was a regrettable omission and the ICRC gave consideration to this problem in drafting the

two Protocols additional to the Conventions which have been under study by a Diplomatic Conference since 1974. It made the following proposal in article 85 of the first Protocol:

1. Each one of the Parties to the Conventions may, when signing, ratifying or acceding to the present Protocol, formulate reservations to articles other than Articles 5, 10, 20, 33, Article 35, paragraph 1, first sentence, Article 38, paragraph 1, first sentence, and Articles 41, 43, 46 and 47.

2. Each reservation shall be operative for five years from the entry into force of the present Protocol in respect of the High Contracting Party formulating the reservation. Any reservation may be renewed for further successive periods of five years subject to a declaration being sent to the depositary of the Conventions not less than three months prior to the expiry of the said period. A reservation may be withdrawn at any time by notification to this effect addressed to the depositary of the Conventions.

*

* *

Since the Geneva Conventions have no clauses concerning reservations, the general principles of international law, largely customary in nature, must be applied to determine the validity and extent of the reservations made. The Vienna Convention of 1969 codified some of the customary law in this field.

It should be recalled that according to traditional theory a reservation had to be accepted by all the Signatory States either explicitly or tacitly in order to become effective. If a State party to a treaty or convention refused to accept the reservation made by another State, the latter could not remain a party to that treaty or convention. This theory was attacked in an advisory opinion by the International Court of Justice at the Hague in 1951 concerning reservations to the Genocide Convention. The Court stated that an objection to a reservation only entailed the exclusion of the State concerned if the reservations was incompatible with the object and purpose of the convention.

This rule was subsequently accepted by the International Law Commission of the United Nations in 1962 and by the Conference which drew up the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties in 1969.

II. Declarations

In signing the Conventions, several delegates made declarations deploring the fact that one subject or another had not been dealt with by the Conference, or that one provision or another had not been more generous in tenor. The Bulgarian and Hungarian delegations expressed their Governments' deep regret that the majority of the Diplomatic Conference had not accepted the Soviet delegation's proposal for the unconditional banning of atomic weapons and other weapons for the mass extermination of the population. As is known, the Diplomatic Conference, when this proposal was put forward, declared it unacceptable, most delegations considering that this problem was outside the scope of the Conference.

The delegations of Byelorussia, the People's Republic of China, Romania, the Ukraine and the USSR, in ratifying the Fourth Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Person in Time of War, expressed their regret that the Convention did not cover the civilian population in territory not occupied by the enemy and, for this reason, that it did not completely meet humanitarian requirements. At the time of its accession in 1957, the Government of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea made a comparable declaration. The significance of these statements is not completely clear but they presumably refer to the protection of civilian populations of belligerent countries against the dangers resulting from the use of weapons of mass destruction. It is indeed true that the Fourth Convention, apart from the protection of civilian hospitals and the suggested establishment of safety and neutralized zones, contains no provision against these dangers.

The Hungarian delegation, when signing the Conventions, noted with regret that Article 4 of the Fourth Convention excluded from the category of protected persons the nationals of States which had not adhered to that Convention and pointed out furthermore the dangers which might arise from the derogations listed in Article 5.

These various declarations do not constitute reservations from the legal point of view. Doubtless, the Powers who made them would have wished the Conference to go further, but it must be admitted that the results actually obtained in 1949 were considered by many impartial observers to have been beyond all expectation. Of course, it would have been highly desirable for the Diplomatic Conference to have drawn

up texts showing still greater humanitarian feeling, but the prime necessity was to ensure that the Conventions were ratified by a large number of States, and in particular by all the great Powers. That result has today been achieved and is a matter for congratulation. Furthermore, there is nothing to prevent certain of the liberal ideas expressed in the declarations made at the Conference from one day becoming part of international law. It is gratifying to know that protection of the population against the dangers of war is the subject of major provisions in the draft Protocols submitted in 1974 to the Diplomatic Conference and that these have been well received by the Conference.

As we shall see below, several governments have described as "reservations" statements which actually refer only to matters of intention or interpretation. As stated in the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, Article 2, paragraph 1 (d)

'reservation' means a unilateral statement, however phrased or named, made by a State, when signing, ratifying, accepting, approving or acceding to a treaty, whereby it purports to exclude or to modify the legal effect of certain provisions of the treaty in their application to that State.

III. General problems

The Vienna Convention also provided important clarification on another point, namely, on the value that should be attached to reservations stated at the time of signature of a treaty, but not expressly confirmed or repudiated on the occasion of ratification or subsequent acceptance. Several governments expressed reservations on signing the Geneva Conventions of 1949 but made no further reference to the subject at the time of ratification. Article 23, paragraph 2 of the Vienna Convention is specific on this point:

If formulated when signing the treaty subject to ratification, acceptance or approval, a reservation must be formally confirmed by the reserving State when expressing its consent to be bound by the treaty.

An interesting situation developed. After 1960, a great many States which were the successors to colonial powers confirmed their participation in the 1949 Geneva Conventions simply by making a declaration of continuity. This convenient formula has the advantage that it precludes any break in the previous participation in the Conventions, inasmuch

as the declaration of continuity takes effect as of the day established for the independence of the State in question. Other governments have preferred the formula of accession which presents the slight disadvantage that a six-months' delay elapses, under the very terms of the Conventions, between the act of accession and the time it enters into effect.

The formula of the declaration of continuity presented no difficulty when the power, to which the new State had succeeded, was a party which had made no reservations to the Geneva Conventions. This was the case, for example, for France and Belgium. On the other hand, for the States which succeeded to the United Kingdom, it must be noted that the British Government had made its ratification of the Fourth Geneva Convention of 1949 subject to a reservation concerning article 68. The United Kingdom in 1971, in a statement communicated to the States Parties to the Conventions, specifically withdrew this reservation. The question might then arise whether this withdrawal was equally effective concerning the States which had previously made declarations of continuity in their capacity as successors to the United Kingdom. This question involves the following States: Nigeria, Tanzania, Jamaica, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Lesotho, Guyana, Malta, Barbados, Mauritius and Fiji. It seems evident that following their declarations of continuity each of these States became a party to the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and that consequently whatever was done after their declaration of continuity by the power to which they succeeded could have no effect upon their status with regard to the Geneva Conventions of 1949. On the other hand, in applying by analogy the rule provided in article 23, paragraph 2 of the Vienna Convention concerning reservations expressed at the time of signature, one might say that the States which had made declarations of continuity should, if they had intended to assume on their own account the reservations expressed by the United Kingdom, have stated this specifically in their respective declarations of continuity. One might, on this basis, therefore, consider that these States are bound without reservations by the Geneva Conventions of 1949.¹

¹ This is not however the opinion of the International Law Commission of the United Nations (Report on 24th Session, No. 10 (A/8710/Rev.1), p. 15 and 26th Session (A/9610/Rev. 1), p. 66). That opinion was subject to criticism during discussions in the General Assembly by various speakers who would wish to see the successor state completely free to ratify, accede to, make reservations or withdraw them as it wished. This would amount to an illustration of the "clean slate" principle whereby successor States are not bound in any manner by treaties concluded by the State to which they succeed.

With regard to the attitude of States parties to the Conventions concerning the reservations expressed by other States, the United States, at the time of its ratification in 1955, made the following statement concerning each of the Conventions:

*Rejecting the reservations—other than to article 68, paragraph 2—which States have made with respect to the Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War, the United States accepts treaty relation with all parties to that Convention, except as to the changes proposed by such reservations.*¹

In our 1957 study, we came to the conclusion that the position adopted by the United States with regard to the reservations of the other States parties to the Conventions was no different from that adopted by the States which had merely made no statement concerning these reservations.

The interesting discussions which have taken place since 1957 on reservations to multilateral treaties, notably at meetings of the U.N. International Law Commission, confirm this conclusion and go even further. Particularly worthy of note is the report of the U.S. Senatorial Committee on Foreign Relations which examined the Geneva Conventions and originated the statement quoted above. According to this report:

... the Committee concurs with the conclusion of the executive branch that the most satisfactory means of dealing with these reservations is to make it clear that the United States does not accept them, but proposes to enter into treaty relations with the Soviet bloc countries with respect to the remaining, unreserved parts of the Conventions. If, in the event of armed conflict, any of those countries were to exploit reservations in an unwarranted manner so as to nullify the broad purposes of the Conventions, such action would, of course, alter the legal situation for the United States; and this Government would be free to reconsider its position. It is hoped that the members of the Soviet bloc may one day find it possible to withdraw their reservations, or will at least construe and apply them in a manner compatible with their legal and humanitarian obligations. In the meantime, by having treaty relations the United States has obtained agreement to the best standards of treatment and is in the soundest position to protect our nationals.²

¹ The language quoted refers specifically to the Fourth Convention. The texts concerning the other statements were the same except for the titles of the respective Conventions.

² Geneva Conventions for the protections of war victims. Report of the Committee on Foreign Relations: 48th Congress, 1st Session, Washington, 1955, p. 29.

After drawing up the text of the statement, the Committee continued:

It is the Committee's view that this statement adequately expresses the intention of our Government to enter into treaty relations with the reserving States so that they will be bound toward the United States to carry out reciprocally all the provisions of the Conventions on which no reservations were specifically made.¹

In his comments on the attitude adopted by the U.S. Government, Professor R. R. Baxter, gave an apt definition:

In effect, this statement constitutes a proposal to agree to disagree...²

Professor Baxter believes this attitude is in line with the views of the International Court of Justice on reservations to the Convention on Genocide and he quotes the following passage from an advisory opinion given by the Court:

It may be that the State, whilst not claiming that a reservation is incompatible with the object and purpose of the Convention, will nevertheless object to it, but that an understanding between that State and the reserving State will have the effect that the Convention will enter into force between them, except for the clauses affected by the reservation.

The position of the United States with respect to the Geneva Conventions and the reservations made by other States is therefore quite clear. Whilst recording disapproval of reservations other than those which it has itself made, the United States is treaty bound with reserving States except for the clauses affected by reservations. Consequently, as mentioned above, the U.S. standpoint is no different from that of other States which have made no statement on explicit reservations.

Such a situation is specifically covered by the Vienna Convention in article 20, paragraph 4 (b):

an objection by another contracting State to a reservation does not preclude the entry into force of the treaty as between the objecting and reserving States unless a contrary intention is definitely expressed by the objecting State.

Our reason for having examined the import of the U.S. Government's statement at length is that it is similar to those subsequently made by the Governments of the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand

¹ Ibid.

² *American Journal of International Law*, 1955, p. 552.

upon ratification (1957, 1958, 1959). These were of identical tenor and we quote hereunder the British version:

I am further instructed by Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom to refer to the reservations made to Article 85 of the Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War by the following States:

the People's Republic of Albania, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Bulgarian People's Republic, the People's Republic of China, the Czechoslovak Republic, the Hungarian People's Republic, the Polish Republic, the Rumanian People's Republic, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics,

and to the reservations to Article 12 of the Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War and to Article 45 of the Convention relative to the Treatment of Civilian Persons in Time of War made by all the above-mentioned States and by the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia.

I am instructed by Her Majesty's Government to state that whilst they regard all the above-mentioned States as being parties to the above-mentioned Conventions, they do not regard the above-mentioned reservations thereto made by those States as valid, and will therefore regard any application of any of those reservations as constituting a breach of the Convention to which the reservation relates.

New Zealand and Australia did not mention the People's Republic of China, but the Australian declaration had the following additional paragraph:

I am further instructed by the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia to refer to notifications concerning the "German Democratic Republic", the "Democratic People's Republic of Korea", the "Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam", and the "People's Republic of China". While the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia does not recognize any of the foregoing, it has taken note of their acceptance of the provisions of the Conventions and their intention to apply them. The position of the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia towards the reservations referred to above applies equally in relation to the similar reservations attached to such acceptance.

A subsequent exchange of notes on these statements, through the intermediary of the custodian government, took place between the

USSR and other countries which contested their validity on the one hand and the Governments of the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand on the other hand, without any completely clear conclusion being arrived at. Both sides advanced the advisory opinion of the International Court of Justice as justification for their standpoint.

With regard to the substance of the problem raised by the three foregoing statements we may observe that they can have no effect except upon article 85 of the Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War, since the only genuine reservation is the one applying to this article. Under the Vienna Convention a reservation is a unilateral statement made by a State whereby it purports to exclude or to modify the legal effect of certain provisions of the treaty in their application to that State.

On the other hand, the object of reservations made in respect of Article 12 of the Third Convention and Article 45 of the Fourth is not to exclude or modify the obligations incumbent on the reserving States, but to increase those incumbent on other States. In effect, the reserving States postulate that States transferring prisoners of war or civilians to some other Power remain responsible for the treatment of those persons, whereas the Conventions do not make any such provision.

As can be seen, the effect of these three statements is restricted; they only affect treatment of prisoners of war who, after trial, have been convicted for war crimes or crimes against humanity under the national law of the Detaining Power.

The standpoint of the British, Australian and New Zealand Governments would seem to be a new departure from any previously accepted theories. These Governments did not claim that the reservations were incompatible with the object and purpose of the treaty inasmuch as they specifically recognized the entry into force of the Conventions between themselves and the reserving States. Under the circumstances the legal situation between the three governments and the States making reservations would appear to be governed by paragraph 3 of article 21 of the Vienna Convention:

When a State objecting to a reservation has not opposed the entry into force of the treaty between itself and the reserving State, the provisions to which the reservation relates do not apply as between the two States to the extent of the reservation.

IV. Reservations concerning articles common to the four Geneva Conventions of 1949

Article 3

Two reservations were made with regard to this article at the time of signature.

Argentine :

"I shall, therefore, sign the four Conventions in the name of my Government and subject to ratification, with the reservation that Article 3, common to all four Conventions, shall be the only Article to the exclusion of all others, which shall be applicable in the case of armed conflicts not of an international character."

This reservation was without doubt unnecessary, since the text of Article 3 itself shows that it is the only article applicable to internal conflicts. Otherwise, there would be no point in the recommendation in paragraph 3 that Parties to the conflict should endeavour to bring into force, by means of special agreements, all or part of the other provisions of the Conventions. It is probably for this reason that the reservation was abandoned on ratification

Portugal :

As there is no actual definition of what is meant by a conflict not of an international character and as, in case this term is intended to refer solely to civil war, it is not clearly laid down at what moment an armed rebellion within a country should be considered as having become a civil war, Portugal reserves the right not to apply the provisions of Article 3, in so far as they may be contrary to the provisions of Portuguese law in all territories subject to her sovereignty in any part of the world.

This reservation raises a rather difficult problem of interpretation of the Geneva Conventions. Although Article 3 does give some important indications on the question, it does not provide an exact definition of a conflict which is not of an international character. This question was dealt with in detail by the ICRC in its Commentaries on the four Geneva Conventions. Furthermore, the Commission of Experts convened by the ICRC in 1955 for the study of the question of the application of humanitarian principles in the event of internal disturbances tried to define the scope of Article 3. They came to the conclusion that under

the terms of Article 3, the States bound by the Geneva Conventions are left a certain freedom in the interpretation of doubtful cases, but that it would be completely contrary to the spirit of the Conventions to base a decision on whether or not to apply Article 3 solely on national laws. The adoption of such an attitude would deprive of all meaning an article forming an important part of an international agreement.

Portugal, fortunately, did not maintain its reservation on ratification.

Article 10 of the first three Conventions and Article 11 of the fourth Convention, concerning the designation of a Protecting Power, are subject to reservations on the part of the following States: Albania, Byelorussia, Bulgaria, the People's Republic of China, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Guinea-Bissau, Hungary, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Ukraine, USSR, Democratic Republic of Vietnam, Provisional Revolutionary Government of South Vietnam and Yugoslavia.

These reservations are all to the same effect, although there are slight differences of wording. For example, the reservation made by the USSR in respect of the Third Convention (prisoners of war) and the general reservations made by Portugal and Hungary read as follows:

USSR concerning article 10:

“The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics will not recognize the validity of requests by the Detaining Power to a neutral State or to a humanitarian organization, to undertake the functions performed by a Protecting Power, unless the consent of the Government of the country of which the prisoners of war are nationals has been obtained.”

Hungarian People's Republic:

“In the opinion of the Government of the Hungarian People's Republic the provisions of Article 10 of the Wounded and Sick, Maritime Warfare and Prisoners of War Conventions and of Article 11 of the Civilians Convention, concerning the replacement of the Protecting Power, can only be applied if the Government of the State of which the protected persons are nationals no longer exists.”

Portugal:

Article 10 of Conventions I, II, III, and Article 11 of Convention IV:

The Portuguese Government only accepts the above articles with the reservation that requests by the Detaining Power to a neutral State or to a humanitarian organization to undertake the functions normally performed by protecting Powers are made with the consent or agreement of the government of the country of which the persons to be protected are nationals (Countries of origin).

The concern reflected in these reservations is not altogether pointless. There are cases in which the designation of a Protecting Power is impossible. The conflicts which broke out between Israel and her neighbours in 1956, 1967 and 1973 provide examples, for the fact that a number of the governments concerned did not recognize Israel as a State prevented the designation of Protecting Powers. Neither Israel nor the Arab countries involved asked any of the neutral States to assume the functions assigned to Protecting Powers by the Geneva Conventions of 1949. In fact, with the tacit agreement of the governments concerned, some of the humanitarian functions normally performed by the Protecting Powers were carried out by the International Committee of the Red Cross.

The problem therefore did not arise, but it is reasonable to suppose that if neutral States had been asked by the belligerents to act as Protecting Powers on behalf of enemy nationals, they would have sought to obtain the approval of the governments concerned.

This amounts to saying that a neutral State asked by a Detaining Power to act as Protecting Power will certainly not do so without having consulted the Government of the country of which the detainees are nationals, in so far as such a Government exists and can properly give an opinion. The question is more difficult in the case of a Government or a provisional body outside the national territory, but claiming to speak on behalf of the occupied State. It may happen that there are two Governments, each claiming to be the legitimate one, one in the national territory which has been occupied and the other abroad. Such cases occurred in the Second World War. As will be seen, the decisions which will have to be taken by the neutral States will not always be easy. However, these States must always be guided by two principles:

- (a) In such a situation, a neutral State which agrees to act as Protecting Power does not receive a mandate to do so from the Detaining

Power, but exercises its protection on behalf of all the States bound by the Conventions and must therefore consider itself responsible towards all those States.

- (b) Wherever it is possible to consult the Government of the country of origin of the protected persons or an authority or body which seems to be entitled to speak on their behalf, the neutral State must consult that Government, authority or body and take into account the opinion expressed.

If it is a humanitarian organization which is designated by the Detaining Power, the above considerations remain valid. The ICRC which is mentioned by name, performs the functions peculiar to it, some aspects of which are fixed by the Conventions themselves; for the Committee, therefore, it is merely a matter of adding to these functions the humanitarian tasks incumbent upon a Protecting Power. In a situation of this kind, the ICRC would certainly consult those who may properly speak on behalf of the persons for whose benefit these tasks are to be performed. Indeed, it did do so during the Second World War. When it was invited to take part in the defence before the courts of prisoners of war who were nationals of a country completely occupied by Germany, it first of all obtained the approval of the Government in exile. Of course, this applies only to the duties of the Protecting Power. The activities of the ICRC on behalf of war victims are carried out with complete independence, according to the principles of humanity, and the International Committee does not have to seek the prior consent of the country of origin of the persons to whom it brings relief.

As we can see, the reservations to Article 10 of Conventions I, II and III, and to Article 11 of Convention IV constitute nothing more than official commentaries on the articles in question.

They have the advantage of drawing the attention of neutral States and humanitarian organizations to their responsibilities. They will prevent a Detaining Power designating as Protecting Power a State only neutral in name and thus hindering other States which are really neutral from exercising their real functions.

It should be remarked that the wording used by Hungary seems to be the most realistic. Indeed, it merely limits the application of these articles to cases where a government no longer exists. In such a situation, it becomes impossible, at least officially, to engage in a prior consultation.

In the second session of the Diplomatic Conference, which has been studying the draft Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions of 1949 since 1974, the system of Protecting Powers was the subject of lengthy consideration. Committee I of the Conference, to which the question was referred, finally reached agreement on the text of articles dealing with the problem. It is worthy of note that in the course of lengthy and animated discussions the possibility that a Protecting Power should be designated by the Detaining Power was never raised. The lack of interest in such a procedure is probably due to the fact that since 1949 no situation has ever arisen in which a Protecting Power was designated by the Detaining Power. The discussions rather centered on the reinforcement of the obligation of designating and accepting Protecting Powers and on setting up a system for the all but automatic intervention of a substitute should the designation of a Protecting Power prove to be impossible. The procedure for the designation of this substitute reflects some of the concerns expressed by the authors of the various statements referred to above and the text finally adopted takes these concerns into account to a great extent. Thus, paragraph 4 of article 5, as adopted by the Committee, reads as follows:

If, despite the foregoing, there is no Protecting Power, the Parties to the conflict shall accept without delay an offer which may be made by the International Committee of the Red Cross or by any other organization which offers all guarantees of impartiality and efficacy, after due consultations with the said Parties and taking into account the result of these consultations, to act as a substitute. The functions of such a substitute is subject to the consent of the Parties to the conflict; all efforts shall be made by the Parties to facilitate the operation of a substitute in fulfilling its tasks under the Conventions and this Protocol. (CDDH/I/271)

As can be seen, the organizations which would serve as substitutes for the Protecting Powers are required by this paragraph to engage in appropriate consultations with the Parties to the conflict and take their views into account.

Article 11 of Conventions I, II and III, and **Article 12** of the Fourth Convention led to the following reservation by Hungary:

(2) The Government of the Hungarian People's Republic cannot approve the provisions of Article 11 of the Wounded and Sick, Maritime Warfare and Prisoners of War Conventions and of Article 12 of the Civilians Convention, according to which the competence of the Protecting Power extends to the interpretation of the Convention.

Now, this article in no way gives Protecting Powers competence to interpret the Conventions, but merely invites them to lend their good offices to settle differences concerning the application or interpretation of the Conventions—a very different thing. This reservation may therefore be regarded as the result of a misunderstanding; in any case it does not change the meaning of the article under consideration.

V. Reservations to the Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field

Article 38

Israel ratified the Convention:

Subject to the reservation that while respecting the inviolability of the distinctive signs and emblems of the Convention, Israel will use the Red Shield of David as the emblem and distinctive sign of the medical services of her armed forces.

Comparable “reservations” were made with regard to the Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea and the Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War. As we know, the Geneva Conventions of 1949 established as a distinctive emblem the red cross on a white background and also accepted, for countries which were already using them as a distinctive emblem instead of the red cross, the red crescent and the red lion and sun on a white background. The Conventions made no reference to the Red Shield of David.

At the Diplomatic Conference in 1949, which adopted the four Geneva Conventions, the Israel delegation proposed an amendment providing for the acceptance of the Red Shield of David as a distinctive emblem on an equal basis with the red crescent and the red lion and sun. This amendment was rejected by majority votes both in committee and in plenary session.

The question remains whether the statement made by Israel at the time of its ratification constitutes a reservation. As we have seen, the declaration of a reservation by a State may exclude or modify its own obligations but cannot, on the other hand, increase the obligations of other States which are parties to the treaty. We must conclude therefore that the Israel statement constitutes a unilateral declaration and not a reservation. A State can obviously identify its medical personnel and installations as it seems fit, but if this identification does not conform to the Geneva Convention it clearly does not have the same value. It should be recalled however, that hospitals, medical personnel, hospital ships, for example, must be respected as such as soon as their nature has been recognized, whether or not they have been identified by an emblem.

This situation has had various repercussions upon the Red Cross. The fact is that Israel has, under the name of Magen David Adom, a very active National Society with a programme comparable to that of National Red Cross Societies but which uses as its name and emblem the Red Shield of David. This organization has repeatedly asked the ICRC for recognition as the National Society of the State of Israel and has sought membership in the League of Red Cross Societies. The conditions customarily sought for recognition of new National Societies were formally confirmed in 1948 by the XVIIth International Red Cross Conference. The fifth condition for recognition provides that the new society shall "use the title and emblem of the Red Cross (Red Crescent, Red Lion and Sun), in conformity with the Geneva Convention". This text is explicit and the ICRC has been obliged, to its regret, to refuse the requests submitted to it, but it maintains close working relations with this Society.

The Magen David Adom had asked that its recognition be placed on the agenda of the XIXth International Conference of the Red Cross in 1957. The Standing Commission of the International Red Cross, however, whose task it is to draw up the draft agenda for the Conference, rejected this request, indicating that only a Diplomatic Conference for the revision of the Geneva Conventions could possibly create a new emblem.

This course is now being followed by the Government of Israel. Its delegation to the Diplomatic Conference which opened in Geneva in 1974 presented to the second session the following amendment:

“Add the following new article 2 bis to Part I of Protocol I:

Where the Red Shield of David on a white ground is already used as a distinctive emblem, that emblem is also recognized by the terms of the Conventions and the present Protocol.” (CDDH/I/286)

This amendment has not yet been considered by the Conference but will probably be taken up during the third session opening in Geneva on 21 April 1976. Without expressing any opinion on the merits of this proposal, we must recognize that the procedure chosen is correct. Only a Diplomatic Conference can modify the existing rules in this field. It is regrettable that the ICRC or the League of Red Cross Societies should ever have been blamed for this situation, for which they are not responsible.¹

Article 53

The *United States*, on ratifying the Conventions, entered the following reservation, which had not been made on signature:

The United States in ratifying the Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field does so with the reservation that irrespective of any provision or provisions in said Convention to the contrary, nothing contained therein shall make unlawful, or obligate the United States of America to make unlawful, any use or right of use within the United States of America and its territories and possessions of the Red Cross emblem, sign, insignia, or words as was lawful by reason of domestic law and a use begun prior to January 5, 1905, provided such use by pre-1905 users does not extend to the placing of the Red Cross emblem, sign, or insignia, upon aircraft, vessels, vehicles, buildings or other structures, or upon the ground.

The date of January 5, 1905 mentioned in this reservation is the date of the first American law regulating the use of the Red Cross emblem and reserving it for use by the military medical services and the American Red Cross. This law reserved the rights of prior users. Under the 1906 Geneva Convention and its revised version of 1929, the United States did not consider herself under the absolute obligation to prohibit the commercial use of the Red Cross emblem, whatever the date at which the undertakings concerned had begun to use it, and this situation

¹ See, *inter alia*, the Bulletin of the Magen David Adom, No. 8, January 1976. S. Rosenne, Israel Year Book on Human Rights, Vol. 5, 1975.

presented numerous disadvantages, particularly for the American Red Cross, since several commercial houses use the emblem and name of the Red Cross for advertisement or as a trade mark. It was hoped that the new 1949 Conventions would put an end to this confused situation. Unfortunately, this was not so; the commercial enterprises concerned were able to plead their cause before the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, and judgment went in their favour. It appears that the Senate allowed itself to be convinced by the argument, which we consider fallacious, that a prohibition of the use of the trade marks concerned would have a retroactive character, which would be contrary to the Constitution of the United States and the general principles of law.¹ As the *Commentary* on the Convention emphasizes,² a law only has retroactive effect when it punishes or prohibits past acts, it cannot be considered retroactive if it punishes or prohibits future acts. Now, in the present case, it was simply a matter of prohibiting misuse of the emblem from the date of the entry into force of the Convention.

With regard to rights acquired before 1905, this question could have been settled by granting users time to alter their trade mark, or even by the payment of fair compensation, if it was considered that appreciable damage had been done to their interests. Of course, this reservation has most effect on the national level, and internationally it has almost no bearing.

(To be continued)

Claude PILLOUD
Director, ICRC

¹ *Report of the Committee on Foreign Relations, D.E.F. and G.*, 82nd Congress, 1st session.

² *Commentary, Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field*, by Jean S. Pictet, page 387.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

CONFERENCE OF GOVERNMENT EXPERTS ON WEAPONS CLOSES

The second session of the Conference of Government Experts on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons which opened at Lugano under the auspices of the ICRC on 28 January 1976, ended on 26 February. After four weeks of discussions, a report containing a number of proposals on the prohibition or restriction of use of certain weapons was adopted by the experts of forty-three countries.

The proposals that were most warmly received by the Conference included one that prohibited the use of booby-traps and of projectiles the fragments of which cannot be detected by a medical examination of casualties hit by such projectiles. Some measure of agreement was also obtained regarding the possibility of applying rules to the laying of mines by remote control, so as not to endanger civilian lives. Various proposals were submitted on the prohibition or restriction of incendiary weapons. With regard to small-calibre projectiles with high muzzle-velocity, it was felt by the experts that they should be subjected to further tests, in order that their various effects on human bodies might be more accurately known and compared.

The report on the Lugano Conference will be transmitted immediately to Governments, to the Diplomatic Conference on Humanitarian Law, the third session of which is due to open at Geneva in April next, and to the United Nations General Assembly. The work of the Lugano Conference experts constitutes a significant step forward in the process which should lead to the formulation of internationally accepted and applicable rules on the use of conventional weapons.

A report on the Conference will be given in a forthcoming issue of *International Review*.

*EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES***Africa****Angola**

General situation. — The political and military developments in Angola after its accession to independence on 11 November 1975, affected ICRC action, which has been pursued under more difficult conditions. In particular, the ICRC was no longer free to move about from one area to another as it had been doing previously; as a result of this, the DC-6 aircraft, which it had chartered and by means of which regular supply links had been established with its teams throughout Angolan territory, returned to Switzerland. The ICRC delegates, however, continued their work of protection (visiting prisoners, transmitting family messages, registering missing persons) and assistance (medical and surgical work and distribution of food to displaced persons) by adapting it to the new conditions. They were able to do this as emergency supplies had been accumulated locally before independence and consignments were subsequently sent by sea or by charter flights.

Mr. Schmidt, ICRC delegate general for Africa, carried out a mission in December 1975 to all the parties involved in the conflict with a view to contacting the new authorities and seeking a solution to these problems. He discussed questions relating to the continuation of ICRC activities and particularly to the possibility of resuming emergency flights. In Kampala he was also received by Marshal Idi Amin Dada, the Chairman in office of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), whom he informed of the action undertaken by the ICRC in Angola and of the difficulties encountered. At the same time talks were held with the Governments of Zaire and the People's Republic of the Congo with a view to the possible opening of two logistics bases, in Kinshasa and Brazzaville respectively, which could have served as relief bases for all areas of Angola.

On President Idi Amin Dada's invitation, Mr. Schmidt, accompanied by Mr. Roger Santschy, ICRC delegate, was present in his capacity as an observer at the Special Conference of the Heads of Member States of the OAU on the Angola problem, which was held at Addis Ababa from 10 to 12 January 1976. As the conference, however, failed to find a political solution to the conflict, no action could be taken either in respect of humanitarian assistance.

At the end of January the ICRC recalled its medical co-ordinator and its heads of delegation in the field to Geneva for consultations, in order to review the situation and lay down the basis for the ICRC's future action in Angola.

New plan of operation. — As a result of these discussions, and taking into account the developments in the country, the ICRC set up a new plan of operation for the first half of 1976. Apart from maintaining the three medico-surgical teams which have been operating since the beginning of the ICRC action, the plan provided for the dispatch of about ten mobile medical teams, each consisting of a doctor and a nurse, who would cover the entire country.

The ICRC also decided to continue its customary activities for prisoners, and the work of the Central Tracing Agency.

The budget prepared at the beginning of February amounted to 16 million Swiss francs, of which 14 million were for relief (100 tons medicaments and medical equipment, 1,870 tons supplementary supplies, and 300 tons miscellaneous items including blankets, clothing, toilet articles, etc.) and 2 million for operational costs.

Mr. J. P. Hocké, Director of ICRC Operations, went to Luanda at the end of February to discuss this plan with the Government of the People's Republic of Angola.

Delegates' activities. — At the beginning of February, two delegates, who went to the Sao Salvador area in the north of Angola to assess the situation of 10,000 displaced persons who urgently required assistance, were joined soon afterwards in Kinshasa by a mobile medical team.

After the forces of the People's Republic of Angola had taken over the town of Uige, the medico-surgical team (provided for the ICRC by the Swiss Red Cross) which was posted to the hospital there was replaced by Angolan doctors. At the time of going to press, new posting of the ICRC team had not yet been decided upon.

Near the southern border a delegate, who visited four refugee camps sheltering 11,000 persons, made an estimate of the needs and distributed emergency relief supplies.

In mid-February the ICRC delegation in Huambo consisted of six delegates and a mobile medical team (Swiss Red Cross). When the town was taken over by the forces of the People's Republic of Angola, this team was posted to the Central hospital. In addition, the ICRC had a medico-surgical team of seven persons in Vouga (British Red Cross).

In Luanda the ICRC delegation consisted of eight delegates. In addition, a medico-surgical team of seven persons (Swedish Red Cross) was operating at the hospital in Dalatando.

Aid. — By early February the ICRC had, since the beginning of its action, dispatched for the victims of the Angola conflict 716 tons of food supplies, 45 tons of medicaments and medical equipment and 20,000 blankets, to a value of 2.8 million Swiss francs.

Ethiopia

At the end of the OAU Special Conference, Mr. Santschy, ICRC delegate, extended his stay in Addis Ababa to examine, together with the Ethiopian authorities, problems relating to further series of visits to political prisoners ¹ and to the possibility of providing assistance for the civilians who have suffered from the clashes taking place in the province of Eritrea. So far, these problems remain unsolved.

Rhodesia

At the end of 1975, Mr. N. de Rougemont, ICRC regional delegate for Southern Africa, accompanied by a medical delegate, visited seven detention centres in Rhodesia containing about 580 prisoners. It should be borne in mind that in this country the ICRC is authorized to visit persons detained under an administrative order who are in custody without judgement, but not prisoners submitted to interrogation, undergoing trial or sentenced.

Western Sahara

In order to carry out its customary tasks of protection and assistance for the victims of the events in the Western Sahara, the ICRC dispatched several missions to Algeria, Western Sahara, Morocco and Mauritania during the last three months.

As far as aid was concerned, it was necessary at first to make an assessment of the situation of the Sahara civilian population and of their needs by visiting the camps sheltering refugees and displaced persons.

¹ The ICRC had been authorized to carry out such visits in 1974.

LEBANON



ICRC field hospital in Beirut.



ICRC field hospital in Beirut—displaced persons waiting to be treated by ICRC doctors.

As indicated in the last issue of the *International Review*, a joint appeal by the ICRC and the League, which also sent delegates to the area, was sent to a number of National Societies and Governments in order to obtain the necessary funds for their action.

By the beginning of February the ICRC had sent to the region 400 tons of flour, 116 tons of powdered milk (including four tons donated by the Swiss Red Cross), 9 tons of baby foods (Netherlands Red Cross), 6,100 blankets and 4 tons of clothing (ICRC, British, Netherlands and Swiss Red Cross), and medicaments to a value of 31,500 francs (ICRC, British and Swiss Red Cross).

As regards protection, ICRC delegates were able to visit in Western Sahara eight Moroccan and four Mauritanian prisoners in the hands of the Polisario Front; in Nouakchott they were allowed to visit 63 Polisario Front prisoners in Mauritanian hands, while in Rabat they visited 99 Algerian prisoners held by the Moroccans.

Latin America

Chile

The ICRC delegation in Chile, consisting of 6 persons, is continuing its activities on behalf of the prisoners and their families.

In 1975 the ICRC delegates made 258 visits to 88 detention centres containing about 4000 detainees in the hands of the military authorities.

Venezuela

From the end of November 1975 to the end of January 1976, the ICRC carried out its seventh series of visits to detention centres in Venezuela. On this occasion Mr. Eddi Leemann, the regional delegate for the countries of the Andes, visited 10 detention centres housing about 8000 detainees, including about a hundred detained for political reasons or offences.

Middle East

The President of the ICRC Executive Council in the Arab Republic of Egypt

On the invitation of the Egyptian Government and Egyptian Red Crescent, Mr. Roger Gallopin, President of the ICRC Executive Council, made an official visit to Egypt from 8 to 17 January 1976.

On this occasion he was received by top government officials who gave him a very warm welcome. Prominent Egyptian personalities who met Mr. Gallopin included Mrs. Gehan Sadate, Honorary President of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society, Mr. Sayed Marei, Speaker of the People's Assembly, Mr. Mamdouh Salem, Prime Minister, Mr. Ismail Fahmi, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Foreign Affairs, Lieutenant General Abdel Ghani El Gamassi, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of War, Dr. Fouad Mohyedine, Minister of Health, and Dr. Aisha Rateb, Minister for Social Affairs. Mr. Gallopin also held talks with Mr. Mahmoud Riyad, Secretary General of the Arab League. The subjects discussed during these talks related to the work of the ICRC throughout the world with particular reference to the Middle East, and the financial support of the Arab States to the ICRC.

In addition, Mr. Gallopin visited the newly-built units of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society in Cairo, in particular its blood bank and first aid centre. He took the opportunity of thanking Dr. Mahmoud Mahfouz, President of the Egyptian Red Crescent, for the support given by the National Society to the ICRC delegation in Cairo.

ICRC member's mission in Jordan and Syria

From 16 to 26 January, Mr. Marcel A. Naville, ICRC member and former president, carried out a mission which took him first to Jordan and then to Syria.

In *Jordan*, Mr. Naville was received in audience by H.M. King Hussein and H.H. Prince Hassan. He also held talks with Mr. Zaid Rifai, Prime Minister, Mr. Sughri Amin 'Amr, Minister of Development and Reconstruction, Mr. Sadek El-Shari, Minister of State for Foreign Affairs, and with General Zaid Bin Shaker, Commander-in-Chief of the Jordanian Army.

In *Syria*, Mr. Naville was received by General Tlass, Minister of Defence, Mr. Fayez El Nasir, Minister of State for the Premiership, Mr. Abdul Ghani Ra'fi, Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Mr. Noury Ramzi, Deputy Minister of Health.

During these talks, Mr. Naville discussed problems concerning ICRC action, particularly in the Middle East, and the financial support of the Arab States to the ICRC.

Mr. Naville also held further discussions on the subject with Dr. Abu-Goura, President of the Jordanian Red Crescent, and Prof. Chatti, President of the Syrian Red Crescent.

Lebanon

During the fighting which took place in the Lebanese capital in the first three weeks of January, the ICRC received requests for medical supplies from the Lebanese Ministry of Health, the Lebanese Red Cross and the "Palestinian Red Crescent."

To meet these needs in the minimum of time, the ICRC chartered an aircraft which landed at Beirut airport on 24 January with a load of about 10 tons of emergency medical supplies (blood substitutes, surgical and transfusion equipment, antibiotics and dressings). At the same time Mr. Laurent Marti was dispatched to Lebanon to make an assessment of the situation and initiate relief action with the assistance of the delegates already on the spot.

As the ICRC delegates had reported large numbers of wounded and as several Beirut hospitals were overcrowded, the ICRC with the agreement of the donor National Societies of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden took the initiative of setting up the field hospital¹ which had been stored in its Beirut warehouse, to provide adequate treatment for casualties. The field hospital, containing 120 beds, was set up in an impoverished district of Beirut, near a displaced persons camp. The National Societies mentioned above have provided the specialized medical staff necessary for running the hospital.

During the last week of January and the first week of February, in order to meet the needs reported by its delegation, the ICRC sent to Lebanon about 26 tons of medical supplies, 5 tons of powdered milk and 1500 blankets, to a value of nearly 700,000 Swiss francs.

During the same period, after having been informed of the needs, the National Societies of Austria, Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands, and the European Economic Community supplied aid in the form of medical supplies, powdered milk, baby food, blankets and clothing to a value of approximately 440,000 Swiss francs.

The ICRC delegation in Beirut, consisting of 15 persons, distributed these items to the victims in collaboration with the Lebanese Red Cross, the Lebanese authorities and the "Palestinian Red Crescent."

The delegation, moreover, was very active in the field of tracing missing persons; thus, in January it received about a thousand enquiries. Its role consisted in contacting the persons concerned and providing the enquirers with news. During the latest fighting, the Lebanese radio had agreed to broadcast lists of names with a view to facilitating a task rendered particularly difficult in view of the circumstances.

¹ Plate.

*IN GENEVA***An ICRC publication**

Under the title "ICRC Action in Angola", the Press and Information Division has published — in French, English and Portuguese — a well illustrated booklet on the humanitarian work that has been carried on by the International Committee for some years in Angola. In fact, though the delegation was opened in that country only in 1975, relations with the Angola authorities go back much further.

The report states that "since 1972... the ICRC has had regular contacts in Africa with the Angolan liberation movements, to which it supplied essential humanitarian aid, especially medical supplies. In addition, the ICRC delegates several times visited Angolan combatants held by the Portuguese Army and Portuguese soldiers captured by the liberation movements. They also escorted prisoners who had been freed."

The booklet sums up the work of the ICRC, the customary aid and the medical services, the provision of relief, the transmission of messages and the search for missing persons, up to the end of last year. There is a foreword by Mr. Gallopin, President of the Executive Board, who points out that this work could be carried on only because of the financial support received from some governments, National Societies and various other organizations.

... Thanks to this help, the ICRC delegates, operating in the field from the start of the fighting, have been able to carry on their work: providing surgery and medical treatment in each battle zone, supplying food and material assistance to people driven from their homes, visiting prisoners of war and civilians held by hostile forces, forwarding family messages, listing missing persons. In short, the operation reported in the pages that follow has called into play most of the functions exercised by the ICRC in a conflict.

At the time when these lines were written, the ICRC was still carrying on its mission in Angola. Regrettably, humanitarian aid is not the predominant concern of all members of the international community, and financial support having been inadequate, the ICRC's resources are at an end.

Therefore, while thanking the authorities in question for the facilities we have been afforded, and expressing my gratitude to those who have provided the means for the ICRC to assume its humanitarian work until now, I appeal to all nations and to everyone who is distressed by the conflict in Angola to give us the resources we need to continue.

I hope that the people of Angola, now suffering so much, will soon find peace and with it the living conditions which every human community must have for the welfare of its members.

A HUMANITARIAN CERTIFICATE

The ICRC travel document

The International Review has often referred to the humanitarian importance of the ICRC travel document, especially when events produce massive movements of people across frontiers. Recent examples are the transfers of people from Uganda to various countries which granted them asylum and from the island of Guam to other places. In the first instance, the travel documents were given to refugees of Indian origin and in the second to Vietnamese refugees. In both cases, the ICRC document rendered a great service to its recipients.

We believe it may be useful to recall the nature of the travel document and the purpose of the International Committee in providing it.

At the end of World War II, the urgency of many problems confronting them made it impossible for some governments to give sufficient attention to various categories of war victims, especially to refugees and displaced persons who had lost their identity documents or who could not obtain renewal of their passports.

It was to remedy this situation that the ICRC created the "travel document", whose original purpose was to enable those receiving it to return to their countries, to remain in the countries where they were or to go on to other countries.

There are no government-established legal provisions covering the ICRC travel document. Information about the civil status of the bearer consists only of the statements made in his application to the ICRC. The travel document does not therefore have the authentic character of an official document delivered by public authorities, certifying the identity of the bearer, such as a passport, identity card, etc. Its validity is therefore subject to its recognition by the governments of host countries and by their diplomatic and consular agents. The ICRC therefore does not

provide the document except with the agreement of the government of the country to which the applicants intend to go.

In most cases, the ICRC travel documents are requested either by the Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees (if the applicant is not eligible for the assistance of that organization) or by the National Red Cross Society in the country where the refugee is. These two institutions provide the ICRC with sufficient evidence of the good faith of the applicants.

The documents are still provided to enable civilians to emigrate to countries of their choosing. They are only given however to persons who do not possess identity documents or whose passports have become invalid.

An ICRC travel document can only be delivered when the three following conditions are met:

1. The applicant has no valid passport or possibility of obtaining one;
2. Authorization to leave the country has been given the applicant;
3. The diplomatic or consular representatives of the country to which the applicant wishes to travel have promised an entry visa.

The travel document is delivered without charge. Its validity is usually limited to three months, a period considered sufficient for the necessary formalities and the arrangements for migration. In principle, the document is not renewable. It is essentially intended to permit a single journey to a final host country. It has no value after the refugee has arrived in the host country; it is then up to the authorities of that country to provide the refugee with an official identity document.

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS IN VIETNAM

At the invitation of the Red Cross Societies of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam and of the Republic of South Vietnam, Mr. J.-P. Hocké, director of the Operations Division of the ICRC, visited Hanoi from 19 to 27 November 1975, and then Saigon from 28 November to 3 December 1975.

This mission, in which Mr. Hocké was also acting in his capacity as joint director of the ICRC/League Indochina Bureau, had the following main objectives:

- (a) to gather more detailed information on the use of aid already supplied;
- (b) to discuss plans for future assistance and co-operation;
- (c) to re-examine other humanitarian problems, such as the reuniting of families, aid to foreigners stranded in Vietnam without resources, tracing missing persons, etc.

The authorities and the National Societies of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam and of the Republic of South Vietnam showed great efficiency and co-operative spirit, and were keenly aware that, out of 137 million Swiss francs spent on aid to Indochina since January 1973, 112 millions had been for Vietnam. A promise was given to increase co-operation in the sense requested by Geneva.

In the Republic of South Vietnam, Mr. Hocké visited new economy zones in the area of Thieu Dao Mott, some 80 kilometres northwest of Saigon, and in the provincial centre of Ben Tre, 130 km south of Saigon, where members of the Red Cross gave medical treatment and distributed food.

Republic of South Vietnam

After the visit of Mr. Hocké, the Red Cross of the Republic of South Vietnam presented a complete report for the period between

1 May and 30 November 1975. During this period, the Society received, through the International Red Cross, 4,343 tons of relief supplies, of which 58 tons were sent by air and 4,285 tons by sea. Of the total, 2,928 tons—comprising sugar, dried milk, flour, raw cotton and synthetic fibres—were made up in the country into food ready for consumption or into clothing, and were distributed by the Red Cross to people in need. When the report was written, there were still 508 tons of relief supplies awaiting Customs clearance in the harbour, while 907 tons of food and other goods had been taken to the Society's central storage depots from which 432 tons had been distributed.

Up to the end of November 1975, the Red Cross of the Republic of South Vietnam had assisted the following persons:

- (a) displaced persons being re-established in their own villages or in new centres of economic development 367,865 persons
- (b) victims of natural catastrophes, people in need in areas devastated by the war, orphans, etc. 190,890 persons

In addition to the 432 tons of relief supplies received from the International Red Cross, the Red Cross of the Republic of South Vietnam has distributed 698 tons of supplies sent by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and 40 tons received from other sources, an overall total of 1,170 tons.

The 43 tons of medical supplies sent to the Red Cross of the Republic of South Vietnam enabled the Society to continue uninterrupted the activities of its two dispensaries in Saigon and Gia Dinh. They also made it possible to reopen the dispensaries run by the provincial Committees of the Society in My-Tho, Bèn-Tre, Long-Suyen, Can-Tho, Sadec, Rach-Gia, Ca-Mau and Tuyen-Duc. In addition, stocks of medicines and dressing were sent to Hué to help flood victims there. Mobile Red Cross medical teams are operating in rural areas and in centres for Vietnamese citizens from Cambodia, as well as in the new centres for agricultural development, which have not yet been provided with proper medical services. In the dispensaries in Saigon and Gia-Dinh alone, the Red Cross treated 61,216 patients in the period between 1 May and 30 November 1975.

Apart from the 4,343 tons of supplies sent to Saigon, 15,781 tons were sent to the Red Cross of the Republic of South Vietnam through the port of Danang and 1,103 tons through Haiphong and the airport at Hanoi. The last two consignments were distributed by the Red Cross in the provinces of central Vietnam and in the Western Highlands.

The Red Cross of the Republic of South Vietnam, in close collaboration with the International Red Cross delegation in Saigon, has worked out an overall plan, properly balanced financially, for aiding people in need during 1976. The plan comprises several programmes, each of them carefully worked out and presented in detail. The needs listed correspond closely with those observed on the spot by Mr. Hocké during his recent visit and corroborated by the delegates and other observers, as well as by reports on the situation in South Vietnam.

The head of the delegation, one assistant and an ICRC doctor, and a delegate representative the League, remained in Saigon throughout 1975. The delegation has done much valuable work in tracing people, and in registering and repatriating foreigners. In addition, from the beginning of June 1975 the delegation has been running a medical dispensary in its headquarters; this has proved particularly useful to foreigners, often with no money and in difficulties owing to the absence of any consular services.

Democratic Republic of Vietnam

During talks in November in Hanoi, Mr. Hocké received a list of medical supplies required by the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. The total cost of these supplies is estimated at 2 million Swiss francs. Small quantities of office supplies and paper were also asked for, to a value of about 50,000 Swiss francs.

**THE RED CROSS
AND THE DANGER IN COMMERCE
OF BLOOD PRODUCTS**

The International Review for September 1975, under the foregoing title, carried an article on the grave problem presented, to quote a resolution adopted by the 28th World Health Assembly, by "the extensive and increasing activities of private firms in trying to establish commercial blood collection and plasmapheresis projects in developing countries". The monthly bulletin Transfusion, published by the League of Red Cross Societies, has now published (No. 5) details of recent activities of this kind that have given cause for concern:

During the recent World Health Assembly held in Geneva in May 1975, a resolution was passed on the Utilization and Supply of Human Blood and Blood Products, which requests the Director-General to study further the practice of commercial plasmapheresis including the health hazards and ethical implications, to increase assistance to Member States in the development of national blood services and to assist in establishing co-operation between countries to secure adequate supply of blood and blood products based on voluntary donations. The XXIIInd International Conference of the Red Cross, held in Teheran in 1973, adopted resolution XVIII which fully endorses the principle of voluntary donation of blood and makes similar recommendations to those of the World Health Assembly. Finally, at a symposium organized last July in Helsinki by the International Society of Blood Transfusion (ISBT), the League and WHO during the XIVth Congress of the ISBT, these recommendations were strongly supported.

The WHO and the League therefore decided to convene a group of international experts in the field of utilization and supply of human blood and blood products in order to assist and advise health organizations in the planning and implementation of their activities

following the resolutions referred to above. Invitations were sent to experts from Algeria, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Ecuador, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Hungary, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Tanzania, United Kingdom, the United States of America, and to the Council of Europe and the ISBT. Observers from pharmaceutical firms took part in the meetings.

This meeting, which took place in Berne thanks to the generous hospitality of the Swiss Red Cross, and its Central Blood Transfusion Laboratory, was preceded by a consultation of a small working group in the WHO headquarters in Geneva (December 1-5) to study the possibilities of establishing guidelines for good manufacturing practices.

HENRY DUNANT INSTITUTE

The Henry Dunant Institute will shortly publish in its series "*Collection scientifique*", a book of more than 500 pages entitled *Guérilla et droit humanitaire* which it will sell at a special subscription price up to 30 April 1976.¹ This book by Michel Veuthey, a member of the ICRC staff, contains a preface by Jean Pictet, ICRC Vice-President, Associate Professor at Geneva University and Director of the Henry Dunant Institute.

The chapter headings are: humanitarian law, guerrilla warfare, inadequacy of humanitarian law, application of humanitarian law, methods and means of fighting, the wounded, prisoners, civilians, application agencies, conclusions. The main themes are defined by the editor in the following manner:

Guerrilla warfare and humanitarian law, a long-shot in five words!
How can law prevail in warfare, and humanity in guerrilla warfare?
With due regard for the legal aspects of the application of humanitarian

¹ Subscriptions price Sw.fr. 47.—. From 1 May, price in bookshops Sw.fr. 69.—. Subscriptions to: Henry Dunant Institute, 114 rue de Lausanne, 1202 Geneva.

rules to guerrilla warfare, and with ample documentary evidence, the author objectively and concretely poses the essential problems: methods and means of fighting, the plight of civilians, prisoners, the wounded, the sick and the various agencies for the application of humanitarian law.

Michel Veuthey, who has been taking part since 1967 in the work for the reaffirmation and development of humanitarian law, has based his book not only on published writings but also on his many contacts with guerrilla fighters and their enemies while he was a delegate of the International Committee of the Red Cross or during his private travels in Africa, Asia, Europe and the Middle East.

With the contemporary development of wars of resistance, struggles for freedom, and revolutionary uprisings, the question considered in this book, namely whether humanitarian law can keep terrorism, reprisals and torture in check, prevent outrages by all concerned, restrain violence and pave the way to peace, is one which is of vital concern to mankind today.

GUATEMALA

The appeal launched by the League on 5 February to all National Societies to provide assistance to victims of the earthquake resulted in a great demonstration of solidarity throughout the Red Cross world. Responding to its own responsibilities, the Guatemalan Red Cross played a major role. As the League reported, the assistance extended, and the resources already available to it, made it possible to intervene immediately when the earthquake occurred:

Since its foundation in 1923 the Guatemalan Red Cross has concentrated on organising its relief services for effective action. At present, the emphasis is being placed on disaster relief preparedness.

In this context the Guatemalan Red Cross has established close relations with the Government and is cooperating with the National Emergency Committee. With technical help from the League, the Society has drawn up a disaster relief preparedness plan, under which small emergency committees of three to five people have been set up in each municipality, programmes of action established and specialised personnel trained in rescue and evacuation, shelter, mass feeding, first aid and medical services.

Within the terms of an agreement with the Government, the Guatemalan Red Cross is responsible for stocking, administering and distributing relief supplies and setting up disaster relief posts. In carrying out relief actions, it receives the support of the Government and the help of the army.

BELGIUM

Under the title *Universeel*, the Flemish section of the Red Cross of Belgium has published the first issue of a new journal, the purpose of which, according to the editorial, is to give the public an image of the Red Cross and what it does. The other function of the journal is to gather news of the work being done in Flanders and to act as a link between the various groups.

The contents demonstrate these aims: there is an account of the work involved in collecting donations of blood, and a report of prompt assistance provided by the Red Cross during the recent floods in the province of Antwerp. But history, too, has its place, and a generously illustrated article describes a visit to Heiden and its museum of souvenirs of Henry Dunant, who spent his last years in the Appenzell village. The author of the article is Mr. Carl Vandekerckhove, Director-General of the Red Cross of Belgium (Flemish section), who also wrote a remarkable study, published in the *International Review* (March 1975), of the eminent Red Cross figure Constance Teichmann.

U.S.S.R.

Last year, on the occasion of the twenty-fifth award, the ICRC announced that the Florence Nightingale Medal would be presented to nurses or nursing auxiliaries of eighteen countries, among them seven nurses from the U.S.S.R. They are *Vera Ivanovna Ivanova*, *Ludmila Antonovna Rodionova*, *Nadeja Andreevna Boyko*, *Sophia Vassilievna Goloukhova*, *Razia Chakenovna Iskakova*, *Evdokia Pavlovna Vartzaba* and *Ekaterina Efimovna Sirenko*.¹

The Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies kindly sent us details which will indicate to our readers the importance attached in the U.S.S.R. to the distinction conferred by the ICRC. Thus, several major newspapers published either an interview with one of the medallists or articles recounting the missions performed during the Second World War by these nurses, who often saved wounded persons at the risk of their own lives. Likewise, the *Soviet Red Cross* printed articles about them in several issues, and it was leading personalities of the Red Cross who presented the medal and the accompanying diploma. To give one example, at a well-attended ceremony the President of the Red Cross of Bielorussia, having made an address praising the spirit of sacrifice, pinned the medal on Madame Sirenko.

¹ Plate.

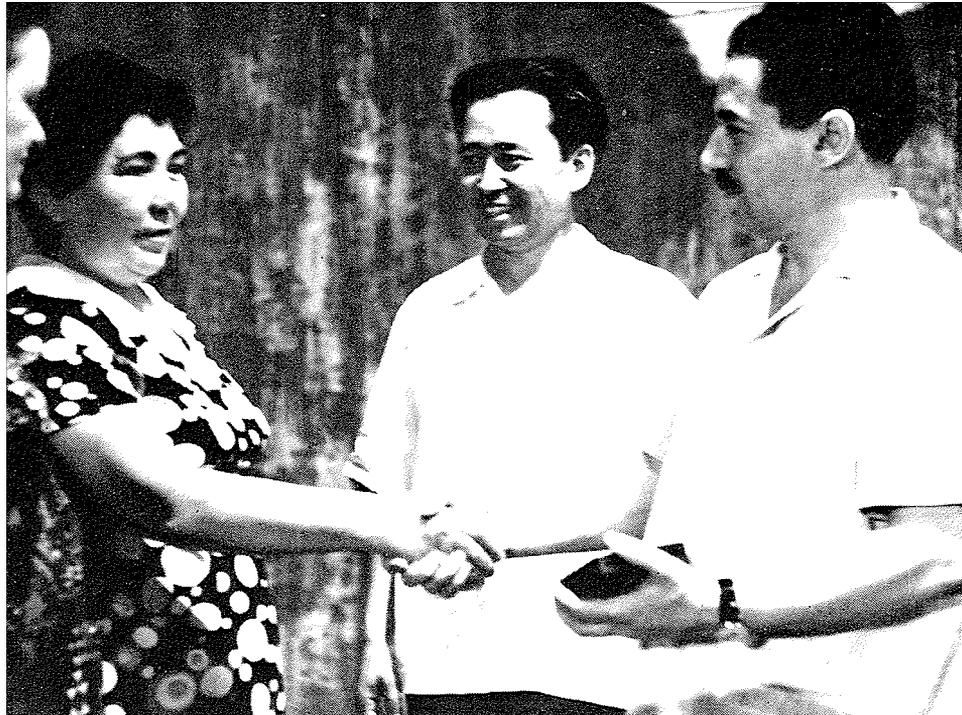


The Florence Nightingale Medal and citation presented to Mrs. Vera Ivanovna Ivanova...

USSR

... and to Mrs. Ekaterina Efimovna Sirenko.





Congratulations to two recipients of the Florence Nightingale Medal, Mrs. Razia Chakenovna Iskakova...

USSR

... and Mrs. Sophia Vassilievna Goloukhova.



PROHIBITION OF CERTAIN WEAPONS OR RESTRICTION OF THEIR USE

The second Conference of Government Experts on weapons that may cause unnecessary suffering or have indiscriminate effects, which was convoked by the International Committee of the Red Cross to meet in Lugano in February 1976, is one of the many attempts to reduce human suffering in war. Those attempts, desired by governments and carried out within the United Nations, at the Diplomatic Conference on the development of humanitarian law and within the Red Cross movement, are intended to meet a need which has been expressed innumerable times throughout history. We publish below the following informative text.

A review of the past

In ancient times there was already a tendency to prohibit some weapons (poison, poisoned or burning arrows, barbed weapons, and so forth). Beside the notion of just war, the idea of prohibited weapons was known to the Romans. They called “bellum nefarium”—heinous war—a war which was indiscriminate and obeyed no law.

In the Middle Ages, the church made halfhearted efforts to prohibit projectile-propelling weapons but its attempts were frustrated by the theory of “just war”.

Likewise at the beginning of modern times. In the seventeenth century Vattel stated that belligerents did not have an unlimited choice in weapons of war and that unnecessary suffering had to be avoided. However, it is still too frequently thought that anything is permissible by way of reprisals, or justifiable on a plea of necessity.

The law as it stands

Today, we must not only protect the civilian population by banning weapons of indiscriminate effect; we must determine whether the use of some weapons even against military personnel must be prohibited because of the extreme suffering which they cause.

The general principles of the law of war may be invoked:

- (a) Belligerents should not inflict harm out of proportion to the objective of war, that is to say the destruction or weakening of the enemy's power (St. Petersburg Declaration).
- (b) Belligerents do not have an unlimited choice of ways and means to harm an enemy (St. Petersburg Declaration 1868 and Article 22 of the Hague Regulations of 1899 and 1907).
- (c) It is forbidden "to employ arms, projectiles, or material calculated to cause unnecessary suffering" (Article 23 (e) of the Annex to the Hague Convention of 1907 concerning the Laws and Customs of War on Land).

Where is the limit? What suffering is not "useless"? What harm is not "unnecessary"? For each weapon the balance between military advantage and humanitarian considerations must be found. If a soldier can be put *hors de combat* by being captured he should not be injured; if he can be disabled by injury, he should not be killed; if a slight wound is sufficient, a serious one should not be inflicted. If two methods of attack will produce the same result, the one causing least harm must be used. In short, what the Hague Conferences sought to ban were weapons which caused excessive suffering or harm going beyond the permissible threshold.

Specific bans

- (a) The St. Petersburg Declaration of 1868 prohibits projectiles which weigh less than 400 grams, are explosive or convey inflammable substances.
- (b) Under Article 23 (a) of the Hague Regulations, it is "forbidden to employ poison or poisoned weapons".
- (c) The 1899 Hague Declaration prohibits bullets "which expand or flatten easily in the human body" (dum-dum bullets).
- (d) Under the Hague Declaration of 1889—renewed in 1907—it is forbidden to launch "projectiles and explosives from balloons or by other new methods of similar nature".

- (e) Under the Hague Declaration of 1899, the parties thereto “agree to abstain from the use of projectiles the sole object of which is the diffusion of asphyxiating or deleterious gases”.
- (f) The Hague Convention No. VIII of 1907 forbids the laying of unanchored underwater mines which do not become harmless when they are out of control, and the use of underwater torpedoes which do not automatically become defused when they miss the target.
- (g) The 1925 Geneva Protocol prohibits “the use in war of asphyxiating, poisonous or other gases and of bacteriological methods of warfare”.
- (h) The Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxic Weapons and on Their Destruction (1971) implicitly forbids the use of such weapons by States bound by that Convention.

Weapons classification

The weapons which it is desired to ban or restrict include ABC weapons (atomic, biological and chemical) which are at present the subject of thorough study within the United Nations. By contrast, the work under the auspices of the ICRC is intended to cover five other categories, namely: incendiary weapons; high muzzle-velocity small-calibre projectiles; blast and fragmentation weapons; delayed-action and treacherous weapons; and future weapons.

In this article, we shall describe only the weapons examined by the Lugano Conference of Experts.

(a) Incendiary weapons

Fire weapons have been employed since antiquity. It is said that in the third century B.C. Archimedes set naval vessels on fire with the help of mirrors. In the Middle Ages, a combustible composition of naphtha and other substances, known as “Greek fire”, was used and was inextinguishable by water. The destructive effect of incendiary weapons is coupled with a psychological fear, for man has an instinctive terror of fire.

The Disarmament Conference sought, as early as 1932, to ban incendiary weapons, which it considered to be on the same plane as bacteriological and chemical weapons. Unfortunately, it was unsuccessful.

These weapons have come to be widely used in modern warfare. A large proportion of bombs dropped during the Second World War were incendiaries, which proved to be more effective than high-explosive

bombs. In the bombing attack on Hamburg 43 000 people died; the attack on Tokyo caused the death of 83 000 people.

Incendiary bombs, containing phosphorus, sodium or magnesium, reach temperatures of 2 000 to 4 000 degrees Centigrade.

Napalm bombs consist of a reservoir containing a petroleum gel, to which is attached a detonator. On impact the gel ignites and is released in all directions at a temperature of 800 degrees Centigrade. This "Greek fire" of our time adheres to the skin, burns and asphyxiates its victims (fifty percent mortality rate), and it is practically impossible to extinguish it.

There are no legal provisions banning the use of napalm.

Authorities do not agree on whether it is forbidden by general legal principles. In actual fact, it is extensively employed. It would seem that in any case its use against civilians should be considered to be unlawful.

Flamethrowers, which are even more widely used, are fitted with a compressed air nozzle through which a petroleum fuel is propelled and ignited as it is ejected.

(b) *High muzzle-velocity small-calibre projectiles*

For tactical reasons, the current tendency is to make lighter armaments and munitions. Reduction in calibre means higher velocity, kinetic energy being equal to the square of the velocity multiplied by half the mass. Projectiles having a smaller calibre than the 7.62 mm rounds in common use have therefore a muzzle velocity which may be as much as twice that of the normal bullet. Some experts have said that small-calibre bullets had a similar effect to that of the dum-dum bullet, the hard metal casing of which did not go as far as its point, leaving the soft core uncovered. On impact, the core expanded, inflicting much graver wounds (dum-dum bullets were prohibited in 1899). All the same, following discussions between military, medical and legal experts who met in Lucerne in 1974 under ICRC auspices, further tests are in progress to see whether or not high-velocity projectiles do in fact cause similar effects.

High-velocity projectiles also include tiny fin-bearing flechettes fired in salvos from rifles. On impact, being in unstable equilibrium, they have a tumbling effect, lacerating the flesh.

(c) *Blast and fragmentation weapons*

These weapons were developed from grape-shot, which has been in use for a very long time, and from shells packed with bullets (shrapnel). The blast created by the fuel-air explosive, together with the fragmentation effect (scattering of a great many projectiles), makes these armaments

particularly cruel. Recently developed fragmentation bombs are so constructed that they may, for example, break up into 700 bomblets each containing 300 pellets which are scattered at a high velocity over a very wide area. There exist also fléchette bombs constructed on the same principle. These are essentially “antipersonnel” (as contrasted with “antimatériel”) weapons and they cause multiple wounds.

(d) *Delayed-action weapons*

The function of such weapons is to hamper enemy forces' mobility. The element common to them all is that they cause casualties among civilians and soldiers without discrimination, especially under modern warfare conditions, where fighting does not take place on a well-defined battlefield. A common example is the antipersonnel landmine, which is detonated by means of tripwires or other devices. After hostilities, there is the tricky question of defusing the minefields.

Time-fused bombs, which explode after a certain time, used in conjunction with high-explosive shells are contrary to all humanitarian principles, because no assistance to wounded persons is possible.

The stipulations regarding the laying of contact mines at sea have been mentioned above (Hague Convention No. VIII of 1907). But there are today other types of mines (acoustic, magnetic, etc.) concerning which rules should be drafted.

With regard to the banning of the many different types of booby-traps, of more or less improvised construction, article 23 (b) of the 1907 Hague Regulations, says that it is forbidden to kill or wound treacherously.

(e) *Future weapons*

It is not yet known whether lasers could be used as weapons against humans. Similarly, methods upsetting the geophysical balance—the causing of droughts, tidal waves and earthquakes, the destruction of ozone thus exposing people to the lethal effects of the sun's rays, modification of the climate, etc.—still belong to the realm of speculation verging on the fantastic, and would be unlawful, as they would harm civilians and military persons alike.

Follow-up

The weapons currently to be found in the arsenals of countries throughout the world constitute a grave threat to all people.

All the prohibitions in force date back a long time and are partly obsolete. Considerable technical innovations have made it necessary for old rules to be revised and new ones to be developed.

This process is already under way. Despite necessities of a political and military nature, which complicate to a certain extent the work now being undertaken, a very clear desire to attain positive results may be discerned among the international community, which is anxious to work out rules taking reality into consideration while observing the sacrosanct general principles of respect for man in all circumstances.

THE "CONVENTION TRAVEL DOCUMENT"

In this issue we print an article on the "ICRC travel document". But there is also another paper called the "Convention Travel Document" (CTD) issued, under article 28 of the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, by the competent authorities of the country of asylum. This is the modern-day equivalent of the "Nansen passport" which bears the name of the famous explorer and philanthropist Fridtjof Nansen who made a lasting contribution to the protection of displaced persons when he created the "identity and travel certificates" for refugees.

An article on the CTD—not to be confused with the ICRC travel document—appeared in the Bulletin of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.¹ We give below some extracts:

The liberty of any human being to travel without impediment is ideally expressed in Article 13 (2) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which proclaims: "Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country."

In practice, such a right may have existed in ancient times when people could walk or ride for hours or days before they met another human being. But with the creation of nations and of state frontiers, border posts and other obstacles have been erected to prevent men from exercising a human right which nowadays is restricted by innumerable laws.

¹ *H.C.R.*, Geneva, No. 6, December 1975.

For example, some States prohibit their own nationals from leaving their country without having previously obtained an exit visa or a similar special permit, and those who contravene such a law may face punishment if they venture to return home. Other States allow their nationals to leave the country but a number of other barriers may impede them from travelling freely. Rare, if any, are the countries which unconditionally permit any foreigner to enter their territory and to remain as long as he likes. Such restrictions exist for a variety of reasons: to prevent over-population or to protect the labour market; for ethnic or security motives, and so on.

The result is that a good many States require a prospective immigrant—or even a tourist, because he might wish to stay on for ever—to possess not only a valid passport but also a visa which may well contain limitations in time and purpose like: “For one entry only—valid ten days” or “For tourism only—not for employment purposes”.

If it is difficult for many nationals in certain countries to obtain a passport and, often, an exit visa, it is hardly surprising that refugees encounter similar obstacles. In the first place a refugee cannot, as a rule, travel on his national passport, should he possess one, because, if he does so, he will not normally be considered a refugee but a citizen enjoying the protection of his home country. A refugee therefore depends for the necessary papers on the host country, since no official international body like UNHCR is authorized to issue a travel document to him.¹

This also applies to the issuance of the so-called Convention Travel Documents (CTD or “refugee passports”) which are established by States parties to the 1951 United Nations Refugee Convention in accordance with its Article 28 and the Schedule annexed to the Convention. Hence, a certain limitation lies in the fact that only 65 States are so far bound by that Convention, although this does not necessarily mean that a refugee possessing a CTD may not be admitted by a country which is not a contracting party of the Convention. However, even States parties to the Convention may require a visa, and most do so in fact.

The question has often been asked whether UNHCR itself could not issue refugees with CTD’s or similar papers entitling them to travel. There are two major reasons against such a proposition: firstly, a CTD issued by a State is a proof that the holder has his lawful residence in that country—that he has, in other words, a place where he belongs; secondly, the

¹ Under the 1950 European Agreement on the Abolition of Visas for Refugees the following countries make exemption from visa requirements for a period limited to three months: Belgium, Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, France, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom.

MISCELLANEOUS

refugee is entitled to return to his country of asylum, at least within the validity of the CTD. According to the Convention, this renewable validity must be of one or two years (only exceptionally may the issuing State reduce the period of readmittance to a minimum of three months). If UNHCR issued the CTD's or similar documents, the refugees could not, and would not, have these advantages, since UNHCR has no territory as a safe haven for them and to which they could always return.

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

ADOPTED 21 JUNE 1973

ART. 1. — *International Committee of the Red Cross*

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

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

ART. 2. — *Legal Status*

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

ART. 3. — *Headquarters and Emblem*

The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva.

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

ART. 4. — *Role*

1. The special role of the ICRC shall be :

- (a) to maintain the fundamental principles of the Red Cross as proclaimed by the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross ;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition ;
- (c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions ;

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

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

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

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — *Membership of the ICRC*

The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. It shall comprise fifteen to twenty-five members.

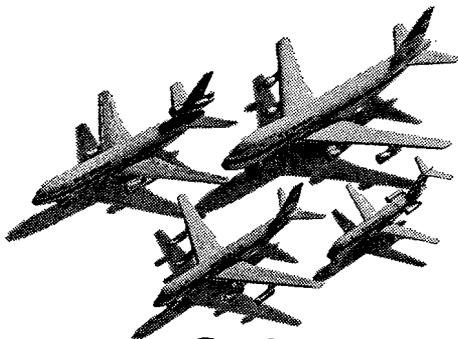


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for this.) As you can see, it's no picnic being the airline of a small country; so we won't even talk about our flights to South America.

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Alger	Buenos Aires	Glasgow	Lioba	Nagoya	Strasbourg
Amsterdam	Buffalo	Göteborg	London	Nairobi	Switseri
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Athina	Cape Town	Haifa	Lyon	New York	Teheran
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Auckland	Casablanca	Hannover	Madrid	Nicosia	Tokio
Bagdad	Chicago	Hartford	Malaga	Nürnberg	Toronto
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Barcelona	Cleveland	Hongkong	Manchester	Otlo	Tripoli
Basel	Colomba	Houston	Manila	Palmas de Mallorca	Tunis
Beirut	Dakar	Innsbruck	Marseille	Paris	Warszawa
Beograd	Dallas	Istanbul	Melbourne	Philadelphia	Washington
Berlin	Dar es-Salaam	Jerusalem	Mexico City	Praha	Wien
Bern	Delhi	Johannesburg	Miami	Rwanda/Indl	Zagreb
Birmingham	Detroit	Karachi	Milano	Rio de Janeiro	Zürich
Bogota	Dawala	Khartoum	Milwaukee	Roma	
Bombay	Dublin	Kinshasa	Minneapolis	Rotterdam	
Bonn	Durban	Kabenhavn	Monrovia	St. Louis	
Düsseldorf	Köln	Montevideo	San Francisco		

ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL SOCIETIES

- AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent, Puli Artan, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga e Barrikadavet, *Tirana*.
- ALGERIA — Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis, Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINA — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122 Flinders Street, *Melbourne 3000*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, *Vienna 4*.
- BAHRAIN — Bahrain Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 882, *Manama*.
- BANGLADESH — Bangladesh Red Cross Society, Amin Court Building, Motijheel Commercial Area, *Dacca 2*.
- PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF BENIN — Red Cross of Benin, B. P. 1, *Porto Novo*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98 Chaussée de Vleurgat, *1050 Brussels*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simón Bolívar, 1515, *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA — Botswana Red Cross Society, Independence Avenue, P.O. Box 485, *Gaborone*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. Bizurov, *Sofia 27*.
- BURMA (Socialist Republic of the Union of) — Burma Red Cross, 42 Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI — Red Cross Society of Burundi, rue du Marché 3, P.O. Box 324, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMBODIA — The new address of the Red Cross Society is not yet known.
- CAMEROON — Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henry-Dunant, P.O.B. 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95 Wellesley Street East, *Toronto, Ontario, M4Y 1H6*.
- CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC — Central African Red Cross, B.P. 1428, *Bangui*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa María 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 22 Kanmien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65, Apartado nacional 1110, *Bogotá D.E*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 14, Avenida 8, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle 23 201 esq. N. Vedado, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, 118 04 *Prague I*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Ny Vestergade 17, DK-1471 *Copenhagen K*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Apartado Postal 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Calle de la Cruz Roja y Avenida Colombia, 118, *Quito*.
- EGYPT (Arab Republic of) — Egyptian Red Crescent Society, 34 rue Ramses, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR — El Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente, *San Salvador, C.A.*
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Ras Desta Damtew Avenue, *Addis Ababa*.
- FIJI — Fiji Red Cross Society, 193 Rodwell Road, P.O. Box 569, *Suva*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu 1 A, Box 168, *00141 Helsinki 14*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17 rue Quentin Bauchart, F-75384 *Paris CEDEX 08*.
- GAMBIA — The Gambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 472, *Banjul*.
- GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, DDR 801 *Dresden 1*.
- GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, 5300, *Bonn 1*, Postfach (D.B.R.).
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, National Headquarters, Ministries Annex A3, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3a Calle 8-40, Zona 1, *Ciudad de Guatemala*.
- GUYANA — Guyana Red Cross, P.O. Box 351, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, Place des Nations Unies, B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, 1a Avenida entre 3a y 4a Calles, N° 313, *Comayagüela, D.C.*
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, V. Arany János utca 31, *Budapest V*. Mail Add.: *1367 Budapest 5*, Pf. 249.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Nóatúni 21, *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 110001*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Jalan Abdul Muis 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Av. Villa, Carrefour Takhté Djamchid, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 16 Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12 via Toscana, *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76 Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 29-12 Shiba 5-chome, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 108*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10 001, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, St. John's Gate, P.O. Box 40712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA, DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, *Pyongyang*.
- KOREA, REPUBLIC OF — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3Ka Nam San-Dong, *Seoul*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1350, *Kuwait*.
- LAOS — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, *Beirut*.
- LESOTHO — Lesotho Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 366, *Maseru*.

- LIBERIA** — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, 107 Lynch Street, P.O. Box 226, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYAN ARAB REPUBLIC** — Libyan Arab Red Crescent, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN** — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG** — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 1806, *Luxembourg*.
- DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF MADAGASCAR** Red Cross Society of the Malagasy Republic, rue Clemenceau, P.O. Box 1168, *Tananarive*.
- MALAWI** — Malawi Red Cross, Hall Road, *Blantyre* (P.O. Box 30080, Chichiri, *Blantyre 3*).
- MALAYSIA** — Malaysian Red Crescent Society, 519 Jalan Belfield, *Kuala Lumpur* 08-03.
- MALI** — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, route de Koulikora, *Bamako*.
- MAURITANIA** — Mauritanian Red Crescent Society, B.P. 344, Avenue Gamal Abdel Nasser, *Nouakchott*.
- MEXICO** — Mexican Red Cross, Avenida Ejército Nacional nº 1032, *México 10 D.F.*
- MONACO** — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 boul. de Suisse, *Monte Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA** — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Ulan Bator*.
- MOROCCO** — Moroccan Red Crescent, B.P. 189, *Rabat*.
- NEPAL** — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tahachal, P.B. 217, *Kathmandu*.
- NETHERLANDS** — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsessegracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND** — New Zealand Red Cross, Red Cross House, 14 Hill Street, *Wellington 1*. (P.O. Box 12-140, *Wellington North*.)
- NICARAGUA** — Nicaraguan Red Cross, *Managua, D.N.*
- NIGER** — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA** — Nigerian Red Cross Society, Eko Aketa Close, off St. Gregory Rd., P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY** — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, *Oslo*. Mail Add.: *Postboks 7034 H-Oslo 3*.
- PAKISTAN** — Pakistan Red Crescent Society, Dr Daudpota Road, *Karachi 4*.
- PANAMA** — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado Postal 668, *Zona 1, Panamá*.
- PARAGUAY** — Paraguayan Red Cross, Brasil 216, *Asunción*.
- PERU** — Peruvian Red Cross, Jirón Chancay 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES** — Philippine National Red Cross, 860 United Nations Avenue, P.O.B. 280, *Manila D-406*.
- POLAND** — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL** — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon 3*.
- ROMANIA** — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Romania, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, *Bucarest*.
- SAN MARINO** — San Marino Red Cross, Palais gouvernemental, *San Marino*.
- SAUDI ARABIA** — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent, *Riyadh*.
- SENEGAL** — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bd Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SIERRA LEONE** — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6A Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SINGAPORE** — Singapore Red Cross Society, 15 Penang Lane, *Singapore 9*.
- SOMALI REPUBLIC** — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- SOUTH AFRICA** — South African Red Cross, Cor. Kruis & Market Streets, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg 2000*.
- SPAIN** — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid 10*.
- SRI LANKA** — Sri Lanka Red Cross Society, 106 Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo 7*.
- SUDAN** — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWEDEN** — Swedish Red Cross, Fack, S-104 40 *Stockholm 14*.
- SWITZERLAND** — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, B.P. 2699, *3001 Berne*.
- SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC** — Syrian Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA** — Tanzania Red Cross Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND** — Thai Red Cross Society, Paribatra Building, Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, *Bangkok*.
- TOGO** — Togolese Red Cross Society, 51 rue Boko Soga, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO** — Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, Wrightson Road West, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain, Trinidad, West Indies*.
- TUNISIA** — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19 rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis*.
- TURKEY** — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, *Ankara*.
- UGANDA** — Uganda Red Cross, Nabunya Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED KINGDOM** — British Red Cross, 9 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, SW1X 7EJ*.
- UPPER VOLTA** — Upper Volta Red Cross, P.O.B. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- URUGUAY** — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.A.** — American National Red Cross, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington, D.C. 20006*.
- U.S.S.R.** — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Tcheremushki, I. Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow B-36*.
- VENEZUELA** — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No. 4, Apart. 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM, DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF** — Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68 rue Bà-Trìêu, *Hanoi*.
- SOUTH VIET NAM** — Red Cross of the Republic of South Viet Nam, Hông-Thập-Tu street, 201, *Saigon*.
- YUGOSLAVIA** — Red Cross of Yugoslavia, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.
- ZAIRE (Republic of)** — Red Cross of the Republic of Zaire, 41 av. de la Justice, B.P. 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA** — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box R.W.1, 2837 Brentwood Drive, *Lusaka*.