

**MARCH-APRIL 1985**

**TWENTY-FIFTH YEAR — No. 245**

# **international review of the red cross**



**INTER ARMA CARITAS**

**PROPERTY OF U.S. ARMY  
THE JUDGE ADVOCATE GENERAL'S SCHOOL  
LIBRARY**

---

**GENEVA  
INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS  
FOUNDED IN 1863**

# INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

- Mr. ALEXANDRE HAY, Lawyer, former Director-General of the Swiss National Bank, *President* (member since 1975)
- Mr. MAURICE AUBERT, Doctor of Laws, *Vice-President* (1979)
- Mr. VICTOR H. UMBRICHT, Doctor of Laws, Managing Director, *Vice-President* (1970)
- Mrs. DENISE BINDSCHEDLER-ROBERT, Doctor of Laws, Professor at the Graduate Institute of International Studies, Geneva, Judge at the European Court of Human Rights (1967)
- Mr. JACQUES F. DE ROUGEMONT, Doctor of Medicine (1967)
- Mr. GILBERT ÉTIENNE, Professor at the Graduate Institute of International Studies and at the Institut universitaire d'études du développement, Geneva (1973)
- Mr. ULRICH MIDDENDORP, Doctor of Medicine, head of surgical department of the Cantonal Hospital, Winterthur (1973)
- Mrs. MARION BOVÉE-ROTHENBACH, Doctor of Sociology (1973)
- Mr. HENRY HUGUENIN, Banker (1974)
- Mr. RICHARD PESTALOZZI, Doctor of Laws, former Vice-President of the ICRC (1977)
- Mr. ATHOS GALLINO, Doctor of Medicine, Mayor of Bellinzona (1977)
- Mr. ROBERT KOHLER, Master of Economics (1977)
- Mr. RUDOLF JÄCKLI, Doctor of Sciences (1979)
- Mr. OLIVIER LONG, Doctor of Laws and Doctor of Political Science, Ambassador, former Director General of GATT (1980)
- Mr. DIETRICH SCHINDLER, Doctor of Laws, Professor at the University of Zürich (1961-1973; 1980)
- Mr. HANS HAUG, Doctor of Laws, Professor at the St-Gall School of Advanced Economic and Social Studies, former President of the Swiss Red Cross (1983)
- Mr. PETER ARBENZ, Bachelor of Political Science, municipal councillor of Winterthur (1983)
- Mr. PIERRE KELLER, Doctor of Philosophy in International Relations (Yale), Banker (1984)
- Mr. RAYMOND R. PROBST, Doctor of Laws, former Swiss Ambassador, former Secretary of State at the Federal Department of Foreign Affairs, Berne (1984)
- Mr. ODILO GUNTERN, Doctor of Laws, former member of the Swiss Council of States (1985)

---

## EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

- Mr. ALEXANDRE HAY, *President*  
Mr. MAURICE AUBERT  
Mr. RICHARD PESTALOZZI  
Mr. ATHOS GALLINO  
Mr. RUDOLF JÄCKLI  
Mr. OLIVIER LONG  
Mr. PIERRE KELLER

The **International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)**, together with the League of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and the 136 recognized National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, is one of the three components of the International Red Cross.

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

# CONTENTS

## INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

ISSN 0020-8604

MARCH-APRIL 1985 — No. 245

### INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

<b>Pietro Verri: The condition of cultural property in armed conflicts (I)</b> . . . . .	67
<b>J. de Preux: Synopsis I — Protecting Power</b> . . . . .	86

---

Appointment to the Executive Board . . . . .	96
The President of the ICRC in Lebanon . . . . .	96
Conference on the Emergency Situation in Africa . . . . .	97
An ICRC delegate killed in Sudan . . . . .	98
Recognition of the Red Cross Society of Cape Verde. . . . .	99
Accession of the Republic of Vanuatu to the Protocols. . . . .	100
First Award of the Paul Reuter Prize . . . . .	101

*External activities:*

Africa — Latin America — Asia and Pacific — Middle East . . . . .	102
--	-----

---

### IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

Grants in aid from the French Fund Maurice de Madre . . . . .	118
The Central Tracing Agency Today . . . . .	120

---

### BOOKS AND REVIEWS

The International Committee of the Red Cross	123
--	-----

*International Review of the Red Cross* has been published, in French, under various titles, by the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) since 1869. Its first complete edition in English was issued in 1961.

- As the official organ of the ICRC and the International Red Cross,
- specializing in international humanitarian law and ICRC doctrine,
- recording the international activities of the Red Cross, mainly for reference purpose, as a chronicle of events,

*International Review of the Red Cross* provides a constant flow of information and maintains the necessary link between the members of the International Red Cross.

*International Review of the Red Cross* appears once every two months in three languages :

in English: INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS (from 1961)

in French: REVUE INTERNATIONALE DE LA CROIX-ROUGE

in Spanish: REVISTA INTERNACIONAL DE LA CRUZ ROJA (from 1976)

It also publishes, in German, a short edition, *Extracts*, of various articles which appear in the main editions.

---

EDITOR: Michel Testuz

ADDRESS: International Review of the Red Cross  
17, avenue de la Paix  
CH - 1202 - Geneva, Switzerland

SUBSCRIPTIONS: one year, Sw. frs. 30.—; single copy Sw. frs. 5.—.  
Extracts in German: one year, Sw. frs. 10.—; single copy  
Sw. frs. 2.—.

Postal Cheque Account: No. 12 - 1767 Geneva

Bank account No. 129.986 Swiss Bank Corporation, Geneva

---

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

# The condition of cultural property in armed conflicts

*From Antiquity to World War II*<sup>1</sup>

by Lieutenant-General Pietro Verri (Rtd.)

## Foreword

The condition of cultural property through the armed conflicts which have succeeded one another from Antiquity to the eve of the Second World War is no easy subject to study.

The sources available have of course made it possible to establish that from the latter part of the nineteenth century onwards, domestic and international laws have been enacted to reduce somewhat rather than prevent damage to cultural property during hostilities.

Researching earlier periods is more difficult, though; the further back one goes in time, the more fragmentary and less accurate the available data become.

For the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, there are the works of the “founding fathers” of the law of war (Vitoria, Suarez, Ayala, Gentile, Grotius, Vattel), essayists, memoirists, more or less trustworthy historians and a few written regulations.

For the Middle Ages, we have chronicles and a few treaties usually following the method of *retractatio* and the jurists *de re militari* of Justinian’s day.

---

<sup>1</sup> Address at the Symposium organized on the occasion of the 30th Anniversary of the Convention on the Condition of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflicts, Florence, Italy, 22-24 November 1984.

For Antiquity, Greek and Roman classical authors are the only source—when all is said and done, a literary tradition whose accuracy in reporting the actual situation in any given period is difficult to assess.

It is an established fact, though, that throughout that long period, the conduct of war was governed by two principles: first, that hostilities were not directed solely at armies, but at the enemy nation as a whole, persons and property; secondly, that war fed upon itself. The influence of these principles started to fade in the eighteenth century—or rather, after the French Revolution, the effects of which, despite the principles solemnly proclaimed very early on, were only felt later and certainly not during the French Revolutionary Wars and the Wars of the Empire, as we shall see.

As proof of the slow progress of that evolution, suffice it to mention that in 1860, the Imperial Summer Palace in Peking was pillaged by French and English troops and most of its art treasures shipped to Europe. This is only one of countless operations—often forgotten or eclipsed by the feat of arms that went with them—which despoiled, in the course of the centuries, the cultural heritage of nations and the historical features of their countries. In the long sequence of military campaigns, many works of art met with a similar fate time and time again, and as a result, were constantly on the move—the individual history of each work, from its creation to the present day, could relate these trials and tribulations far better than the history of wars. But with few exceptions, it would be difficult—if not impossible—to write such as history.

Furthermore, an in-depth study of art treasures which at some time or other were taken as war booty should also look into the reasons why they were taken: was it for love of art, or merely because of the monetary value of the substance in which they were made? A fascinating topic to research, granted, but beyond the scope of the present study.

We shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the military operations which, by means ranging from weapons to flames, from wanton destruction to looting or vandalism, have caused damage to works of art. Let us not forget the fact that some stolen treasures were hidden—to dissemble possession of them or preserve them from harm—in the hope of later recovery and no doubt a number of them have in fact never been found again.

Our albeit cursory research confirms the view that the grounds for looting have always been the same, whether in ancient times, in

the Middle Ages or nowadays. Field-Marshal Montgomery once wrote: "A soldier has but one enemy: the beast within man".

To avoid an excessively lengthy study, we have restricted ourselves to Europe; but we are perfectly aware of the damage inflicted on the cultural heritage of peoples involved in armed conflicts on other continents: from the Spanish and Portuguese conquest (at the beginning of the modern era) of countries in what is now called Latin America to the American Revolution (1775-1783), from colonization in Africa and Asia to the American Civil War (1861-1865)—which, incidentally, was at the origin of the first serious internal legislation on the use of violence in wartime. But we shall revert to that topic later.

## Part One

### From Antiquity to the mid-nineteenth century

#### 1. Antiquity

1. The sources available to us for our research on Antiquity are fairly limited, even if we restrict ourselves to the millenium stretching from the fifth century B.C. to the fall of the Western Roman Empire; furthermore, they are not always reliable, since quite often they are inaccurate or magnified accounts of events that fired the imagination of historians or chroniclers, or events mentioned in the textbooks on the art of warfare that have come down to us.

The information they give is very perfunctory and cannot in any way be considered exhaustive or systematic. They nevertheless convey a comparatively clear notion of the fate of cultural property in an era of constant fighting.

All civilizations of ancient times had one feature in common: violence; destruction was the only strategy, looting the sole objective. Under those conditions, cultural property was bound to suffer the ravages of battle, fire, vandalism, devastation and plundering. And if occasionally, works of art happened to meet with a less disastrous fate, this was only as a result of some individual personal initiative and did not reflect the awakening of any general scruples; it was an exception to the rule, something like Seneca's *pudor*, and not a widespread practice.

2. War, in Rome and ancient Greece, was a fight aiming at the complete annihilation of the enemy, and the accepted practice was that the riches of a vanquished city would go to the victor.

This was the doctrine propounded by Xenophon (the *Cyropaedia* and the *Anabasis*), by Plato (the *Republic* and the *Laws*), by Aristotle (the *Politics*) and Livy (*History of Rome*), by Gaius (*Institutes*) and in *Deuteronomy* (10: 14).

In those days, when war amounted mainly to spoliation, it was impossible to differentiate between war and piracy or robbery, all the more so since, according to Thucydides (i, 5), there was nothing dishonourable about piracy.

Homer has Achilles say that he took many sumptuous treasures from every city he had conquered. For that matter, some historians claim that the real cause of the Trojan War was not Helen's beauty, but the need for the decadent Mycenaean world to restore, by taking Troy's riches, its rather compromised fortunes. Polybius, Greek historian of the second century B.C., recounts (xviii, 4, 8) that some tribes laid waste not only the territory of their actual enemies, but also that of all warring tribes, in allying themselves indiscriminately with troops on either side.

In Homer's day, there were two kinds of booty: private booty, which went to the individual soldier, and collective booty, which was brought to the war council for distribution. First came the "shares of honour" intended for the leaders who had distinguished themselves in the battle. The distribution was carried out by the king or the highest-ranking officer, according to criteria unknown to us but based, it would seem, on the principle of "give little and keep a lot". Yet Homer has Ulysses say, in connection with the plundering of a city: "We divided great spoils in equal shares".

Later on, as a result of the growth of cities and the development of democracy, private booty started to be subject to certain limitations and the spoils divided more equally among the warriors—while the State kept increasing its own demands.

Sometimes, plundering actually jeopardized military operations. In one of his comedies, Menander (Athenian dramatist, fourth and third century B.C.) shows an army put to rout by an adversary it had just defeated, because its troops had abandoned the camp to go and plunder and sell the booty—which, incidentally, had not prevented the narrator's master (the speaker is a slave) from grabbing 600 pieces of gold and silver.

3. While in ancient times, the deities' believed involvement in battles made the fighting more inexorable and ruthless, a custom relative to the inviolability of temples later developed. But breaches of that unwritten law were frequent and occasionally gave rise to reprisals or even new wars. That is why the Amphictionic League, an association of twelve Aegean cities (seventh or sixth century B.C.) had sworn to avenge the desecration and plundering of Apollo's shrine at Delphi. Yet subsequently, in the fourth or third century B.C., Artemis' sacred precinct at Ephesus was burned down, the Dodona sanctuary in Epirus was destroyed, the temple at Delphi was forcibly occupied and its treasure melted down to mint the coins required to pay the mercenaries.

The removal of a small part of Olympia's treasure (363 B.C.) proved fatal to the Arcadian League, whereas the Athenians used some of it with impunity to fortify the sacred precinct at Delos for military reasons—generally considered perfectly valid to justify recourse to sacred treasures.

In any case, respect for sacred property and places of worship was connected with their religious character and not with their artistic value.

4. No regulations governed the conduct of hostilities; no quarter was given. The successive pillaging of Mantinea (418, 385, 222 and 207 B.C.), the depredation and devastation wrought by Xenophon's Ten Thousand (400 B.C.), the spoliation of Corinth (390 B.C.), of Olynthus (348 B.C.), and that of numerous Thracian cities for which Philip II of Macedonia and the Athenians were later to blame each other (340 B.C.), the destruction of Jerusalem, first by the Babylonians in 586 B.C. and again in 168 by the Seleucids who deliberately desecrated the Temple, were not thought horrendous in any way.

Adding to the list would be pointless. Let us rather quote a civilized voice in the midst of so many depredations: the voice of Polybius, a Greek historian of the second century B.C.; after pointing out (5, 11) that when Alexander the Great defeated Thebes in 335 and the city was destroyed, he had wanted the sacred places to be respected and preserved, Polybius then goes on to condemn one of Alexander's successors, Philip V of Macedonia (220-178) who, by way of reprisals, committed villainies as wicked as those of the Aetolians. Polybius writes that the rules of war provided for the destruction of strongholds, forts, cities, people, ships, resources and all other similar property belonging to the enemy in order to

weaken his power and at the same time increase one's own; but that if no advantage could be derived thereby (...), there was no denying that the wanton destruction of temples, statues and other sacred objects was sheer lunacy.

He seems to voice feelings that are different from those prevalent at the time; but in fact, he worries about the victims' potential reaction to the desecration of sacred places and property rather than about any damage to their artistic value.

Plutarch (A.D. 50-120) came closer to advocating respect for the intrinsic value of works of art (though not for their ownership). In his *Parallel Lives*, he wrote that during the siege of Rhodes, Demetrius I, king of Macedonia (fourth and third century B.C.) was about to burn down a castle situated outside the city walls and containing a famous painting by Protogenes (fourth century B.C.) who had worked on it for seven years and started it anew four times; it depicted a local hero, Ialysus (whence the name of the painting), with a dog. Rhodian emissaries apparently told Demetrius: "Why do you wish to bury this painting under a heap of smouldering ruins? If you defeat us, the whole city will be yours, and the painting with it—intact. If not, beware, lest it be said, to your disgrace, that having failed to defeat Rhodes, you waged war on the ghost of Protogenes." The painting was saved but, in the aftermath of later wars, it was removed to Rome and placed in the Temple of the Peace.

Let us also mention the fate of Antenor's bronze group depicting the tyrannicides Harmodius and Aristogiton, which had been set up in the agora of Athens as a symbol of freedom—even though the reasons for the murder of Hipparchus (514 B.C.) were much less edifying, as explained by Thucydides (vi, 54-59). In 480 B.C., the group (together with the statue of Pindar) was carried off by Xerxes, king of Persia, as the spoils of war, and although it was later returned by Alexander the Great, all trace of it has since been lost.

5. We shall not dwell at length upon the Romans, since their behaviour was basically similar; the following statement says it all: "Every page of Rome's history is a cry of anguish and oppression; the object of war was conquest, and conquest engendered slaughter, the pillaging of cities, spoliation, and a whole series of unspeakable horrors".<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> J. Bouquié: *De la justice et de la discipline dans les armées à Rome et au Moyen Age*, Bruxelles, 1884.

Rome's entire history is marked by the successive incursions of its plundering armies from Spain to Greece and Asia Minor, from Africa to Germania, from Sicily to Gaul. For instance, the sack of Bola (414 B.C.) which led to a mutiny because the promise to let the soldiers share in the spoils had not been kept. Or the sack of Corinth (143 B.C.) which Cicero (107 – 43 B.C.) endeavoured to justify in his Verrine orations, though condemning the sack of Aspendus in Turkey (second century B.C.) which was stripped of many artistic treasures, including the famous statue of the *Harpist* "who seemed to play music with his heart". Cicero went on to say that the example of Marcus Claudius Marcellus at Syracuse, in 212 B.C. during the Second Punic War, should be followed and that war should spare private and public buildings, sacred and secular, and all works created for adornment or dedicated to religion. Yet Syracuse was sacked in 413 B.C. by the Athenians; Agrigentium in 262 B.C. by the Romans, in 214 by the Carthaginians and in 210 by the Romans again. Similarly, Tarentum was plundered in 273 B.C. by the Romans, in 213 by the Carthaginians and again in 209 by the Romans.

For Spain, let us mention Sagunto, plundered in 219 B.C. by Carthage, and Numantia, destroyed by the Romans in 133. Let us not forget Jerusalem: in A.D. 70, Titus, son of the emperor Vespasian, snatched a golden menorah from the Temple of Solomon as a trophy for the triumph to be celebrated on his return to Rome.

The destruction of Veii, an ancient town of Etruria and a constant enemy of Rome finally defeated in 396 B.C. after an eleven years' siege, has remained famous: the Roman Senate had issued a decree authorizing everyone to join in the looting.

In the Roman army, looting was a standard procedure. Shares in the spoils were calculated either according to rank, or to merit. Generals first helped themselves to whatever took their fancy, and the rest of the loot was then sold, to make distribution easier—hence the "secondhand dealers" among the camp followers.

Yet in Roman times respect was also often shown for religious property in deference to its sacred character. Plundering moreover hindered the conduct of military operations, as illustrated by the Carthaginian idleness—a consequence of looting and ransoming—in the wake of the battle of Cannae (a village of Apulia in Italy).

6. Thus war still amounted to systematic plundering: the riches of the vanquished passed to the victors. That was the *modus operandi* of Attila, king of the Huns, who laid waste most of Europe before being defeated in A.D. 451 by the Roman general Aetius, in the battle of the Catalaunian plains in Gaul. Attila's system for sharing out the spoils was that the king and other chieftains could help themselves first. Then "experts" assessed the value of the remaining loot before distributing it proportionately among the officers and soldiers, without forgetting the widows and orphans.

To close the chapter on Antiquity, let us mention the successive destructions and burnings of Rome: by the Gauls in A.D. 300; by Alaric, king of the Visigoths, first in A.D. 408 (he raised the siege only after receiving a ransom of 5,000 lbs of gold and 30,000lbs of silver, in addition to 4,000 silk and 3,000 purple garments) and then again in A.D. 410; in 455 by Gaiseric, king of the Vandals who, at the Pope's request, spared nothing but the churches; and in 472 by general Ricimer the Suede, in battle against emperor Anthemius.

For this period, let us dwell for moment on some items that had been plundered and were later recovered. The Museum of Art and History in Geneva owns a silver plate which belonged to an officer in the army of Valentinian I (A.D. 364-375); it had been abandoned with the officer's luggage during a retreat and was later found in the river Arve. A valuable treasure trove, dating from A.D. 350, was found in a stack of hay at the foot of the city walls of Augst, near Basel; it comprised 257 items (medallions, coins, silver plate and ingots).

Booty and hidden treasures, dating from the early Middle Ages and even further back were found in Great Britain and Ireland; in Rome, treasures which can be traced back to the sack of the city by Alaric were found in two different locations. Objects of the same origin were discovered in Toulouse and taken to Angoulême by Clovis in 508. Others were given by Atawulf to his bride Placidia as a wedding gift (A.D. 414).

For this period too, we have information on the trials and tribulations of art treasures, which changed hands as war booty time and again. For instance, items looted in Greece by Alaric were stolen from him (A.D. 402) by Stilicho, a Roman general and son of a Vandal. When Gaiseric captured Rome in A.D. 455 and systematically plundered it, many valuable works of art, including the treasures which Titus had taken from the Temple of Jerusalem in A.D. 70, were taken to Africa, where Belisarius, a Byzantine

general, defeated the Vandals in A.D. 534 and returned in triumph to Constantinople with the booty.

Thus, at the close of Antiquity, the condition of cultural property is rather lamentable.

## 2. The Middle Ages

1. The early Middle Ages were marked by a series of invasions by utterly implacable peoples from the north and the east. "These invasions were not sporadic episodes which ended with heaps of rubble, but events which dominate the civilization of that time."<sup>1</sup>

Once again, Italy is in the foreground, with the struggle between the Goths and the armies of the Eastern Roman Empire still trying to defend the remains of the fallen Western Empire. And according to Procopius, a Greek historian of the sixth century from Byzance, the behaviour of the Byzantine armies was such that the population actually seemed to prefer the Goths. He states that in 546, when Rome was again about to be conquered by Totila, the king of the Goths decided to raze the city to the ground to avenge a defeat which had ended in the slaughter of his people in southern Italy. Having destroyed a third of the city walls, he was about to set fire to the city itself when Belisarius, one of Justinian's generals, hearing of his intentions, sent him a letter: «Building works of art in a city can only be the undertaking of wise men who know how to live with civility; whereas destroying existing ones can only be the work of lunatics who are not ashamed of going down in history as such. As far as we are concerned, everybody acknowledges that Rome is the largest and most famous city under the sun... If you win this war, by destroying Rome, you will not have destroyed someone else's property, but your own; whereas if you preserve it, you will logically acquire the most precious of all artistic heritages. If, however, fate should go against you, having spared Rome, you will have secured yourself the victor's utmost gratitude; but if you have destroyed it, you will be granted no mercy whatsoever and you will therefore not benefit in any way by your deed. Moreover, your behaviour now will determine your reputation for posterity...»

Procopius reports that Totila read this letter several times and, having pondered at some length over the warning it contained, he

---

<sup>1</sup> G. Vismara: *Problemi storici e istituti giuridici nella guerra altomedievale*, Spoleto, 1968.

resolved to do no further damage to Rome and informed Belisarius of his decision.

2. We notice that during the period stretching from Justinian's time to A.D. 1000, individual looting turned into a calamity for the very strength of fighting units. That is why it was prohibited—at least in theory—and *ad hoc* detachments were created to perform collective looting, while the units pursued military operations. However, the predominant trend was to burn, ransack and wreck «everything within reach». That is what two treatises tell us: *Strategicon* by the emperor Maurice (582-602) and *Tactics* by the emperor Leo VI (886-911). These books also set norms for the distribution of the booty. One sixth went to the Treasury and the remainder was shared out in equal parts among all those who conquered it, irrespective of rank.

The armies of Germanic origin, the Frankish army and the Lombard army, distinguished themselves by their irresistible propensity for pillage: they destroyed everything, like a flood. But what about the Crusades (eight, between 1095 and 1270) which are known for the savage cruelty with which the two parties fought each other in a merciless struggle? Frequently, the Christians were superior to their adversaries through their inhumanity; this conduct, having often changed the original aims of the Crusades, made the spiritual motive unrecognizable. What about the plundering of Zadar (1099), a city whose only fault was to be located on the path of the first Crusade, or the sack of Jerusalem in the same year, or that of Acre (1191) during the third Crusade—all events regrettably notorious for destruction and looting? But the most famous was the sack of Constantinople in 1204, during the fourth Crusade, after the pillaging of 476 B.C. during the Persian wars, of 340 B.C. during the war between Athens and Philipp II of Macedonia, of 743 during the struggle between Constantine V and Artabasduš. The loot, in 1204, included, among other objects, the four colossal bronze horses which went to adorn the basilica of St. Mark in Venice—whence Napoleon took them away in 1806 and France returned them after the emperor's downfall.

In Charlemagne's armies (768-814), warriors were authorized to pillage enemy territory at will: the seizing of plunder was still very attractive, as it had been in the days of the Merovingian armies about three centuries earlier.

Genghis Khan (1155-1227), the Mongol conqueror who founded a vast empire in Asia, is also very famous for the plun-

dering committed by his troops—the proceeds of the loot were distributed on a decimal basis.

3. During the Middle Ages and even later, a distinction was made between «limited wars» or «private wars» or «covered wars» in which the community and the opponent's property had to be spared, but not his life; «open wars»—«*sicut nobiles viri faciunt*»<sup>1</sup>—in which looting was possible, but church property had to be spared if the clergy had not provided the enemy with any help or encouragement; and «absolute wars» or «wars to the death» waged by common soldiers, in which all property was at the victor's mercy.

The highly extolled rules of chivalry were implemented to a widely varying extent and their effects were, after all, neither substantial nor lasting; in any case, they were an expression exclusively of the solidarity of one class—the nobility—and the masses, bearing arms or not, did not benefit by them.

4. Hitherto, artillery had consisted of catapults and crossbows of the kind used in assaults as far back as the last five centuries before the Christian era. In 1139, the Church, during the Second Lateran Council, excommunicated crossbowmen and archers. But then the invention of gunpowder around A.D. 1200 and the manufacture of cannons around A.D. 1300 increased the offensive potential of artillery.

The progress in their development was felt during the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453) and in other wars of that time; for instance, in the conquest of Constantinople in 1453 (followed by the umpteenth sack of the city) by Mohammed II in battle against Constantine XI Palaeologus, a conquest which marked the end of the Eastern Roman Empire. The destruction wrought by the bombardments which fired stone and iron cannonballs had devastating effects on the cultural property of cities and castles, all the more so since their aim was completely haphazard.

5. Although the Church endeavoured to alleviate the effects of war, it did not prohibit it. It even considered it legitimate, provided the cause was "just". The Crusades were typical examples of "just" wars: the first Crusade was called at the Council of Clermont in 1095 by Urban II with the rallying cry "*Dieu le veut*" (it is God's

---

<sup>1</sup> «Such as noblemen wage».

wish). But all things considered, the Church did not wield any great influence.

As we have seen, during the Crusades, plundering the enemy's property was still the main objective of war, even though Saint Augustine had preached that *propter praedam militare peccatum est*.<sup>1</sup> Even the institution of "the peace and truce of God", born of the synod of Charroux (989), while prohibiting any kind of limited or private war, anathematized all those who desecrated places of worship and their surroundings ("up to a radius of 100 feet") and looted them. The protection of sacred places and property was still linked to their sacred character and not to their being works of art.

Besides, the protection of churches also aimed at keeping alive the long-standing institution of religious sanctuary which, as we know, gradually degenerated and created serious difficulties, for the first objective (protection of the persecuted or redemption of transgressors) gave way to the notion of privilege. And religious sanctuary was condemned when, born of the uncertainty of law, it became a source of uncertainty of justice.

To protect churches, the Holy Roman emperor Frederick I (1152-1194) promulgated an edict in 1158 in which he prohibited plundering. That edict was seldom respected and similar orders promulgated at the time and in later centuries were also ignored. However, as Christianity spread, a sense of respect for sacred objects grew; churches were plundered, but the loot was offered to other churches.

6. Let us not forget the companies of mercenaries, notorious in Europe between the ninth and the fifteenth century. They became a scourge during the Hundred Years' War when they attracted all kinds of adventurers whose only way of life was war, who compensated their low and irregular pay with systematic looting and who, at the end of an engagement, ran riot in banditry. Thus it was the *mala guerra* which prevailed, and the usages of the so-called *buona guerra* had difficulty being respected.

During those centuries, soldiers formed syndicates to pool the booty taken individually. The disputes which arose during the sharing out made it necessary to have judges in the armies to settle them. Arguments also arose between cities which had been plundered and various other cities which had subsequently recovered

---

<sup>1</sup> To wage war for loot is a sin.

that plunder from the enemy but refused to restore it to the original owner. This was the case, during the Hundred Years' War, of the loot seized by the English at St. Omer and regained by other French cities which then refused to return it to St. Omer.

Chronicles abound in information on enormous spoils of war: the loot taken by Charles VIII in 1488 at St. Aubin-du-Cormier, or that amassed by Louis XII (1498-1515) during the occupation of the duchy of Milan; among other objects, he removed from the archives and libraries exquisite codices with miniatures which can now be seen at the National Library in Paris.

Plundering was a consequence of the system as such and of lack of discipline; yet even when it was carried out in an organized manner, it easily led to complete loss of control over the troops. At the battle of Guinegate (1479), for instance, between Louis XI and Maximilian of Austria, the French were close to victory when, because the men started to loot, they were thrown off balance and routed.

One of the most important points in negotiations for the surrender of a city was to settle the exact time of surrender. In the interval, the besiegers relaxed their pressure and the defenders had time to prepare for the arrival of the enemy and to hide public and private valuables. To avoid spoliation, some cities offered cash ransoms—but the risk was that the besiegers would think there was much more to be gained by stripping the city bare.

In practice, the city to be plundered was often subdivided into sectors assigned to the various companies; but still commanders kept most of the booty for themselves. In many cases, a period was set during which plundering was allowed and, at the end of the prescribed time, the commander would come along with pikemen to restore order.

The rules and customs governing the distribution of booty varied depending on the period and the geographical situation. In the fifteenth century, according to Contamine<sup>1</sup>, commanders-in-chief received the gold, the silver and the suits of armour; while admirals were entitled to one tenth of the profits, whatever was left was then divided up among the sailors and the soldiers on board; marshals received the horses and the copper- and pewterware, and chiefs of halberdiers were given the artillery.

In the Middle Ages, therefore, soldiering was profitable and provided a comfortable, relatively easy and not excessively dange-

---

<sup>1</sup> P. Contamine: *Guerre, Etat et société à la fin du Moyen Age*; Paris, 1972.

rous life, to the sole detriment of public and private property which included cultural objects. As mentioned previously, soldiers did not give much thought to works of art—they saw nothing in them but their market value, their weight in gold and silver. The artistic value of works of art was taken into consideration only when they came into the possession of monarchs, who placed them in their collections.

### 3. Modern times

1. In modern times, hostilities and their effects have been and still are just as appalling as in earlier periods: just think of the wars of religion, in which the distinction between friend and foe was not based on ethnic or political boundaries, but on ideological loyalties which were often more important than these boundaries.

On the eve of the battle of Ravenna (1512) between France and the Spanish and papal forces under the aegis of Pope Julius II, Gaston de Foix addressed the French troops in the following terms: “We shall go to Rome without meeting any resistance; there, you will plunder a wicked court’s glut of misbegotten riches which have been bled from the Christians for centuries; you will take many superb ornaments and great amounts of silver, gold, jewels and wealthy prisoners” (i.e. prisoners who could be held to ransom).

In 1527, Rome was once again sacked by Charles V’s lansquenets. Guichardin, in his *Histoire d’Italie*, devoted a whole extremely scathing passage to it and to the violence and debauchery that went with it; he wrote that all sacred objects, sacraments and saints’ relics were stripped of their ornaments, then desecrated and destroyed. The booty was huge: more than a million ducats worth of coins, silver, gold and jewels, in addition to the proceeds of levies and ransoms.

In 1576 and 1586, Antwerp was plundered by the Spanish infantry—famous not only for its valour, but also for its ferocity and greed. Its example was followed, in the course of the seventeenth century, to the detriment of numerous cities in central and northern Europe; a traveller <sup>1</sup> wrote recently that in the middle of Germany, one could still see traces of the wars waged in those days. At the end of the sixteenth century, soldiers who survived the war

---

<sup>1</sup> Antonio Ruini, professor of international law at the University of Modena, in a letter to the author.

had often accumulated enough capital from pillaging to set themselves up as *condottieri* (professional military captains who raised troops and sold their services to states or princes at war). The term “sackman”, originally used to describe an unarmed foot-soldier in charge of finding supplies, later came to mean one who lives by pillage and robbery, especially a member of the gangs assigned to looting operations. The English term “freebooter” (1570) is also indicative, meaning one who goes about in search of plunder, or “free-booty”, i.e. spoil to be taken by force.

Once again, edicts such as Maximilian II’s (1564-1576) “Military Articles” were promulgated to prohibit disorderly pillaging and looting before the battle was over, although, as a rule, they were not respected.

2. We now come to the Thirty Years’ War and its atrocities and ruin, its spoliation and debauchery. In conquered cities, people and property were subject to the whims of the victors. Efforts were made to shield churches and those seeking sanctuary in them from these horrors, but not always successfully.

One of the most appalling episodes in this war was the sack of Magdeburg (1631), but the looting which took place seems insignificant against the terrible slaughter of 30,000 civilians there.

Raimondo Montecuccoli (1609-1680), an Italian general in the service of the Holy Roman emperor Ferdinand II, in his *Aforismi dell’arte bellica*, gives the following advice: “After a victorious battle, you must spread terror in the country by fire, by the sword and by plundering”.

An ordinance issued in 1613 by the Duke of Savoy forbade soldiers to abandon their positions to engage in pillaging, because “victory must be pursued, on pain of death”.

A French regulation enacted in 1648 allotted two thirds of the booty to the cavalry and one third to the infantry. Plundering was considered a well-defined right; it was a means for soldiers to grow rich—and often a cause for desertion.

Towards the end of the seventeenth century, military regulations (for instance those of 1690 issued to the troops of the elector of Brandenburg) had to stipulate once more that destroying and setting fire to churches was prohibited.

3. In the eighteenth century, some moderation came to the fore—a moral reaction to the bloodshed of the previous century. The Enlightenment had an influence on warfare, but let us not be

deceived by the term “limited wars” generally used for that period and up to the French Revolution: although wars were less fierce than in the seventeenth century and conducted in perhaps a more “gentlemanly” fashion, they were more numerous and just as deadly.

4. As from the sixteenth century onwards, legal scholars—called, as mentioned previously, the “founding fathers of the law of war”—had engaged in a complex formulation of precepts and principles which highlighted, as it were, the gradual progress achieved by civilization and causing the more enlightened and sentient beings to reject the tragic realities of warfare as conducted hitherto.

However, we must not be deluded. Grotius (1583-1645), in his *De iure belli ac pacis* (*On the Law of War and Peace*, Book iii, Chapters 6 and 12) did not outlaw capture of enemy property; he merely set out rules on the way of appropriating objects seized in time of war and established “moderations” with respect to devastation and the like. Vattel (1714-1767), in *Le Droit des gens* (*The Law of Nations*, Vol. II, Book iii, Chapter 9) stated that, whatever the reasons for ravaging a country, buildings and works outstanding for their beauty must be spared, since they were a credit to mankind and in no way contributed to strengthening the enemy. Nothing could be gained by destroying them, and blithely to deprive oneself of these works of art was tantamount to declaring oneself an enemy of mankind. He added, however, that if it was nonetheless necessary to destroy such works for military expediency, to accelerate siege operations, for instance, one was obviously entitled to do so. The king or commander-in-chief of the country could destroy them himself, if and when circumstances and the rules of war compelled him to do so.

Thus, pillaging went on and military regulations—such as the ordinance of 1793 by the king of Sardinia, which provided for the spoils to be allotted according to rank—governed the distribution of loot. Basically, the sole concern was to protect friendly territory from spoliation.

5. As far as the French Revolution is concerned, we shall deal with the period of the Terror and the wars of the Vendée. Once again, the bloodshed and the havoc wrought by the fighting were increased by the ideological struggle behind it. Of all the devastation and plundering which took place during the period, we shall

mention only the destruction of the twenty-eight statues which constituted the gallery of kings on the façade of the cathedral church of Notre-Dame in Paris and depicting the kings of Judea and Israel. The Paris Commune, mistaking them for statues of the kings of France, ordered them knocked down—which the *sans-culottes* hastened to do in 1793. Recently, excavations were carried out for the construction of a new building and substantial remains of these statues were discovered; they are now on display in the Musée de Cluny in Paris. In 1981, they were exhibited in Florence.

6. In 1796, when Napoleon was about to leave for Italy, he made the following proclamation to his troops: “Soldiers, you are naked, badly fed. The government owes you a lot (...) I shall lead you to the world’s most fertile plains...”

Napoleon’s armies lived mainly off the countries they occupied—as had been customary during the Thirty Years’ War—by virtue of what was euphemistically called “requisitions” and “war contributions” (Belgium, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and wherever they went in Europe). There was traditional plundering too, for instance at Cuenca, in Spain “because it had offered resistance” and destruction by fire; the burning of Moscow on 14 September 1812 was the vastest and most destructive of them all and although it was not started by the occupying forces, they sparked it off.

In 1794, the French National Convention set up so-called “Evacuation Agencies”, later replaced by “Science and Arts Commissions”, which followed in the wake of the French armies and had the task of taking possession, in occupied countries, of all items of food and supplies, and all commercial, artistic and scientific objects. As far as science is concerned, the booty transferred to France from Belgium, Germany and Italy did not amount to much compared to the number and value of the works of art. The latter were systematically removed, in a process of outright spoliation founded on an ideological concept according to which France was the first “free” country in Europe, and as such was the only one worthy of harbouring works of art. The memory of the “triumphs” of ancient Rome also played a role: in 1796, it was said that the French did not want to bond either slaves or kings to the chariot of victory, but the glorious conquests of art—after the fashion of victorious Roman generals, as we have seen above.

From Belgium came works by Rubens (*Christ between the Two Robbers*, the *Deposition from the Cross*, the *Crucifixion*), Van Dyck

and Crayer; from Freiburg came a painting of the *Nativity* by Holbein and original musical scores, including Mozart's *Magic Flute*.

In Italy, spoliation was effected partially by means of armistice treaties which provided for the surrender of works of art by way of "war indemnities". For instance, the armistice signed in Parma on 9 May 1796 provided for the transfer of "twenty paintings to be chosen by the commander-in-chief" (thus transformed into an art critic); the armistice signed in Modena shortly after on 17 May 1796 provided for the surrender of another twenty paintings, to be chosen by the "Science and Arts Commission"—resulting in the removal of paintings by Guercino, Carracci and Correggio. The armistice signed at Bologna on 23 June 1796 compelled the Pope to hand over—at the "Commission's" choice—one hundred paintings, busts, vases and statues, and five hundred manuscripts; the selection included *Apollo Belvedere*, the *Laocoon*, a painting by Raphael and one by Domenichino.

By virtue of the armistice signed in Venice on 16 May 1797, the French commander-in-chief was able to select twenty paintings, including one by Paolo Veronese, and six hundred manuscripts, in addition to the four bronze horses from St. Mark's in Venice.

One could claim that these "transfers" were not unlawful, since they were provided for in treaties signed "without coercion". But Napoleon and the "Commission" went further: in some cities, their "levies" were tantamount to outright pillaging—for instance, in Bologna (*St. Cecilia*, by Raphael), in Cento (eight paintings by Guercino), in Mantua (the *Madonna of the Victory*, by Andrea Mantegna), in Loreto (the famous statue of the Madonna di Loreto and three paintings), in Perugia (twenty-seven paintings by Raphael and Perugino), in Verona (six panels of an altarpiece by Andrea Mantegna).

This is only a short extract of a very long list. The French Directory naturally congratulated Napoleon who (as he himself put it) was "proving that he linked the glory of the fine arts to that of the army he commanded". On 27 July 1798, the works of art removed from Italy were paraded through the streets of Paris.

These removals and spoliation gave rise to fierce protest not only in Italy, but also in France, where some people understood how appalling such behaviour was—but to no avail. However, we should like to draw attention to the *Letters on the prejudice that would be caused to arts and science by the removal from Italy of her monuments of art, the dismantling of her schools and the spoliation of*

*her schools, museums, etc.*, in which Quatremere de Quincy maintained that a work of art created for a specific environment could be understood only if studied therein, and that it lost its value if removed from its original environment.

A French historian has written that these razzias, plundering works of art, requisitioning property and exacting ransoms, were unquestionably an affront to the principles of liberty, independence and national sovereignty which had caused France's glory and prestige at the beginning of the Revolution and turned against her quite a number of people who had erstwhile hailed her emancipative vocation (J. Godechot, "*La Grande Nation*", Paris 1956).

**Pietro Verri**

*(To be continued)*

---

## *Synopsis I*

### **Protecting Power**

by **J. de Preux**

*Following the technical notes it has previously published, International Review of the Red Cross is now starting a series of synopses on various current topics in the field of international humanitarian law. The following is the first of such summaries, entitled "Protecting Power".*

#### **Foreword**

In order to give the reader an overview of the whole of existing law, this document refers to both the 1949 Geneva Conventions and their 1977 Protocol I. It therefore extends slightly beyond the law currently in force, as there are to date <sup>1</sup> only 48 countries party to Protocol I, whereas 161 are party to the Geneva Conventions. The texts with the reference "P.I" must therefore be read with this in mind. This is not to say, however, that they are automatically not applicable to or by those countries that are not party to Protocol I; in many cases, they simply confirm that which is implicit in the Conventions.

#### **Definition**

The Protecting Power is a State not party to a conflict whose duty it is to safeguard the interests of the parties to the conflict (C. I-IV, Articles 8, 8, 8, 9; P. I, Article 5). To this end, the Conventions and the Protocol are applied with the co-operation and under the scrutiny of the Protecting Power (C. I-IV, Articles, 8, 8, 8, 9).

---

<sup>1</sup> 31 December 1984.

## **Designation**

The Protecting Power is designated by agreement between the parties to the conflict, on the one hand, and the State invited to act as such, on the other hand.

The agreement may stipulate that the same Protecting Power shall operate on both sides.

In the absence of such an agreement, the ICRC may ask each party to the conflict to provide it with two lists of at least five States which that party considers acceptable:

1. as Protecting Power of the adverse party;
2. to act as Protecting Power on its behalf in relation to the adverse party.

The ICRC shall compare the lists and seek the agreement of any proposed State named on both lists (P. I, Article 5).

## **Substitute**

The parties to a conflict may at any time agree to entrust to an organization which offers all guarantees of impartiality and efficacy the duties incumbent on the Protecting Powers (C. I-IV, articles 10, 10, 10, 11).

If the procedure for appointment of a Protecting Power fails, the parties to the conflict shall accept an offer which may be made by the ICRC or by any other organization which offers all guarantees of impartiality and efficacy to act as a substitute within the framework of the consultations that have taken place (P. I, Article 5).

## **Diplomatic relations**

The maintenance of diplomatic relations between the parties to the conflict is no obstacle to the designation of Protecting Powers for the purpose of applying the Conventions and the Protocol (P. I, Article 5).

## **Legal effect**

The designation and acceptance of Protecting Powers for the purpose of applying the Conventions and the Protocol does not affect the legal status of the parties to the conflict or of any territory, including occupied territory (P. I, Article 5).

## **Tasks**

Under the terms of the Conventions and the Protocol, co-operation in application means the exercise of good offices, provided for explicitly or implicitly, and the role of intermediary. Scrutiny means either actual supervisory measures or stipulations intended to facilitate supervision.

The functioning of a substitute is subject to the consent of the parties to the conflict (P. I, Article 5).

The situations requiring the intervention of the Protecting Power and the prerogatives assigned to it to this effect are described below.

## **Facilities**

The parties to the conflict must facilitate, to the greatest extent possible, the task of the delegates of the Protecting Power or of its substitute (C I-IV, Articles 8, 8, 8, 9; P. I, Article 5).

## **Personnel**

The Protecting Powers may appoint, apart from their own diplomatic or consular staff, delegates from amongst their own nationals or the nationals of other neutral Powers (C. I-IV, Articles 8, 8, 8, 9).

Such personnel may be trained with the assistance of National Red Cross Societies (P. I, Article 6).

## **Good offices**

The good offices of the Protecting Power are particularly mentioned as part of the general role assigned to it to co-operate in the application of the Conventions and the Protocol. These good offices consist solely in establishing contact between the parties to the conflict, without any participation in discussion or negotiation.

They are expressly provided for, in the Conventions, so as to facilitate the settlement of any disagreement regarding the application of the Conventions, and now also of the Protocol (C. I-IV, Articles 11, 11, 11, 12). They are also provided for to facilitate the institution and recognition of hospital zones and localities (C. I, Article 23).

But, in point of fact, recourse may be had to these good offices under any circumstances requiring the parties to the conflict to reach an agreement, unless the Protecting Power has been empowered to negotiate.

There are numerous contingencies in which such agreements may be required:

### **Agreements concerning the combat zone**

**On land**, the parties to the conflict may have to conclude arrangements to permit the removal, exchange and transport of the wounded left on the battlefield, the evacuation or exchange of wounded and sick from a besieged or encircled area, and the passage of medical and religious personnel and medical equipment on their way to such areas (C. I, Article 15, C. IV, Article 17). If necessary, these arrangements may allow for this evacuation and passage to take place by sea (C. II, Article 18).

**At sea**, the parties to the conflict may, by particular agreement, agree to put on board their hospital ships neutral observers who shall verify the strict observation of the provisions contained in the Second Convention (C. II, Article 31).

**In the air**, protection for medical aircraft in and over contact zones or other such zones cannot be fully effective unless there is prior agreement between the parties to the conflict (P. I, Article 26). Medical aircraft overflying areas controlled by the adverse party are protected only if prior agreement to such flights has been obtained from that party (P. I, Article 27). Except by prior agreement with the adverse party, the use of medical aircraft to search for the wounded, sick and shipwrecked is prohibited (P. I, Article 28). Any party to the conflict which receives such requests for prior agreement must rapidly notify the requesting party of its agreement or its refusal, or must present reasonable alternative proposals (P. I, Article 29).

### **Agreements relative to protected zones and localities**

Having recourse to the good offices of the Protecting Power for the recognition of hospital zones and localities has already been mentioned (C. I, Article 23). The same procedure may be used for the recognition of hospital and safety zones and localities (C. IV, Article 14) or neutralized or demilitarized zones (C. IV, Article 15;

P. I, Article 60), to establish non-defended localities which do not fulfil all the conditions normally required for such protection (P. I, Article 59) or to confer additional protection on installations containing dangerous forces (P. I, Article 56).

### **Agreements on the enquiry procedure in the event of breaches**

If Article 90 of Protocol I (International Fact-Finding Commission) is not applicable, the Conventions provide for agreement between the interested parties on the enquiry relative to any alleged violation (C. I, Article 52, C. II, Article 53, C. III, Article 132, C. IV, Article 149).

### **Agreements on distinctive signs and signals**

Non-defended localities and demilitarized zones must be marked by signs agreed upon with the adverse party (P. I, Articles 59, 60). Similar agreements may be concluded to mark prisoner-of-war camps (C. III, Article 23) or on the use of distinctive signs and signals for the purpose of identifying civil defence services (P. I, Article 66).

### **Agreements relative to relief**

By agreement amongst the parties to the conflict, neutral observers may be placed on board ships chartered to transport medical equipment (C. II, Article 38).

Subject to the provisions laid down in the Conventions and which remain mandatory, special agreements may be concluded between the Powers concerned on the conditions for the sending, receipt and distribution of individual or collective relief shipments (C. III, Articles 72, 73). Similarly, agreements may be concluded on the apportionment of costs occasioned by the use of special means of transport for the conveyance of such relief shipments (C. III, Article 75), and on relief shipments for the civilian population in occupied territories (C. IV, Article 61) and for civilian internees (C. IV, Articles 108, 109, 111). Finally, agreement on the conditions for sending relief consignments to the civilian population of any territory under the control of a party to the conflict, other than occupied territory, may also require the intervention of the Protecting Power (P. I, Article 70).

### **Agreements on retaining and relieving personnel**

From the outbreak of hostilities, parties to the conflict may determine by special agreement (see model agreements drawn up by the ICRC, *International Review of the Red Cross*, January 1955 (p. 7-31) (in French), the percentage of medical and religious personnel to be retained in proportion to the number of prisoners, and the distribution of the said personnel in the camps (C. I, Article 31). Similarly, during hostilities, the parties to the conflict are required to agree concerning the possible relief of retained personnel (C. III, Article 33).

### **Agreements on repatriation and internment in a neutral country**

Special agreements may be concluded, throughout the duration of hostilities, with a view to the direct repatriation of seriously wounded and seriously sick prisoners and of prisoners who have undergone a long period of captivity (C. III, Articles 110 and 109). The same goes for the possible internment of prisoners of war in a neutral country (C. III, Article III). The intervention of the Protecting Power may also be sought concerning the release and repatriation of prisoners at the close of hostilities if the Parties to the conflict have not established direct contact (C. III, Article 118). The same procedure is applicable to the repatriation of civilians (C. IV, Articles 36, 132).

## **Scrutiny**

The term "scrutiny" will be used here as equivalent to the French term "contrôle", which is used frequently in the Conventions and Protocols and is translated variously in the English version, according to context, as scrutiny, control, direction, verification, supervision, etc. It should be understood here as monitoring the way in which the Conventions and Protocol are applied, and implies the right to take note of any breaches which might occur, to protest against such breaches, to present observations and make suggestions.

### **Scrutiny of conditions in the camps and places of internment**

The Conventions and Protocol provide for measures of scrutiny by the Protecting Power first and foremost in the camps and places

of internment of prisoners of war and civilian internees. From this follows the right to visit (C. III, Article 126; C. IV, Article 143), to examine the lists of labour detachments (C. III, Article 56; C. IV, Article 96), to receive complaints and requests from prisoners of war and civilian internees (C. III, Article 78; C. IV, Article 101), to communicate with prisoners' representatives and internee committees and investigate the grounds for their dismissal (C. III, Articles 79, 81; C. IV, Articles 102, 104), to examine the record of disciplinary punishments (C. III, Article 96; C. IV, Article 123), and to receive notice of enquiries in case of deaths or serious injuries (C. III, Article 121, C. IV, Article 131).

### **Scrutiny with regard to relief for prisoners of war and civilian internees**

Alongside the aforesaid prerogatives, the Protecting Power is entitled to intervene with regard to relief consignments by organizing special transport to ensure their conveyance (C. III, Article 75; C. IV, Article 111), by determining the limits, if any, to be imposed, solely in the prisoners' interest, on such shipments (C. III, Article 72), and by supervising their distribution (C. III, Article 73, and Annex III, Article 9; C. IV, Article 109, and Annex II, Article 8).

Similarly, the Protecting Power can oppose the imposition of excessive limitations on the correspondence of prisoners of war (C. III, Article 71) and intervene with regard to the financial resources of prisoners of war (C. III, Articles 58, 60, 65) and of civilian internees (C. IV, Article 98).

### **Scrutiny of the situation in occupied territory**

The authorization by the parties concerned of relief schemes in occupied territory may be conditional on supervision by the Protecting Power (C. IV, Article 59). The latter is furthermore empowered to supervise the distribution of relief consignments, which cannot be diverted from the purpose for which they are intended except with its consent (C. IV, Articles 60, 61). The Protecting Power also has the right to verify the state of supplies in such territories (C. IV, Article 55). It must be informed of any transfers and evacuations of the population as soon as they have taken place (C. IV, Article 49). All protected persons must have the necessary facilities for making application to the Protecting Power (C. IV, Article 30), in particular workers (C. IV, Article 52).

## **Scrutiny in the territory of parties to the conflict**

In the territories of parties to the conflict, the question of scrutiny has two aspects. It can concern the manner in which the hostilities are conducted but, in this respect, the Conventions and the Protocol do not expressly confer any competence on the Protecting Power, which “shall have the duty of safeguarding the interests of the Parties to the conflict” (P. I, Article 5). Reference may also be made, on this subject, to the “International Fact-Finding Commission” (P. I, Article 90).

The other aspect concerns relief supplies for and the protection of aliens in the territories of parties to the conflict.

With regard to relief consignments, the authorization of the parties to the conflict or the party which allows passage may be made conditional on the distribution of assistance being carried out under the local supervision of a Protecting Power (C. IV, Article 23; P. I, Article 70). The said supervision is also required in the event of the evacuation of children (P. I, Article 78).

On behalf of aliens, the Protecting Power may be entitled to be informed of the reasons for refusal of their wish to leave the country (C. IV, Article 35), and to be given the names of persons who have been interned, subjected to assigned residence or freed (C. IV, Article 43). Finally, protected persons must have the necessary facilities for making application to the Protecting Powers (C. IV, Article 30).

## **Activity in the judicial field**

The Protecting Power must receive the list of offences which are punishable by the death sentence when they are committed by prisoners of war (C. III, Article 100). In the event of a death sentence pronounced on a prisoner of war or a protected person in occupied territory, notification of the sentence must be received by the Protecting Power six months before the execution (C. III, Article 101; C. IV, Article 75). The notification of judicial proceedings against a prisoner of war must be received by the Protecting Power at least three weeks before the opening of the trial (C. III, Article 104). The Protecting Power must also be informed of judicial proceedings instituted in occupied territory by the Occupying Power (C. IV, Article 71). It is moreover the task of the Protecting Power to provide legal assistance for prisoners of war (C. III, Article 105), for other persons who have taken part in hostilities and whose status is not yet settled (P. I, Article 45), and for

protected persons in occupied territories (C. IV, Articles 72, 74). Finally, the Protecting Power must be informed of any judgement pronounced upon a prisoner of war and of the latter's rights of appeal (C. III, Article 107).

## **Intermediary**

As all relations between the belligerents are generally broken off, one of the essential roles of the Protecting Power is to serve as their intermediary. In this function, a distinction is made between notifications and the simple transmission of information.

### **Notifications**

A notification is an official legally binding communication of which the addressee must acknowledge receipt.

The notifications which will normally require the assistance of a Protecting Power, if they are made in time of conflict, and for which provision is specifically made in the Conventions and Protocol I, are concerned with the following points:

- the location of fixed medical units; the names of recognized aid societies (P. I, Article 12; C. I, Articles 26, 27);
- hospital ships and coastal rescue craft (C. II, Articles 22, 24, 25; P. I, Article 23);
- medical aircraft (P. I, Article 25, 29);
- non-defended localities (P. I, Article 59);
- judicial and disciplinary proceedings:
  - with regard to prisoners of war (C. III, Articles 104, 105, 107);
  - with regard to protected persons in occupied territory (C. IV, Articles 71, 74, 75);
- conditions for the release of prisoners of war on parole, escape (C. III, Articles 21, 94);
- relations of prisoners of war and civilian internees with the exterior (C. III, Article 69; C. IV, Article 105);
- promotions in rank of prisoners of war (C. III, Article 43);
- decisions regarding the internment of protected persons (C. IV, Articles 42, 43);
- limitation of relief consignments (C. IV, Article 108).

Furthermore, should prisoners of war or protected persons be transferred by the Power responsible for their capture to a third Power, any important failure by the latter to fulfil its obligations must be notified by the Protecting Power to the captor (C. III, Article 12; C. IV, Article 45).

### **Transmission of information**

This function consists mainly of the communication to the Power of origin or the adverse parties of information concerning:

- the wounded, sick, shipwrecked and dead (C. I, Article 16; C. II, Article 19);
- the location of camps and places of internment (C. III, Article 23; C. IV, Article 83);
- the identity of protected persons (C. III, Article 122; C. IV, Article 137);
- measures concerning relations with the exterior and relief consignments (C. III, Article 69; C. IV, Article 105);
- the financial resources of prisoners of war (C. III, Articles 62, 63, 66, 68).

It may also involve the transmission of legal documents (C. III, Article 77; C. IV, Article 113) and death certificates (C. III, Article 120; C. IV, Article 129).

Finally, the Protecting Power may also be requested, during hostilities, to transmit translations of the Conventions, the Protocol and the laws and regulations adopted to ensure their application (C. I, Article 48; C. II, Article 49; C. III, Article 128; C. IV, Article 145).

**Jean de Preux**  
*Legal Adviser at the ICRC*

---

# INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

---

## **Appointment to the Executive Board**

The Assembly of the International Committee of the Red Cross, in its meeting of 14 March 1985, appointed Mr. Pierre Keller as a member of the Executive Board. Mr. Keller took up his duties at the meeting of the Executive Board on 21 March 1985.

Mr. Keller has been a member of the ICRC Assembly since February 1984.

---

## **The President of the ICRC in Lebanon**

The President of the ICRC, Mr. Alexandre Hay, accompanied by Mr. Jean Hoefliger, ICRC delegate general for the Middle East, visited Lebanon from 12 to 16 February. He was received in Beirut by the President of the Republic, Mr. Amin Gemayel, Mr. Rashid Karami, President of the Council of Ministers and Minister for Foreign Affairs and Dr. Selim Hoss, Minister for Labour and Education. Discussions on matters of mutual interest made it possible to strengthen even more the excellent relationship that exists between the ICRC and the Lebanese Government.

While in Beirut the President of the ICRC took the opportunity to visit the Lebanese Red Cross, where he was received by the president, Mrs. A. Issa-el-Khoury, together with members of the Central Committee. When discussing various matters the president of the Lebanese Red Cross did not hide the fact that the National Society had serious financial worries.

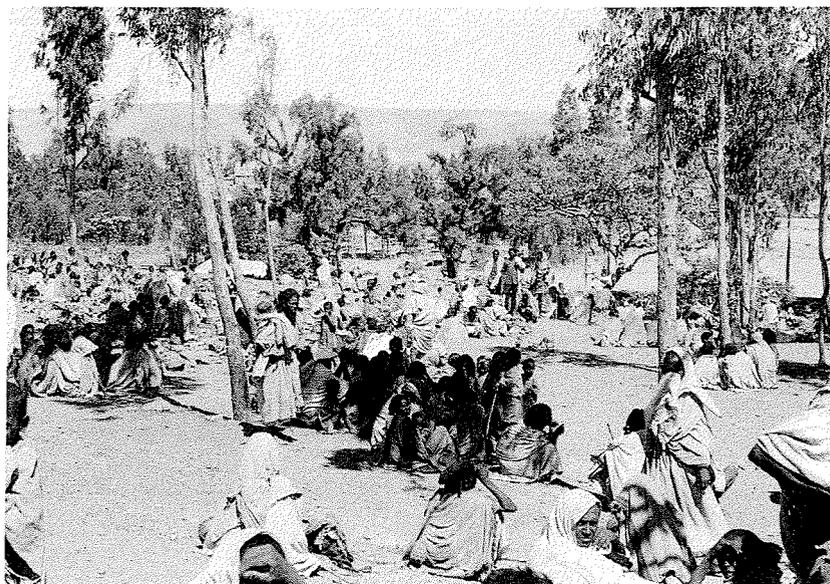
## ETHIOPIA

Joint ICRC and Ethiopian Red Cross relief operation.



The displaced people and the victims of drought flock towards the Red Cross distribution centres in Axum and Mekele.

*Photos: Peduzzi/Chilvers—ICRC*



## ETHIOPIA

Joint ICRC and Ethiopian Red Cross relief operation.



A food centre in Mekele for undernourished children and a medical clinic.

*Photos: Peduzzi/Chilvers—ICRC*

The President of the ICRC also had numerous contacts with the sizeable ICRC delegation in Lebanon; the work that it does, effectively assisted by local Lebanese personnel, is very much appreciated. On 14 February, along with the head of the ICRC sub-delegation in Saida, he visited the city and the surrounding areas.

---

## **Conference on the Emergency Situation in Africa**

Following an invitation by the Secretary General of the United Nations, Mr. Javier Perez de Cuellar, the President of the ICRC, Mr. Alexandre Hay, represented the ICRC at the Conference on the Emergency Situation in Africa, which was held on 11 and 12 March, at the Palais des Nations in Geneva.

The Conference was aimed at drawing the attention of the international community to the distress prevailing in those African countries which are struck by drought and starvation, and at ensuring co-ordination of the efforts made by governments and organizations to face this emergency situation.

The President of the ICRC presented to the participants of this meeting two aspects of the African plight which are most worrying for the ICRC. Mr. Hay said: "The first aspect of the tragedy of starvation in Africa is that very often—and it is happening at this very moment—natural calamities like drought are aggravated by man-made disasters.

"In southern Africa, in the Horn of Africa and elsewhere, the ICRC, which was there because of internal and external conflicts long before the drought had reached the proportions it has today, had to expand its activities greatly to cope with recent developments brought about by war and by nature.

"That is a very serious matter because often, as a result of military operations, the ICRC, as a neutral intermediary accepted by all parties, is the only one that can do anything, including relieving the suffering brought about by natural phenomena.

“The second aspect, which is confirmed by all reports received from our people in the field, is that in the next few months the worst is yet to come in the food situation and that there are no indications which would warrant a hope of a let-up in military operations”.

The President of the ICRC concluded with an expression of gratitude to all donors who make the work of the ICRC possible and urged governments not to overlook the possibilities which development should create in the long term.

---

### **An ICRC delegate killed in Sudan**

The ICRC has learned, with deep sorrow, of the sudden death of Mr Michel Zufferey, delegate to Sudan, in a road accident on 5 January 1985.

Michel Zufferey, 40 years old, unmarried, joined the ICRC in 1972. He undertook his first mission in Bangladesh, and then was posted successively to Angola, Lebanon, Israel, Pakistan and Chad. He started his mission in Sudan on 22 January 1983.

Michel Zufferey, having spent over twelve years in the service of the ICRC, made many lasting friendships, and his death is profoundly regretted by the whole organisation. The ICRC extended to his parents and friends its deepest sympathy and condolences.

---

## **Recognition of the Red Cross Society of Cape Verde**

Geneva, 15 April 1985

Circular No. 534

*To the Central Committees of the National Red Cross  
and Red Crescent Societies*

Ladies and Gentlemen,

We have the honour to inform you of the official recognition of the Red Cross Society of Cape Verde by the International Committee of the Red Cross. This recognition, which took effect on 14 March 1985, brings to 136 the number of National Society members of the International Red Cross.

Founded on 19 July 1975, the Society officially applied for recognition by the International Committee of the Red Cross on 31 January 1985. In support of its application it forwarded various documents, including several reports on its activities, the text of its Statutes and a certified copy of the ministerial decree of 3 November 1984 attesting that the Red Cross Society is recognized by the government as a voluntary aid society auxiliary to the public authorities.

These documents, which were examined jointly by the International Committee and the Secretary of the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, showed that the ten qualifying conditions for the recognition of a new National Society by the International Committee had been fulfilled.

The International Committee and the League have observed the activities of the Red Cross of Cape Verde for several years. Representatives on mission of the two institutions have ascertained that

the Red Cross of Cape Verde, which has a sound infrastructure, extends its activities virtually throughout the entire country and that these activities are being developed in several fields: information, first aid, health education, social welfare assistance, preparedness in case of natural disaster.

On 11 May 1984, the Swiss Federal Council received notification of the accession of the Republic of Cape Verde to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, which therefore entered into force on the territory of Cape Verde on 11 November 1984.

The Red Cross of Cape Verde is presided over by Mr. Dario Laval Rezende Dantas dos Reis. Its headquarters is located in Praia. The address is as follows: Cruz Vermelha de Cabo Verde, Rua Unidade-Guiné-Cabo Verde, P.O. Box 119, Praia, Cape Verde.

The International Committee of the Red Cross has pleasure in welcoming the Red Cross of Cape Verde to membership of the International Red Cross, in accrediting it and commending it, by this circular, to all other National Societies, and in expressing sincere good wishes to the Society for its future and for the success of its humanitarian work.

For the International Committee  
of the Red Cross

*Alexandre HAY*

*President*

---

## **Accession of the Republic of Vanuatu to the Protocols**

The Republic of Vanuatu deposited with the Swiss Government, on 28 February 1985, an instrument of accession to the Protocols Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, relating to the protection of victims of international armed conflicts (Protocol I) and non-international armed conflicts (Protocol II), adopted in Geneva on 8 June 1977.

Pursuant to their provisions, the Protocols will enter into force for the Republic of Vanuatu on 28 August 1985.

This is the 50th State to become party to Protocol I and the 43rd to Protocol II.

## First Award of the Paul Reuter Prize

The donation made in 1982 by Mr Paul Reuter, Honorary Professor for law, economics and social sciences of Paris University, member and former president of the U.N. Commission for International Law, enabled the ICRC to establish the Paul Reuter Fund. The revenue from the fund is to be used for the promotion of knowledge and understanding of international humanitarian law and for the award of a prize of 2000 Swiss francs every other year to reward a particularly deserving work in that field.<sup>1</sup>

The Prize jury, presided by Mr Jean Pictet, Honorary Vice-President of the ICRC, and comprising on this occasion some members of the ICRC staff and Professor L. Condorelli and Professor G. Malinverni, of Geneva University, has decided unanimously to award the first Paul Reuter Prize to Mr. Mohamed El Kouhène, Doctor of Laws, of Moroccan nationality, for his thesis entitled "Les garanties fondamentales de la personne dans les instruments de droit humanitaire et des droits de l'homme", presented in July 1984 at the Law Faculty of Nice University.

The jury appreciated the outstanding quality of the laureate's thesis which greatly contributes to the knowledge of international humanitarian law in that it highlights its relationship with human rights. The Prize will be presented to the winner in Spring 1985.

---

<sup>1</sup> See *International Review of the Red Cross*, November-December 1983.

## *EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES*

*January-February 1985*

### **Africa**

#### **Missions from Geneva**

Dr. Athos Gallino, member of the ICRC, accompanied by Dr. Rémi Russbach, chief medical officer of the ICRC, went on mission from 20 January to 3 February, first to *Mozambique* and then to *Zimbabwe, Ethiopia* and *Sudan*. As head of the "Special Fund for the Disabled", created by the ICRC in 1983,<sup>1</sup> Dr. Gallino visited the centres for care of war amputees and paraplegics which have been set up in these countries by the ICRC with the support of local authorities and National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. The ICRC representatives went to Maputo (Mozambique), Bulawayo (Zimbabwe), Debre Zeit and Asmara (Ethiopia) and Kassala (Sudan).

Dr. Gallino and Dr. Russbach also visited the ICRC feeding centres in Axum and Mekele (Ethiopia).

\*

Mr. Jean-Pierre Hocké, ICRC Director for Operational Activities, was in *Ethiopia* from 19 to 26 February and had discussions with the Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Social Affairs, the Chairman and the Secretary General of the Ethiopian Red Cross and a senior official of the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission, a

---

<sup>1</sup> See the *International Review of the Red Cross*, January-February 1984

government aid body. Mr. Hocké also went out into the field, to Tigre, Eritrea and Wollo, where the ICRC is conducting a large-scale relief operation for displaced people who are victims both of the disturbances and of the drought.

\*

Mr. Jean-David Chappuis, ICRC deputy delegate general for Africa, was in *Uganda* from 20 to 27 January. He was received in Kampala by the Vice-President of the Republic and Minister for Defence as well as by the Prime Minister; he had a general discussion with them on the ICRC's work in Uganda.

### **Angola**

The ICRC continued its assistance programmes for displaced people in the provinces of Huambo, Bie and Benguela. However, at the authorities' request, it had to suspend its activities in Bie province for about ten days (26 January-6 February). Then on 11 February, armed men attacked and destroyed the feeding centre in Kuito at night. Other incidents occurred in Kuito itself, the capital of Bie province, and the ICRC was obliged temporarily to suspend its work in the townships of this province. However a delegate and a nurse from the ICRC continued to provide a reduced form of aid and assistance to the city of Kuito itself.

The ICRC supplied medicaments and medical items to the dispensaries and hospitals situated in those areas where it could supervise their use. In January and February ICRC medical teams gave 4,300 consultations in the townships they visited; teams from the "Angolan Red Cross" likewise gave an average of 14,000 consultations every month. In addition, 179 wounded and seriously ill were evacuated to hospitals in the provinces and 206 patients were taken home at the end of their treatment.

An average of 12,000 undernourished children were admitted to the 19 ICRC feeding centres each month; their close relatives who accompanied them to these centres were also supplied with food rations.

Furthermore, the orthopaedic centre in Bomba Alta, Huambo, manufactured appliances for 60 patients and repaired 465 prostheses and crutches.

As regards food aid, 1,197 tonnes of relief supplies were distributed in January to some 127,000 people in the provinces of Huam-

bo, Bie, Benguela and Huila, and 1,205 tonnes to 128,000 people in February.

Three Hercules cargo-planes brought relief supplies from ports along the Atlantic coast to storage depots that had been set up in the affected regions. From there, six light aircraft carried out 2,174 flights to transport the relief supplies to the central distribution points.

The local ICRC Tracing Agency office dealt with 53 requests for news and exchanged 21 family messages; in addition, it organized two family reunifications.

### **Republic of South Africa**

The ICRC delegation in Pretoria continued its aid programme on behalf of detainees and their families in need. In January and February the amount of relief supplied (food parcels, travelling expenses for people to visit their relatives held in detention, various other forms of aid) came to 57,000 Swiss francs.

### **Namibia/South-West Africa**

The ICRC established two aid programmes for the civilian population—programmes set up as a result of a survey conducted in October and November 1984 in the regions of Kavango, Kaokoland, Ovamboland, Damaraland and Namaland; three hospitals in Damaraland and Kavango received protein-enriched cereals for infants suffering from malnutrition and a primary school in Damaraland was given a month's supply of food for some 200 children. A primary school in Rehoboth was also provided with food aid.

On 1 February ICRC delegates visited two detainees in Windhoek prison. For January and February, aid for the detainees and their families in need came to some 17,000 Swiss francs.

### **Regional delegation in Zimbabwe**

The ICRC regional delegate based in Harare went on missions to Botswana, Zambia, Lesotho and Malawi to visit the authorities and the National Red Cross Societies in these countries. His discussions with them centred mainly on the dissemination of knowledge of the basic rules of humanitarian law.

In addition, the delegate in charge of orthopaedic programmes at the ICRC headquarters in Geneva went to Zimbabwe on 18 January to follow up the establishment of the orthopaedic centre which the ICRC has decided to set up in Bulawayo, with the support of the Ministry of Health and the Zimbabwe Red Cross. The ICRC will provide finance, equipment, administration and staff training to run the centre, while the tasks of the Ministry of Health and the National Society will be more particularly to locate and receive the patients.

### **Mozambique**

From 30 January to 5 February two ICRC delegates, including a doctor, conducted a survey in Zambezia province. As a result of this mission the ICRC decided to start an assistance programme for medicaments and medical items for hospital and health centres in districts within the conflict zone. It is also planned to carry out transport of sick people when the need arises.

In January and February, the orthopaedic centre in Maputo (where five ICRC technicians are working) manufactured 33 orthopaedic prostheses, 164 pairs of crutches and ten wheel-chairs; it fitted 28 invalids with appliances, thereby bringing to 561 the number of handicapped people fitted with prostheses since work began in April 1981.

### **Ethiopia**

During the first two months of 1985, ICRC delegates distributed close to 11,200 tonnes of food to the Ethiopian civilian population suffering from the combined effects of the drought and the conflict situation. For the month of February alone 5,900 tonnes of food was supplied to some 409,000 people in the provinces of Tigre, Eritrea, Wollo, Gondar and Hararge; in January 5,276 tonnes were distributed to almost 370,000 beneficiaries.

In order to extend its work further and bring assistance to an even greater number of victims living on the uplands, the ICRC had to strengthen its logistic infrastructure and to increase airlifts of relief supplies to regions inaccessible by road. Consequently, in January three specially chartered planes flew in more than 1,000 tonnes of relief supplies to distribution centres in Axum, Adwa, Mekele, Maychew and Mehoni; in addition, some 2,055 tonnes were transported by aircraft placed at the disposal of the Ethiopian

authorities by the governments of the United States, Italy and the Federal Republic of Germany. In February a cargo aircraft, chartered from the Belgian Government by the ICRC, began taking food supplies directly from the port of Assab to Mekele and Axum; from there the lighter ICRC planes transported the food to areas which have small landing strips.

Work in the feeding centres run by the ICRC continued without let-up. An average of between 150 to 300 undernourished children have been treated every month in each of these centres under the supervision of three ICRC doctors and ten nurses; in Mekele this figure exceeded 650 children. By the end of February five ICRC centres were in operation in the province of Tigre, at Mekele, Axum, Adwa, Maychew and Mehoni.

Moreover, medical missions were carried out in the provinces of Tigre and Eritrea (Barentu and Akordat) where the hospitals and health centres were stocked with medicaments and medical supplies.

In addition, 72 patients were fitted with appliances at the ICRC orthopaedic centres in Asmara and Harar.

## **Sudan**

The ICRC delegation in Khartoum supplied some 1,600 tonnes of food and 7,000 blankets to people displaced from Tigre, and 205 tonnes of food to Ethiopian refugees living in the outskirts of Kassala and Gedaref.

The ICRC Tracing Agency office registered 190 tracing requests, concerning chiefly Ethiopian and Ugandan refugees, and transmitted 53 family messages.

On 29 January ICRC delegates visited the Sudanese ex-prisoners who had been repatriated from Chad and gave them relief supplies (food, soap, etc.).

## **Somalia**

In January and February almost four tonnes of relief supplies (fruit, vegetables, sweets, cigarettes), worth 11,000 Swiss francs, were handed over to prisoners of war (212 Ethiopian and one Cuban) during the twice-monthly distributions.

Moreover, 147 family messages sent by Somali prisoners in Ethiopian captivity were forwarded to their relatives dwelling in Mogadishu and the surrounding area.

In co-operation with the Somali Red Crescent several conferences were organized in the four districts in the capital to disseminate knowledge of the principles of the Red Cross amongst various sectors of the public. An average of some 200 people attended each of these conferences.

### **Djibouti**

From 19 January to 1 February, two ICRC delegates were in Djibouti and met representatives of the authorities and the "Red Crescent". They discussed various matters with them: dissemination of knowledge of international humanitarian law, accession to the Protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions, and matters concerning the Tracing Agency and logistic problems connected with the ICRC's work in Ethiopia. The delegates also visited a camp where 8,000 victims of the drought are living, including some 1,500 people from Ethiopia.

### **Uganda**

The ICRC continued its visits to places of detention in Kampala (prisons and police stations) where, in January and February, it saw respectively 1,385 and 102 detainees who came within its competence.

The local tracing office of the ICRC registered 28 tracing requests and forwarded 2,359 family messages between the detainees and their families. Moreover, in co-operation with the Ugandan authorities, the ICRC organized the transfer of 915 people from transit camps to other places.

Because of insecurity conditions, medical activities continued to be paralyzed in the field; however, medical teams went ahead with their campaign to vaccinate the displaced people gathered together in Kampala.

Through the governmental relief agency, the ICRC supplied assistance to the transit centres in Busunju, Kibizi and Nakazi and to the hospital in Mityana where the displaced people are housed. In all, 187 tonnes of food, 3,500 blankets and 22 tonnes of various kinds of relief supplies were distributed in January and February.

## **Zaire**

The ICRC delegates in Kinshasa continued their visits to places of detention in the capital and in the provinces (Lubumbashi, Kalémié). In January and February, respectively, they saw 69 and 60 security detainees. Relief supplies were given to detainees and their families in need, i.e. 730 beneficiaries.

The local Tracing Agency office was mainly engaged in registering the detainees visited. It also handled 187 requests for news and exchanged 19 family messages.

In co-operation with the Red Cross of the Republic of Zaire, ICRC delegates gave several lectures on the Red Cross movement to some 1,800 people, mainly relief workers from the National Society.

## **Regional delegation in Togo**

The ICRC regional delegate for West Africa, based in Lomé (Togo), attended an international conference on peace and human rights from 14 to 18 January, organized by the African Institute of International Private Law and the Togolese Government. Some 180 participants were present at this conference and, among other things, heard a lecture on the Third Geneva Convention presented by Professor Conte (Italy).

In addition, the regional delegate went on mission to Ghana from 11 to 14 February as part of the preparatory work for a seminar on international humanitarian law and its dissemination; this seminar is being organized by the Ghana Red Cross with the support of the ICRC and the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and will take place in Accra from 29 April to 3 May 1985.

## **Chad**

About 39 tonnes of food and 14 tonnes of various relief supplies were delivered by the ICRC for detainees in the central prison in N'Djamena.

An ICRC doctor continued checking the detainees' state of health, concentrating mainly on combatting malaria.

## **Latin America**

### **Mission from Geneva**

From 24 to 27 January, Mr. Jacques Moreillon, ICRC Director for General Affairs, accompanied by the deputy delegate general for Latin America and the Caribbean and two other delegates, participated in the Second Inter-American Seminar on State Security, Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law, jointly organized in San José (Costa Rica) by the ICRC and the Inter-American Institute of Human Rights.

### **El Salvador**

Continuing their protection activities in El Salvador, ICRC delegates carried out 183 visits in January to places of detention in the capital and in the provinces and saw and registered 175 new security detainees; in February they had access to 125 detainees during a series of 144 visits.

The ICRC's tracing offices in San Salvador, San Miguel and Santa Ana registered 242 tracing requests concerning people reported missing or presumed to be in detention; moreover, they continued to receive several hundred visitors a month wanting to know what had happened to their relatives.

There was a marked increase in medical activities by comparison with the latter months of 1984 since problems hampering movements had been largely overcome; consequently the ICRC and the Salvadoran Red Cross medical teams went on an average of about forty rounds of visits each month in the field and gave 10,558 medical consultations throughout the entire country (6,068 in the eastern departments); furthermore, they carried out 1,745 dental examinations. Medicaments and medical supplies were distributed to health stations, mobile clinics and branches of the National Red Cross Society in the townships visited.

Food aid to the displaced civilian population in January amounted to 124 tonnes of food for 14,200 people in the central departments and almost 640 tonnes for 78,000 beneficiaries in the eastern departments. For February these figures were, respectively, 248 tonnes for 27,500 people and approximately 624 tonnes for

73,500 people. It should be noted that distributions are carried out by ICRC delegates in co-operation with teams from the Salvadoran Red Cross.

## Nicaragua

Between 21 January and 14 February, ICRC delegates visited the "Zona Franca" prison in Managua and had interviews without witnesses with 371 security detainees. They also had access to five farming colonies which were part of the provincial penitentiary system. Some 38 tonnes of relief supplies, mainly food (worth approximately 357,000 Swiss francs), were supplied to the detainees and their needy families (826 families benefited from ICRC aid in January and 1,300 families in February).

In addition, 42 requests to trace missing persons were registered and 927 family messages exchanged (mainly between Nicaraguan refugees in Honduras and their relatives in Nicaragua). At the end of February the head of the Central Tracing Agency in Geneva visited the tracing office in Managua and was able to take stock of its various activities.

In the Puerto Cabezas region, along the Atlantic coast, 1,142 families of displaced people—i.e. some 5,700 beneficiaries—received aid in February (for insecurity reasons it was not possible to take any action in January). In the Bluefields region (along the southern part of the Atlantic coast) 610 families received aid in January and 673 in February. A total of 70 tonnes of food was distributed. This work was carried out jointly by the ICRC and the Nicaraguan Red Cross in co-operation with the Nicaraguan Institute for Social Welfare (INSSBI).

In addition, an ICRC nurse went to the area along the Atlantic coast; consultations were given to 445 patients and basic medical kits were handed over to the people in charge of five villages.

The ICRC also re-stocked several branches of the National Red Cross Society with emergency supplies (food and various items). Moreover, medicaments and medical supplies, worth 27,500 Swiss francs, were given to hospitals belonging to the Ministry of Health and to centres belonging to the Nicaraguan Red Cross.

About one thousand people attended lectures on the dissemination of knowledge of the basic rules of humanitarian law, which were held in eight branches of the National Society situated in conflict areas.

## Colombia

The annual meeting of the Colombian Red Cross (26 and 27 February) was attended by the ICRC delegates in Bogotá and provided an opportunity to determine the National Society's action programme as regards disseminating knowledge of the Red Cross principles and the basic rules of humanitarian law.

ICRC delegates also took part in a meeting of Red Cross volunteer workers which was held in Cali from 28 February to 2 March; one day of the meeting was devoted to the activities of the National Societies in the context of armed conflicts.

### Visits to places of detention

In *Peru*, between 28 January and 21 February, ICRC delegates visited four places of detention both in the capital and the provinces. They saw a total of 444 people detained as a result of events.

In *Grenada*, an ICRC delegate visited Richmond Hill prison, on 20 and 21 February, and had access to 22 security detainees.

In *Uruguay*, a new round of visits began on 11 February to security detainees in all places of detention; by the end of the month the ICRC delegates had visited four prisons where 332 detainees were being held.

## Asia—Pacific

### Missions from Geneva

An ICRC delegation, headed by Mr Rudolf Jäckli, member of the Committee, and including Mr. Alain Modoux, head of the ICRC Information Department, and Mr. Jean de Courten, delegate general for Asia and the Pacific, took part in the Third Regional Conference of the National Societies of Asia and the Pacific which was held in Melbourne (Australia) from 4 to 9 February. Mr. Jäckli addressed the conference at its opening session and Mr. de Courten outlined the ICRC's work in the region between 1981 and 1984.

On his way to Melbourne, Mr. de Courten stopped off in *Thailand* on 28 January to assess the ICRC's work along the Khmer-Thai border.

On his way back from Melbourne, the ICRC delegate general stopped in *Indonesia*. He met in Jakarta the Minister of Justice and the Secretary-General of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs; with them he discussed problems related to the ICRC's protection activities in Indonesia and East Timor.

### **Conflict in Afghanistan**

An ICRC delegate, accompanied by an interpreter, made two visits (3 January and 6 February) to three Soviet soldiers captured in Afghanistan by opposition movements and transferred to Switzerland by the ICRC for a two-year period of internment after agreement by all the parties concerned.

### **Pakistan**

The ICRC delegation in Pakistan continued its medical assistance programmes as part of its overall work on behalf of the victims of the Afghan conflict.

In January and February 258 wounded were admitted to the surgical hospital in Peshawar and 528 operations were carried out; in addition 1,842 consultations were given to out-patients. The hospital in Quetta admitted 117 wounded and carried out 205 operations.

The first-aid teams of the Pakistan Red Cross at Parachinar, Miram Shah and Wana treated 126 wounded and evacuated many others to the hospital in Peshawar. The first-aid post at Chaman gave treatment to 46 wounded, of whom 36 were transferred to the hospital in Quetta.

Thirty-two participants passed their exams in the 27th and 28th first-aid courses organized in Peshawar. A similar type of course began in Quetta on 20 January and ended four weeks later; out of 16 participants chosen from 144 candidates, 15 passed the final exam.

### **Khmer-Thai border**

During January and February fighting increased along the Khmer-Thai border, causing 240,000 Khmers to seek refuge on Thai soil. ICRC medical personnel continued to treat a large

number of war casualties and emergency cases in the surgical hospitals in Khao-I-Dang and Kab Cherng and at the dispensary at Dongrek and in various first-aid and preliminary examination posts along the border. There was a total of 656 admissions (including 466 war casualties) to Khao-I-Dang and 166 (including 80 war casualties) to Kab Cherng. It should be noted that the medical personnel includes specialists seconded to the ICRC by the Red Cross Societies of Canada, Denmark, Finland, the Federal Republic of Germany, Great Britain, Iceland, Ireland, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand and Norway.

The Australian and Japanese Red Cross Societies continued to supply respectively 400 and 100 units of blood, each month to the ICRC blood bank. The New Zealand Red Cross sent 120 units of blood.

The Thai Red Cross increased its medical teams along the border regions and continued its activities on behalf of the Khmer refugees and the Thai civilian population; these teams treated some 44,700 patients, including 34,540 Khmers.

The relief supplies distributed by ICRC delegates in the refugee camps and in the prison in Aranyaprathet came to 110,000 Swiss francs; they consisted mainly of paramedical items (hygiene requisites and maintenance products), bedding, cooking utensils, clothing and food.

The local ICRC Tracing Agency office forwarded 3,498 letters between refugees and their families living either in a camp along the Thai-Khmer border or abroad; in addition, it dealt with 1,969 requests to trace missing people and organized 1,209 transfers of people. The Thai Red Cross Tracing and Mailing Service, which concerns itself mainly with the Vietnamese boat people, registered 60 requests for news, instituted 61 enquiries and distributed 867 letters in January and February.

### **Kampuchea**

The ICRC continued to supply medicaments and medical items to the hospitals and the blood bank in Phnom Penh and to the provincial hospitals in Kandal, Kompong Chhnang, Kompong Cham, Kompong Speu and Kampot. The assistance provided in January and February was worth 147,000 Swiss francs.

In addition, relief supplies (sanitary and hygiene requisites, clothing, kitchen utensils), worth a total of 26,000 Swiss francs,

were given to orphanages in Kompong Cham, Kompong Chhnang, Kompong Speu and Kampot.

The ICRC also continued to give logistic support to the medical teams of the French, Swedish and Swiss Red Cross Societies working respectively in Phnom Penh, Kompong Chhnang and Kompong Cham.

In January and February, the ICRC flew in 6.7 tonnes of relief supplies (including five tonnes of medicaments) from Bangkok via Ho Chi Minh City to Phnom Penh; in addition, two ships transported eleven tonnes of medical material from Singapore to Kam-puchea, and two vehicles for the ICRC delegation in Phnom Penh.

### **Indonesia/East Timor**

As part of the repatriation and family reunification programme for the inhabitants of East Timor, on 10 February the ICRC organized the transfer of one person to Australia. Since the beginning of this programme in 1984, 41 people have gone to Australia under the auspices of the ICRC.

### **Philippines**

The series of visits to places of detention begun by the ICRC in July 1984 continued in January and February. Two teams of delegates, each including a doctor and an interpreter, visited 16 places of detention; the first team visited seven places of detention on the islands of Cebu, Negros and Bohol, and the second nine places on the islands of Leyte and Samar; the ICRC had access to a total of 70 detainees being held in these 16 places of detention.

Another team of ICRC delegates, including a medical co-ordinator and accompanied by representatives of the Philippine National Red Cross, went on a medical-nutritional mission to the provinces of Maguindanao and Davao del Norte, on the island of Mindanao. The purpose of the mission was to determine the nutritional state of recently displaced people receiving assistance provided jointly by the ICRC and the Philippine National Red Cross.

## **Papua New Guinea**

From 18 to 24 February the ICRC regional delegate, based in Djakarta, went on mission to Papua New Guinea to take up contact with the National Society and to find out what was happening to the displaced persons from Irian Jaya.

## **Middle East**

### **Conflict between Iran and Iraq**

Against the background of the conflict between Iran and Iraq, the ICRC continued regularly to visit Iranian prisoners of war in Iraqi camps. Between 11 February and 7 March ICRC delegates had access to eight camps and four hospitals; they saw 9,248 prisoners of war and registered 67 new ones. In camps in the region of Meisan they also visited several thousand displaced Iranian families.

It must be noted that, since 10 October 1984, the ICRC has been unable to visit the camps for Iraqi prisoners of war in Iran because the Iranian authorities had suspended these visits after an incident in Gorgan camp.

The Mixed Medical Commission, composed of two ICRC doctors and an Iraqi doctor, examined the cases of wounded or sick Iranian prisoners of war eligible for repatriation in accordance with the Third Geneva Convention; it submitted for approval to the Iraqi Government a list of one hundred names of prisoners who met the required conditions for such repatriation.

In January and February 334,124 family messages were exchanged between Iraqi and Iranian prisoners of war and their families, through the Central Tracing Agency in Geneva.

### **Lebanon**

During January and February—i.e. the period before and after the partial withdrawal of the Israeli army from the Sidon region—ICRC delegates were particularly active, in the rest of the occupied parts of southern Lebanon, for the protection of the civilian population, in accordance with the Fourth Geneva Convention. When the blockades were lifted, they went to many villages

that had been temporarily beleaguered by the occupying forces to assess the needs caused by the situation and supply the necessary assistance. They also regularly visited the Palestinian camps situated in the outskirts of Sidon and Tyre.

The ICRC continued to conduct complete monthly visits to Ansar camp, as well as weekly visits to register new prisoners. On 28 February, 1,687 people were being held in the camp by the Israeli military authorities.

ICRC delegates also had access to other places of detention run by the Israeli army in southern Lebanon (Nabatiyeh and Tyre) and saw 21 people. They also conducted another visit to Atlit camp, in Israel, where 121 former prisoners from Ansar camp were being held, having not been released on 24 November 1983 when the camp was provisionally closed.

On 9 February the ICRC visited three Israeli prisoners in the hands of the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine/General Command (PFLP/GC).

In January and February the ICRC Tracing Agency offices in Lebanon exchanged 35,799 family messages, mainly between detainees and their relatives living either in Lebanon or abroad; moreover, they dealt with 18 requests for news and organized five transfers of people.

ICRC delegates continued carrying out medical surveys, particularly in the southern part of the country. Medicaments and material (wheel-chairs, ambulance kits, etc.), worth approximately 50,000 Swiss francs, were given to 21 hospitals and 53 dispensaries in Beirut and southern Lebanon.

Four ambulances, donated by the Norwegian Red Cross to the ICRC during the events of February 1984 in Beirut and temporarily stored in Larnaca (Cyprus), were sent to Lebanon for use in the southern part of the country. The ICRC gave two ambulances to the Nabatiyeh and Marjayoun branches of the Lebanese Red Cross and medical material to the National Society.

The ICRC continued to stockpile emergency supplies (blankets, kitchen equipment) in Sidon and Tyre to enable it to deal rapidly with any contingencies. Some food distributions took place in Beirut, Tripoli and the region around Tyre.

### **Yemen Arab Republic**

On 22 January the ICRC regional delegate for the Arabian peninsula, accompanied by a doctor, went to the Yemen Arab

Republic to visit places of detention. On 26 and 27 January ICRC delegates had access to the central prison in Sana'a and saw 72 security detainees. They then visited places of detention in the provinces, i.e. in Dhamar, Ibb, Ta'ez, Hodeida and Saada.

While in Sana'a, the ICRC representatives had discussions with the Minister of the Interior, the Director-General of Prisons and the General Secretary of the Yemen Red Crescent.

---

## IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

### **Grants in aid from the French Fund Maurice de Madre**

Some years ago Comte Maurice de Madre, a Frenchman resident in Switzerland, bequeathed a large legacy to the ICRC to provide assistance for delegates, doctors, nurses (male and female) and relief workers who, in the course of their work, have suffered injury and thereby found themselves in straitened circumstances or in reduced health<sup>1</sup>.

Since 1979 the income from this fund has been used to provide grants to Red Cross personnel who have been injured or are sick as a result of a humanitarian mission. Beginning in 1981 grants have been made also to the families of Red Cross personnel who have lost their lives while on duty and were not covered by any insurance.

The Board of the de Madre Fund consists of two representatives of Comte de Madre's family, two representatives of the ICRC, and one representative of the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. It meets two to three times a year to make a decision on the requests for grants which are submitted to it by National Societies or by an ICRC or League delegation in the country where the disaster occurred.

In 1984 a total of 62,000 Swiss francs was paid out:

- to a relief worker from the Lebanese Red Cross injured in Beirut in August 1983;
- to the family of a nurse and to that of a driver from the Uganda Red Cross killed in November 1983 in the Kampala region;
- to a doctor from the Uganda Red Cross wounded during the same attack;

---

<sup>1</sup> See the January-February 1979 edition of the *International Review of the Red Cross* containing Circular No. 512 to the National Societies announcing the establishment of the Fund and the procedure to follow to obtain a grant.

- to the family of a relief worker from the Lebanese Red Cross killed in February 1984 in Beirut;
- to the families of two relief workers/ambulance men from the El Salvador Red Cross killed in March 1983 while transporting wounded people;
- to an ambulance driver from the Haiti Red Cross seriously injured in a road accident in July 1983.
- a supplementary grant to the relief worker from the Lebanese Red Cross injured in 1983 to cover the expenses of another surgical operation.

\*

The above summary shows that, during the past year, the number of National Societies whose staff have benefited from grants paid out by the Fund has gone up slightly, with the result that the total amount paid out over the year has also increased.

However heartening this improvement might be, it is still too little in relation to the probably much higher number of people from the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies throughout the world who would normally be entitled to grants from the Fund.

The following is a summary of the conditions to qualify for a grant from the de Madre Fund:

- Be a member of, or collaborator with, the permanent or temporary staff of a National Red Cross or Red Crescent Society;
- Have participated in a relief operation in cases of armed conflict, natural disaster or in a similar situation;
- Have suffered injury to the extent that one's health is impaired (wounded, sick or invalid); or
- Be in straitened circumstances as a result of the injury or illness;
- If, the person concerned having died while carrying out his humanitarian mission, his family are in straitened circumstances.

\*

The annual income from the Fund, the capital of which increases regularly, certainly enables it to deal with more requests while restricting compensation to the level compatible with local regulations and practices.

The National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies are called upon to avail themselves of the opportunities for compensation provided by the Fund for the benefit of their deserving members.

Those interested should contact the Board of the French Fund Maurice de Madre, at the ICRC in Geneva, or the ICRC delegations throughout the world for information on the procedure to follow when submitting a request for a grant.

---

## **The Central Tracing Agency Today**

The new building of the ICRC's Central Tracing Agency (CTA) was recently officially opened in Geneva; this is an appropriate opportunity to review the latest developments in the Agency's activities and organization.

What is the specific role of the Central Tracing Agency and what are its activities? The CTA has been in operation for more than one hundred years and has a central card index which today contains more than 60 million information cards on about 40 million people. In 1984, some 340,000 requests for or items of information were received and registered. In broad terms, one can say that it is responsible for collecting, storing and transmitting information on victims of conflicts. In this way, it helps to alleviate the moral suffering of people in distress.

Moreover, thanks to its family message service, the CTA transmits messages of a humanitarian character between people cut off from normal means of communication.

Every year, as a consequence of international conflicts, civil wars or internal disturbances, thousands of people—soldiers and civilians, refugees and detainees, adults and children—are imprisoned, deported, suddenly uprooted from their homes, with no means of communicating even with their immediate family. For such people, the Red Cross often represents the only hope of receiving—some day—news from their families.

In order to ensure optimum preservation and use of the wealth of data collected by the Agency over more than a century, the old documents are today microfilmed and information gathered in

current conflicts is put on computer file. The new building provides the essential space and equipment: the central card index is on the top floor, where daylight streams in through glass walls. The data-processing and microfilm services have been set up in offices with the most modern equipment.

\*

Since its creation during the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-1871 until the 1960s, the Central Tracing Agency, which has had various names throughout its history, primarily served as a central secretariat receiving and transmitting personal or family information between belligerent parties.

In 1969, the situation changed. For the first time, ICRC delegates were especially trained and sent on mission in the field. Since then, Tracing Agency activities have been an integral part of the ICRC delegations' work.

Furthermore, the increase in ICRC activities made it necessary to step up the recruitment of personnel, whilst placing more emphasis on the greatest possible versatility in their qualifications. The Agency had to have personnel available to leave on mission abroad and work as a delegate or secretary in a delegation or, conversely, other departments at the ICRC had to have on hand staff able to back up CTA personnel when necessary, at headquarters or in the field.

This change in approach has led to a new generation of young delegates able to leave on mission abroad at a moment's notice.

In 1981, the Committee became aware that further changes had to be made and adapted the CTA's internal structure to the new requirements. The first stage consisted in appointing heads of divisions, employing data processing, promoting training courses, internally and externally (both on the specific working methods of the Agency and on subjects such as knowledge of languages, business management and the microfilming of documents) and setting up a documentation centre.

Efforts were made to examine, in the light of past experience, the doctrine and principles which govern, in the context of the Geneva Conventions, the Agency's work and to develop closer co-operation with the National Societies, which are the CTA's natural partners. All this reflects the new impetus in the Agency's work.

In November 1982, the Agency organized an International Technical Seminar<sup>1</sup>; representatives from about fifty National Societies assembled in Geneva to discuss matters relative to the Agency's activities. This was the first time such a seminar took place. It met with a very favourable response from the National Societies and proved to be extremely useful in deciding on a number of guidelines which will, we hope, facilitate the work of all concerned and more clearly define means of co-operation on an international level in CTA activities.

The CTA had set up a working group to prepare the seminar and it soon became apparent that an important follow-up was necessary. A small unit was thus created, the PAM (Principles and Methods) unit, made up of several experienced CTA staff members and reporting directly to the head of the Agency, to reappraise and conduct research on several aspects of the Agency's principles and methods of work. The group also has the task of following up a number of wishes expressed by National Societies during the international seminar, taking into account the ICRC's overall desire to reinforce co-operation with the National Societies.

Besides analysing the debates held during the first seminar of November 1982 and drawing up a final report on the meeting, the group has worked since then to compile a manual on the CTA's principles and methods of work.<sup>1</sup>

A *Guide* for use by the National Societies is going to be published. It should enable the co-operation which already exists to be improved and help each National Society in developing its own tracing service.

Faced as it is by new challenges the ICRC is endeavouring, by improving each of its services, to fulfil the mandate entrusted to it by the international community.

---

<sup>1</sup> See *International Review of the Red Cross*, January-February 1983.

## BOOKS AND REVIEWS

---

### THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS<sup>1</sup>

The Graduate Institute of International Studies in Geneva and the Società Italiana per la Organizzazione Internazionale, Roma conducted a study of various international organizations to analyse the changes and developments that have taken place in their structure, objectives and activities over the last four decades. The evolution of the international community as a whole is reflected in their activities and *modus operandi*, since they play an important rôle on the international scene and have permanent relations with States and other institutions.

The results of the study were published in a series of works, under the general heading «L'organisation internationale et l'évolution de la société mondiale». The ICRC survey (Volume 2) is entitled «Le Comité international de la Croix-Rouge» and is part of a broad research programme analysing the impact which changes in the world system since 1945 have had on international organizations and the manner in which these organizations have responded to them.

The ICRC is featured alongside inter-governmental organizations such as the ILO (International Labour Organization), the WHO (World Health Organization) and the FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) because of its unique character: from the point of view of its activities, it is an international organization, yet it is national in that all its members have one and the same

---

<sup>1</sup> The book has been published in both English and French:

- *Le Comité international de la Croix-Rouge*, sous la direction de Jacques Freymond, avec la collaboration de Georges Willemin et Roger Heacock. Georg éditeur, Genève, 1984. 210 pages.
- *The International Committee of the Red Cross*, by Georges Willemin and Roger Heacock, under the direction of Jacques Freymond. Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Boston, The Hague, Dordrecht, Lancaster, 1984, 210 pages.

nationality; and although it is a private corporation registered in Switzerland, it is recognized as a subject of international law, on an equal footing with States and empowered to negotiate with them.

The book is by no means a history of the ICRC between 1945 and the present day. It analyses the ICRC's response to changes in the international system, after investigating the development of ICRC activities and its institutional and policy measures to discharge them.

The aim of the report is to provide information, as concisely and accurately as possible, on the geographical expansion of ICRC activities (chapter 1), on their growth (chapter 2), on their diversification (chapter 3) and on the changes in ICRC structures (chapter 4), relations with the League (chapter 5) and with States (chapters 6 and 7). The final chapter (chapter 8) deals with the development of law. The survey includes many charts and diagrams.

We have here a substantial, solid, very well documented work; it will be a source of exact information for all those who wish to learn about and understand what the ICRC is and what it has been doing in the course of developments over recent years.

---

## ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL SOCIETIES

- AFGHANISTAN (Democratic Republic) — Afghan Red Crescent, Puli Artan, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA (People's Socialist Republic) — Albanian Red Cross, 35, *Fruga e Barrikadavet, Tirana*.
- ALGERIA (Democratic and People's Republic) — Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis, boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINA — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, *1089 Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 206, Clarendon Street, *East Melbourne 3002*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, A-1041, *Vienna 4*.
- BAHAMAS — Bahamas Red Cross Society, P.O. Box N 91, *Nassau*.
- BAHRAIN — Bahrain Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 882, *Manama*.
- BANGLADESH — Bangladesh Red Cross Society, 34, Bangabandhu Avenue, *Dhaka 2*.
- BARBADOS — The Barbados Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, Jemmotts Lane, *Bridgetown*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, chaussée de Vleurgat, *1050 Brussels*.
- BELIZE — The Belize Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 413, *Belize-City*.
- BENIN (People's Republic) — Red Cross of Benin, B.P. 1, *Porto Novo*.
- 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. Biruzov, *Sofia 27*.
- BURKINA FASO — Burkina Faso Red Cross, P.O.B. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- 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*.
- 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*.
- CAPE VERDE (Republic of) — Cruz Vermelha de Cabo Verde, Rua Unidade-Guiné-Cabo Verde, P.O. Box 119, *Praia*.
- CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC — Central African Red Cross, B.P. 1428, *Bangui*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa María 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246V., *Santiago*.
- CHINA (People's Republic) — Red Cross Society of China, 53, Kanmien Hutung, *Peking*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Avenida 68, No. 66-31, Apartado Aéreo 11-10, *Bogotá D.E.*
- CONGO (People's Republic of the) — Croix-Rouge congolaise, place de la Paix, B.P. 4145, *Brazzaville*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 14, Avenida 8, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle 23, No. 201 esq., N. Vedado, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *118 04 Prague 1*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Dag Hammarskjöld's Allé 28, Postboks 2600, *2100 København Ø*.
- 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, 29, El-Galaa Street, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR — El Salvador Red Cross, 17 Av. Norte y 7.<sup>a</sup> Calle Poniente, Centro de Gobierno, *San Salvador*, Apartado Postal 2672.
- 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 14/15*.
- 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 1460 (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, 3.<sup>a</sup> 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, 7.<sup>a</sup> Calle, 1.<sup>a</sup> y 2.<sup>a</sup> Avenidas, *Comayagüela D.M.*
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, V. Arany János utca, 31, *Budapest V*, Mail Add.: *1367 Budapest 5, Pf. 121*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Nóatúni 21, 105 *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1, Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 110001*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Manggala Wanabakti, 9th floor, Jalan Gatot Subroto, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Crescent, Avenue Ostad Nejatollahi, Carrefour Ayatollah Taleghani, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 16, Merriion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76, Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 1-3, Shiba-Daimon 1-chome, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 105*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10001, *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, *Pyeongyang*.
- KOREA (Republic of) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3Ka, Nam San-Dong, *Seoul*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1359, *Kuwait*.
- LAOS (Lao People's Democratic Republic) — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue 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 JAMAHIRIYA — Libyan Arab Red Crescent, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 404, *Luxembourg*.
- MALAGASY REPUBLIC — Red Cross Society of the Malagasy Republic, rue Patrice-Lumumba, *Antananarivo*.
- MALAWI — Malawi Red Cross, Hall Road, *Blantyre* (P.O. Box 30080, Chichiri, *Blantyre 3*).
- MALAYSIA — Malaysian Red Crescent Society, National HQ, No. 32 Jalan Nipah, off Jalan Ampang, *Kuala Lumpur 16-03*.
- MALI — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, *Bamako*.
- MAURITANIA — Mauritanian Red Crescent Society, B.P. 344, Avenue Gamal Abdel Nasser, *Nouakchott*.

- MAURITIUS — Mauritius Red Cross, Ste Thérèse Street, *Curepipe*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Avenida Ejército Nacional N.º 1032, *México 10 DF*.
- 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, P.O.B. 30427, *2500 GK The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND — New Zealand Red Cross, Red Cross House, 14 Hill Street, *Wellington 1* (P.O. Box 12-140, *Wellington North*).
- NICARAGUA — Nicaragua Red Cross, D.N. Apartado 3279, *Managua*.
- NIGER — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA — Nigerian Red Cross Society, Eko Akete Close, off St. Gregory Rd., P.O. Box. 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Drammensveien 20 A, *Oslo 2*. Mail add.: *Postboks 2338, Solli, Oslo 2*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Crescent Society, National Headquarters, 169, Sarwar Road, *Rawalpindi*.
- PAPUA NEW GUINEA — Red Cross of Papua New Guinea, P.O. Box 6545, *Boroko*.
- PANAMA — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado Postal 668, *Zona 1, Panamá*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, Brasil 216, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Av. Camino del Inca y Nazarenas, Urb. Las Gardenias — Surco — Apartado 1534, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES — Philippine National Red Cross, Bonifacio Drive, Port Area, P.O. Box 280, *Manila 2803*.
- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon 3*.
- QATAR — Qatar Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 5449, *Doha*.
- ROMANIA — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Romania, Strada Biserica Amzei, 29, *Bucarest*.
- RWANDA — Rwanda Red Cross, B.P. 425, *Kigali*.
- 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 0923*.
- SOMALIA (Democratic Republic) — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- SOUTH AFRICA — South African Red Cross, 77, de Villiers Street, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg 2000*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato, 16, *Madrid 10*.
- SRI LANKA (Dem. Soc. Rep. of) — Sri Lanka Red Cross Society, 106, Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo 7*.
- SUDAN — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWAZILAND — Baphalali Swaziland Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 377, *Mbabane*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Box 27316, *102-54 Stockholm*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Rainmattstrasse 10, 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*.
- TONGA — Tonga Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 456, *Nuku'alofa*.
- 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, Plot 49, South Street, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED KINGDOM — British Red Cross, 9, Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1X 7EJ*.
- 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, I. Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow, 117036*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello, N.º 4, Apartado 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM (Socialist Republic of) — Red Cross of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Triêu, *Hanoi*.
- WESTERN SAMOA — The Western Samoa Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1616, *Apia*.
- YEMEN (Arab Republic) — Yemen Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1257, *Sana'a*.
- YEMEN (People's Democratic Republic) — The Yemen Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 455, *Aden*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Red Cross of Yugoslavia, Simina ulica broj 19, *11000 Belgrade*.
- ZAIRE — Red Cross of the Republic of Zaire, 41, av. de la Justice, B.P. 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box 50 001, 2837 Brentwood Drive, *Lusaka*.
- ZIMBABWE — The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1406, *Harare*.