

MAY

1963 — THIRD YEAR — No. 26

International Review of the Red Cross



CENTENARY YEAR **1963**
OF THE RED CROSS

GENEVA

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS
FOUNDED IN 1863

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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

THIRD YEAR — No. 26

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A GLANCE THROUGH THE REVIEWS

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FRENCH EDITION OF THE REVIEW

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

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SUPPLEMENTS TO THE REVIEW

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SPANISH

Décimonovena adjudicación de la Medalla Florence Nightingale (441.^a Circular). — La actividad de la Agencia Central de Informaciones. — Centenario de la Cruz Roja Internacional. — La actividad de la Cruz Roja Guatemalteca.

GERMAN

Neunzehnte Verleihung der Florence-Nightingale-Medaille (441. Rundschreiben). — Besuch des IKRK-Präsidenten beim Deutschen Roten Kreuz in der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik und beim Tschechoslowakischen Roten Kreuz. Tätigkeit des Zentralen Suchdienst. Hundertjahrfeier des Internationalen Roten Kreuzes. — Die Tätigkeit des Guatemaltekischen Roten Kreuzes.

THE INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

*is published each month by the
International Committee of the Red Cross*

7, Avenue de la Paix, Geneva, Switzerland
Postal Cheque No. I. 1767

Annual subscription : Sw. fr. 25.— (\$6)
Single copies Sw. fr. 2.50 (\$0.60)

Editor : JEAN-G. LOSSIER

THE DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

At the time when the Centenary of the Red Cross is about to be celebrated, it would be fitting to remember the rôle so many members and officers of the International Committee of the Red Cross have played in the drafting and the proclamation of the Rights of the Child. This declaration called the *Declaration of Geneva* was proclaimed forty years ago by the Council of the " Save the Children International Union " (SCIU). It was on May 17, 1923, that the final draft in five brief clauses was adopted. It is to be recalled that at that time the ICRC and the SCIU worked in close co-operation. Indeed, it was Dr. Frédéric Ferrière's report (then Vice-President of the ICRC) on the disastrous situation in which children lived in Vienna which incited Eglantyne Jebb to come to Geneva for the first time.

Mrs. R. M. Frick-Cramer, Honorary Member of the ICRC, described the person who was going to be the founder of the SCIU in the following way : " Those who have known her never forget the following impression : a woman between two age-groups, her hair half blond, half grey—She speaks calmly in a soft voice and what she says is inspired by the imagination prompted by the heart, by a deep feeling, yet controlled by clear reasoning. She is both visionary and realist ".¹

Eglantyne Jebb had already, previously, together with her sister, Mrs. C. R. Buxton, in England, launched a movement for relief to children who were victims of the war and its consequences, (famine, epidemics etc.), which they called " Save the Children Fund ". Dr. Ferrière's report made her realize that the basis of the movement had to be widened, because the situation was

¹ Speech made on the 25th Anniversary of the SCIU on Jan. 6, 1945, in Geneva. *Plate*.

such that every country's co-operation was needed as well as everybody's goodwill. Thus, the Save the Children International Union was founded on January 6, 1920, at the Athénée in Geneva, in the same hall where the Red Cross was created. The three founder members were: " Save the Children Fund ", the ICRC and the Swiss Committee of Child Welfare (dissolved in 1927). In quick succession German, French, Italian, Dutch and Swedish Committees joined the initial nucleus and, slowly, others followed, as well as several National Societies of the Red Cross. Among them, the Belgian is still a member today, while many others are part of national member organizations, which have a federative character. Horace Micheli, member of the ICRC, was one of the presidents at the founder meeting of the new organization, which was directly placed under the high patronage of the ICRC. Among the first members of the Executive Committee of the SCIU, were Dr. Ferrière, Professor d'Espine, Mrs. Chaponnière-Chaix. The tradition was then established that the president of the ICRC would be Honorary Member of the SCIU's Committee, as long as that Committee existed.

From the start, Eglantyne Jebb endowed the movement with unity and solidarity which, already on November 29, 1919, found expression in a simultaneous appeal made by Pope Benedict XV and the Archbishop of Canterbury, announcing that not only should December 28 of that year be an occasion for collections, but also a day of intercession and prayer on behalf of children in countries sorely tried. All Christian churches, as well as other religious communities, joined together in this appeal. The report of the first year of activities also mentioned the support given by the International Congress of the Socialist Party, of the miners and several women organizations.

During the first years of the SCIU, when its activity consisted nearly exclusively of relief actions, often on a very large scale, the delegates of the ICRC most of the time took charge of the distribution of relief material. The personal contacts were numerous and the co-operation very close between those two organizations. Besides the personalities mentioned above, Georges Werner, also a member of the ICRC, was the first president of the Executive Committee of the Union. The first Secretary-General was Etienne Clouzot, chief of Secretariat of the ICRC, assisted by Miss Suzanne Ferrière.

Moreover, large-scale relief actions had but strengthened Eglantyne Jebb's deep conviction. She was certain that only adequate childhood protection and education in a spirit of dedication could assure the world a better future. She was also aware of the fact that war and its accompanying upheavals were not the only cause of misery and injustice in the world. There were also the bad social conditions in general: ignorance, injustice, hate or, in short, indifference. The desire for a far-reaching crusade against these evils and, at the same time, the desire to give people of goodwill an aim and a rallying-point, inspired her to draft the Declaration of the Rights of the Child.

* * *

Eglantyne Jebb liked to go and meditate on the Salève, a mountain near Geneva. It was there that she worked out the Declaration, but it was Georges Werner and Etienne Clouzot who helped her to put it in its final form. The original, in French, is deposited at the Record Office in Geneva.¹ The Declaration was also translated and published in several languages. Gustave Ador, former President of the Swiss Confederation and President of the ICRC at the time, read it in his beautiful warm voice, at the radio station of the Eiffel Tower in Paris, which made an even bigger impression in those days because broadcasting was then still in its prime.² In this way, he contributed to its wide dissemination and finished his lecture with information about the Red Cross and the Promotion of Child Welfare.

On September 26, 1924, the Declaration was solemnly approved as the League of Nations' Charter on Child Welfare, by the Assembly presided over in that year by Giuseppe Motta, Switzerland's Delegate.

The Declaration of Geneva certainly filled an existing need and it became a sort of symbol to all the peoples who aspired to a better future for their children. Indeed, numerous Heads of State and other influential personalities understood this only too well, and with the years many appended their name to the Declaration translated into

¹ See G. Werner's article on the handing over of the "Declaration of Geneva" to the State Council of Geneva for preservation in the Record Office, in the *Revue internationale de la Croix-Rouge*, March 1924.

² *Plate*.

their country's language. But it was not only a question of asserting principles, because the Declaration often served as argument to those, who in their respective countries, wanted a new law or wanted to reform one or the other service or institution.

Immediately after the Second World War, steps were taken to induce the United Nations Organization to approve the Geneva Declaration as the League of Nations had done in 1924 and as was done again ten years later. Indeed, war had again put solicitude for children in the foreground. More than ever did one realize that it was essential to publicize the necessity of ensuring youth with a better future. Not only is a child's life something precious, but it must also be able to build a new world on which all hope rests.

Furthermore, many nations achieved their independence or retrieved it after centuries. It was easier to see the needs of countries in the process of developing, needs such as poverty, ignorance, sickness, infantile mortality, lack of prospects ; all these were often their children's fate. Yet, in more advanced countries, experience has proved that evils could be overcome if vigorously enough attacked. For this reason, all the available resources must be concentrated in a united effort of all nations.

It seemed therefore timely to assert solemnly that all children have the right to a minimum chance in life and that it is the community's duty to secure it for them. The Declaration of Geneva had shown that by proclaiming certain principles it could inspire a social policy. If it sets an aim, it also serves as an argument like a lever in the hands of those who fight for the amelioration of the child's conditions in life and the perspectives of its future. As long as in the whole world these conditions are not satisfactory such a declaration has its "raison d'être" and its justification.

Besides, it would be wrong to think that only underdeveloped countries are in need of it. No State, not even those said to be very advanced, can pride itself on giving youth all that it requires. On the contrary, it seems that precisely in the countries where the economic standard is high, where the state of health of the population is satisfactory, where infantile mortality is low, where preventive vaccinations stop epidemics from spreading, where compulsory schooling is enforced, where social legislation is very developed, in these very countries the behaviour of youth causes the greatest anxiety. And one asks oneself what is the reason. The material conditions, however important, are by themselves evidently not

sufficient to guarantee the child a happy development. For this reason the Declaration of the Rights of the Child must consider all the aspects of life—affective, psychic as well as physical.

The first idea, launched in 1946, was to induce the United Nations to adopt the Declaration of Geneva, in the same way as the League of Nations had done, even if only to make some modifications or to add some complementary clauses. The *Division of Social Welfare* then took steps to consult Governments, the Specialized Institutions and the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO), which enjoy the privilege of an *advisory status*. In view of the response, the Social and Humanitarian Cultural Committee decided to take the Declaration of Geneva into consideration, as well as other proposals. Consequently a draft was worked out in 1950. It seemed, however, advisable to consult the Commission on Human Rights before putting it before the Assembly, since there were points in common between the adopted draft and the text of the Declaration of Human Rights. The Commission on Human Rights could, however, only attend to it in 1957. The main question to be decided was whether the Declaration of the Rights of the Child was useful, even necessary, beside the Declaration of Human Rights. The general consensus of opinion was in the affirmative ; most of the delegates considered the Declaration of Human Rights to be so general that the child, in view of its legal status of minority, was in need of a more special protection. Certain delegates would have liked to go one step further and, instead of a simple declaration, prepare a convention by binding the signatories. However, it was considered premature.

There were also long debates on the advisability of mentioning certain categories of children and there were several proposals made by governmental delegates, as well as non-governmental organizations, concerning the text itself. At the Commission, as well as at the Third Commission of the Assembly, discussions arose between the delegates. Some wanted a very precise document containing clauses of application, and others preferred general principles drafted in a simple and concise way, which would be a source of inspiration to the various States for legislative and practical application. The second group, desirous to give the text a lasting value, both in time and space, considered it dangerous to include detailed dispositions. There might be a risk that such detailed dispositions were inapplicable in certain parts of the world and,

consequently, would discredit the entire Declaration, or would render it only too soon out of date.

The drawing up of the Declaration of the United Nations was thus somewhat laborious and took several years. On November 29, 1959, the Third Commission of the Assembly convened a plenary session and, finally adopted the text unanimously, without any further discussions, by seven votes against zero and two abstentions.¹

* * *

A delicate problem then arose at the International Union for Child Welfare (IUCW), as the old SCIU is now called, since its fusion in 1946 with the International Association for the Promotion of Child Welfare, which had its headquarters in Brussels. Should one uphold the old Declaration of Geneva, amended in 1948, in response to certain criticisms recognized as justified, or should one concur in opinion on the text adopted by the United Nations? Certain national organizations were reluctant to abandon the Declaration of Geneva. They had grown attached to it, having found it clearer and more imperative. Also some had already disseminated it in their own country or incorporated it in their statutes.

But slowly, it was realized that in the interest of the children's welfare, everything had to be avoided which might give the impression of rivalry or create confusion. It was indeed better to combine efforts; consequently, the General Council of the IUCW, convened in Lisbon in 1960, unanimously adopted the Declaration of the United Nations as the Charter of the IUCW. This made it possible to propose it the following year as the theme for *Universal Children's Day*, which was, since the resolution of the General Assembly in 1954, jointly organized by the IUCW and the United Nations Children's Fund (FISE/UNICEF). In fact, during the first years of Universal Children's Day, when the IUCW was solely responsible for it, it often proposed as theme one or other of the principles of the Declaration. Thus the latter still keeps its full value where the declaration of principles is concerned and, in a way, it serves constantly as an impetus to the progress of child welfare. It has

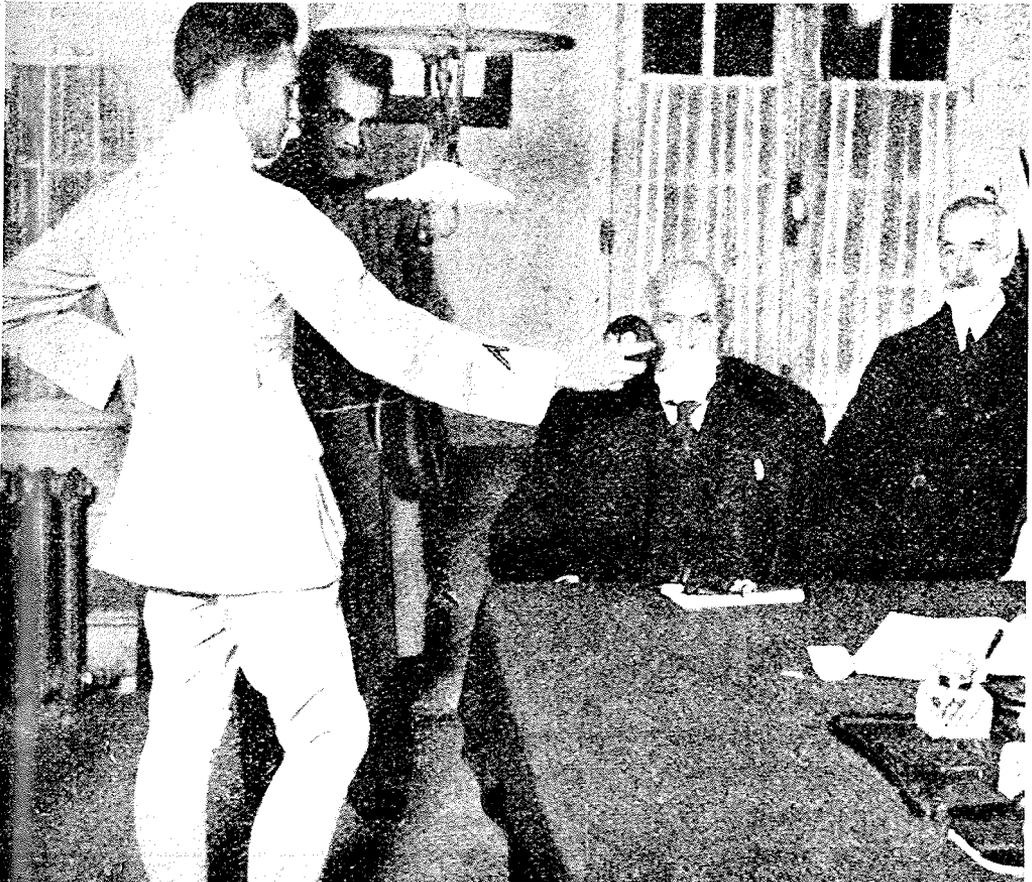
¹ The *International Review* published the text of this Declaration in its October number, 1962. (*Edit.*)

Eglantyne Jebb

(1876-1928). Founder of the International Union of Child Welfare and author of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, known as the **Declaration of Geneva**



At the Eiffel Tower Broadcasting Station, Paris, November 21, 1923: Gustave Ador, President of the ICRC reading the Declaration of Geneva. (On his left, C.F. de Geer, President of the Executive Committee of the IUCW)



Dear Madam with Amie

The Council of the San Children and
has had before them the Declaration of Geneva. It
considers it a most inspiring manifesto, well
calculated to serve the purpose for which it is
designed, & we can assure you that we will do
our utmost to secure the recognition of the
principles it lays down in Great Britain &
the British Dominions.

Yours very sincerely
E. J. Jebb

now been translated into about 70 languages. It is also interesting to see that, as in the case of the Declaration of Human Rights, a moment may come when, under the patronage of the United Nations, it might be possible to work out a veritable international convention of child welfare, which would knit closer ties between the States than the declaration of principles.

However, as long as numerous States have not accepted the essence of the principles of the Declaration, and have not even ratified it, to think of preparing a convention would be premature. By this, we do not only mean a symbolic adherence to the Declaration, but the realization of its principles in acts by legislation and by the appropriate institutions. We are still far from this, even in the so-called "advanced" countries which, while wanting all the best for the child, often have quite different ideas as to the way in which to achieve it.

* * *

In conclusion, we would return to our starting-point to say that, not only are we pleased with the close ties which have been formed, right from the beginning, between the ICRC and the IUCW, but also with the excellent relationship which has been established and maintained in many countries during these years ; also between the Red Cross Societies and the National Organizations for the Promotion of Child Welfare, which, we hope, will always work more closely together towards the recognition of the principles of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child and their practical realization in their own countries, as well as by mutual aid in other less favoured countries.

ANDRÉE MORIER

Honorary President of the International Union
for Child Welfare.

THE FIRST MODERN CODIFICATION OF THE LAW OF WAR *

FRANCIS LIEBER AND GENERAL ORDERS No. 100

II

SOURCES OF THE CODE

It is unprofitable to indulge in much speculation concerning Lieber's sources for the Code. Since he had been a student of the law of war for at least a quarter of a century before the *Instructions* were promulgated, his primary source was Lieber reinforced with the notes and files that he had painstakingly built up during his teaching career. Under such circumstances, one can only mention his likes and dislikes. Chief among the latter were both Lawrence's Wheaton and "old" Vattel, whom he characterized as "Father Namby-Pamby".⁶⁵ Halleck's *International Law* was naturally looked upon with great favor, the more so because Halleck had drawn on Lieber's *Political Ethics*.⁶⁶ Lieber probably relied heavily on Heffter's *Das Europäische Völkerrecht der Gegenwart*.⁶⁷ He also consulted Grotius, Bynkershoek, and Pufendorff among the classical writers. In his library or mentioned in his works are books by a host of names, many of them long since forgotten: Zachariae, Trendlenburg, von Martens, Phillimore, Mackintosh, Whewell, Foelix, von Mohl, Bluntschli (a close friend of Lieber), Bernard, Kennedy, Klüber, Pinheiro-Ferreira, Kent, and Theodore Dwight Woolsey.⁶⁸

* See *International Review*, April 1963.

⁶⁵ Freidel, *Francis Lieber*, p. 333, n. 38.

⁶⁶ Lieber, Manuscript notebook.

⁶⁷ 3d Ed., Berlin, 1855.

⁶⁸ Freidel, *Francis Lieber*, p. 333, n. 38.

ANALYSIS OF THE CODE

Section I. Martial Law—Military Jurisdiction— Military Necessity—Retaliation

The *Instructions*, which were to be read primarily by commanders in the field, fulfilled a dual purpose : They were at once a short text on the law of war and a set of rules.⁶⁹ This double function accounts for the fact that the Code vacillates between diffuseness and economy of language, is sometimes directory and at others hortatory. These characteristics are particularly obvious in the first section of the code, where many of the articles are cast in general terms, as if establishing the premises for a logical system.

In the first article of the Code, "Martial Law" is defined as the "immediate and direct effect and consequence of occupation or conquest", proclaimed by the mere presence of the hostile army. That a discussion of the law of war should begin with a consideration of the law applicable to a belligerent occupation seems peculiar, except if it be considered that Lieber was probably deliberately using the pedagogical device of introducing his subject with a topic familiar to his readers. Martial law had not been mentioned in the *Political Ethics*, and it was not until the war with Mexico and General Winfield Scott's General Orders No. 20 that the concept gained any currency. The number of instances during the Civil War in which martial law was declared would naturally have made this the most familiar aspect of the law of war.

One may judge something of the manner in which Dr. Lieber drew up the code by comparing his statement in his Columbia lectures :

Martial Law in the enemy's country consists in the assumption of authority over persons and things, by the commander-in-chief, and the consequent suspension of all laws, and the substitution of military force for them, so far as the necessity of the war requires it, and for the time being, according to the usages of war, which includes what is called the necessity of war or *raison de guerre*.

⁶⁹ "The great difficulty in drawing up this Code lay in the fact that, nothing of the kind existing, and even no textbook existing, I was at times obliged to keep the mean between a code and a textbook." (Lieber, Manuscript notebook).

with the same statement in paraphrased form as it appears in article 3 of the *Instructions* :

Martial law in a hostile country consists in the suspension, by the occupying military authority, of the criminal and civil law, and of the domestic administration and government in the occupied place or territory, and in the substitution of military rule and force for the same, as well as in the dictation of general laws, as far as military necessity requires this suspension, substitution, or dictation.

The provisions of article 6 regarding law and government under " Martial Law " are relatively weak. Civil and penal laws remain in effect unless suspended by the occupant, but all the functions of the hostile government, both national and local, cease entirely or continue only with the sanction of the occupant. In this respect, the Code seems to codify existing practice, but it must be remembered that this practice was one which arose in the course of a civil war rather than a war between nations.

Articles 8 and 9, probably with General Butler in mind, define the degree of protection to which consuls and diplomatic personnel are entitled.

Lieber had erred in the February manuscript draft of the Code in stating without qualification that " Martial Law is carried out, in cases of individual offences, by courts-martial ".⁷⁰ The military members of the board or Halleck were probably responsible for the inclusion of statements that military jurisdiction is conferred by both domestic law and the law of war, that offenses of the latter nature are punished by courts, the jurisdiction of which depends on local law, and that in the United States, those cases not punishable under the Articles of War are tried by military commissions.⁷¹ In this respect, the Code again reflects the existing American practice. Military commissions had received their first widespread use in the Mexican war, although at least one had been convened during the American Revolution.⁷² During the Civil War period, some 2000 persons were to be tried by this type of tribunal.⁷³

Military necessity permits the following acts : the destruction or capture of armed enemies, the destruction of property, obstruction of communications, the withholding of sustenance from the enemy and the appropriation of sustenance from the enemy's

⁷⁰ Manuscript draft, February 1863, art. 12.

⁷¹ Art. 13.

⁷² Senate Report No. 229, 63d Congress, 2d Session, p. 53 (1912).

⁷³ Barber, " Trial of Unlawful Enemy Belligerents," 29 *Cornell Law Quarterly* 53, 67 (1943).

country, and deception which does not involve the breaking of good faith.⁷⁴

The outright prohibition on the use of poison in General Orders 100⁷⁵ is to be contrasted with Lieber's previous questioning of the logical basis for the customary law of war's prohibition on the use of this device. He had even, in the *Political Ethics*⁷⁶ and in his lectures at Columbia, stated that poisoning of wells may be justified when a nation is fighting in self-defense.

Lieber was a realist in his attitude toward the weapons of warfare. He had told his students at Columbia that "the present usage may be simply stated to consist in using those arms that do the quickest mischief in the widest range and in the surest manner." Every new development in ordinance and tactics, such as the use of heated shot, chain shot, and of sharpshooters, had at one time or another been characterized as a violation of international law. In 1839, he had written :

"On the other hand I am not only allowed—which is altogether an unimportant question in law—but it is my duty to injure my enemy, as enemy, the most seriously I can, in order to obtain my end, whether this be protection, or whatever else."⁷⁷

Although he never ceased to be an advocate of the short, hard war, he probably later repented of his concept of a "duty" to injure the enemy.

Having defined the permissible means of injuring the enemy, Lieber turns in articles 20 through 26 to the protection of the noncombatant in time of war. "Public war" is defined as "a state of armed hostility between sovereign nations or governments."⁷⁸ As a result, the citizen of a hostile country is also an enemy, not as an individual but as a member of a hostile political community.⁷⁹ As civilization has advanced, the distinction between the hostile state and the unarmed citizen of that state has become clearer and more firmly established in law.

"The principle has been more and more acknowledged that the unarmed citizen is to be spared in person, property, and honor as much as the exigencies of war will admit."⁸⁰

⁷⁴ Art. 15.

⁷⁵ Arts. 16, 70.

⁷⁶ 2 Lieber, *Political Ethics*, p. 661.

⁷⁷ *Id.*, p. 660.

⁷⁸ Art. 20.

⁷⁹ Art. 21.

⁸⁰ Art. 22.

The coloring of the Civil War is perhaps discernible in the provision of article 26 that civil officers and magistrates may be forced to take an oath of allegiance to the "victorious government or rulers."

General Orders 100 recognizes retaliation as a necessary evil, well entrenched in the law of war.⁸¹ In the lectures at Columbia, Lieber had itemized the dangers of retaliation: it goes too far in cases of cruelty, the remedy may be disproportionate to the offense, retaliation is sometimes impossible, and it may border on, or pass over into, revenge. In the Code, it is stressed that retaliation is not to be resorted to as a "measure of mere revenge" but only as a last resort against the "repetition of barbarous outrage".⁸² Unjust retaliation creates the danger of further retaliation from the enemy and in turn leads both belligerents "nearer to the internecine wars of savages."⁸³

The first section of the Code concludes with the postulates which had been used to introduce his "Twenty-Seven Definitions and Elementary Positions Concerning the Law and Usages of War"—the community of nations, the restoration of peace as the object of war, and the desirability of sharp, vigorous wars.⁸⁴

The first section of the Code appears on the whole to be ill organized and less convincing than it might have been had Lieber followed the plan of organization he had used in his previous lectures and writings. The sources of this section of the Code are, however, unmistakable—a quarter century of Lieber's thought modified to some degree in the light of the practice of the United States, particularly as concerned military occupation and relationships with the Confederate forces during the Civil War.

**Section II. Public and private property of the enemy—
Protection of persons, and especially of women; of religion,
the arts and sciences—Punishment of crimes against the inhabitants
of hostile countries**

The second section of the Code continued the discussion of the rights of the belligerent occupant which had been begun in the first section of General Orders 100.

⁸¹ Art. 27.

⁸² Arts. 27 and 28. In the contemporary terminology concerning the utilization of "conventional" and nuclear weapons, this process would be referred to as "escalation".

⁸³ Art. 28.

⁸⁴ Art. 29.

A victorious army may appropriate all public money and public movable property, sequester the revenues of publicly owned real property, and change legal relationships between inhabitants of the occupied territory.⁸⁵ As a general rule, the property of religious, charitable, and educational institutions is not to be treated as public property subject to seizure, but it may be taxed or used if the " public service may require it ".⁸⁶ Hospitals, libraries, works of art, and scientific collections and instruments are to be protected even if lodged in a fortified place.⁸⁷ The rule adopted with regard to publicly owned property of this nature is, however, a harsh one :

" If such works of art, libraries, collections, or instruments belonging to a hostile nation or government, can be removed without injury, the ruler of the conquering state or nation may order them to be seized and removed for the benefit of the said nation. The ultimate ownership is to be settled by the ensuing treaty of peace. " ⁸⁸

The rationalization for this rule is to be found in the *Political Ethics* :

" Yet I candidly confess that I cannot see the jural ground on which the right of carrying off books and works of art, provided they belong to the nation, is denied. It is universally admitted, that levying a contribution for the sake of chastisement for a wrongful war, beyond the expenses of the war, is lawful, as it undoubtedly is. Why then should it be wrong to carry away works of art for the sake of chastisement ? " ⁸⁹ The only reason he could discover at that time for not carrying off works of art is that such conduct may gall the conquered nation beyond the time of the war, thus prejudicing the achievement of peace thereafter.

Private property may be seized only " by way of necessity " for the support of the army, in which case, if the owner has not fled, receipts are to be given so that he may obtain indemnity.⁹⁰ In this respect, Lieber takes a conservative view in conformity with modern practice. In occupied areas, religion and morality, the persons of inhabitants, and the " sacredness of domestic relations " are to be respected.⁹¹

⁸⁵ Arts. 31 and 32.

⁸⁶ Art. 34.

⁸⁷ Art. 35.

⁸⁸ Art. 36.

⁸⁹ 2 Lieber, *Political Ethics*, p. 663.

⁹⁰ Art. 38.

⁹¹ Art. 37.

With article 40 comes another of his peculiar transitions to a new subject. In that article, Lieber points out that only international law governs the relationship of armies in wartime and in article 41 that municipal law is of no effect between belligerents. Having laid this ground, he concludes that the bond of slavery, which is created by domestic law, is, and historically always has been, dissolved when the slave escapes from the country in which he has been enslaved. It follows then that : “. . . in a war between the United States and a belligerent which admits of slavery, if a person held in bondage by that belligerent be captured by or come as a fugitive under the protection of the military forces of the United States, such person is immediately entitled to the rights and privileges of a free man.”⁹²

To return such a person to slavery is to enslave a free person. The reasoning of this portion of the Code follows that of Lieber’s letter to the Attorney General which was published in the *New York Evening Post* in June of 1862.⁹³

In the remaining articles of this section, a series of rules are laid down for the conduct of American soldiers. They prohibit wanton violence, unauthorized destruction of property, rape, and killing of inhabitants in terms strongly reminiscent of General Scott’s General Orders No. 20 of 1847.⁹⁴

“ I have not the right to injure my enemy privately, that is, without reference to the general object of the war, or the general object of the battle. We do not injure in war, in order to injure, but to obtain the object of war. All cruelty, that is, unnecessary infliction of suffering, therefore, remains cruelty as among private individuals.”⁹⁵

Officers and soldiers are forbidden to take advantage of their position for private gain.⁹⁶

Section III. Deserters—Prisoners of War—Hostages— Booty on the Battlefield

Prisoners of war embrace the following categories of personnel, according to General Orders No. 100 :

⁹² Art. 43.

⁹³ See note 25 *supra*.

⁹⁴ Arts. 44 and 47. It is interesting to contrast the rule with the raids conducted by Sheridan, Morgan, and Carter.

⁹⁵ 2 Lieber, *Political Ethics*, p. 659.

⁹⁶ Art. 46.

1. soldiers,
2. members of a rising *en masse*,
3. persons attached to the army to promote its efficiency,
4. disabled men and officers,
5. enemies who have thrown away their arms and asked for quarter,
6. citizens accompanying the army for any purpose, and
7. the monarch and principal officers of the hostile state.⁹⁷

Chaplains and medical personnel are not prisoners of war, unless the commanding officer of the forces " capturing " them has reason to retain them. Although prisoners of war are not subject to acts of revenge, to intentional infliction of suffering, cruel imprisonment, starvation, death, or other barbarity, it is somewhat peculiarly provided that they are " liable to the infliction of retaliatory measures ".⁹⁸

Lieber devotes only passing attention to hostages on the ground that they " are rare in the present age " ⁹⁹—a statement which the victims of the Ardeatine Caves might have found ironic.

Lieber was mindful of the harsh measures taken by the Confederate army against former slaves who were captured while serving in the Union forces when he expressly forbade discrimination against any category of soldiers : " No belligerent has a right to declare that enemies of a certain class, color, or condition, when properly organized as soldiers, will not be treated by him as public enemies." ¹⁰⁰

Death is the retaliation for enslavement of any captured person of the United States Army, since " The law of nations knows of no distinction of color." Lieber later wrote : " I was perfectly right in making death the equivalent for enslavement. All Codes of civilized nations declare personal liberty the highest of earthly goods. We would quick enough condemn a man to death who should steal a white man or child and sell it into slavery." ¹⁰¹

Early in 1862, when he had been giving his lectures at Columbia, Lieber had been doubtful about the practice of denying quarter. He observed that some regiments had formerly declared that they would give no quarter and would therefore expect none but added,

⁹⁷ Arts. 49 and 50.

⁹⁸ Arts. 53, 56, and 59. The reference is probably to reprisals.

⁹⁹ Art. 54.

¹⁰⁰ Art. 57.

¹⁰¹ Lieber, Manuscript notebook.

“ I am not aware whether it has been declared by any one inadmissible.” In article 60, he came out squarely against denial of quarter by stating that it was “ against the usage of modern war”. He would not, however, require that quarter be given if it is impossible to encumber the capturing forces with prisoners—a principle which met a fortunate death not long thereafter, although sometimes invoked by the more barbarous of modern belligerents. The protection of the law of war—and with it the prohibition against “ no quarter ”—does not extend to those who use the uniform of their enemies or the enemy’s flag to deceive.¹⁰² “ Unnecessary or revengeful destruction of life ” is forbidden,¹⁰³ for, as Lieber had told his students, “ The right of killing ceases with the necessity of killing.”

It is provided that : “ Outposts, sentinels, or pickets are not to be fired upon, except to drive them in, or when a positive order, special or general, has been issued to that effect.” ¹⁰⁴

It is difficult to follow Lieber’s reasoning for this provision : “ . . . firing upon single men, for no other purpose than killing them, is simple murder. There may be an object in not allowing the enemy to post a sentinel at a certain spot, but I have known warnings being given in such cases, that no more sentinels would be suffered at such or such a place.” ¹⁰⁵

In the succeeding articles, Lieber prescribes the rules for the care of prisoners of war. Money and valuables found on the prisoner, with the exception of large sums of money, may not be appropriated, but large sums are presumptively public property.¹⁰⁶ Prisoners are entitled to “ plain and wholesome food ” and to medical treatment and may not be required to give information about their own army.¹⁰⁷ But a prisoner may be shot if he escapes, although he may not be punished for a mere attempt, except if a conspiracy to escape or to revolt is discovered.¹⁰⁸ If a prisoner of war once escapes and rejoins his own army, he may not thereafter be punished for his previous successful escape.¹⁰⁹ In these respects,

¹⁰² Arts. 63, 64, 65.

¹⁰³ Art. 68.

¹⁰⁴ Art. 69.

¹⁰⁵ Lieber, Lectures at Columbia, 1861-62.

¹⁰⁶ Art. 72.

¹⁰⁷ Arts. 75, 79, 80.

¹⁰⁸ Art. 77.

¹⁰⁹ Art. 78.

the provisions of the Code are not dissimilar to the provisions of the Geneva Prisoners of War Convention of 1949.¹¹⁰

Section IV. Partisans—Armed Enemies not belonging to the Hostile Army—Scouts—Armed Prowlers—War Rebels

Section IV of the Code is based directly on Lieber's earlier pamphlet on *Guerrilla Parties*.

Partisans are defined as soldiers: “. . . armed and wearing the uniform of their army, but belonging to a corps which acts detached from the main body for the purpose of making inroads into the territory occupied by the enemy.”¹¹¹ Both the *Guerrilla Parties* and General Orders 100 agree that if partisans are captured, they are to be treated as prisoners of war.

By contrast with partisans, guerrillas who do not belong to the organized hostile army but who engage intermittently in killing, destroying, or plundering are not entitled to the protection of the laws of war.¹¹² Freecorps, which had been mentioned in the earlier pamphlet, are not considered in the Code. Armed prowlers, including the brigands, freebooters, marauders, and robbers mentioned in *Guerrilla Parties*, and persons stealing into the lines of the hostile army to kill, destroy, or interrupt communications are not entitled to the protection of the laws of war.¹¹⁴

The term “war-rebel” which appears in the Code was of Lieber's invention and was first used in the *Guerrilla Parties*.¹¹⁵ He employed the term to refer to persons “within an occupied territory who rise in arms against the occupying or conquering army, or against the authorities established by the same”. These attempts to throw off the yoke of the occupant may be punished by death.¹¹⁶

Section V. Safe-conduct—Spies—War-traitors—Captured Messengers—Abuse of the Flag of Truce

Lieber was probably referring to domestic law rather than to any rule of international law when he stated that all intercourse

¹¹⁰ Arts. 91-93 of the Convention, 75 U.N.T.S. 206-7.

¹¹¹ Art. 81.

¹¹² Art. 82.

¹¹³ Lieber, *Guerrilla Parties*, p. 11.

¹¹⁴ Art. 84. Lieber claimed that he originated the term “armed prowler”. (Manuscript notebook).

¹¹⁵ Lieber, Manuscript notebook; *Guerrilla Parties*, p. 13.

¹¹⁶ Art. 85, and see Baxter, “The Duty of Obedience to the Belligerent Occupant,” 27 *British Year Book of International Law* 235, 253 (1950).

between occupied territories ceases.¹¹⁷ Exceptions to this rule are provided for by safe-conducts, which may be granted to, *inter alios*, diplomatic personnel, and permits to trade.¹¹⁸

A spy is defined as " a person who secretly, in disguise or under false pretense, seeks information with the intention of communicating it to the enemy." ¹¹⁹ In his lectures Lieber had properly observed that spying is not prohibited by the law of war. In accordance with the law in existence at the time, he had stated at Columbia that " Spies . . . may be soldiers in their very uniforms. If a soldier creeps in the dead of night into the hostile lines and is caught, he is hanged."

The most interesting portion of this section is that which deals with " war treason ", which he defines in the following manner :

" A traitor under the law of war, or a war-traitor, is a person in a place or district under martial law who, unauthorized by the military commander, gives information of any kind to the enemy, or holds intercourse with him." ¹²⁰

Although the author of the Code claimed credit for originating the term and first using it in *Guerrilla Parties*,¹²¹ there is no evidence of the use of the term before General Orders No. 100 was promulgated. Indeed, both in the Columbia lectures and in his pamphlet, Lieber had stated that : " A person dwelling in a district under military occupation, and giving information to the government of which he was subject, but who has been expelled by the victorious invader, is universally treated as a spy—a spy of a particularly dangerous character." ¹²²

In article 54 of his draft code of February 1863, he had advanced to the stage of characterizing such conduct alternatively as " treason " : " If a person belonging to the territory of the enemy, occupied by a hostile army, gives information to the enemy, unauthorized to do so by the occupying or conquering authority, such person is either a spy or traitor, and in either case is punished with death."

There is some evidence that Lieber may have borrowed the concept of " war treason " from the *Kriegsverrat* proscribed by the

¹¹⁷ Art. 86.

¹¹⁸ Arts. 86 and 87.

¹¹⁹ Art. 88.

¹²⁰ Art. 90.

¹²¹ Lieber, Manuscript notebook.

¹²² Lieber, *Guerrilla Parties*, p. 12.

Prussian Military Code of 1845, with which there is a strong likelihood that Lieber was familiar.¹²³ "Military treason" is referred to in General Halleck's instructions to the Commanding Officer in Tennessee of 5 March 1863.¹²⁴ Since General Halleck commented on Lieber's printed manuscript draft, the possibility exists that it was a suggestion from Halleck which led Lieber to adopt the term "war-treason" by analogy to the like expression "war-rebellion".

The articles on war-treason in the Code are poorly drawn and repetitive. Additional rules in this portion of the Code¹²⁵ deal with the impressment of guides and provide that an inhabitant of an occupied area who serves as a guide for the enemy is to be shot. In his manuscript draft, Lieber had provided that all messengers and despatchbearers found in the lines of a belligerent might be treated as spies.¹²⁶ These provisions were wisely amended to provide that the uniformed and armed messenger should not be subjected to that penalty but was to be treated as a prisoner of war. If not in uniform, he is treated according to the "circumstances connected with his capture".¹²⁷

It is further provided that no distinction on account of sex is made in the case of spies and war-traitors, that they may not be exchanged, and that if they rejoin their own army, they may not thereafter be punished for their previous acts.¹²⁸

Section VI. Exchange of Prisoners—Flags of Truce— Flags of Protection

The provisions relating to exchange of prisoners are largely technical in nature and of no great interest to the present-day reader. Exchanges, it is stated, normally take place number for number, rank for rank, wounded for wounded, although a certain number of persons of lower rank may be substituted for one of higher rank.¹²⁹

Flags of truce may, but are not required, to be admitted. If a flag of truce is abused for the purpose of gaining military knowledge, the bearer of the flag may be treated as a spy.¹³⁰

¹²³ Oppenheim, "On War Treason", 33 *Law Quarterly Review* 281 (1917); see Baxter, *op. cit. supra*, note 116 at 244-253, particularly at 245-246.

¹²⁴ Reprinted in 2 Halleck, *International Law* 55-57 (2d Eng. ed., Baker, 1893).

¹²⁵ Arts 93-97.

¹²⁶ Art. 58, Manuscript draft, February 1963.

¹²⁷ Art. 99.

¹²⁸ Arts. 102-104.

¹²⁹ Arts. 105, 106.

¹³⁰ Arts. 111, 114.

Hospitals may be designated by an identifying flag (usually yellow)¹³¹ and a besieged commander may be permitted to designate buildings devoted to education, art, and science, so that their destruction may be avoided.¹³² If the use of such flags is abused, there may be good cause for refusing to honor them.¹³³

Section VII. The Parole

General Orders No. 100 defines parole in the following manner :
“ . . . the pledge of individual good faith and honor to do, or to omit doing, certain acts after he who gives his parole shall have been dismissed, wholly or partially, from the power of the captor.”¹³⁴
As Lieber’s manuscript draft was originally drawn, only commissioned officers could give their parole.¹³⁵ Lieber was strongly opposed to the abuses which had arisen in connection with the giving of paroles both by officers and enlisted men. He wrote to Halleck in February of 1863 : “ I do not believe that it will be possible to change for the present war, or at least immediately, the usage which has grown up regarding paroling privates, but you will agree with me that the law, as I have laid it down, is the law and usage. As paroling is now handled by us, it amounts to a premium on cowardice, e.g., in the affair of Harper’s Ferry.”¹³⁶
In the form in which it was finally published, General Orders No. 100 permits noncommissioned officers and privates to give their parole through a commissioned officer.¹³⁷

Paroles normally provided that the person giving them would not fight during the existing war, but such an undertaking would not extend to internal service, such as recruiting or quelling civil commotions.¹³⁸ A belligerent may declare that it will not allow paroling, or it may refuse to approve the parole of one of its officers or soldiers.¹³⁹ The penalty for a violation of parole is death.¹⁴⁰

¹³¹ Art. 115 ; see “ L’Origine du sigme de la croix rouge,” See *Revue internationale de la Croix-Rouge*, p. 456 (1954).

¹³² Art. 118.

¹³³ Art. 117.

¹³⁴ Art. 120.

¹³⁵ Art. 75, Manuscript draft, February 1863.

¹³⁶ Lieber to Halleck, 20 February 1863.

¹³⁷ Art. 127.

¹³⁸ Art. 130.

¹³⁹ Arts. 131 and 132.

¹⁴⁰ Art. 124.

Section VIII. Armistice—Capitulation

Armistices are classified by Lieber as conditional and unconditional, general or special (relating only to certain troops and localities), for a definite time or for an indefinite time.¹⁴¹ When an armistice has been concluded between a fortified place and a besieging force, the besieger is not permitted to extend or improve his "attacking works", for to do so would be tantamount to attacking. As for the right of the beleaguered forces to add to or repair fortifications, the existing authorities were in conflict, and Lieber therefore stated in the Code that this point should be specifically dealt with in the armistice agreement.¹⁴² He was, however, personally inclined to feel that the besieged forces had the right to repair and build their fortifications.¹⁴³ But as soon as a capitulation is signed, the capitulator is forbidden to destroy his arms and ammunition, his works and his stores.¹⁴⁴

An armistice is effective from the date of its agreed commencement and is concluded when notice is given, when the instrument is not ratified by superior authority, or if it is clearly broken by one of the parties.¹⁴⁵ Only the officer directing the violation of an armistice, and not his subordinates, is held responsible for its breach.¹⁴⁶ If the element of trust is once destroyed, Lieber had warned his students, then it becomes impossible to conclude the peace which must be the ultimate aim of every war.¹⁴⁷

Section IX. Assassination

This section consists of only one article,¹⁴⁸ which forbids declaring an enemy soldier or civilian an outlaw and the assassination of enemy soldiers or civilians.

Section X. Insurrection—Civil War—Rebellion

As previously noted, this section was not included in Lieber's

¹⁴¹ Arts. 135-137.

¹⁴² Art. 143.

¹⁴³ Lieber, Lectures at Columbia, 1861-62.

¹⁴⁴ Art. 144.

¹⁴⁵ Arts. 137, 140, and 145.

¹⁴⁶ Art. 146.

¹⁴⁷ Lieber, Lectures at Columbia, 1861-62.

¹⁴⁸ Art. 148.

original draft. In later drafts it was inserted in a form considerably more bulky than that in which it finally emerged in the Code.

This section opens with definitions of "insurrection", "civil war", and "rebellion". The first of these is defined as a rising of people in arms against their government, its laws, or its officers.¹⁴⁹ Civil war is conducted between two or more portions of a state each of which is contending for the mastery of the whole and professes to be the legitimate government.¹⁵⁰ "Rebellion" is applied to an insurrection of large extent.¹⁵¹ That the benefits of the laws of war are extended to rebels does not constitute an acknowledgment of their government.¹⁵² As Lieber had pointed out in his letter to the Attorney General on the exchange of prisoners, the concluding of cartels or other agreements, treating rebel soldiers as prisoners of war, accepting flags of truce, and proclaiming martial law in rebel territory do not constitute an acknowledgment of the "rebellious people".¹⁵³

Articles 155 and 156, dealing with the treatment of rebel combatants and noncombatants, may well have been derived from General Halleck's instructions of 5 March 1863 to the Commanding Officer in Tennessee, in which he had directed that protection be extended to the loyal citizens, that disloyal citizens who sympathized with the rebellion without actively aiding it were not to be molested so long as they took no overt action against the Union forces, but that those who avowedly supported the rebel forces without themselves taking up arms might be confined or expelled.¹⁵⁴ The Code makes a like classification and requires that the commander in the field throw the burden of the war on the disloyal citizens, subjecting them to "stricter police", requiring an oath of allegiance, and expelling, imprisoning, or fining those who refuse to take the oath.¹⁵⁵

THE INFLUENCE OF THE CODE

Within thirty years after the publication of Lieber's Code, Prussia, the Netherlands, France, Russia, Spain, Great Britain,

¹⁴⁹ Art. 149.

¹⁵⁰ Art. 150.

¹⁵¹ Art. 151.

¹⁵² Art. 152.

¹⁵³ Art. 153.

¹⁵⁴ Reprinted in 2 Halleck, *op. cit. supra*, note 124.

¹⁵⁵ Arts. 155 and 156.

and a number of other states had drawn up their own codes of the rules of warfare.¹⁵⁶ The *Instructions* remained a guide for the conduct of the United States Army throughout the remainder of the nineteenth century,¹⁵⁷ and the 1917 *Rules of Land Warfare* preserved much of Lieber's language.¹⁵⁸

An immediate consequence of the Code was to inspire Lieber's good friend, Bluntschli, under the urging of his American associate, to undertake his codification of international law, the first part of which, dealing with the law of war, made its appearance in 1866.¹⁵⁹ This portion of Bluntschli's code was little more than a paraphrase of General Orders No. 100. Dr. Bluntschli was counsellor of the German delegation at the Brussels Conference of 1874, the work of which constituted the basis of the conventions prepared at the Hague Peace Conferences of 1899 and 1907. It is thus possible to trace a direct line of personal influence from Dr. Lieber's Code to the Hague Regulations, which served only to add to the great weight which the Code had acquired with the passage of time.¹⁶⁰

The most serious charge which has been levelled at General Orders No. 100 is that it was overly influenced by the existence of a civil war.¹⁶¹ It is clear, however, from a reading of the Code itself and from its history that Lieber intended it to be applicable to a war between nations and that he was actually hesitant to include any reference to the law applicable in a civil war. Although the *Instructions* on occasion referred to the practice of the armies of the United States and to the domestic law of that country, Lieber intended that they should be of equal validity to wars between other states.

The criticism of Bordwell is perhaps unduly severe: " But it was a first attempt. It embodied extreme views of the rights of the military occupant over the inhabitants of occupied territory, followed too closely the hard precedent of earlier wars, and was in general diffuse and academic. Written by a non-military man, it

¹⁵⁶ Holland, *The Laws of War on Land* 72-73 (1908).

¹⁵⁷ Lieber, *Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field* (Washington, 1898).

¹⁵⁸ *Rules of Land Warfare*, War Department Document No. 467, Office of the Chief of Staff (Washington, 1917).

¹⁵⁹ Bluntschli, *Das moderne Kriegsrecht der zivilisierten Staaten als Rechtsbuch dargestellt* (1866); see Nys, *op. cit.* Id.. "The Codification of International Law", 5 *American Journal of International Law* 871, 887 (1911).

¹⁶⁰ Scott, *The Hague Peace Conferences of 1899 and 1907*, 525-527 (1909).

¹⁶¹ "... its rules are in some respects more severe than those which would be enforced in a war between two independent States" (Holland, *op. cit. supra* note 157, p. 72.) "The private character of the *Instructions* should be noted. Their 158 articles contemplated a civil war..." (Nys, *op. cit.*).

lacked the clearness which actual experience would have afforded, and omitted much that might have occurred to one who had seen responsible service in the field. Furthermore, it was the work of an individual and not of a collective body.”¹⁶²

That the *Instructions* were “diffuse and academic” is undoubted. They were also poorly organized and written in a strange manner, which made them appear half statute and half rationalization. But if one disregards form and looks to the substance of the Code, it is possible to discern a mature and logically consistent system, developed and systematized over many years of thinking and teaching. Although Lieber’s ideas underwent change even as he prepared new drafts of the Code, the work had for the most part been thought through by the time the Civil War began. Thus, despite the conditions of haste under which the Code was reduced to paper, it had actually been in the making for much of Lieber’s lifetime.

It is ultimately to his persistence and energy in promoting the project of a code instructions for armies of the United States in the field that we probably owe the certainty to which a large proportion of the law of war has been reduced.

R. R. BAXTER
Professor of Law,
Harvard Law School

¹⁶² Bordwell, *The Law of War between Belligerents* 74 (1908).

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

NINETEENTH AWARD OF THE FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE MEDAL

GENEVA, May 12, 1963.

441st Circular

*To the Central Committees of National Red Cross
(Red Crescent, Red Lion and Sun) Societies*

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,

In its Circular No. 437 of August 23, 1962, the International Committee of the Red Cross had the honour to invite the Central Committees of National Societies to send in the names of nurses and voluntary aids whom they judged qualified to receive the Florence Nightingale Medal. This invitation, which quoted Article I of the Regulations, was accompanied by questionnaires bearing various headings for the candidatures.

The first object of this Medal is to honour nurses and voluntary aids who have distinguished themselves exceptionally by their devotion to sick or wounded in the difficult and perilous situations which often prevail in times of war or public disasters. The Regulations also provide that a maximum number of 36 medals shall be awarded every two years and that the candidates' names must reach the International Committee of the Red Cross before March 1 of the year in which the distribution takes place.

In accordance with these Regulations, the International Committee, after a careful study of the 50 files submitted by 26 National Societies, has the pleasure of announcing that for the Nineteenth Distribution the Medal has been awarded to the following nurses and voluntary aids¹:

AUSTRALIA :

1. *Miss Rose Zelma Huppertz*, Graduate nurse. Certificates in Midwifery, Infant Welfare and Infectious Diseases.

¹ Since the designation, qualifications and duties of nursing personnel do not always have an exact equivalent in the various languages, it seemed to be preferable to leave them as in the original text.

Diploma in Nursing Administration of College of Nursing, Australia. Matron and Superintendent of Nurses, Royal Adelaide Hospital, South Australia.

AUSTRIA :

2. *Frau Maria Hafner*, Schwesternhelferin der Österreichischen Gesellschaft vom Roten Kreuz. Leiterin der Ortsstelle Mauerkirchen vom Roten Kreuz.

BURMA :

3. *Sister Khin Ohn Mya*, Graduate nurse, Certificate for Midwifery, Certificate for Lady Health Visitors.

CANADA :

4. *Miss Mona Gordon Wilson*, M.B.E., O.B.E., Graduate nurse. Public Health Nursing Diploma. Former Director Public Health Nursing Division, Department of Health, Prince Edward Island.

CHILE :

5. *Señora Elena Velasco de Castillo*, Enfermera voluntaria de la Cruz Roja Chilena, Presidenta de la Asociación Cruz Roja Nuñoa Los Guindos.

FINLAND :

6. *Miss Annemarie M.A. Van Bockhoven*, Registered nurse. Matron, Aurora Hospital (Municipal Hospital of the City of Helsinki).

FRANCE :

7. *Mademoiselle Anne de Cadoudal*, titulaire du diplôme d'infirmière S.S.B.M. de la Croix-Rouge française. Directrice des équipes itinérantes de la Croix-Rouge française du Constantinois.
8. *Mademoiselle Germaine Tanguy*, infirmière diplômée. Directrice des équipes itinérantes de la Croix-Rouge française dans l'Algérois.
9. *Madame Yolande Bonnet de Paillerets*, infirmière diplômée, assistante sociale. Présidente du Comité de la Croix-Rouge française du XX^e arrondissement de Paris. Membre du Conseil d'administration de la Croix-Rouge française.

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC :

10. *Schwester Emmy Dörfel*, Diplomierte Krankenschwester.
11. *Schwester Claudine Röhmisch*, Diplomierte Krankenschwester.

GERMAN FEDERAL REPUBLIC :

12. *Oberin Margarete Gerhardt*, Diplomierte Schwester. Oberin der Bremischen Schwesternschaft vom Roten Kreuz in Bremen.
13. *Fräulein Berta Veeck*, Staatlich geprüfte Krankenschwester. Kreisbereitschaftsführerin des weiblichen Bereitschaftsdienstes im Kreisverband Birkenfeld.
14. *Schwester Ernestine Thren*, Diplomierte Schwester. Stationschwester auf einer Infektionsstation.

GREAT BRITAIN :

15. *Mrs. Janet Patience Adams*, State Registered nurse, Tropical Diseases Hospital Certificate ; Central Midwives Board, Part I Certificate ; Health Visitors Certificate.

INDIA :

16. *Miss Edith H. Paull*, Registered nurse. Staff Officer — Nursing, Indian Red Cross Society Headquarters.

IRELAND :

17. *Rev. Mother Mary Martin*, Registered nurse, Mother-General, Medical Missionaries of Mary.

ITALY :

18. *Signorina Virginia Benussi*, infirmière volontaire de la Croix-Rouge italienne. Inspectrice du Comité de Trieste de la Croix-Rouge italienne.
19. *Signorina Eleonora Masini Luccheti*, infirmière volontaire de la Croix-Rouge italienne. Inspectrice de Massa Carrara de la Croix-Rouge italienne.

JAPAN :

20. *Mademoiselle Yaé Abé*, infirmière diplômée. Directrice du Département des infirmières de l'Hôpital de Yokohama de la Croix-Rouge du Japon.
21. *Mademoiselle Mitsu Yoshino*, infirmière diplômée. Directrice du Département des infirmières de l'Hôpital de Yamada de la Croix-Rouge du Japon.
22. *Mademoiselle Kiyo Kawashima*, infirmière diplômée. Infirmière-major générale de l'Hôpital de Kacho de la Fédération des Syndicats agricoles de la préfecture de Kochi.

LIBERIA :

23. *Mrs. Jeannette L. King*, Graduate nurse. President, Liberian National Red Cross Society.

NEW ZEALAND :

24. *Mrs. Mary Ann Gidall*, Graduate nurse and midwife. Lady Superintendent V.A.D.'s. Wellington Centre, New Zealand Red Cross Society.

PAKISTAN :

25. *Major Margaret Caroline Bearcroft*, S.K., R.R.C., Registered nurse. Matron, Combined Military Hospital, Lahore.

PHILIPPINES :

26. *Mrs. Florita Loberiza Legayada*, Graduate nurse. Public Health nurse. Teacher nurse, Iloilo Vocational School, Bureau of Public Schools, Lambunao, Iloilo.
27. *Captain Angelina R. Castro*, Graduate nurse. Captain, Nurse Corps, Armed Forces of the Philippines assigned to V. Luna General Hospital.
28. *Miss Irene M. Abelgas*, Graduate nurse, Public Health nurse. Chief of Nursing Service Section of the Philippine National Red Cross.
29. † *Miss Rosario Andaya*, Graduate nurse.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA :

30. *Miss Ri-Kil Won*, Graduate nurse, Chief nurse at the National Police Hospital in Seoul.

RUMANIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC :

31. *Madame Ioana Cruceanu*, infirmière diplômée. Instructrice principale des infirmières. Direction Médico-sociale et de la Jeunesse du Comité Central de la Croix-Rouge roumaine.
32. *Madame Elena Zeleniuc*, infirmière diplômée. Militante du Comité Central de l'Union des Syndicats des Travailleurs sanitaires.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA :

33. *Miss Iris Irene Marwick*, Graduate nurse. Registered midwife. Registered Mental Nurse and Tutor. Matron, Tara Hospital, Johannesburg.

UNITED STATES :

34. *Miss Ann K. Magnussen*, Graduate registered nurse. National Director, Nursing Services, American National Red Cross.

35. *Miss Nan L. Dorsey*, Graduate registered nurse. Former Supervisor and Instructor in Public Health Nursing for international students at Bedford College, England.
36. *Mrs. R. Louise McManus*, Registered nurse. Consultant to Department of Nursing, Walter Reed Institute of Research, U.S. Army.

The medals and diplomas, accompanied in each case by a photogravure reproduction of the portrait of Florence Nightingale, will be sent as quickly as possible to the Central Committees. The International Committee of the Red Cross would like to receive acknowledgments of their receipt in due course.

The Committee would be grateful if the Medals could be presented in the course of this year and requests the Central Committees to give the ceremony a character of solemnity as the founders of this distinction desired. It would be pleased to publish in the *International Review of the Red Cross* an account—if possible with photographs—of the ceremony organized in this connection. It requests National Societies to send it the necessary material for such publication.

FOR THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

Léopold BOISSIER, *President*

SPECIAL AWARD OF THE FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE MEDAL

On the proposal of the Belgian Red Cross, the Commission of the Florence Nightingale Medal has decided to award this distinction posthumously to

† *Mrs. Nicole Vroonen*, voluntary aid

who met a tragic death in the Congo on December 13, 1961, whilst carrying out a Red Cross mission, together with Mr. Georges Olivet and Mr. Styte Smeding, who were also killed at the same time.

SUNDRY ACTIVITIES

News Items

Yemen

Some ten National Societies have responded positively to the ICRC appeal on behalf of the victims of the conflict in the Yemen. The Red Lion and Sun Society of Iran and the Swiss Red Cross have each offered a medical team. Other National Societies have offered contributions in cash or in kind and, in particular, considerable quantities of medicaments.

On the Royalist side, Dr. Bruno Beretta, doctor-delegate of the ICRC, is continuing his preparations for the relief action to the wounded, who have so far been entirely lacking in medical attention. He has made arrangements for the forthcoming reception of the first medical teams.

In April he went to the headquarters of the Imam, where he tended the wounded ¹. He was also able to visit three prisoners of the United Arab Republic's Armed Forces.

The Imam informed him of the presence, in the interior of the Yemen, of two other groups of prisoners of the U.A.R. Army, one group consisting of 300 men. Steps have been taken in order to obtain authorization for their repatriation.

Dr. Beretta also paid a visit to Riyadh in Saudi Arabia, where he saw another group of twenty-four Egyptian nationals captured in the Yemen and transferred to Saudi Arabia. His report relative to this visit has been forwarded to the U.A.R. Authorities as well as family messages from the prisoners of war. The Saudi Arabian Authorities have agreed to the repatriation of the latter and the International Committee is now organising this operation in agreement with the U.A.R. Authorities.

On the Republican side, another doctor-delegate, Dr. Jürg Baer, is expected to arrive shortly. He has left Geneva for Sanaa, taking with him a consignment of emergency medicaments. He will work in the Yemeni capital in close co-operation with the Red Crescent which has recently been founded under the prompting of Mr. Mohamed Abdel Wasaa Hamid, Director General. The latter, since the first ICRC mission arrived a few weeks ago in Sanaa, has remained in regular contact with Geneva and has already shown

¹ *Plate.*

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Dr. Beretta, delegate of the ICRC, with Prince Abdurrahman in the Royal camp of the Imam

Distribution of milk in a depot of the Laotian Red Cross at Vientiane



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the attachment of his young Society to the ideals of the universal Red Cross movement.

We would also mention that a medical team of the Red Crescent of the United Arab Republic, composed of two doctors and two male nurses, has already arrived in Sanaa with one lot of medicaments and medical equipment.

Algeria

The special delegation of the ICRC, mentioned in the *International Review* last month as having been set up, has started its activity. It visited a large number of prisons and began making enquiries as to the fate of persons missing since the cease-fire on March 19, 1962. The delegation comprises some twenty delegates who are at present in various parts of Algeria. Its headquarters are in Algiers.

The search for missing persons will without doubt prove difficult in view of the length of time which has elapsed since their disappearance. However, the delegates will neglect no effort to clear up this matter, the Algerian authorities being determined to give their support to the ICRC.

Congo

During the course of a recent visit to the prison of N'dolo, Mrs. Egger, representative of the International Committee of the Red Cross, was able to note that, as a result of repeated interventions, all military personnel and civilians from Katanga as well as two politicians from South Kasai detained in that prison had been released.

The representative of the ICRC also made representations on behalf of several European military in the service of Katanga held by UNO forces. Of these, six have recently been released.

It is hoped to be able to be present at further releases in Stanleyville shortly. In fact, following on the visit which he has just made to the prison of Kongq-Kongq, near that town, Mr. G. C. Senn, ICRC delegate, has made approaches to the Congolese authorities for the release of Katanga gendarmes who are at present being held there.

Visit by the Delegate in Mozambique

Mr. Georges Hoffmann, delegate general of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Sub-Equatorial Africa, has recently arrived in Mozambique. The object of his visit is to make official

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

contact with the Portuguese authorities of that territory, as well as with the leading personalities of the local Red Cross branch. Several weeks ago, Mr. Hoffmann stopped in Lisbon where the authorities assured him that he would be extremely welcome in the Portuguese African territories.

Dissemination of the Geneva Conventions

The International Committee of the Red Cross has decided to publish an illustrated pamphlet on the Geneva Conventions especially adapted to the African mentality. This publication will comprise some fifteen illustrations dealing with the most important precepts of the Conventions. So that the pamphlet conforms as much as possible to African minds, the ICRC has decided to entrust the illustrations to an African artist. It has therefore opened a competition from amongst students of the Leopoldville School of Arts and from the equivalent establishment in Brazzaville. Each competitor has been asked to submit three drawings and the winner will then illustrate the whole work.

Nepal

The International Committee of the Red Cross is continuing, in accordance with the various programmes it has drawn up, its activity on behalf of Tibetan refugees in Nepal which it is preparing to terminate at the end of May. Other institutions will then take its place.

Latterly, the ICRC delegation in Nepal has recorded a certain decrease in the number of refugees under its charge. Thus at the handicraft centre at Katmandu there were 342 persons of whom 200 were working actively at the end of February. Medical aid and food were given to 318 refugees, as opposed to 750 in October 1962, at the Hyangja-Pokhara reception and transit camp. Work is progressing satisfactorily at the agricultural settlement of Dhor Patan. 170 persons have been permanently established so far on its 50 acres of reclaimed land, growing wheat, oats, barley, potatoes and vegetables. At Chialsa-Solu (East Nepal) 340 children are at school, 86 persons are employed in a handicraft centre and regular feeding is given to 98 sick, old people and children, who are incapable of working.

International Tracing Service

The International Commission of the International Tracing Service (ITS) met on April 26, 1963, at Bonn under the chairman-

ship of the British delegate. The Commission approved the report for the second half-year of 1962 and the budget for 1964.

The Director of the ITS, Mr. N. Burckhardt, points out in his report that the total number of enquiries received during 1962, namely 154,988, was considerably higher than in 1961 (128,465). This increase is due to a great extent to the new German legislation for compensation; this did not however result in any delay in dealing with cases submitted to the ITS.

The International Commission also noted the work done by the ITS of re-editing the catalogue of camps and prisons in which detainees were incarcerated by the German authorities at that time.

As is known, the ICRC undertook the administration of the ITS in 1955 for a period of five years, a period which was extended in 1960 by a fresh agreement for five years. The representative of the ICRC drew the attention of the members of the International Commission to the advisability of considering, as from now, the measures to be taken after 1965, in order to ensure the continuity of the work of the ITS, which will most likely, although it is difficult to make a forecast, receive a considerable number of enquiries after that date.

A relief action

In January 1963, the delegation of the ICRC in Nepal had to face a new situation. Having been informed of the sudden arrival of several thousand Tibetan refugees on the Indian frontier in the Terrai (Bhairawa-Buwal region), it sent its delegates to the spot. Since it was a question of persons who had never previously requested aid from the Red Cross, and observing that their situation was most precarious, the ICRC decided to come to their assistance. It drew more than 30,000 kgs. of food supplies (oil, beans, flour, powdered milk) from surplus stocks placed at the disposal of the International Committee by the United States Government and distributed them to the neediest of the refugees. This aid will continue as long as the situation demands it, until food stocks are exhausted.

Mission to Vienna

Mr. H. G. Beckh, delegate of the ICRC, recently visited Vienna to examine various humanitarian problems and in particular the question of the re-uniting of families. On two occasions he met Mr. Sevcik, Secretary-General of the Austrian Red Cross. He also had talks with senior officials of the ministries of Foreign Affairs and of the Interior.

Viet Nam

Mr. André Durand, delegate general of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Asia, has just completed a lengthy stay in Saigon, in order to study humanitarian problems raised by the conflict at present taking place in the Republic of Viet-Nam. He concerned himself especially with the position of persons detained by reason of the events, as well as with the regrouping of dispersed families.

The representative of the ICRC was welcomed by Dr. Pham-van-Hat, President of the Vietnam Red Cross, and by the principal leaders of that Society. He also had the opportunity of meeting Mr. Vu-van-Mau, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, as well as the Secretaries of State for the Interior and for Health.

Mr. Durand has now returned to his post in Tokyo. However, the ICRC proposes to continue taking steps in the capital of the Republic of Viet Nam with a view to obtaining authorization to visit persons prosecuted or interned on account of the conflict.

A medal received by the ICRC

To commemorate the Centenary of the Universal institution of the Red Cross, the Philippines National Red Cross Society has drawn up an impressive programme including different celebrations which will last until December.

The first of these celebrations was a large reception organized in Manila, on January 29. During the banquet, the ICRC delegate in the Philippines, Mr. John Mittner, was invited to unveil a large portrait of Henry Dunant which will now hang in the Central Headquarters of the National Society ¹. At the same time, the governors of the Philippine Red Cross bestowed their commemorative medal on the ICRC. Mr. Mittner received it on behalf of the Committee. This commemorative medal is in silver, and bears the Centenary emblem, and the motto of the Red Cross inscribed in Tagalog. During this reception, the President of the Philippines, Mr. Diosdado Macapagal, officially proclaimed that 1963 would be Red Cross Centenary Year.

The Philippine Red Cross intends to devote each month of this year to one of its activities and its ideals. Thus, January was given over to the memory of Henry Dunant, February to the principles of the Red Cross, March to the services of voluntary aids, and so on. All towns have been invited to name a street or a square in their community after Dunant. A big competition has been opened to students who will submit essays on Dunant's work and other

¹ *Plate.*

aspects of the Red Cross. This programme will doubtless have vast repercussions and beneficial effects upon public opinion in the Philippines.

Compensation for victims of pseudo-medical experiments

The neutral Commission of Experts charged with assessing compensation to be paid to the victims of pseudo-medical experiments practised in German concentration camps under the Nazi regime met recently at the headquarters of the International Committee in Geneva. It is known that the ICRC, at the request of the German Federal Republic, has accepted to act as intermediary for the transmission of financial assistance which that government wishes to provide for this category of victims residing in countries with which it maintains no diplomatic relations.

The Commission was composed of Mr. Jean Graven, Professor at the Faculty of Law and Rector of the University of Geneva, who presided, of Dr. Alex F. Muller, Professor of Physiopathology at the University of Geneva, and of Dr. Sylvain Mutrux, medical Assistant of the Psychiatric Clinic of Bel Air, Geneva. Two representatives of the Polish Red Cross were present at the meeting as observers: Miss Danuta Zys, Head of the External Affairs section, and Dr. Jerzy Nowkunski, medical delegate.

Dr. Jacques de Rougemont, doctor-delegate of the ICRC, acted as rapporteur.

The Commission dealt with 96 cases, whose files had been prepared by the Polish Red Cross and which the ICRC doctor-delegate had examined in January during the course of a mission to Warsaw and Poznan. They held all of these, with the exception of one case, for which they requested further information.

The ICRC at once asked the German authorities for the transfer of funds corresponding to the Commission's payment in Poland.

The International Committee intends to delegate another mission in Warsaw to examine a further series of requests for compensation submitted by victims whose files have already been prepared by the Polish Red Cross.

**VISIT OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE ICRC TO THE NATIONAL
RED CROSS SOCIETIES IN THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC
REPUBLIC AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA**

Accompanied by Mr. H. G. Beckh, delegate, Mr. Léopold Boissier visited the German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic from March 24 to 30, 1963.

He received a warm and friendly reception in Dresden from the President of the National Society, Dr. Werner Ludwig, members of the executive committee and his colleagues, and was able to appreciate that Society's intense activity in the most varied fields.

He attended an exercise carried out by young girl first-aiders attached to the hospital of Arnsdorf¹.

The President of the ICRC had long discussions with Dr. Ludwig, his colleagues and others, who gave him some useful information about the efforts being made in the German Democratic Republic as regards hygiene and the struggle against occupational illness. He also paid a visit to the "Museum of Hygiene", an institution which is unique of its kind, in which are exhibited, most ingeniously, methods for relieving suffering and preserving health.

Mr. Boissier and Mr. Beckh subsequently went to Berlin, where the President of the ICRC was received successively by Mr. Max Sefrin, Minister of Health, Dr. Lothar Bolz, Minister for Foreign Affairs, and by Mr. Walter Ulbricht, Chairman of the Council of State of the German Democratic Republic.

These leading personalities enthusiastically manifested the esteem in which they hold the ICRC and its activities. They

¹ *Plate.*



In Dresden, at the headquarters of the German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic. **From left to right:** Mr. Buchwitz, Honorary President of the National Society, Mr. Boissier, President of the ICRC, Mr. Beckh, delegate of the ICRC, Mr. Ludwig, President of the National Society

The President of the ICRC at Arnsdorf in the German Democratic Republic during an exercise by Red Cross first aid workers



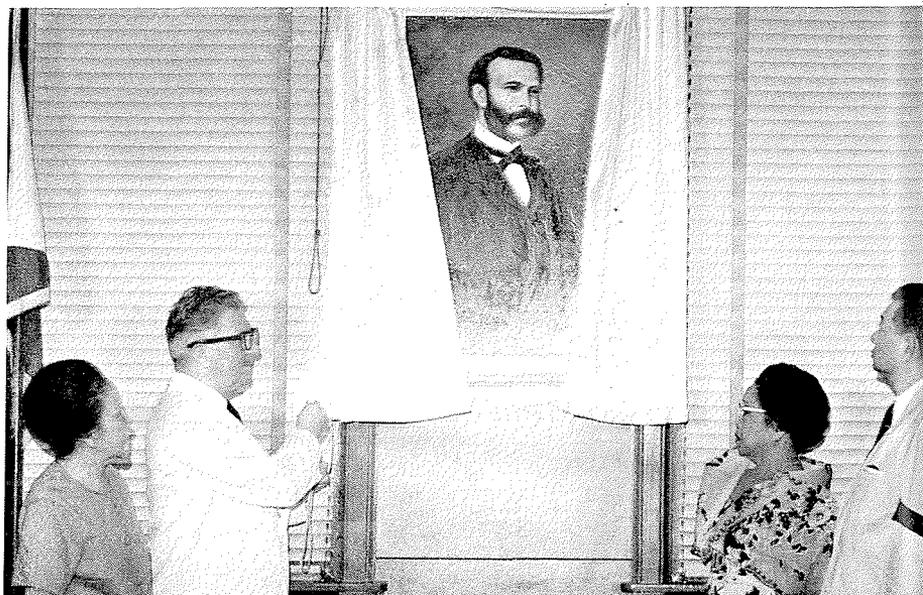


IN PRAGUE

The President of the ICRC delivering a speech at the central headquarters of the Czechoslovak Red Cross. (On the right, Mr. Janouch, President of the National Society).

MANILA

At the headquarters of the Philippine Red Cross, Mr. Mittner, delegate of the ICRC, unveiling a portrait of Henry Dunant on the occasion of the Centenary



discussed at length the German Democratic Republic's attitude towards the problems created by the present state of affairs in Berlin, an attitude which conditions every humanitarian activity in that city.

Mr. Boissier and Mr. Beckh then stopped in Prague. Dr. Frantisek Janouch, President of the Czechoslovak Red Cross, assisted by Dr. Karel Blaha, Director of that National Society's External Affairs section, had organized a meeting to which had been convened his colleagues on the Society's executive committee, members of the staff and large numbers from government and intellectual circles of the country. Mr. Boissier thus had the privilege of describing the ICRC's present activities and of replying to questions which were put to him.¹

During their brief stay in Prague, Mr. Boissier and Mr. Beckh were the object of much attention.

¹ *Plate.*

INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS

JOINT COMMISSION
of the
EMPRESS SHÔKEN FUND

No. 54

Geneva, April 11, 1963.

FORTY-SECOND DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME

The Joint Commission entrusted with the distribution of the income of the Empress Shôken Fund met in Geneva on February 22, 1963.

It noted the statement of accounts and the situation of the Fund at December 31, 1962, and observed that the balance available stood at Sw. frs. 14,651,75.

The Commission examined requests for grants from the forty-second distribution of income. On this occasion, it reviewed the experiences of the last few years, and had to admit that the grants policy followed hitherto, and which consisted in sharing annually the whole, or almost the whole, of the income of the Fund among several Societies, allowed only very small allocations by reason of the slenderness of this amount and the number of beneficiaries, and these small allocations were frequently not enough to finance the plans envisaged. Several grants therefore remained unused as the beneficiary National Societies had not been able to raise the supplementary resources necessary. It therefore considered it advisable that the amounts allocated be increased. In the present state of the Fund's capital and consequently of its interest,

such an increase can be obtained only by restricting the number of beneficiaries.

The Commission has therefore decided, while waiting to submit the whole problem to the next International Conference of the Red Cross, to revert to more severe tests of valuation when examining requests and in principle to uphold only those from developing National Societies unable to have their project financed otherwise and, amongst such Societies, those which have hitherto benefited least from help from the Shôken Fund.

Five National Red Cross Societies had applied for an allocation in 1962, within the prescribed time-limits. The Commission decided to grant the following sums on the basis of the tests mentioned above:

<i>Burma Red Cross :</i>	<i>Frs. 4,000.—</i>	To complete the equipment of the Blood Bank in Rangoon.
<i>Republic of Korea Red Cross :</i>	<i>Frs. 5,000.—</i>	As a contribution towards X-ray equipment for its hospital in Choon-Chon.

The unused balance of Sw. frs. 5,651.75 will be added to the income available for the next grant.

In accordance with Article 7 of the Regulations, the beneficiary National Societies are required to report in due course to the International Committee of the Red Cross or the League of Red Cross Societies, on the use which has been made of the allocation received. The Joint Commission would like this report, accompanied by photographs if possible, to reach it at the latest by the end of the present year. It furthermore reminds beneficiaries of Article 6 of the Regulations which prohibits them from assigning the grant made to them for purposes other than those specified without the previous consent of the Commission.

In accordance with the Regulations, the 1963 income will be distributed in 1964. The Central Committees of National Societies are now invited to submit requests for an allocation to the Secretariat of the Joint Commission, assumed this year by the International Committee of the Red Cross (7, Avenue de la Paix, Geneva).

INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS

The Joint Commission desires to remind candidates that such requests must indicate the precise purpose for which the allocation will be used, in order for them to be considered ; they must also, as far as possible, be accompanied by a plan of financing. Requests must be submitted to the Secretariat of the Joint Commission before December 31, 1963.

For the Joint Commission :

League of Red Cross Societies

*International Committee of the
Red Cross*

H. Beer

M. Bodmer

M. Aoki (Japanese Red Cross)

R. Gallopin

Z. S. Hantchef

M^{lle} A. Pfirter

*

EMPRESS SHÖKEN FUND

BALANCE SHEET AS ON DECEMBER 31, 1962

ASSETS	Sw. Fr.	FUNDS AND LIABILITIES	Sw. Fr.
Swiss Public Securities estimated at par (Stock Exchange value 455,430.—)	458,000.—	Inalienable capital	346,250.—
Cash at the Swiss National Bank, Geneva	25,061.60	Provision for market fluctuations	106,747.10
Administration fédérale des contributions, Berne. (Tax at source, to be reclaimed) . .	3,861.70	Provision for administrative costs	
		Balance brought forward from 1961 Fr.	332.55
		Statutory attribution on the income in 1962 . Fr.	693.70
		Fr.	1,026.25
		Actual administrative costs in 1962 Fr.	518.80
		Funds available according to accounts	14,651.75
		<i>Total amount of fund</i> . . .	486,156.30
		Creditors (allocations to be withdrawn)	16,000.—
		International Committee of Red Cross assets on current a/c .	2,767.—
	<u>486,923.30</u>		<u>486,923.30</u>

INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS

POSITION OF INVESTMENTS ON DECEMBER 31, 1962

CATEGORY	NOMINAL	ESTIMATED RATES AT THE END OF DECEMBER 1962	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
3½ % Fédéral 1945 (June) . . .	100,000.—	101 %	101,000.—
3¼ % Fédéral 1946 (December)	25,000.—	100 %	25,000.—
		98 %	29,400.—
3 % Fédéral 1949	30,000.—	99 %	79,200.—
3 % Fédéral 1951 (May)	80,000.—	98 %	3,920.—
3 % Fédéral 1956 (May)	4,000.—	99 %	206,910.—
3 % CFF 1938	209,000.—	100 %	10,000.—
3 % Crédit Foncier Vaudois, Série XIII	10,000.—		
	<u>Fr. 458,000.—</u>		<u>Fr. 455,430.—</u>

Remarks :

- 1) The investments are accounted at their nominal value of Fr. 458,000.
- 2) On the basis of the fiscal value according to the January 1, 1963, list, published by the "Administration fédérale des contributions", there is a depreciation of Fr. 2,570.—.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR 1962

EXPENDITURE	Sw. Fr.	RECEIPTS	Sw. Fr.
41st distribution of allocations to four National Red Cross Societies, in accordance with the decision of the Joint Commission, April 11, 1962 . . .	12,000.—	Income in 1962 on investments	13,873.40
Allocation of 5 % of 1962 income to administration of Fund, in accordance with Article 7 of the Regulations .	693.70	Plus balance brought forward from 1961	13,472.05
Funds available as on December 31, 1962:			
Balance brought forward from 1961 . . . Fr. 13,472.05			
Surplus receipts over expenditure in 1962 . Fr. 1,179.70	14,651.75		
	<u>27,345.45</u>		<u>27,345.45</u>

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

WORLD HEALTH DAY

World Health Day is observed each year on 7 April. The theme chosen for 1963 was *Hunger: Disease of Millions*, and the object was to draw attention to malnutrition as a direct cause of disease and a major factor in maintaining low health levels among a great part of the world's population. World Health Day thus supports FAO's Freedom from Hunger Campaign.

The following is the message which Dr. M. G. Candau, Director-General of the World Health Organization, sent on this occasion :

When people were facing death by famine they knew only too well what was happening to them: but today millions are ill without understanding that the cause is a total or partial lack of necessary food elements.

In those countries where most people cannot afford meat, fish, eggs, milk or nutritious vegetable foods to eat with their usual cereal meals, widespread malnutrition results in a low resistance to diseases and diminished working capacity which add to the national burdens of ill health and economic loss.

But the principal victims of this insidious form of hunger are infants and children. Millions of them become sick and many die in their early years simply because they do not get enough protein in their food, while many of those who survive fall an easy prey to other illnesses of childhood.

The only lasting remedy for this widespread malnutrition is to produce inexpensive foods containing sufficient protein, vitamins and so on and persuade people to make them part of their regular diet. This may not be easy since food habits and established beliefs about food are part of the whole fabric of the life of a people, and are usually slow to change.

Certain diseases directly caused by bad nutrition such as beri-beri, pellagra, scurvy, rickets, goitre, anaemia and a type of blindness in

children have with better nutrition already disappeared from many countries and would disappear everywhere if people's everyday food contained sufficient amounts of the essential elements.

When doctors, nurses and health workers are receiving their training it is important that they understand the close relation between good nutrition and health so that they can teach and influence the people among whom they are to work. Research is needed, too, for there are still serious gaps in our knowledge of all the ill effects of the different types of hunger.

In today's world hunger is indeed a disease of millions. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) has launched a world-wide Freedom from Hunger Campaign in which the World Health Organization is wholeheartedly co-operating. It is my hope that on this World Health Day people everywhere in the world will try to visualize this problem of hunger and the disease and death that go with it. Remedies are largely known—they call for simultaneous action on the agricultural, medical and educational fronts and this action, to be successful, must have the participation of governments and of peoples in all countries, rich and poor.

Our ill-fed world.—More than half the world's population, now estimated at 3000 million, are victims of hunger or inadequate nutrition in one form or another. Over large areas of the world people's everyday meals are insufficient ; the children go without milk after they are weaned and child mortality between the ages of one and five is often fifteen times higher than it is in places where people are able to get proper food.

All this is nothing new. It is probable that the world has never in its history fed all its people adequately. The difference is that today, thanks to the discoveries of science, which has advanced more in the last 100 years than in the previous 2000 years, we already have the knowledge and power to produce sufficient food, measured on a health standard, for more than twice the population of the world. If our existing knowledge were put to work where it is needed most of the diseases that stem from hunger could be eliminated or controlled.

This is one answer to the pessimists who claim that the world's population is outrunning the world's capacity to produce food.

Indeed, according to a recent survey, world food production in 1962-63 is expected to increase faster than the growth of population, estimated at a world rate of two per cent. annually.

Unhappily this does not mean that the world's food problem is solved, for the greatest increase in food production is in those countries where food is already plentiful, and the least in those where it is most needed. Another regrettable fact is that in those regions where the need is greatest, not sufficient effort is made to produce the nutritious protein foods whose lack is largely responsible for the diseases of malnutrition.

Despite increasing populations, the advanced countries are feeding better than ever. For example, in North America, where population has risen by about 35 per cent. since the Second World War, production has been raised by more than 60 per cent. and output per man-hour by over 100 per cent. Particular instances will sharpen the contrast between developed and under-developed countries. In Japan, the yield per hectare of arable land is approximately three to four times the yield per hectare in India; Europe obtains four times as much meat and milk per head of cattle as are obtained in Latin America and the Near East, seven times as much as in Africa, and ten times as much as in the Far East.

World Food Programme.—Food output may be so high in particular countries or regions that local surpluses accumulate. These surpluses do not move into international trade, chiefly because the countries needing more food do not have the money to buy them.

As a partial remedy, the United Nations and the Food and Agriculture Organization have jointly launched a World Food Programme whose aim is to use surpluses in an orderly way to promote economic and social development. It is now beginning operations.

However, surpluses only amount to a small fraction of world production. It is estimated that surplus stocks of grain amount to about 130 million tons, the vast bulk of which is held in North America. This is a big stock. Even so, it could only provide the calorie intake of the world population for two months.

If used to correct the average deficiency of about 200 calories

MISCELLANEOUS

per person per day in the Far East, the stocks could only achieve this for a little over three years.

Supposing these inequalities could be levelled out, there would remain the even more important question of the quality of the food produced. Here again, the improvement is only in some regions. In Western Europe, for example, one of the most important developments during the past years has been the increasing consumption of meat and other valuable sources of protein. An illustration of the trend is provided by France. Statistically speaking, the average Frenchman in 1958 ate 13 kilogrammes more meat than he did in 1948, while consumption of milk and dairy products increased by one third. In the same period, the consumption of cereals and starchy roots gradually declined in Western Europe as other foods became more abundant. For the region as a whole, the average daily food intake, in quantitative terms, is above the estimated requirements.

Much the same can be said of North America. Consumption of cereals has fallen while consumption of meat, milk and dairy products has increased. In the United States of America, for example, the average *per caput* consumption of cereals fell by 10 kilogrammes between 1948 and 1958, while in the same period consumption of milk and dairy products remained unchanged. Consumption of meat rose to a point well above the pre-war average and the mean daily intake of protein is among the highest in the world.

These are the relatively fortunate regions of the world. One of the regions where grave food and nutrition problems persist is the Far East. Here, diets are generally deficient, especially in consumption of animal products such as meat, eggs and milk, which have the greatest nutritional value. In the region as a whole the consumption of such animal products is less than one third of what it is in the United States of America and Oceania. As distribution is rarely equitable, it is safe to say that great numbers of people in the Far East have much less of these nourishing foods than the statistical averages indicate. To bring the nutritional levels up to a point where even a barely adequate diet is possible for the growing populations of Far Eastern countries will be an enormous long-range task.

Little exact information is available on the food consumption in most of Africa, but it can be assumed that the situation is roughly similar to that in the Far East. It is known, for example, that protein malnutrition is widespread.

Facts of life.—In sum, millions upon millions of men, women and children cannot obtain enough good food to nourish themselves adequately. With all that it means in terms of human suffering and economic misery, this is one of the most important facts of life in the world today.

The measures necessary to solve the problem of food cannot be carried out successfully by any one country or small group of countries. By its very nature, the problem of food is both national and international and action to solve it must also be both national and international. For hunger and malnutrition are no respecters of frontiers. They are to be found in every country of the world.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has organized a world Freedom from Hunger Campaign which was officially launched on 1 July 1960 by Dr. B. R. Sen, Director-General of FAO. The Campaign, which is continuing over a period of five years, is essentially a joint effort of all governments, the United Nations and its specialized agencies, non-governmental organizations, social and professional groups, industrial and commercial concerns and private individuals throughout the world. The main object of the Campaign is to create a climate of informed world opinion that will make possible a sustained, lasting attack on a massive scale on malnutrition and undernourishment in the world. It will call not only for vastly increased financial and technical assistance from the developed countries but also for a correspondingly bigger and more vigorous effort by the countries concerned. This is an enterprise in which we are all involved.

MISCELLANEOUS

per person per day in the Far East, the stocks could only achieve this for a little over three years.

Supposing these inequalities could be levelled out, there would remain the even more important question of the quality of the food produced. Here again, the improvement is only in some regions. In Western Europe, for example, one of the most important developments during the past years has been the increasing consumption of meat and other valuable sources of protein. An illustration of the trend is provided by France. Statistically speaking, the average Frenchman in 1958 ate 13 kilogrammes more meat than he did in 1948, while consumption of milk and dairy products increased by one third. In the same period, the consumption of cereals and starchy roots gradually declined in Western Europe as other foods became more abundant. For the region as a whole, the average daily food intake, in quantitative terms, is above the estimated requirements.

Much the same can be said of North America. Consumption of cereals has fallen while consumption of meat, milk and dairy products has increased. In the United States of America, for example, the average *per caput* consumption of cereals fell by 10 kilogrammes between 1948 and 1958, while in the same period consumption of milk and dairy products remained unchanged. Consumption of meat rose to a point well above the pre-war average and the mean daily intake of protein is among the highest in the world.

These are the relatively fortunate regions of the world. One of the regions where grave food and nutrition problems persist is the Far East. Here, diets are generally deficient, especially in consumption of animal products such as meat, eggs and milk, which have the greatest nutritional value. In the region as a whole the consumption of such animal products is less than one third of what it is in the United States of America and Oceania. As distribution is rarely equitable, it is safe to say that great numbers of people in the Far East have much less of these nourishing foods than the statistical averages indicate. To bring the nutritional levels up to a point where even a barely adequate diet is possible for the growing populations of Far Eastern countries will be an enormous long-range task.

Little exact information is available on the food consumption in most of Africa, but it can be assumed that the situation is roughly similar to that in the Far East. It is known, for example, that protein malnutrition is widespread.

Facts of life.—In sum, millions upon millions of men, women and children cannot obtain enough good food to nourish themselves adequately. With all that it means in terms of human suffering and economic misery, this is one of the most important facts of life in the world today.

The measures necessary to solve the problem of food cannot be carried out successfully by any one country or small group of countries. By its very nature, the problem of food is both national and international and action to solve it must also be both national and international. For hunger and malnutrition are no respecters of frontiers. They are to be found in every country of the world.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has organized a world Freedom from Hunger Campaign which was officially launched on 1 July 1960 by Dr. B. R. Sen, Director-General of FAO. The Campaign, which is continuing over a period of five years, is essentially a joint effort of all governments, the United Nations and its specialized agencies, non-governmental organizations, social and professional groups, industrial and commercial concerns and private individuals throughout the world. The main object of the Campaign is to create a climate of informed world opinion that will make possible a sustained, lasting attack on a massive scale on malnutrition and undernourishment in the world. It will call not only for vastly increased financial and technical assistance from the developed countries but also for a correspondingly bigger and more vigorous effort by the countries concerned. This is an enterprise in which we are all involved.

A GLANCE THROUGH THE REVIEWS

The transformation of the mental hospital.—*WHO Chronicle, Geneva, 1962, vol. 16, No. 8.*

. . . During the nineteenth century there were several movements aimed at relaxing the restraint practised in mental hospitals, on the ground that the mentally disturbed would benefit more from something that resembled a hospital rather than a prison. But it is only in the last fifty years that systematic attempts have been made to change the role of the mental hospital. These attempts yielded considerable results long before the discovery of the ataractic drugs, the importance of which is great as an adjuvant to psychotherapy and group therapy but is otherwise not to be exaggerated: for they can supply only a partial solution to the therapeutic problem and they may even distract attention from the main therapeutic target, the patient himself, regarded as a person to be cured.

During and after the First World War, Simon, van der Scheer, Rees, Sivadon and others elaborated what was called "active therapy", wherein a therapeutic community is created, a miniature society in which the individual patient works, is given responsibility, receives pay for his work, lives as an individual, and has his own recreations:

"The changes brought about by this regime in the mental hospital can only be called revolutionary. The revolting aspects of the mental hospital disappeared; the average length of stay decreased until it was counted in months instead of years. The interdependence with environment—not only of behaviour but of symptoms which were generally regarded as inherent to the illness—was once more demonstrated, as had been done by Pinel more than a century before".

Much of this work was destroyed by the Second World War.

The old concept of the mental hospital seems to have disappeared. But as a therapeutic community, the mental hospital is still an essential link in the chain of mental health services. Many patients need re-education, re-socialization, rehabilitation: processes that may take months or even years and require a combination of psychotherapy, drug therapy, and occupational, recreational, and social therapy. In highly industrialized countries, specially equipped institutions will be needed, with workshops, recreational facilities, and extensive grounds. These new mental hospitals will function primarily as rehabilitation centres analogous to those used for physical rehabilitation. In countries that are primarily agricultural, the therapeutic community will conform to the local pattern, perhaps resembling the therapeutic village community developed in Nigeria.

If the patient is to be treated by giving him trust and responsibility, the locked door must go. In many countries the doors are open in some of the wards or in part of the mental hospital. This "open door" system is not the same as the "open ward" system; while the former may be found in an institution that is itself "closed", the "open ward" receives patients on a voluntary basis. Some countries have no open ward system, in others the number of voluntary patients may range from 10 % to 85 % of all admissions. "The extent to which the open ward system is in use may be regarded as a fair measure of the level of psychiatric hospital care and of its acceptance by the population" . . .

The male nursing profession in France, by A. Montesinos, *Revue de l'Infirmière et de l'Assistance sociale, Paris 1962, No. 5.*

It is generally considered that nursing is essentially a female profession. The author makes a point of showing that there is nothing to justify such an opinion and he describes the present position of male nurses in France, as well as the problems raised by their recruitment and training: lack of schools for male nurse students, cultural level of ward attendants insufficient to enable them to enjoy satisfactory conditions of promotion, bad organization and application of such promotion. Mr. Montesinos makes several suggestions to improve this organization and hopes above all for the creation of schools for male nurse students. To upgrade the profession and provide professional openings and a less limited future to attract a larger number of men, especially discharged military male nurses, could be a means of partially resolving the present crisis of nursing personnel.

Quarantinable diseases, *Who Chronicle, Geneva, 1963, No 4.*

. . . This brief review of the development of the quarantinable diseases gives ground for optimism and especially for renewed confidence in the effectiveness of the measures employed to cut short epidemics and in particular to stop the spread, in these days of increased inter-national and intercontinental communication, of diseases originally confined to endemic foci. But the threat of their spread remains, for in 1961, considerable outbreaks of smallpox, plague, cholera and yellow fever occurred, raising the number of cases and especially the number of deaths above the figures for 1960. Vigilance is therefore needed. Only by the co-operative efforts of laboratory workers, national and international health services, and especially medical and medico-social personnel throughout the world can the ever-present threat of the great quarantinable diseases be averted.

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

(AGREED AND AMENDED ON SEPTEMBER 25, 1952)

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

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

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

ART. 3. — The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva.

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

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

- (a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies ;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition ;

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

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

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

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. The number of members may not exceed twenty-five.



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ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga Barrikadavet, *Tirana*.
- ARGENTINE — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yri-goyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Flinders Street, *Melbourne, C. 1*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshaus-strasse, *Vienna IV*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, Chaussée de Vleurgat, *Brussels*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simon-Bolivar, 1515 (Casilla 741), *La Paz*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça da Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S.S. Biruzov, *Sofia*.
- BURMA — Burma Red Cross, 42, Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- CAMBODIA — Cambodian Red Cross, 8 Phlaur Ang Nonn, P.O.B. 94, *Pnom-Penh*.
- CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95, Wellesley Street East, *Toronto 5*.
- CEYLON — Ceylon Red Cross, 106, Dharmapala Mawatte, *Colombo VII*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria 0150, Casilla 246 V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 22, Kaamien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65 Apartado nacional 11-10, *Bogota*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 5a Sur, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Ignacio Agramonte 461, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *Prague III*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Platanvej 22, *Copenhagen V*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1293 *San Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Avenida Colombia y Elizalde 118, *Quito*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, *Addis Ababa*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu I A, *Helsinki*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17, rue Quentin-Bauchart, *Paris (8^e)*.
- GERMANY (Dem. Republic) — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, *Dresden A. 1*.
- GERMANY (Federal Republic) — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, *Bonn*.
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, P.O. Box 835 *Accra*.
- GREAT BRITAIN — British Red Cross, 14 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3.^a Calle entre 8.^a y 9.^a Avenidas, *Guatemala*.
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, rue Férou, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant, *Tegucigalpa*.
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, *Budapest V*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Thorvaldsens-straeti 6, *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road *New Delhi 1*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 9, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Avenue Ark, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 25 Westland Row, *Dublin*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, *Rome*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 5 Shiba Park, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo*.
- JORDAN — Jordan Red Crescent, P.O. Box 1337, *Amman*.
- KOREA (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, *Pyongyang*.
- KOREA (Republic) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3 Ka Nam San-Dong, *Seoul*.
- LAOS — Laotian Red Cross, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Générat Spears, *Beirut*.

ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- LIBERIA — Liberian National Red Cross, Camp Johnson Road, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYA — Libyan Red Crescent, Berka Omar Mukhtar Street, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBURG — Luxemburg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, *Luxemburg*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Sinaloa 20, 4º piso, *Mexico 7, D.F.*
- MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, 27, Boul. de Suisse, *Monte-Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, 26, Nairamdal Gudang, P.O. 20/26 *Ulan-Bator*.
- MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, rue Calmette, *Rabat*.
- NETHERLANDS — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsessegracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND — New Zealand Red Cross, 61 Dixon Street, P.O.B. 6073, *Wellington C.2*.
- NICARAGUA — Nicaraguan Red Cross, 12 Avenida Nordeste, 305, *Managua, D.N.C.A.*
- NIGERIA — The Nigerian Red Cross Society, 2, Makoko Road, P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, *Oslo*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Cross, Frere Street, *Karachi 4*.
- PANAMA — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado 668, *Panama*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, calle André Barbero y Artigas, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Tarapaca 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES — Philippine National Red Cross, 600 Isaac Peral Street, P.O.B. 280, *Manila*.
- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, General Secretaryship, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon 3*.
- RUMANIA — Red Cross of the Rumanian People's Republic, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, C.P. 729, *Bucarest*.
- SALVADOR — Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente 21, *San Salvador*.
- SAN MARINO — San Marino Red Cross, *San Marino*.
- SIERRA LEONE — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6 Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SOUTH AFRICA (Republic) — South African Red Cross, 14 Hollard Street, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid, 10*.
- SUDAN — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartum*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Artillerigatan 6, *Stockholm 14*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, *Berne*.
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- TOGO — Togolese Red Cross Society, Avenue des Alliés 19, P.O. Box 655, *Lome*.
- TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 1, Avenue de Carthage, *Tunis*.
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- UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC — Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Republic, 34, rue Ramses, *Cairo*.
- UPPER VOLTA — Upper Volta Red Cross, P.O.B. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
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- U.S.A. — American Red Cross, National Headquarters, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington 6, D.C.*
- U.S.S.R. — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Kouznetsky Most 18/7, *Moscow k. 31*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No 4, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Triez, *Hanoi*.
- VIET NAM (Republic) — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, duong Hông-Tháp-Tu, No. 201, *Saigon*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.