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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

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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.

**SUPPLEMENTS
TO THE REVIEW**

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Teaching Solidarity

by P. Laroque

The author of the following important article is president of the Section sociale du Conseil d'Etat français. When, in 1968, he was awarded the René Sand prize at the fourteenth International Conference of the International Council on Social Welfare he delivered a speech on " Human Rights, Social Work and Social Policy " ¹.

The Red Cross was represented not only because many of the delegates were members of our movement but also because the ceremony recalled the memory of René Sand, who had been a leading light of the Belgian Red Cross. International Review has published several of his writings, one of which he concluded with the following words revealing the active idealism which was typical of him : " The human instinct, which sometimes goes astray but is more often led astray, tends towards goodwill and peace, not towards war ".

We are grateful to the René Sand prize-winner for having also contributed to our publication.

(Ed.)

* * *

Technical and economic progress ever more strongly intensifies interdependence among men. Whereas for centuries men lived in small closed societies, modern progress in the communication of information and ideas and in the development of trade has favoured

¹ Our translation.

a growing interpenetration between groups and civilizations while, at the same time, increasing the division of labour. Every single person is, whether directly or indirectly, constantly making use of knowledge and skills acquired from almost all parts of the world; his ideas are the results of clashes or combinations of opinions expressed in places widely separated from each other; he consumes products, goods and services from every continent. These facts are so obvious that they are commonplace.

Even so, man has rarely been aware of this interdependence, and even less so of the responsibilities it implies; that is to say, the solidarity necessitated by that mutual dependence which, every day, brings men closer together throughout the world. The psychological and moral development of mankind has not kept pace with technical and economic progress. This dichotomy is doubtless the basic cause of the ills and conflicts that beset the world to-day.

In its present form, this dichotomy appears to be the result of peculiar changes, produced by successive and contradictory currents throughout the centuries, traces of which have subsisted into the present day.

For a very long time, probably many millennia, man, as an individual, counted for nothing. He had no legal, economic or social existence, except as a member of the group to which he belonged. Only collective units were recognized: the family, comprising several generations united by blood or marriage; the tribe, frequently little more than a large family; and later the professional grouping, the trade guild, caste, etc. The individual had no rights. His existence depended on the place he occupied within his group and on the place this group occupied in economic and social life. Within the group itself, there was total interdependence and solidarity.

The type of family traditionally found in rural and cottage-industry environments is well known. It is still flourishing in the countries that are just starting their economic development and provides an explanation for certain aspects of human relationship in advanced societies. This type of family is an economic unit, inextricably merged in an agricultural undertaking or a handicraft workshop, in which each person's role is largely determined by his position in the undertaking that supports the group. It is a centre of

education, the provider of the vocational, moral and social training of its members. Such training is entirely directed towards preparing each individual for the task he will have to fulfil within the family group; accumulated knowledge, customs and traditions are passed down from generation to generation. The family provides security, naturally ensuring through the work of the active members sufficient sustenance for non-workers, the children, the sick, the invalids and the old. It thus plays the role of a modern social security system. It draws its members together in their pastimes and in their religious life. The family does not merely intimately bind all its members—it totally absorbs them. Hierarchical relationships, marriages, relations between spouses and between the parents and children are entirely controlled by the family. Tribal bonds, allowing of course for the differences caused by size, are of the same nature.

Among families or between separate tribal groups, on the other hand, relations are often very distant, that is, where they exist at all. The initial tendency is for each group to be self-sufficient. It is the need for defence against a common enemy which induces families or tribes to join on a more or less permanent basis and accept an overall discipline. European feudalism is a good example of this. However, although real solidarity is thus established between families united by the same interest, it rarely attains the same depth or stability as within the family or tribe.

Human societies are therefore not initially composed of individuals but of small groups, in which the individual is totally submerged and where there are precise, complex and restrictive rules permanently defining the tasks and responsibilities of each person.

One might have thought that technical and economic development, by broadening horizons, would have led simultaneously to a broadening of the framework within which solidarity amongst men grows. This has only been partly the case.

Most certainly an awareness of their community of interests by the members of a given trade has encouraged the establishment of corporate groups which, particularly at the craft level, has enclosed family cottage industries in ever more complex systems. The development of urban life has also, most certainly, contributed to the creation of a not infrequently intensive communal life and a pro-

found internal solidarity within the collectivity. And though the authority of dynamic rulers encouraged the creation of States, foreshadowing the political structures of the modern world, it is certain that those States, initially somewhat artificial creations of the monarchy, became more and more real through the ties created within them by administrative and economic mechanisms set up by the central authority. It would, however, be too much to claim that, within a State or in States under the same ruler, there has often existed a deep feeling of solidarity between one guild and another or one town and another.

As such solidarity began to take shape and in so far as it could have asserted itself, it met, especially from the XVIIIth century onwards, economic and ideological conditions which, spreading from Europe, diametrically opposed it.

The extension of individual ownership had contributed to the weakening of both family and community solidarity. As soon as property belonging to a family began to be divided up among the members of the group, or communal land was divided up among the families that formerly shared it or again when the tribal livestock was divided up amongst families and even among individual members of those families, the whole economic foundation of the traditional grouping was shaken. The interest of the individual usually predominated over that of the group and such a tendency could not but grow with the extension of personal property, the division of which was much easier than that of land.

It was, however, the remarkable upsurge of political and economic liberalism, especially after the French Revolution in 1789, that led to the increasing pre-eminence of the individual. The restrictions imposed by the old political regimes began to appear intolerable, no doubt to a large extent because they were not the product of deeply felt solidarity. In any case, all collective controls and all groups of whatever kind were condemned in the name of the freedom of the individual, since any group *ipso facto* postulates discipline and therefore restriction of freedom. All men are free and equal in the eyes of the law. This is not wishful thinking—it is a natural state of affairs. Anything that restricts this freedom is to be excluded in that it goes against “nature”. There are and should only be free individuals who, by their own free and equal wills,

decide to unite under a "social contract" that forms the basis of the organization of society. Hence the abolition of the administrative rules of the state or local authority, of trade guilds and of those family restrictions that shackle the individual. It means uprooting the age-old foundations of society. The individual was nothing—now he is everything. The natural solidarity of family, tribal or local groups is itself condemned. Even voluntary organization of solidarity within freely formed groups was rejected, since such groups, whether for economic, social or cultural reasons, were liable to infringe the liberty of their members through the obligations that membership involved. Freedom of association was never mentioned in the declarations of rights of that period.

The economic system built on this ideological foundation further increased this exclusion of solidarity. It was totally based on free competition which was held to provide the necessary conditions for progress. Stress was placed on competition: the more severe it became, the greater were the chances that advances would take place. It was the very antithesis of solidarity. Each man, having equal rights and being free to decide, had to make his own place in society through his own efforts. He must not count on others. The rule was: "Every man for himself"—a rule which was justified both by economic development and the legal and moral principles at the basis of society. Such was the philosophy of the liberal bourgeoisie, which controlled the whole economic and social organization of the advanced countries of the XIXth century. In such a philosophy there was no place for interdependence or solidarity either on the national or, *a fortiori*, on the international level. There was room for nothing but conflict and competition. It is remarkable that social co-operation did not completely disappear in societies where such a philosophy prevailed. The explanation is doubtless largely to be found in the ruling class's concern to organize the defence of the existing order. We should not forget that for a long time welfare action was mainly destined to preserve public order. It was not by chance that the "hôpitaux généraux" or the "dépôts de mendicité" in France and the "workhouses" in Britain approached the charitable institution and at the same time a kind of prison. All the poor were considered to be a threat to public order. Although it was a duty to help them, it was even more important

to protect oneself against them. This tendency was reinforced by the evolution of ideas in the XIXth century. If all men are free and equal and if, therefore, each is responsible for his own destiny, he who fails is guilty, since he has not striven as he should have done to obtain a better place in society. The concept of the "guilt of the poor" ran deep in the philosophy of the ruling classes at that time and eased their consciences a good deal. Welfare action was, therefore, not so much a demonstration of solidarity as a largely repressive attempt to protect society against those men who, having committed the crime of failing to make a success of their lives, threaten it.

It would, however, be unfair not to recognize that this attitude was often relaxed for moral reasons such as the concern to come to the aid of the weak, those unable to make the necessary efforts to succeed in life. The XIXth century also saw the spread of charitable organizations, frequently of a religious nature, but in any case reflecting the more or less vague sense of responsibility and moral duty of the rich towards the poor.

Thus, a kind of solidarity took shape, but it differed considerably from its predecessors. On the one hand, those who supported the established order became more or less aware of their interdependence with the social classes that were threatening that order and they sought means to offset that threat. On the other hand, the moneyed classes, without recognizing their solidarity with the poorer members of the population, assumed a certain moral obligation to help them. Neither point of view admitted to any natural solidarity among men, but only to a deliberate, co-ordinated effort to remedy certain imperfections in the organization of society.

While the concrete results achieved by this form of solidarity during the XIXth century should not be under-estimated, that solidarity should not be considered as adequate to meet the needs of the modern world. It was, in fact, the unilateral action of a wealthy minority for the masses, with which it had very little contact. It implied a vertical relationship between superior and inferior, excluding the very concept of interdependence. It was also restricted to relatively small geographical units, most often local, sometimes regional, rarely national, whereas present-day interdependence among men covers the whole of humanity. While

it did express the desire to aid the needy, it did not really express any profound or conscious feeling.

The end of the XIXth century and the beginning of the XXth saw the appearance of a new aspect of solidarity among men; it was an increasingly conscious solidarity, if not in all the socially and materially under-privileged, at least among a fair proportion of them. It was perhaps first and foremost the solidarity which found expression in the working-class movement, the realization among the vast wage-earning masses of their independence in the industrial world, as well as their awareness of the possibilities offered by their collective efforts. Later, there emerged the feeling of solidarity felt sometimes vaguely today by the peoples of under-developed or developing countries in dealing with the older, developed countries. It is natural for solidarity first to be felt by those whose isolation is a source of weakness and who can find hope for progress only in uniting their forces.

However, apart from these new tendencies, the success of socialist or socializing ideas since the second half of the XIXth century, as the conventional liberal ideology weakened, laid an ever-increasing emphasis on the responsibility of the collectivity, of the whole of society, towards its members. It was becoming more and more apparent that the weak were not criminals, but victims, that the law of competition, that is to say the idea that might was right, was not always, indeed was hardly ever, a just law. The desire for justice that was deeply felt by all men, and which was becoming more demanding as technical and economic progress brought the attainment of such justice within the realm of possibility, called for an ever-increasing social effort which could only be rooted in an ever-extending solidarity.

The broadening of the framework within which solidarity among men must be organized if it is to reach the highest degree of efficiency is but one of the manifestations of the growing interdependence of individuals in modern economic and social life. It is no longer possible to expect to improve man's lot through individual help, or even through efforts organized on a local basis within an undertaking or a trade. The repercussions of the measures taken on other geographical or occupational sectors, because of their very interdependence, would require the generalization, or at least the

harmonization of efforts. Nowadays, any social policy cannot but be a national policy. Tomorrow it will have to be an international policy. Is this not already expressed in the Treaty of Rome, which obliges the member countries of the European Economic Community to harmonize their social legislations? Is it not also, on a more general level, the very basis of the action undertaken by the International Labour Organisation since 1919?

Although this is the result of technical, economic and social necessities, since all the citizens of a country are closely interdependent and since this interdependence extends to men of different nations, it must be recognized that people are largely unaware of the solidarity that results from it. Within a family, an undertaking, a local grouping or an occupational group, daily personal relations, direct interchanges of ideas and services and the close community of interests and preoccupations almost naturally create reciprocal bonds of solidarity. Individuals become aware of the repercussions upon themselves of what happens to their neighbours. As the framework within which it must be organized broadens, solidarity is felt less and less. An effort must be made to understand and to admit that the lives of people several hundred or several thousand miles away and completely unknown to us can have repercussions on our own situation. Some do make this effort, all the more easily as they feel the weakness of their isolation. Others, more or less openly, refuse to do so, because it clashes with their privileged situation and perhaps could give them an uneasy conscience. One factor working against this awakening is the ever-growing shift from the working to the middle classes. No one likes to have his material and spiritual security disturbed. Naturally, such a disinclination is all the stronger when the solidarity involved concerns persons who belong to other races, living on far-flung continents, with whom there is but little affinity.

Hence the dichotomy: the increasing interdependence uniting all men nationally, internationally or on a world scale, on the one hand, and the insufficient awareness of the solidarity which that interdependence implies. There is inconvenience and danger in that dimorphous trend.

In the first place it was the resurgence of liberal ideas during the most recent period, the renewed confidence displayed, at least

in some countries, in free enterprise and market forces, which was the origin of a conflict between that tendency and the need for greater collective organizational effort to achieve solidarity in order to solve the social and human problems arising from contemporary evolutionary trends. This more or less latent conflict is detrimental to the efficacy of social policies and gives rise to a vague disquiet the real causes of which are frequently unrecognized.

Moreover, to the extent that social policies are not supported by the conscious solidarity of the populations they affect, to the extent that the reasoned actions decided by those in power are not recognized by the populations as the expression of their common will, the constraints which they imply are borne unwillingly and sometimes rejected. In any case, they might entail the institution of administrative machinery which, for the very reason that it is not backed up by the will of the people, tends to assume a purely bureaucratic character devoid of soul or human feeling.

At the same time, the under-privileged sections of the population, aware of their interdependence with the wealthier classes, feel that it is not recognized by the more affluent and that any claims they might make to the solidarity implied by such interdependence only come up against a brick wall. Very likely, they may get exasperated. Lack of understanding between each section, like that between the advanced and the developing populations, is aggravated, with the attendant risks which are inevitable and are already apparent. Social conflicts within each country, the claims by the countries of the Third World and the often strong antagonism they show against the privileged countries, are, *inter alia*, manifestations of that situation.

Experience has shown, incidentally, that conflicts between law and fact, particularly between technical and economic evolution on the one hand and psychological evolution on the other, always generate disturbances, conflict and war. Here lies the problem. Interdependence among men is a fact. But it is not translated, or only inadequately, into the legal organization of solidarity among men. And above all it does not find expression, at a psychological and moral level, in an awareness of the solidarity implied by that interdependence.

TEACHING SOLIDARITY

It might be thought that a remedy to this situation could be sought in the setting up of legal machinery to translate recognized interdependence into law. Various legislations offer examples of efforts to achieve that, either through the association of national workers' organizations in the management of economic and social interests, in the negotiation of agreements and in the resolving of disputes or by setting up national social security systems. Provided such systems extend to the whole population they do bring about effective and complete solidarity within that population as distinct from systems or institutions which are restricted to one or more enterprises or professional groups. Such institutions undoubtedly contribute to creating awareness of a form of solidarity which does not manifest itself spontaneously. But they are often inadequate and likely to resemble those bureaucratic and soulless administrations to which I referred earlier.

It is the entire spirit of the population that needs remodelling by persevering efforts and education in depth. An extensive education in solidarity must be undertaken. The content of that education should be designed to bring home to every member of the population their close interdependence and the obligations arising therefrom. It is, for example, important that young and old realize how much they depend on each other, the young having need of the experience of the old, and even of their very presence, which is necessary to the equilibrium of every social group; the old receiving from the young both their material subsistence and especially the means of retaining longer their vitality. It is no less important for all workers to feel their community of interests with the sick, the disabled, the unemployed and all who are, against their will, unable to work due to economic and social circumstances. It is perhaps even more important for the sections of a population belonging to the various economic and socio-cultural strata to be aware of their interdependence and not to feel strangers to each other if they do not wish to run the risk of a brutal and painful awakening.

Such education should aim to reach all ages and consequently the methods should be adapted to the characters of each. For the younger generation it is, of course, the school which should fulfil the essential role. For adults and the elderly, education in solidarity should be one of the essentials of the type of permanent education

which is increasingly held to be an essential basis of the economic and social organization to come. Permanent education is no doubt first conceived of as technical and professional training to enable everyone to adapt to the ever-quickenings changes occurring in occupational activities due to technical and economic progress. But it is not limited to that. It goes further than the vocational preoccupations; it is intended to facilitate access to all degrees of culture for all people as well as to enable everybody to fill the place which is their due and to play the role incumbent on them in a perpetually changing society. Some of its essential aspects revolve around family, civic, economic and social training which should all convey an awareness of the modern world's realities, and therefore of the interdependence and solidarity of men.

Such education cannot be solely or even mainly instructional. It should make wide use of all modern media such as the press, radio and television. It should also express itself in a concrete manner by continually bringing together people of different social strata so as to teach them to know each other and to assess the need each has of the others. It should be the same thing in school where children and adolescents from all walks of life should mingle; and in towns and countryside which should be designed so as to avoid segregation and in such a manner as to bring together people of different material, social, cultural and occupational levels, as well as of different ages; in the organization of leisure, the same kinds of pastimes and amusements should be open to all, thus promoting meetings between people of all origins. The establishment of conscious solidarity is greatly facilitated by mutual awareness of the interdependent sections of the population. Education thus becomes spontaneous through the relationships promoted by that awareness and by such contacts.

Social workers have an outstanding role to play in this educational effort. They are indeed the privileged instrument of social solidarity. Finding themselves at the point where institutions, legislations, individuals and families meet, they can and should give to the institutions and the legislations their humane quality by regulating their application to particular situations. At the same time they are in a better position than any one else to explain to the legislature, the public authorities and various institutions the

TEACHING SOLIDARITY

needs which must be satisfied. It also falls to them, through the contacts they make, by the educational work which is essential to their mission, to overcome social barriers and to convey to all the sections of society with which they are in touch a sense of their mutual solidarity.

The cultivation of solidarity has of course a chance of success only if it is admitted that, to the fullest possible extent, men should have equal chances in life. There can be no hope of establishing conscious solidarity between men and families separated by strict stratifications imposing inequalities. It is difficult to feel any solidarity with someone for whom there is no recognition as an equal or at least as a potential equal. In other words, a necessary postulate of solidarity teaching is democracy, whether it be called a liberal, a socialist or a people's democracy.

Such education is in theory easier to set afoot in a socialist state because the political philosophy of that state is itself dependent on the pre-eminence of collective interests over individual interests, on the total responsibility of the society towards its members and on a ceaseless search for the effective equality of all members of society. It is not certain that the individuals do in fact feel greater solidarity among themselves, but the educational effort undertaken to achieve that aim is naturally part and parcel of the general training, at all events of the civic training, of the population.

The situation is different in the liberal democracies because of the opposition between an ideology centred on the individual and on competition, on the one hand, and the necessary affirmation of the solidarity of all members of the community on the other. It is therefore all the more necessary to stress, in the training of youth and adults, that solidarity which should absolutely balance individualistic tendencies and offset the excesses of man's natural selfishness.

Although it is sometimes difficult to create awareness of solidarity among all the members of a nation, the difficulty is considerably greater when it is desired to arouse and develop that awareness on an international scale. It is true that when great disasters and spectacular suffering occur there is a surge of world conscience. But these occasional and exceptional manifestations of

generosity are not enough. What is required is a permanent feeling of solidarity among men of all origins.

This is far from having been achieved. It is well known how difficult it is, even within a country, to avoid hostility to or at least mistrust of foreigners. Migrants, despite the considerable contribution they make to the economy of a country, are all too often unwelcome, or in any case arouse unfavourable reactions which may or may not be spontaneous. They are rejected, entrenched within a situation of occupational, moral and social inferiority. Differences of language, customs and culture, sometimes of religion and race, set up barriers which it is difficult to overcome. It is only by dint of persevering efforts by the authorities, workers' organizations and social workers that prejudice is attenuated and migrants gradually assimilated in the new economic and social contexts, by losing their own characteristics. Their admission into the community involves in most cases the loss of their individuality, as if conscious solidarity could not be established except between men and women who, at least psychologically and culturally, have similar characteristics.

Yet the world today demands such solidarity, not only among the various sections of a country, but also among the varied populations of many countries. Political and economic interdependence among nations must lead to conscious solidarity among the men and women who form those nations. That is the necessary condition for the establishment of adequate harmony among men. It is the prerequisite of social progress. It is necessary for peace. Yet that conscious solidarity does not exist. Scientists may demonstrate the fundamental identity of men wherever they may live. Moralists may insist that all men are brothers. The fact is: men are not brothers. That was of limited inconvenience when distance and infrequency of exchanges and communications were natural barriers between populations. But now that people are in ever-closer touch with each other, it is a serious danger.

The instillation of international solidarity seems to be every day more necessary; not so much among nations as among men of different nations. This demands that international institutions like UNESCO should not only develop a more accurate and a more complete knowledge of human realities throughout the world, but

also that they should promote the introduction of programmes into the training of youth and adults alike, designed to establish that reciprocal understanding and that awareness of interdependence which constitute the foundation of all solidarity. It is not a matter of eliminating differences, such as cultural differences, which may be and often are productive in themselves, but of ensuring that they are discerned and recognized as natural phenomena, to a great extent worthy of respect.

Of course some of these differences betoken inequalities in the level of economic and cultural development. To that extent, solidarity establishes the right of the under-privileged to receive assistance to reduce that inequality, and to initiate or to continue their efforts towards the improvement of their situation. Various international institutions and several economically advanced countries have been trying to do that for the last several decades. Their efforts have been limited and, far from shrinking, the economic differences tend to grow under the combined impact of the demographic explosion in the backward countries—which all too frequently completely absorbs the increased wealth resulting from the growth of production—and the expansion of domestic investments by the advanced countries, stimulating their ever-accelerating technological progress.

The very arrangements made to enable the advanced countries to provide assistance to the developing countries are sometimes detrimental to the efficiency of that aid. Because of their relative weakness, the populations of developing countries are, in their nature, particularly oversensitive to measures which, even involuntarily, underline their inferiority. For that reason, multilateral assistance provided through international organizations is preferable to bilateral solutions where the two countries involved are not equal to each other. The tendency so far has been the reverse. Every country offering aid to another seeks some economic, political or cultural counterpart. What is worse, even assistance from international bodies is organized by men of various nationalities who, even if their concern is unselfish, cannot help but react in terms of their own nationality, culture and political trends, and thus more or less favour those countries of which they are nationals. Assistance and technical co-operation are for that reason more or

less vaguely felt by the beneficiaries to be tainted with self interest, the more so as in the countries financing that aid or providing that co-operation the inhabitants often show little enthusiasm for the effort requested of them and for which they see no justification.

The explanation lies once again in the lack or inadequacy of those populations' conscious solidarity with those requiring assistance. They do not yet understand that nowadays everything which occurs in some part of the world has repercussions in other parts. The unequal distribution of demographic growth, the inequality of wealth, standards of living and opportunities for progress, and especially the all too frequent stress laid on that inequality, are all medium or long-term threats to the privileged populations today. Regardless of any moral consideration, it is in their own interest to draw the lessons to be learnt from the interdependence of contemporary economic and social systems.

But that result can be achieved only if, as well as governments and the elite, the mass of populations become genuinely and profoundly aware of this interdependence and feel their full solidarity. Once again, the key to the future is in the teaching of solidarity.

Pierre LAROQUE

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

**Reaffirmation and Development of International
Humanitarian Law Applicable in Armed Conflicts**

CONFERENCE OF RED CROSS EXPERTS

GENEVA, 28 OCTOBER 1970

Circular No. 481

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

Ladies and Gentlemen,

In its circular No. 478 of 15 April 1970, the International Committee of the Red Cross had the honour to inform you of its work since the XXIst International Conference of the Red Cross with a view to the reaffirmation and development of international humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts, consistent with several resolutions adopted by that conference.

The International Committee stressed also its desire to associate closely, as usual, the National Societies in this important undertaking and its readiness, if National Societies giving special attention to these problems so desired, to convene them to a conference at which they might exchange views among themselves and with it.

The International Committee is pleased to inform you that, in view of the favourable response from many Societies, it has decided

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

to organize, for the beginning of next year, a conference to which Societies specially interested in these problems may delegate experts. In addition, as it had the pleasure of stating at the informative meeting it held last September, during the meeting of the League Executive Committee, the Netherlands Red Cross, in keeping with the active interest it has always shown for this work, has kindly offered to welcome the conference in the Peace Palace (at the premises of the International Law Academy), in The Hague. It will therefore be in that town that the conference, which the International Committee will convene in agreement with the Netherlands Red Cross, will take place from 1 to 6 March 1971.

The results of the meeting, which will be of a purely Red Cross character, may be communicated to the Conference of Government Experts which will take place three months later in Geneva, from 24 May to 12 June 1971, and which some forty government experts will attend.

As customary for such meetings, travel expenses and the cost of staying in The Hague will be borne by the delegations. The Netherlands Red Cross will shortly send all National Societies relevant information on arrangements for the meeting and accommodation in The Hague.

The main purpose of the meeting will be to proceed to a wide exchange of views on the matters dealt with in several of the International Committee's reports on the reaffirmation and development of international humanitarian law to the XXIst International Conference and which are, *inter alia*, the subject matters of that Conference's resolutions XIII to XVIII. A list of these subjects is attached hereto. In the framework of this exchange of views, National Societies may raise problems which are of increasing concern to the International Red Cross by reason of the armed conflicts and tensions which have arisen in the last few years and which often place heavy responsibility for practical action upon the shoulders of National Societies.

The International Committee should be grateful to National Societies if they would let it have their suggestions concerning the enclosed list of subjects for discussion. A more detailed provisional programme—for which the International Committee will take into consideration suggestions received—will in due course

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be sent to National Societies. They will also receive a copy of the documentary material, accompanied by concrete proposals, which the International Committee is preparing for the meeting of governmental experts and which it will send to the governments concerned at the beginning of next year.

As mentioned in its aforesaid circular, the International Committee is maintaining close liaison with the United Nations, particularly its Secretary-General. Consistent with the co-operation recommended by the UN General Assembly resolution 2597 (XXIV), it has periodically supplied the UN Secretary-General with documents and information on the legal studies under way and it is following with attention the work of the twenty-fifth session of the General Assembly, particularly that relating to its agenda item 47: " Respect for Human Rights in Armed Conflicts ".

In order to make the necessary arrangements for the organization of the meeting, in co-operation with the Netherlands Red Cross, the International Committee asks National Societies which intend to delegate one or more experts to the meeting to advise it thereof as soon as possible and not later than the end of November 1970.

Yours sincerely,

For the International Committee
of the Red Cross

Marcel A. NAVILLE
President

* * *

ANNEX

I. List of subjects for discussion

In the following list, the indications between brackets under each chapter-heading are not exhaustive and are mentioned chiefly as examples. The list does not prejudice that the International Committee of the Red Cross will suggest that the Conference should examine these items in the order given.

1. *Measures intended to reinforce the implementation, in armed conflicts, of existing international humanitarian law*
(Dissemination of humanitarian principles and rules, national legislation for their application and instructions to be given to the armed forces—reinforcement of rules relative to the supervision of the regular observance of existing law and to the sanction of violations—Protecting Powers and their substitutes—problem of reprisals).
2. *Strengthening of the protection of civilian populations against dangers of hostilities*
(Reaffirmation of the immunity of the civilian population as such—distinction to be observed between non-military elements and military objectives in case of attacks—precautions to be taken as to fighting methods or the choice between different means of combat in order to spare the population—precautions to be taken by the authorities of the State to which it belongs—creation of zones or localities enjoying a particular status in view of their special protection—guarantees to be afforded to the personnel of non-military civil defence bodies).
3. *Humanitarian rules relative to behaviour between combatants*
(Reaffirmation and determination of the rules limiting needless forms of suffering and prohibiting certain methods of warfare: treatment of an enemy who surrenders—quarter—prohibited ruses—violation of protected emblems—problem of parachutists).
4. *Protection of victims of non-international armed conflicts*
(Notion and qualification of non-international armed conflicts—effective observance and development of rules applicable in these conflicts and which concern the treatment of victims and the conduct of hostilities—possible extension of certain rules to situations of internal disturbances and tensions).
5. *Status of combatants and the problem of guerrilla warfare*
(Possible definition and development of humanitarian rules with regard to the qualification of combatants, as well as the status and treatment of prisoners—rules relative to the conduct of hostilities in guerrilla warfare and duties incumbent upon parties to the conflict to spare the civilian population).
6. *Protection of the wounded and sick*
(Strengthening of existing guarantees—protection and marking of civilian medical personnel—strengthening of the safety of civilian medical transports and the problem of marking them—extension of certain rules to non-international armed conflicts).

**II. XXIst International Conference of the Red Cross—
Reports and Resolutions on Subjects for Discussion
by the Conference**

*A. Reports submitted by ICRC to XXIst International Conference
of the Red Cross (Istanbul, September 1969)*

- Reaffirmation and Development of Laws and Customs Applicable in Armed Conflicts (Geneva, May 1969) D.S. 4a,b,e
- Protection of Victims of Non-International Conflicts (Geneva, May 1969) D.S. 5a,b
- Implementation and Dissemination of the Geneva Conventions (Geneva, April 1969) D.S. 3/1 a & b
- Status of Civil Defence Personnel (Geneva, May 1969) D.S. 4c
- The Protection of Civilian Medical and Nursing Personnel in Time of Conflict (Geneva, February 1969) D.S. 4d/1
- Respect of the Geneva Conventions—Measures taken to Repress Violations (Geneva, March 1969) D.S. 3/3

*B. Resolutions of the XXIst International Conference of the Red
Cross (Istanbul, September 1969)*

- Resolution XIII Reaffirmation and Development of the Laws and Customs Applicable in Armed Conflicts
 - Resolution XIV Weapons of Mass Destruction
 - Resolution XV Status of Civil Defence Personnel
 - Resolution XVI Protection of Civilian Medical and Nursing Personnel
 - Resolution XVII Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts
 - Resolution XVIII Status of Combatants in Non-International Armed Conflicts
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RED CROSS RELIEF ACTION IN JORDAN

In its last issue, the *International Review* published an article on the assistance provided to victims of the civil war in Jordan since it broke out. We gave some details of the development of the vast and swift relief action undertaken by the Red Cross, up to the end of September 1970 and which was rendered possible thanks to the generous aid from a great number of Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun National Societies, to which the ICRC had appealed on 24 September. In order to give a more vivid picture of the growing and increasingly imperative undertaking, we shall set forth the more significant events as they succeeded each other during October, bringing our summary up to the end of that month ¹.

By 2 October, National Societies of the following countries had announced that they had despatched to Jordan medical teams and delegates, in addition to relief supplies which included medicaments, blood plasma, surgical equipment, foodstuffs, blankets, clothing, electric generators and generating sets:

Algeria, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany (Federal Republic), Iran, Japan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Romania, Saudi Arabia, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, USA and Yugoslavia.

In view of the volume of requirements and the pressing demands for them, the ICRC launched on 6 and 9 October two further appeals, specifying the relief supplies required in medicaments and foodstuffs as well as the conditions under which they would be distributed.

¹ *Plate.*

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At the same time, Mr. Kai Warras, head of the Red Cross relief co-ordinating group for Jordan, had left Geneva on a short mission to Amman. The main object of his voyage was to find out where the ICRC stood with the Inter-Arab Committee Relief Commission for the victims of the recent conflict. This commission, set up to co-ordinate relief sent by Arab countries, consisted of one representative from each of the Arab States, delegates of various agencies (UNRWA, CARE, etc) and members of the Jordan Red Crescent Society and of the "Palestinian Red Crescent Society".

Following consultations with the Prime Ministers of Jordan and Tunisia, the Jordanian Ministers of Health and National Economy, the Chairman of the Inter-Arab Commission and the Director of UNRWA, it was decided that in October the ICRC would continue to co-ordinate medical aid and to distribute relief sent directly to it. The Inter-Arab Commission would deal with relief reaching it through National Red Crescent Societies.

A three-week relief programme, ending on 31 October 1970, was set up. The ICRC and National Societies were to provide medicaments and necessary equipment for eleven Red Cross Hospitals containing about one thousand wounded, to supply all the food requirements of these hospitals and to aid those needy families not receiving assistance from UNRWA (about a thousand families). This programme was estimated to cost 2,300,000 Swiss francs.

On 15 October, the relief action was being operated in Jordan by 14 medical teams from 12 countries and comprising about 500 persons. Eight teams were working in the Amman hospitals, three in those of Wadi Sir and one in each hospital at Marka, Jerash and Zarka, caring for Jordanian and Palestinian wounded.

At that date, Governments of the following countries had announced the setting up of field hospitals in Jordan and the despatch of doctors and gifts consisting of aircraft, cash, foodstuffs and medicaments:

Abu Dhabi, Belgium, Canada, Dubai, France, Greece, Israel, Italy, Netherlands, Qatar, Switzerland, USA and URSS. Other gifts were sent by the European Common Market (foodstuffs), by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (cash for the

RED CROSS RELIEF ACTION IN JORDAN



Amman, September 1970: after the civil war.

Photos UNO GRÖNKVIST



Preparation for food distribution by a National Red Cross Society delegate.



Food for children.



Arrival of blood plasma at a Red Cross warehouse...



...and delivery to Amman's various hospitals.



Red Cross doctors tend the wounded and sick in a hospital.

benefit of refugees within its purview), and by several non-governmental organizations (cash and medicaments), including notably the "Secours populaire français", the "Centre de transfusion de Lyon" (France), OXFAM, CARE and the Lutheran World Federation.

From 1 to 15 October, the ICRC delegation in Amman received 211 tons of food and medical supplies flown in from Beirut by its two aircraft displaying the red cross emblem. This brought to 369 tons the total relief sent by the ICRC alone from Lebanon to Amman since the beginning of the relief action.

The total cost of the Jordan relief operations was estimated to amount to ten million Swiss francs. The ICRC had disbursed by 15 October over one million Swiss francs. The total of cash donations received by or promised to the ICRC was at that date 1,328,000 Swiss francs.

The ICRC delegates also continued the duties incumbent on the institution under the Geneva Conventions. On 3 October they visited a prisoner of war camp at Ain Ghazaleh, near Amman, where they saw about a hundred civilian detainees. On 6 October they saw 1,165 prisoners of war at the Zarka military camp, several of whom they interviewed in private. According to the agreements concluded between Jordanians and Palestinians, these prisoners were to be rapidly released.

In addition, four of the ICRC delegation's staff were engaged in tracing missing persons, in co-operation with local authorities. The Central Tracing Agency in Geneva and the ICRC delegation in Amman had already received thousands of letters. By 15 October, 10,700 family messages sent via Geneva, or from Beirut and the West Bank of the Jordan, by the delegation's tracing service in Amman had been forwarded to the addressees. Preliminary reports indicated that progress in the tracing of missing persons was satisfactory.

At the end of October, ICRC delegates in Beirut, Amman and Damascus were continuing to discharge the duties laid down in the Geneva Conventions, on behalf of the victims of the civil war.

* * *

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On 26 October, the total number of persons taking part in the International Red Cross action consisted of the following:

ICRC personnel

- *Amman* : 23 persons (2 delegates, 6 administrators, 2 doctors, 11 relief experts and 2 radio operators);
- *Beirut* : 6 persons (1 delegate, 2 administrators, 1 relief expert and 2 radio operators);
- *Damascus* : 2 persons (1 delegate and 1 radio operator).

Medical teams

There were still some 500 persons among the medical teams sent by the Governments or National Societies of Denmark, France, Germany (Federal Republic), Sweden, United Kingdom, USA and USSR.

OUTLOOK

The three-week programme set up at the beginning of October 1970 by the Red Cross relief co-ordinating group in Jordan came to an end on 31 October. With the object of discussing final measures to be taken for distributing supplies and continuing medical assistance, Mr. Kai Warras, head of the group, went to Amman from 19 to 26 October 1970.

At the request of the Jordanian Government and Red Crescent, and of the "Palestinian Red Crescent", the co-ordinating group is to continue in November its action in certain sectors: it will supervise distributions of relief carried out by the two Red Crescent Societies and will organize the reception of medicaments, food and equipment promised by donors, through its delegation in Beirut; moreover, it will ensure that long-term medical treatment needed by some 150 civilian wounded will be prolonged.

Relief supplies still to come in for Amman from now until 15 November will be forwarded by road, as the situation does not warrant their despatch by air freight any longer.

As regards the wounded in Amman, their treatment will be assumed by the Red Cross, while those in the rest of Jordan will be taken care of by the Jordanian Ministry of Health.

During the early days of the conflict, a number of wounded had been flown out, some of them on ICRC planes, to neighbouring countries for treatment. By the end of October, 79 out of 160 persons carried to Lebanon had already been repatriated and a further 50 were to return early in November.

Arrangements for wounded to be treated in other countries were as follows: the "Palestinian Red Crescent" arranged for 210 wounded to be treated in Syria and 300 in Iraq; the Kuwait Red Crescent Societies took 23, while the British authorities had flown out 18 persons to Cyprus and had them treated in hospital there.

On 28 October, Red Cross personnel in Jordan still consisted of 500 persons among the medical teams made available to the ICRC by Governments or National Societies of nine different countries (Denmark, Finland, France, Germany (Federal Republic), Kuwait, Sweden, United Kingdom, USA and USSR).

In accordance with the decisions taken, several of these teams were to return very soon, each to its own country. Some of the others were to prolong their stay and continue to care for wounded in the King Hussein Hospital. Later, the ICRC was to set up, in co-operation with the Jordanian Ministry of Health, a more extended long-term programme.

Thus, a third phase of the action started on 1 November; an account of it will be given next month. It has already been found that this whole undertaking has strengthened most usefully the links between National Societies, the ICRC and the League of Red Cross Societies, and that it has proved to be a real demonstration of solidarity within the International Red Cross. In the words of Dr. Ali Fourati, President of the Tunisian Red Crescent, as he paid tribute to all those who had worked unsparingly in Jordan, "faith in the Red Cross is unbounded".

THE CIVIL WAR IN JORDAN

An Episode in the Life of an ICRC Delegate

We know what work is carried out by the ICRC delegates in Jordan ; we know that, thanks to them and their intervention, as soon as it was possible the relief mission of the ICRC, aided by the National Societies, could be started and developed. One of the delegates in Amman during the civil war, Mr. Louis Jaquinet, relates below some incidents in the danger-fraught life of a delegate during a crisis.

Wednesday evening, 16 September 1970, in Amman, and all is calm—too calm. No shots tearing the silence; no cars roaming the streets. The feddayeen are at their posts in the trench they have dug at the corner of the delegation and in the building under construction on the other side of the road, their ammunition beside them ready to hand. The barricades of old tyres are no longer ready to be set alight; they have disappeared.

The royal army, easily recognized by its black or red berets, has also disappeared from the town, having withdrawn to the outskirts. I take the opportunity of sending a message by our radio to the ICRC in Geneva, asking it to prepare, as a matter of urgency, a medical team and relief supplies.

We are accustomed to hearing firing every night, but tonight none occurs. At 4.30 in the morning I go out onto the delegation balcony, on the top storey of a stone house. The town is still peaceful until, suddenly, from the hills to the west, I see a red flare rise, followed by another to the south; at that very instant a bullet smashes my window and flattens itself against a wall of my room. It seems to be the starting shot for the fighting.

A feddayee comes up to our floor and installs himself with his bazooka in the flat which had been evacuated a few days earlier.

He starts firing at the armoured cars patrolling the streets. My three colleagues, roused by the firing, join me in the vestibule and we crouch against the wall for shelter. Just then a shell from a tank comes through the adjoining flat, pierces the wall and explodes inside the building. We go down to the living-room and with up-turned armchairs and a mattress improvise a protection of sorts.

From the outset of the fighting, water, electricity and telephone have been cut off. The generator for our radio has been damaged and we are out of touch with the outside world. For four hours we are unable to move: fighting is going on even in our corridor. In the meantime another shell smashes its way through the roof and reduces our balcony to a shambles. Bullets are whining all over the place.

Four hours later a lull occurs. We rush down to the ground floor where there are already fifteen other people. We are stuck there for four days while fighting goes on day and night.

On the third day a Bedouin patrol comes in looking for fedayeen. We hastily write a note to an embassy with communications with the outside world to advise Geneva that its four delegates are safe and sound.

Why does the fighting last so long? Because the royal troops from their armoured cars are firing at windows where they think there are fedayeen, or they fling grenades, but they do not occupy the buildings. During the night the fedayeen who have withdrawn move back into their positions and in the morning the fighting starts all over again.

On the morning of the fifth day, during a truce, we are relieved to see an ICRC car pull up, flying the Red Cross flag. A doctor-delegate, Dr. Spirgi, has been able to leave his hotel and comes to take us to the Jordan hotel which, in spite of a few broken windows, is far more comfortable than the delegation where we spent the previous four days.

At last the situation enables us to start our work as ICRC delegates in this devastated city where help is so desperately needed.

*EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES***Middle East****Israel and the occupied territories**

Visit to U.A.R. sailors.—On 5 September, Israeli naval craft picked up in the sea several men from the wrecked Greek vessel “ Maria Kristina ”. There were among them 14 sailors of Egyptian nationality. The ICRC delegation visited them on 7 September, and on 12 September they were released under ICRC auspices.

Visits to prisoners of war.—On 13 September, ICRC delegates visited the military camp at Sarafand where they saw 69 Egyptian (whom they visited again on 18 October) 10 Lebanese and 38 Syrian prisoners of war. They also saw a Jordanian prisoner of war. On 20 September, they visited the same place of detention and saw a Syrian prisoner of war who had been captured on 10 September by Israeli Armed Forces.

Visit to Algerian detainees.—On 8 October, ICRC delegates visited for the eighth time two Algerian nationals held since 14 August last. On 14 October, these two persons were released by the Israeli authorities.

Visits to places of detention.—In September, ICRC delegates carried out their eleventh series of visits to prisons in Israel and the occupied territories, in the course of which they saw 3,307 prisoners held in 15 places of detention and talked with detainees of their own choice without witnesses.

Standard ICRC parcels of fruit, biscuits and cigarettes were distributed to 490 detainees who had not been visited by relatives for at least three months.

Syria

On 10 October the ICRC delegates in Syria again visited 3 Israeli prisoners of war: two captains captured by the Syrian armed forces on 2 April 1970 and one lieutenant captured on 26 June 1970.

Yemen Arab Republic

Milk Centre.—The distribution of milk to children in Hodeidah and Sana'a, started by the ICRC in August 1970, has proved its worth. The quantity issued daily is 1,000 litres.

In accordance with a decision reached by the ICRC in close liaison with the League and the Yemeni Red Crescent, the milk centre was handed over on 30 September, lock, stock and barrel, to the Yemeni Red Crescent which henceforth carries on the distributions. The ICRC will supply the National Society with the necessary milk powder, most of which is provided by the Swiss government.

ICRC artificial limb workshop.—In September the ICRC artificial limb workshop in Sana'a, the inauguration of which we announced last month, treated 117 patients, 17 of them new amputees. On 15 September, 10 one-legged patients began training to wear an artificial limb; seven began walking exercises with trial limbs. So far 14 people have been fitted definitively with artificial limbs. The physiotherapy department has treated 6 hemiplegia patients.

The ICRC also distributed 5 wheelchairs and 7 pairs of crutches.

Republic of Vietnam

In September 1970, ICRC delegates in the Republic of Vietnam visited six places of detention. They went to the collecting centres of Tan An, Bong San, An Khê and Phan Thiết of the American Armed Forces, and to the Vietnamese correctional institution of Phan Thiết. They also visited the Vietnamese Military Hospital at Vang Tan.

In all these places, delegates enquired into detention conditions. Their reports are sent to the detaining authorities.

At the beginning of October 1970, the delegates went to the Phu-Quoc prisoner of war camp.

Cambodia

Visits to refugee camps.—ICRC delegates in Cambodia continued their programme of visits to Cambodian and Vietnamese refugee camps.

They went recently to the Cao-Dai centre for Vietnamese at Phnom-Penh, where 156 persons from Kompong-Thom have been living; they will soon be repatriated.

Early in October, a delegate and a doctor-delegate of the ICRC, accompanied by a representative of the Cambodian Red Cross, made a trip through Cambodia to visit several camps for Vietnamese refugees.

On 2 October they went to Kompong Chhnang where they saw about one thousand Vietnamese living in floating villages.

In Battambang province, there are over 4,000 Vietnamese refugees, grouped in several camps: in the town of Battambang (997 persons), Poipet (420 families, or 2,135 persons), Maung (154 persons), Sankai (726 persons) and Banân (44 persons).

On 3 October, the delegates visited Vietnamese refugees in the western part of the province, in O-Chreou district, where 2,474 persons have been provided with shelter in two camps. On the return journey, they went to the Khmero-Japanese Friendship Hospital at Mongkol-Borei near Sisophon.

There were, then, 6,824 Cambodian refugees distributed among 23 centres, not counting 925 Cambodians still at the "Jeunesse de Sauvetage" camp at Phnom-Penh.

Distribution of ICRC relief supplies.—ICRC delegates in Phnom-Penh delivered to the Cambodian Red Cross, for displaced persons, material and clothing and 16 cartons of antibiotics. The sum of 8,000 Swiss francs was also handed over by ICRC delegates to the Cambodian Red Cross to cover part of the freight costs of Japanese supplies sent from Kompong-Thom to Phnom-Penh.

Laos

Assistance to displaced persons.—ICRC delegates handed over to the fathers of the Roman Catholic Mission medicaments for displaced persons, of whom there are 4,000 in Ban Keun (70 kms. from Vientiane) and 8,500 in Phônè Hong (on the road to Luang Prabang).

Visit to Prisoners of War.—On 10 October 1970, the ICRC delegates in Laos visited 8 prisoners of war who were released a few days later by the Laos authorities.

Hong Kong

A delegate of the ICRC in Hong Kong recently visited Stanley Prison. He saw there 74 prisoners detained for political offences or other reasons, and talked to detainees of his own choice without witnesses.

The first visit to be carried out by the ICRC to Stanley Prison took place in 1967 and was followed by others at regular intervals.

Greece

The ICRC continued the mission it began on 24 November 1969, consistent with its agreement with the Greek Government.

Its delegates visited the Piraeus suburban hospital of Limodon Noson Aghia Barbara (gendarmerie, 3 September), the Athens General Hospital and the Aghios Pavlos hospital (Athens Police, on 4 and 5 September), the prisons of Egine, Trikkala, Eptapyrgion in Salonica, Kalami in Crete (gendarmerie, on 13, 14, 16 and 17 September), and the prison of Corfu (Athens Police, on 18 September), the Oropos camp (gendarmerie, on 22 September), and the women's section of the Averof prison (Athens Police, on 23 September).

In all these places of detention the delegates were free to go where they wished and to interview detainees without witnesses. Their findings, as customary, are reported to the Greek Government.

In co-operation with the Ministry of Social Welfare, the delegation started on 23 September a material assistance programme

for the benefit of some thousand needy families whose main breadwinner had, for one reason or another, been in detention for more than two years. In addition, pharmaceutical products and sundry medical articles (e.g. prostheses, orthopaedic trusses, spectacles, etc.) were also given to needy persons on submission of a medical prescription.

Colombia

Continuing his mission in Latin America,¹ Mr. E. Leeman, delegate of the ICRC, visited in Colombia 15 places of detention where he saw 150 detainees imprisoned for political offences or other political reasons.

The ICRC delegate was afforded by the authorities every facility to discharge his humanitarian mission. He freely interviewed detainees of his own choice without witnesses.

During his stay in Bogota, he also met leaders of the Colombian Red Cross Society.

Ecuador

Continuing the mission he began on 6 September, Mr. E. Leemann, ICRC delegate, went to Ecuador. Having received all the requisite facilities from the authorities, he visited nine detention centres where he saw some forty persons detained for political reasons.

Since the beginning of 1969, the ICRC has been permitted to visit places of detention in twelve Latin American countries, namely: Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru and Venezuela.

¹ See *International Review*, Oct. 1970.

*IN GENEVA***Death of Mr. F. Barbey, honorary member of the ICRC**

It was with regret that the International Committee learnt of the death, on 21 October 1970, of Mr. Frédéric Barbey, who was co-opted to the ICRC in 1915 and was at that time active in the work of the International Prisoners of War Agency. In 1921 he became an honorary member and in 1938 again dedicated himself fully to the work of the Red Cross. Devoting himself unstintingly to the institution as soon as the Second World War broke out, as he had done during the First World War, he gave invaluable assistance. *International Review* had occasion in June 1947, when Mr. Barbey had again become an honorary member of the institution, to mention the important part he played in helping the ICRC to discharge its mission. The following extract from that article concerns his work from 1939 onwards:

“ Mr. Barbey devoted the greater part of his time, with exemplary dedication, to the International Committee’s war work for the whole duration. He was a member of the Bureau and of the early Commissions and his experience and advice were a great benefit to his colleagues. He supervised the huge amount of mail despatched each day and was the International Committee’s representative to the League of Red Cross Societies. Mr. Barbey officially visited prisoner-of-war camps in France, particularly during December 1939 ”.

The International Committee has expressed its condolences to Mr. Barbey’s family and will always remember him with gratitude.

Guests of the ICRC

On 2 October Princess Beatrix and Prince Claus of the Netherlands visited the International Committee, where they were welcomed by Mr. Marcel A. Naville, President of the ICRC, Mr. Jean Pictet, Committee member, and senior officials. After an address on the ICRC's current activities, they visited the Central Tracing Agency.

A group of Yugoslav parliamentarians, Mr. R. Komatina, President of the Socio-Political Council, who led the delegation, Mr. M. Neoricic, Mr. Novak, Mr. A. Petkovsek, Dr. T. Hrabac, Dr. B. Petrovska and Mr. H. Mustafa, was welcomed on 15 October at ICRC headquarters by the President of the ICRC, by Mr. Jean Pictet, Committee Member, and by senior officials.

For Victims of pseudo-medical experiments

The Neutral Commission set up by the ICRC to make assessments of the claims submitted by victims of pseudo-medical experiments made on former detainees of German concentration camps now living in Poland met from 30 September to 3 October 1970 at the headquarters of the ICRC in Geneva. Compensation totalling the sum of DM 3,110,000.—was allocated to 113 persons, whose claims were found to be valid. This brings the total paid by the Federal Republic of Germany, as a result of the Neutral Commission's decisions, to Polish victims of pseudo-medical experiments to DM 26,430,000.—.

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

LEAGUE OF RED CROSS SOCIETIES

Various meetings took place in Geneva in September 1970 and were attended by more than 150 delegates and observers representing some sixty National Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun Societies. The most important meeting was the Executive Committee which, every two years, decides the general League policy between the sessions of the Board of Governors. Meetings of several advisory and statutory bodies of the institution preceded it. Below we mention particularly the work of three of them:

Health and Social Service. The work of this Advisory Committee concerned: the scope for Red Cross social work, the training of social workers and the participation of National Societies in the training of nursing aids and medical teams to serve the community. Other items on the agenda included pollution, organ transplants, drug addiction among youth, and scope for Red Cross action in these particular fields.

The present-day problem of drug addiction among youth was discussed at a joint meeting of the Advisory Committees on Youth and Health and Social Service. Papers submitted by three National Societies and the World Health Organization representative highlighted the extreme complexity of the problem which varies considerably from one culture to another and from one country to another, with the consequent impossibility of setting up a programme applicable to all parts of the world. This is however a field in which the Red Cross has a definite role to play in prevention and rehabilitation.

Youth.—Some of the problems examined by the Advisory Committee were: the need for greater youth participation in Red Cross activities, the adaptation of action programmes to the aspirations

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

of to-day's youth, the training of senior members and the analysis of results obtained at meetings and seminars organized by various countries. In his opening address, the League Secretary-General pointed out that the first task was to examine how to associate youth more closely with the work of the Red Cross and thereby to encourage improved relationships between adults and youth.

Concerning the Red Cross and peace, the delegates considered that one of the most effective ways by which our movement could contribute to peace was to encourage meetings of young people regionally and internationally thereby promoting among participants to such meetings a comprehensive attitude towards other nations and cultures, and favouring lasting friendship.

The Board of Governors, at Istanbul, had adopted a resolution recommending the League, in co-operation with the ICRC, to draw up a programme for youth education for peace based on an analysis to define the content thereof and the ways and means of implementing it. The first step to give effect to that resolution was a study of Junior Red Cross objectives and of results already achieved. The study had been undertaken by the Henry Dunant Institute at the League's request.

Relief.—Several subjects of major importance for the League, as the main agency responsible for the international co-ordination of relief in the event of disaster, were examined by the Advisory Committee. Some of these were: assistance to National Societies in the organization of relief and in preparing for disaster situations; regional Red Cross centres for disaster relief; recruitment and training of personnel for international relief; scientific knowledge in relief action co-ordination.

LEAGUE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Under the chairmanship of Mr. José Barroso, Chairman of the League Board of Governors, the 88th session of the Executive Committee took place from 23 to 25 September.

After an address by the League Secretary-General, Mr. Henrik Beer, on the institution's recent activities and on its plans for 1971-1972, a number of resolutions were adopted. In a resolution

on the *Red Cross and Events in Jordan*, the Executive Committee gave its whole-hearted

support to the efforts of the International Committee of the Red Cross to protect and assist military and civilian victims, and invited the League and its Member Societies to back up those efforts, in particular by making available all financial and material resources as well as the personnel needed to ensure the effective conduct of a relief action and thereby help to save the victims of that conflict.

In its resolution No 2 on *Red Cross Assistance to the Victims of Air Hijacking*, the Executive Committee deprecates air piracy and:

Takes note with deep satisfaction of the humanitarian action recently taken by the International Committee of the Red Cross to protect and liberate passengers of seized planes,

Realizing that the National Red Cross Societies can through their services also contribute to improving the fate of such victims,

Invites the National Societies of the countries where seized planes have landed and where the passengers and crews are detained to make every effort to bring them relief and comfort, until such time as they can regain their freedom, and to get into touch with the Societies of the home countries of the passengers so that their families may receive information and reassurance.

In its resolution No. 4, the Executive Committee decided on the provisional admission of the Botswana Red Cross Society to membership of the League, the ICRC having officially recognized that Society in February 1970. The Executive Committee in the same resolution authorized the Committee of the Chairman and Vice-Chairmen to admit provisionally the Malawi Red Cross Society as soon as the formalities for admission had been completed. The Malawi Red Cross Society was recognized by the ICRC in July 1970.

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

25th ANNIVERSARY OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The United Nations Organization, on 24 October, United Nations Day 1970, celebrated the 25th anniversary of the entry into force of the UN Charter signed at San Francisco in 1945. The UN Secretary-General, U Thant, referred to that event in a message which concluded as follows:

“Squalid poverty lives side by side with over-abundance on our Earth. We have reached the Moon but we have not yet reached each other. Many species of our co-inhabitants on the globe from the bird and animal world have forever disappeared. Many beautiful rivers have become sewers endangering the oceans. We must heed the omens. It is time for Governments to make a fresh start and to lift themselves again to the same high level, if not a higher level, of vision and determination as that of the authors of the Charter. We must give the Charter a real chance at last. We must pass from words to deeds. We must pass from rights to obligations. We must pass from self-interest to mutual interest. We must pass from partial peace to total peace.”

The International Institutions of the Red Cross were associated with this celebration of the 25th anniversary. The ICRC sent the UN Secretary-General the following cable signed by its President:

Now that the UN is celebrating the 25th anniversary of its foundation, the International Committee of the Red Cross has directed me to convey its congratulations and good wishes for the untiring efforts exerted by your Organization in favour of world peace.

Thanks to dialogue possibilities it offers to countries concerned, UN for 25 years has warded off many devastating conflicts and its specialized agencies have provided rapid and effective aid to populations a prey to famine, disease and disaster.

International Committee gratified by excellent contacts it maintains with your Organization in field of humanitarian law and thanks you for the interest you have always displayed in its activities.

It pays tribute to the UN and wishes it full success for its efforts in decades to come.

The Executive Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies, at its 88th session, voted a resolution (No. 3) conveying to the United Nations Organization "its congratulations on the work done in difficult and often dramatic circumstances and its best wishes for its future activities".

ASSISTANCE IN NATURAL DISASTER

During its 49th session, held in Geneva in July 1970, the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations examined once again the problems relative to assistance in cases of natural disaster.

After having heard the Secretary-General of the League of Red Cross Societies and having taken note of a letter from the International Committee of the Red Cross, in which the latter associated itself with the statements made by the League representative, the Economic and Social Council adopted the following resolution:

1546 (XLIX). Assistance in cases of natural disaster

The Economic and Social Council,

Recalling General Assembly resolution 2034 (XX) of 7 December 1965 and 2435 (XXIII) of 19 December 1968, on Assistance in cases of natural disaster,

Noting its resolution 1518 (XLIX) of 10 July 1970 concerning Measures to be taken following the earthquake in Peru,

Having in mind its resolution 1533 (XLIX) of 23 July 1970 in which it recommended that the States Members of the United Nations establish an emergency fund for disasters, to be made up of voluntary contributions from all States Members of the United Nations and members of the specialized agencies,

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Having considered with interest the interim report of the Secretary-General on assistance in cases of natural disaster,¹

Aware not only of the cost in human life and suffering but also of the serious implications, for social and economic development, of natural disasters especially in the developing countries,

Noting with appreciation the important contributions to disaster relief and rehabilitation made by Governments, the many United Nations organizations concerned, and by the League of Red Cross Societies and other voluntary agencies,

Mindful of the need to strengthen and make more effective the capacity of the United Nations system to assist countries stricken by natural disasters as stressed by experience in connexion with the natural catastrophes of recent years,

1. *Commends* the Secretary-General on his intention to entrust one of his senior officials with the responsibility of acting for him on a regular basis in developing and co-ordinating assistance from the United Nations system and in ensuring continual and close co-operation with the governments concerned, the League of Red Cross Societies and other voluntary agencies;
2. *Requests* the Secretary-General to make the staff arrangements necessary to this end in implementation of operative paragraph 4 of General Assembly resolution 2435 (XXIII);
3. *Re-affirms* the importance of the preparation of pre-disaster plans at the national level to meet natural disasters, including the establishment of co-ordination machinery capable of immediate action in cases of disaster;
4. *Draws attention* to the contribution that the United Nations Development Programme can make in providing technical assistance towards such preparations;
5. *Stresses* the importance of standby relief units at the national level and of the stock-piling of supplies for use in emergency situations;
6. *Appeals* to States Members of the United Nations and members of the specialized agencies to offer on an increasing scale, through bilateral arrangements, the United Nations system, or other appropriate organizations, emergency assistance to meet natural disasters, including standby relief units or the earmarking of similar units for service in foreign countries;

¹ E/4853 and Corr.1 and Add.1.

7. *Further requests* the Secretary-General to continue to consult the Governments of States Members of the United Nations or members of the specialized agencies on this matter;
 8. *Recognizes* the role of the Resident Representative of the United Nations Development Programme in undertaking a preliminary assessment of the extent of a natural disaster, including consultation with the Government concerned on the question of the need for a special resident co-ordinator to deal with international disaster relief;
 9. *Re-affirms also* the need to promote scientific research into the causes and early manifestations of impending disasters and to develop and improve early warning systems;
 10. *Invites* the Secretary-General, in continuing his studies in accordance with General Assembly resolution 2435 (XXIII), to pay special regard to the following points:
 - (a) That a clear distinction should be maintained between special arrangements for the co-ordination of assistance during the emergency phase of natural disasters, and the subsequent co-ordination of further assistance for reconstruction and rehabilitation;
 - (b) That possible improvements should be explored in co-ordination at the national and international level of prior arrangements both for the giving and the receipt of emergency assistance, and for the channelling of such assistance to disaster-affected areas, in order to help the initiatives of relief organizations;
 - (c) That there should be full consultation with the League of Red Cross Societies and other voluntary agencies concerned, and also with the Governments of States Members of the United Nations system or members of the specialized agencies and other appropriate organizations, in the formulation of his eventual recommendations to the fifty-first session of the Council;
 11. *Further invites* the Secretary-General, in pursuing his studies, to consider the role within the United Nations system of the Emergency Fund for Disasters, recommended in Council resolution 1533 (XLIV), in providing assistance to countries stricken by natural disasters;
 12. *Decides* to review at its fifty-first session the question of assistance in cases of natural disaster, on the basis of the comprehensive report which the Secretary-General has been asked to submit to the Council at that session, with a view to the formulation of recommendations for the consideration of the General Assembly at its twenty-sixth session in keeping with General Assembly resolution 2435 (XXIII).
-

SEMINAR ON NURSING LEGISLATION

In July 1970 an International Council of Nurses seminar took place in Warsaw. It was attended by representatives of the international Red Cross institutions: the ICRC by the Head of its Nursing Personnel Service, Miss A. Pfirter, and the League of Red Cross Societies by the Director of its Nursing Bureau, Miss Y. Hentsch.

Financed with funds from the International Florence Nightingale Foundation, the seminar was attended also by representatives from 23 national nurses associations and from the European Office of the World Health Organization. The subject of discussion was nursing legislation and its related problems (teaching, practice, recognition of qualifications in all countries, modernisation of the profession).

The paper submitted by Miss Pfirter on "Nurses and the 1949 Geneva Conventions" aroused keen interest. Delegates from six countries announced their intention to have the booklet "Rights and Duties of Nurses under the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949" translated.

The following recommendation was unanimously adopted:

The Geneva Conventions of 1949 having become part of national legislation by ratification of individual Governments, all nurses should be instructed in the provisions contained therein concerning nurses; this instruction should be continuing." (Should be included in basic curriculum for all categories of nursing personnel.)

After the seminar Miss Pfirter was the guest for a few days of the Polish Red Cross and was made welcome by several of its leading members, such as Mrs. A. Musialova, Vice-President, and Miss D. Zys, head of international relations. She also visited the club for blind servicemen in Warsaw and the "Stocer" Rehabilitation Centre at Konstancin, some 12 miles outside Warsaw, directed by Professor Marian Weiss. This is the largest such centre in Europe with 500 beds, an artificial limb workshop, 47 doctors, 62 physiotherapists, 110 nurses and 8 social workers.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON HUMANITARIAN LAW

From 24 to 27 September 1970 an International Congress on humanitarian law met at San Remo (Italy) attended by jurists from Africa, America, Asia and Europe to found the International Institute of Humanitarian Law whose headquarters will be in the Nobel villa at San Remo.

This new Institute intends to organize discussions among research workers and experts in humanitarian law, to co-ordinate its activity with that of public and private institutions concerned with humanitarian law, to convene congresses, to award scholarships and prizes, to issue publications and, in general, to support any initiative likely to promote opinion in favour of a wider dissemination and more effective application of humanitarian law.

The Congress, at which the ICRC was represented by Mr. Frédéric Siordet, Honorary Member of the ICRC, adopted a "Declaration" which we quote below, reaffirming the principles set forth in Resolution XXVIII of the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross (Vienna, 1965) and expressing certain wishes and recommendations with a view to the better application and development of humanitarian law in general.

SAN REMO DECLARATION

*The International Congress of Humanitarian Law*¹

Recalling the obligation of all States to refrain from having recourse to threats and to the use of force in international relations; and to settle their disputes in a peaceful manner;

Considering that the common foundation of the rules of international humanitarian law and of the international rules securing the protection of human rights lies in the respect of the human person;

that the respect of these rules is essential for peaceful co-existence among all human beings;

that, consequently, the violation of these same rules is not a matter which falls within the sole domain of the State;

¹ Our translation.

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Reaffirms

that the right of the parties engaged in armed conflicts, whether international or internal, to choose means of injuring the enemy is not unlimited;

that it is prohibited to launch attacks against the civilian population as such;

that distinction must be made at all times between persons taking part in the hostilities and members of the civilian population to the effect that the latter be spared as far as possible;

that the general principles of the law of war be applied to nuclear and similar weapons;

Expresses the wish

that violations of the rules embodied in Conventions having a humanitarian character be punished by impartial international courts;

that, at least, the rules relative to the exercise by a protecting power of its rights be improved so as to allow injured parties to have direct access to an international authority comparable to that of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, the institution of which can no longer be delayed;

Considering that the Geneva Conventions of 1949 constitute a step forward in the development of international law;

Recommends

all who are interested in the further development of international humanitarian law, international organizations, scientific institutions, and particularly the San Remo *International Institute of Humanitarian Law*, to first apply themselves to specific aims the pursuit of which should contribute to giving effect to the ideas inspiring their efforts, e.g.:

- 1) the adaptation of the law of war (The Hague 1907) to the Geneva Conventions of 1949;
- 2) the adjustment of the rules referred to in article 4(2) of the International Covenant on Political and Civil Rights and in article 15 of the European Convention on Human Rights so that they concord with those of article 3 of the Geneva Conventions of 1949;
- 3) the drawing up of codicils related to article 3 of the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and bearing on:
 - a) the power of impartial bodies (such as the International Court of Justice) to determine the existence of armed conflict as provided for in the said article 3;

- b) the distinction between acts subject to the law of war and crimes against innocent parties, such as air piracy, the taking of hostages and breaches of diplomatic immunity, which are acts proving their authors to be unworthy of combatant or political refugee status;
- 4) the promotion among the world population of better knowledge of and respect for the rules of humanitarian law, through the most advanced media made available by modern technology, and particularly by computer storage of a) national and international rules on the law of war and the penalties for breaches thereof and b) national and international sentences penalizing the culprits of such breaches;
- 5) the resumption of studies of projects which, consistent with the provisions of the European Convention on consular functions, are designed to strengthen respect for international humanitarian law;
- 6) the study of ways and means of granting legal assistance to persons deprived of the consular protection of their country.

MILITARY MEDICINE

In World Health,¹ Dr. Bouissou, a French Navy physician, describes how military medicine, born on the battlefield, has contributed to the development of science. We give below some passages from his article which refers to the work of the Red Cross and of the army medical services under the sign of the Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun.

The wars of the late nineteenth century were characterized by the unpreparedness, lack of foresight and disorganization of medical services, but some military surgeons nevertheless deserve to be remembered. For instance, the German surgeon Friedrich von Esmarch was ahead of everybody else in applying antisepsis; the Russian surgeon Nikolai Pirogoff was one of the first to use anaesthesia with ether on the battlefield.

¹ The magazine of the World Health Organization, May 1970.

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Japanese medicine made definite progress during the Russo-Japanese war of 1905, the first modern war where use was made of both projectiles with high initial velocity and new explosives. The Japanese used simple, quick and effective methods of evacuating and treating the wounded, whom they looked after with the greatest care. Results were excellent, and Japanese military medicine proved its high quality.

The First World War, 1914-18, started with makeshift surgery; the experience of previous generations seemed to have been forgotten. Percy, Larrey and Ambroise Paré were by that time no more than shadowy figures of the past and the wounded were no longer operated on immediately. Men were just given bandages and dressings, and then evacuated. As a result, infections like tetanus and gangrene thrived and the mortality rate soared.

The surgeons soon saw the error of their ways and went back to safer methods including on-the-spot operations. Wounds were incised and cleaned, and projectiles removed. War surgery thus entered a new era; speed and incision once again became the golden rules. Like all wars, the First World War made its contribution to progress. Techniques of operation made great strides and, with the innumerable mass of wounded, problems of organization in health services were faced and solved. But we should note that the military surgeons of past ages, those specialists of army camp and battlefield, were no more. As a specialized profession they had disappeared. Full-scale national mobilization simply made military doctors out of civilian doctors. This was a general phenomenon in Europe.

Looking back over history we can see that in most nations organized first aid and health services were instituted relatively recently. The creation of an effective system for bringing help to the wounded dates from the end of the sixteenth century in Europe. Although it is usual to credit France with setting up the first serious military first-aid organization, at the instigation of Sully in 1597, in fact the Spanish monarchy was the first to do so. By the end of Charles V's reign, an extraordinary medical service had been set up; Spain even had a hospital ship.

Thus in the seventeenth century France and Spain were in the lead. They had their military hospitals and ambulances, while the Austrians, Danes, Swedes and Prussians still treated the wounded

and the sick in their tents and barracks. The number one problem, however, was still the same: how to evacuate and transport the wounded. Still no real answer had been found and the army suffered from an acute penury of sanitary resources. First aid to the wounded at that time would be a good subject for a horror story. The words of a Renaissance soldier were still true: "The best bed a wounded man can hope for is some good ditch into which he is thrown by a volley of arquebus fire."

Wars followed wars; manners became more refined; but interest in a military medical service remained minimal. The Crimean War was a health disaster which brought into prominence the calm patience and active charity of Florence Nightingale and her fellow nurses. On her return to London in 1860, she founded the first known school of nursing.

But the situation was revealed at its worst during the Italian Campaign. At the Battle of Solferino in 1859 there was almost a total lack of first aid for the injured (two doctors for 6,000 wounded). Henry Dunant was a Swiss tourist who happened to witness the battle; he was wounded himself due to the zeal to which he was driven by pity. Afterwards he gave an account of the battle in a book in which realism and pathos are mingled with the greatest level-headedness. Dunant suggested that first aid associations should be set up and that doctors, nurses and hospitals should be granted neutrality in time of war. Out of this generous movement came the International Red Cross, the Geneva Convention of 1864 and The Hague Convention of 1907. These international conventions represented an important step forward: the social phenomenon of war was acknowledging a new rule for the sick and wounded.

We shall do no more than recall the immense advances achieved during the Second World War: the accomplishments are so varied that the observer is overwhelmed with surprise and admiration. Everywhere, techniques were brought to perfection, operating techniques as well as evacuation techniques. To mention only a few, progress was made in the treatment of burns, multiple injuries and shock, which affected non-combatants as well as combatants.

The effective use of anaesthesia, reanimation and antibiotic therapy greatly improved surgery. The wounded man was picked up, bandaged, treated, evacuated from the front and operated on

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with maximum speed and efficiency. The unbroken line of medical treatment operated with the greatest success, and it should not be forgotten that battlefield conditions were very hazardous. The military medical service and surgery had become morale-boosters for the wounded. Statistics show their success: never had there been such low mortality among the wounded and sick. . .

. . . It was much more usual for such doctors to have to treat pestilential diseases which raged through armies, rather than to experiment. Stern measures to wipe out camp-fever (the old name for typhus) and the enforcement of sanitary rules to stamp out other fevers (malaria)—these were the tasks which fell to any military doctor, making him an epidemiologist or hygienist whether he liked it or not.

Epidemics have on occasion decided the outcome of battles and the destiny of nations; often, in fact, they have determined the course of history. For they went before armies and followed them, decimating the troops and sometimes bringing down empires. This necessarily conjures up the thought of how immense the list must have been of those who succumbed to epidemics as campaigning armies grew in size; in the dismal inventory of disease, the big killers stand out: typhus, plague, cholera, dysentery. More recently, colonial expeditions added their contribution: malaria and yellow fever have their own long lists of victims.

Army doctors played an outstanding part in nineteenth century discoveries about tropical diseases.

*

. . . Hygiene, a close relative of epidemiology, aims not only at preserving health but also at improving it. All problems concerning man's relations with his environment, whether the influences involved are physical, biological or social, come under the heading of hygiene. The purpose of hygiene is to allow man to live in healthy relationship with his environment. Air, weather, soil, waste, bodily cleanliness, disinfection, disinsection and nutrition are the widely-differing concerns of the hygienist.

Until the 18th century, these concerns were badly defined. The health of the soldier was only of limited interest. Then British and French medical officers changed the face of military hygiene.

Sir John Pringle, chief of the British Army Medical Corps, laid down strict standards of good military hygiene. He insisted on the airing and ventilation of hospital rooms, prisons, barracks and ships, in fact of all confined spaces. He was a pioneer in his campaign for antiseptics, and even ahead of his time when in 1743 he proposed that the wounded and the hospitals should be treated as neutral during battle, an idea which Henry Dunant took up again in the nineteenth century. . .

. . . We have chosen the eighteenth century because it was epoch-making in the development of military hygiene. The early twentieth century marked a new epoch for preventive medicine, because of the use of vaccinations. This opened up new fields in hygiene and epidemiology, and here the masters of military medicine, right from the start, played a role that is acknowledged to have been of historic importance. . .

. . . Prevention has become the golden rule of modern medicine and health relies increasingly on a number of fields with wider scope than purely curative medicine. Ways of dealing with the community's health as a whole are being sought. Many doctors have become hygienists. Here the military doctor can claim some seniority; over the ages he was a pathfinder and innovator in this field. In less than a century, millions of human lives have been spared by vaccinations developed by investigators in uniform. It is also fair to say that surgery has greatly benefited from the experience gained, perhaps not on the field of battle, but at least in military hospitals.

A new tendency being encouraged is the use of military medicine to further health in times of peace; for example, in Mexico, Indonesia, India, Pakistan and Iran, among other countries, military doctors have made important contributions to national campaigns aimed at eradicating malaria and smallpox.

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 role of the ICRC shall be:

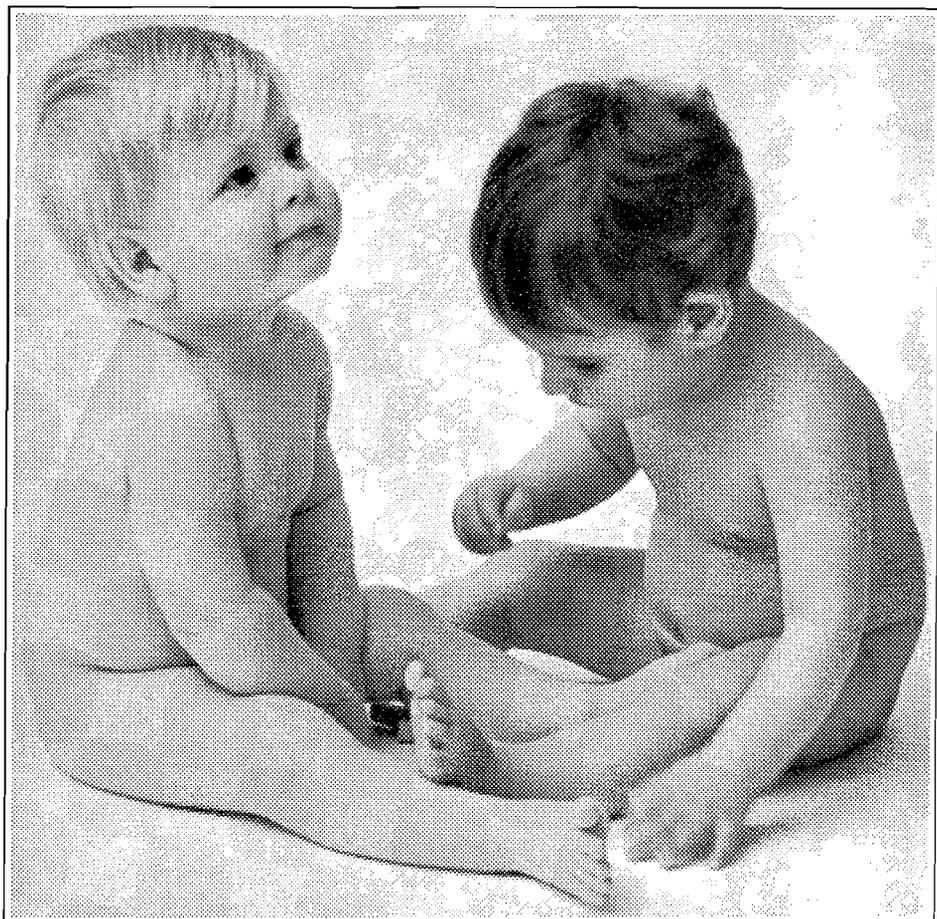
- (a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies;
- (b) to recognize any newly established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

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

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

The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its role 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*.
- ALGERIA — Central Committee of the Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis, Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINE — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Flinders Street, *Melbourne, C. 1*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, *Vienna IV*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, Chaussée de Vleurgat, *Brussels 5*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simon Bolivar, 1515 (Casilla 741), *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA — Botswana Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 485, *Gaberones*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça da Cruz Vermelha 12 *zc/86, Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S.S. Biruzov, *Sofia*.
- BURMA — Burma Red Cross, 42, Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI — Red Cross Society of Burundi, rue du Marché 3, P.O. Box 324, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMBODIA — Cambodian Red Cross, 17, Vithei Croix-Rouge cambodgienne, P.O.B. 94, *Phnom-Penh*.
- CAMEROON — Central Committee of the Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henry-Dunant, P.O.B. 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95 Wellesley Street, East, *Toronto 284* (Ontario).
- CEYLON — Ceylon Red Cross, 106 Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo VII*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246 V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 22 Kamnien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65 Apartado nacional 1110, *Bogotá D.E.*
- CONGO — Red Cross of the Congo, 41, Avenue Valcke P.O. Box 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 5a, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle 23 201 esq. N. Vedado, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *Prague I*.
- DAHOMEY — Red Cross Society of Dahomey, P.O. Box 1, *Porto Novo*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Ny Vestergade 17, *Copenhagen K*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Juan Enrique Dunant, Ensanche Miraflores, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorean Red Cross, Calle de la Cruz Roja y Avenida Colombia 118, *Quito*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Red Cross Road No. 1, P.O. Box 195, *Addis Ababa*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu 1 A, Box 14168, *Helsinki 14*.
- 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, 5300 *Bonn 1*, Postfach (D.B.R.).
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREAT BRITAIN — British Red Cross, 9 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3.^a Calle 8-40 zona 1, *Guatemala C.A.*
- GUYANA — Guyana Red Cross, P.O. Box 351, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, Place des Nations Unies, B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant 516, *Tegucigalpa*.
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, *Budapest V*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Øldugötu 4, *Reykjavik*, Post Box 872.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road *New Delhi 1*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Avenue Ark, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 16 Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76 Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 5 Shiba Park, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10 001, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, St Johns Gate, P.O. Box 712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA (Democratic People's 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-Donk, *Seoul*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1359, *Kuwait*.
- LAOS — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, *Beirut*.

ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- LIBERIA — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, Corner of Tubman boulevard and 9th Street Sinkor, P.O. Box 226, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYAN ARAB REPUBLIC — Libyan Red Crescent, Berka Omar Mukhtar Street, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, FL-9490 *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 234, *Luxembourg*.
- MADAGASCAR — Red Cross Society of Madagascar, rue Clemenceau, P.O. Box 1168, *Tananarive*.
- MALAWI — Malawi Red Cross, Box 247, *Blantyre*.
- MALAYSIA — Malaysian Red Cross Society, 519 Jalan Belfield, *Kuala Lumpur*.
- MALI — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, route de Koulikora, *Bamako*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Avenida Ejército Nacional, n° 1032, *Mexico 10, D.F.*
- MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 Boul. de Suisse, *Monte-Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Ulan Bator*.
- MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, rue Benzakour, B.P. 189, *Rabat*.
- NEPAL — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tripureshar, P.B. 217, *Katmandu*.
- 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 Noroeste, 305, *Managua, D.N.*
- NIGER — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA — Nigerian Red Cross Society, Eko Akete Close, off. St. Gregory Rd., Onikan, P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, *Oslo*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Cross, Dr Dawood Peta Road, *Karachi 4*.
- PANAMA — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado 668, *Panama*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, calle André Barbero y Artigas 33, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Jiron Chancay 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES — Philippine National Red Cross, 860 United Nations Avenue, P.O.B. 280, *Manila D-406*.
- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, General Secretaryship, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon 3*.
- RUMANIA — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Rumania, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, *Bucarest*.
- SALVADOR — Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente 21, *San Salvador*.
- SAN MARINO — San Marino Red Cross, Palais gouvernemental, *San Marino*.
- SAUDI ARABIA — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent *Riyadh*.
- SENEGAL — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bld. Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SIERRA LEONE — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6 Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SOMALI REPUBLIC — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box. 937, *Mogadiscio*.
- SOUTH AFRICA — South African Red Cross, Cor. Kruis & Market Streets, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid, 10*.
- SUDAN — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Artillerigatan 6, 10440, *Stockholm 14*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse, 8, B.P. 2699, 3001 *Berne*.
- SYRIA — Syrian Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA — Tanganyika Red Cross Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND — Thai Red Cross Society, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, *Bangkok*.
- TOGO — Togolese Red Cross Society, Avenue des Alliés 19, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO — Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, 48 Pembroke Street, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain*.
- TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19, rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis*.
- TURKEY — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, *Ankara*.
- UGANDA — Uganda Red Cross, Nabunya Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED 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*.
- URUGUAY — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre, 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.A. — American National Red Cross, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington 6 D.C.*
- U.S.S.R. — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Tcheremushki, J. Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow W-36*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No. 4, Apart. 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Triệu, *Hanoi*.
- VIET NAM (Republic) — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, đường Hồng-Thập-Tu, No. 201, *Saigon*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.
- ZAMBIA — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box R. W. 1, Ridgeway, *Lusaka*.