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INTERNATIONAL
REVIEW
OF THE RED CROSS



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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW
OF THE RED CROSS

CONTENTS

JULY-AUGUST 1993
No. 295

ANTI-PERSONNEL MINES

Gérald C. Cauderay: Anti-personnel mines 273

PRISONERS OF WAR

Gordon Risius and Michael M. Meyer: The protection of prisoners
of war against insults and public curiosity 288

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

How ICRC field activities serve to protect the victims of violence 300

IN THE RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT WORLD

Yves Sandoz: *Dr. Ahmed Abu-Goura* steps down as Chairman of
the Standing Commission of the Red Cross and Red Crescent 308

Thirty-fourth award of the Florence Nightingale Medal 312

MISCELLANEOUS

Symposium on Anti-Personnel Mines (Montreux, Switzerland,
21-23 April 1993) 318

269

World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 14-25 June 1993) . .	325
● <i>Address by Mr. Cornelio Sommaruga</i> , President of the ICRC	326
● <i>Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action</i> (extracts) . . .	329
Accession to the Protocols by the Republic of Albania	333
Declaration by the Republic of Madagascar	333

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

The international role of non-governmental organizations (<i>Yves Beigbeder</i>)	334
Terrorism and Hostages in International Law — A Commentary on the 1979 Hostages Convention (<i>Joseph J. Lambert</i>)	336
Henry Dunant and Eastern Switzerland (<i>Roger Durand et al.</i>)	338

BOOK REVIEWS

A Red Cross in my Pocket — Derry/Londonderry, 1968-1974 (<i>Aileen McCorkell</i>)	342
---	-----

Addresses of National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies	343
---	-----

NEW ICRC PRODUCTION

Electronics at the service of international humanitarian law: CD-ROM IHL	349
--	-----

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Anti-Personnel Mines

by **Gérald C. Cauderay**

“Mines may be described as fighters that never miss, strike blindly, do not carry weapons openly, and go on killing long after hostilities are ended.

In short, mines are the greatest violators of humanitarian international law, practising blind terrorism”.*

Introduction

The problems associated with the use of anti-personnel mines, especially in Cambodia, Afghanistan, Kuwait and Angola, to mention but a few of the countries where they have been deployed in large numbers and in areas where they constitute a threat to civilians long after hostilities have ceased, call for closer examination.

In this article, which does not claim to be exhaustive, we shall review the different types of mines currently in use, their technology, the means of detecting and neutralizing them, and the possibility of equipping them with self-neutralizing or self-destruct mechanisms. Then, last but not least, we shall consider the problems raised by the trade in this type of weapon.

Since anti-tank mines are in a different category and, in general, do not directly endanger the civilian population,** we shall deal only with anti-personnel mines here.

* Opinion of a former ICRC delegate.

** Our comments are based on information taken from the specialized literature, in particular the 1992-1993 edition of *Jane's Military Vehicles and Logistics*, various press articles published during the past two years concerning recently terminated conflicts (principally in Cambodia, Afghanistan and Kuwait), various publications and the very few specialized technical works that we were able to consult, and reports filed by our delegates and doctors in regions affected by armed conflicts. We have also used information supplied to us by experts and official or private organizations engaged in mine-clearance operations.

- In Afghanistan, since the war started 15 years ago, at least 10 million mines have been scattered throughout the country.¹
- In the past 25 years, hundreds of thousands of mines - some say four million - have been laid in Cambodia.
- Every month about 60 people are killed or injured by them.
- In Kuwait, there are about one million mines.
- Between 1945 and 1977, about 15 million mines were cleared from Poland. In the same period, some 4,000 civilians were killed and 9,000 injured by mines.²
- Libya still has extensive minefields dating from the Second World War.
- Owing to mines, large expanses of the world are permanently no-go areas.
- Mines are as lethal to human beings after the war as during the fighting.
- About 35 countries are known to manufacture mines.
- The great majority of mines have no self-destruct mechanism.

¹ These figures, taken from the written press, are only estimates.

² W. J. Fenrick, "The Law of Armed Conflict: the Cushie Weapons Treaty", *CDQ*, Summer 1981.

In the four countries previously mentioned, to which another half-dozen might be added, minefields laid during conflicts have already caused countless civilian casualties. Most of these minefields remain active and still represent an extremely grave danger for the countries' population. Moreover, their very existence makes it difficult, or well nigh impossible, for civilians to return to their places of origin and to engage in any activity offering a means of subsistence. In fact, the sheer number of anti-personnel mines planted, the manner in which they have been deployed and the absence of any record of their location raise such problems that it will take years or even decades before agriculture can be resumed without putting the inhabitants at considerable risk.

As an example^{1*}, in just one year following the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan, over 4,000 persons reportedly lost

* The numbers 1 to 15 in the text refer to the references at the end.

their lives and more than 20,000 were seriously injured in accidents caused by mines.

The objective in laying minefields

Minefields are generally laid either to slow the advance of the enemy, to divert his advance into more easily defended zones, or to harass him by causing casualties in his ranks.

A.P.V. Rogers, quoting Col. C. Sloan², stresses that anti-personnel mines are mainly used:

- a) *in anti-tank minefields, to hinder their clearance or breach by personnel;*
- b) *as nuisance mining to delay or demoralize advancing enemy infantry;*
- c) *to protect defended localities by denying routes to the enemy and to disrupt the final assault phase of an infantry attack.*

Anti-personnel mines are also used to protect military positions and installations or to prevent access to a locality, village or particular region.

Unfortunately, it is also a fact that anti-personnel mines are sometimes laid to prevent the civilian population from leaving a region, or from having access to arable land, pastoral areas and ricefields.

Technical aspects

There are many different types of anti-personnel mines, ranging from the most rudimentary, sometimes even hand-made, devices, right up to the most sophisticated models incorporating electronic timing, arming and firing mechanisms. However, with the exception of some very special types of mines, they fall largely into three main categories:

- anti-personnel mines of the blast type;
- anti-personnel fragmentation mines (static or bounding type);
- anti-personnel fragmentation mines of the directional type.

The explosives used in the mines are almost always fairly common. For the most part they are nitrate derivatives such as TNT (trinitrotoluene or Tolite, which enters into the composition of



Angola: Children injured by anti-personnel mines (ICRC/Anne-Marie Grobet).

numerous other explosives such as Amatol, Pentolite, Composition B, etc.), picric acid (trinitrophenol or Melinite), Tetryl, as well as PETN (pentaerythritol tetranitrate) and RDX (cyclotrimethylenetrinitramine), two among the most powerful explosives known.

Simple anti-personnel blast mines consist of a casing, frequently made out of plastic, containing an explosive charge, a detonator and a firing device. This may be of the pressure type (the pressure needed for firing is of the order of 2 to 6 kg), a trip-wire mechanism or other type of triggering.

These mines are usually small (less than 80 mm in diameter), and often weigh under 100 g. They are powerful enough, however, to occasion very severe injuries (shattered feet or hands). The blast from the explosion, moreover, causes fragments, dirt and debris of various kinds to be driven into adjacent tissues and beyond, and this frequently

results in serious infections, even gangrene. The shock wave from the explosion may also destroy the blood vessels in the upper part of the injured limb.^{3, 4}

Depending on the model, size of charge and type of casing, the lethal effects of this type of anti-personnel mine may be felt within a radius of 1 to 2 m, but rarely beyond. It should also be mentioned that nowadays these mines comprise a minimum of metal components. Their casing is made of wood or plastic and rarely of metal, so they are practically undetectable.

Static anti-personnel fragmentation mines consist of an explosive charge in a metal or plastic casing containing cube-shaped or cylindrical metal fragments with sharp spines, or sometimes steel spheres. These fragments vary between 4 to 6 mm in length or diameter, and weigh between 0.5 and 6 g. Depending on the type of mine, the number of fragments ranges from several hundred to several thousand, and their initial velocity (V_0) may attain more than 1,600 m/s (by way of comparison, the V_0 of a rifle bullet is of the order of 800 to 950 m/s and its weight between 3 to 11 g, depending on calibre).

Firing may be effected by a device similar to the one used for blast mines, that is to say by pressure or trip-wire, or by electronic means triggered by sound-activated, magnetic or seismic sensors, infrared (IR) barriers, etc. The detonator then causes the charge to explode, and the fragments are ejected up to a distance of 40 m. According to certain sources consulted, the lethal radius, depending on the explosive charge and the type of fragments, may be up to 15 or even 25 m.

The anti-personnel fragmentation mine of the "bounding" type works on the same principle, but does not explode until it reaches a height of 0.8 to 1.50 m from the ground. In this case the firing system, usually depending on traction by a trip-wire or a similar device, sets off an initial explosion which projects the mine to the pre-determined height (0.8 to 1.50), where the principal charge explodes. The lethal radius is usually comparable to that of the static version, but since the mine explodes at some distance above the ground, the number of fragments reaching the target is appreciably increased. These mines appeared during the Second World War and have since been subject to constant development.

Anti-personnel directional mines (also termed "horizontally active"), are fragmentation mines so constructed that the fragments are discharged in a determined direction within a sector of about 60°. This type of mine is generally mounted on a tripod standing on the ground, but it can also be attached to the trunk of a tree or another suitable

structure. Any of the usual systems of firing such as trip-wire, IR barrier or remote control can be used to detonate it. The fragments, consisting of sharp metal shrapnel or steel spheres, vary in number according to the model, from 700 to 1,500 or even more. They are 4 to 6 mm in length or diameter and weigh between 0.5 and 6 g. Yet again, the effective (lethal) distance is of the order of 50 to 100 m, and even 150 m with certain models, depending on the charge and the type of fragments employed.

Within the category of **anti-personnel fragmentation mines**, mention should be made once more of the very great variety dating back to the Second World War. These mines are constructed from grenades fitted with a casing made of metal or of cement containing metal fragments. They are often attached to a metal or wooden spike so that they can be fixed vertically in the ground, but they can also be buried. They are usually fired by means of a trip-wire, or by pressure if they are buried.

The so-called **“Butterfly”** or **“Green Parrot”** (reference PMF-1 or PMZ)⁵ is another type of mine, which was widely used in Afghanistan. These mines are of Soviet manufacture and, like many modern anti-personnel mines, are generally scattered from helicopters or planes. The fuses are armed at the moment of release or during descent to the ground. They can also, like other types of anti-personnel mines, be delivered by artillery shells, mortars or grenade-launchers.

This type of mine, made out of plastic (as indeed are the majority of blast type anti-personnel mines), contains very few metal parts and is intended not to kill but to maim. It is very flat (about 1.5 cm), green or brown in colour, and quickly becomes invisible in grass or in loose soil, where it is soon covered by wind-blown earth or sand, or by snow. Being very light, it is easily carried along by melting snow or by alluvium after heavy rains and is thus transported downstream in water-courses, still intact and capable of causing severe injury to people bathing or doing their washing.

This mine, which is loaded with 40 g of liquid explosive, is detonated by momentary or repeated pressure applied to its thickest part. Holding it between the thumb and forefinger, for example, may be enough to make it explode.

Incorporation of safety, self-destruct or self-neutralizing mechanisms

Although almost all anti-tank mines are fitted with a neutralization mechanism or self-destruct after a predetermined period of time, such



Some of the most common types of mines. In the background, two directional mines (ICRC).

is not the case with anti-personnel mines, because the size and price of such mechanisms, according to those concerned, are disproportionate in relation to those of the mine itself.

For safe transportation, all mines are fitted with a safety mechanism which is removed when they are put into position. To prevent the enemy from removing the mines, most anti-personnel mines cannot be neutralized once the fuse is armed. Indeed, most of them are fitted with external booby-traps to prevent removal, and certain types are even equipped with an internal device which causes them to explode at the least attempt to move or defuse them.

In fact, among the 124 different models of anti-personnel mine that we came across in the documentation we consulted,⁶ only four were designated as being fitted with self-neutralizing mechanisms.

These devices can be programmed for an interval of several hours, weeks or even months. Although the self-neutralizing mechanisms are designed for a life-span equivalent to that of the mine itself, and are in principle resistant to adverse climatic and environmental conditions, they are not always sufficiently reliable and are subject to accidental malfunctioning.

Special mines

During our enquiries we have encountered mines categorized as anti-personnel which contain a FAE (fuel air explosive) or chemical charge - in the latter case it is usually mustard gas of the «Lewisite» type! It should be said, however, that these are reportedly soon to be destroyed.

Tactical aspects

The Final Act of the United Nations Conference on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons (Geneva, 10 October 1980),⁷ and more particularly its Appendix C, Protocol on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Mines, Booby-Traps and Other Devices (Protocol II), **Article 5, Restrictions on the use of remotely delivered mines**, stipulates that:

- “1. The use of remotely delivered mines is prohibited unless such mines are only used within an area which is itself a military objective or which contains military objectives, and unless:*
- a) their location can be accurately recorded in accordance with Article 7 (1) a); or*
 - b) an effective neutralizing mechanism is used on each such mine, that is to say, a self-actuating mechanism which is designed to render a mine harmless or cause it to destroy itself when it is anticipated that the mine will no longer serve the military purpose for which it was placed in position, or a remotely-controlled mechanism which is designed to render harmless or destroy a mine when the mine no longer serves the military purpose for which it was placed in position.*
- 2. Effective advance warning shall be given of any delivery or dropping of remotely delivered mines which may affect the civilian population, unless circumstances do not permit”.*

The marking of minefields is required so that the civilian population can avoid entering the mined area, and to facilitate their removal at the end of hostilities.

In practice, these provisions can probably be applied only when the minefields are laid or their situation planned before the beginning of hostilities. Minefields put in position and mines scattered during the course of hostilities are rarely recorded. Experience during recent conflicts has shown, moreover, that even when minefields are recorded, the warning signs put up often fall down, are moved or are quite simply taken away, intentionally or by mistake. In addition, the records made of the position of minefields are not always available from the armed forces responsible, since they are often lost, destroyed or simply mislaid.

Mines nowadays are frequently delivered by helicopters, airplanes, mortars or artillery shells. This makes the recording of mined areas even more difficult, and quite impossible for very small mines of the "Butterfly" type (see above), which are inevitably shifted by rain and wind and may be found at quite a distance from the place where they were deployed.

Soldiers driven back by the enemy frequently lay mines to cover their retreat, and naturally do not take the time to record where they were placed.

Most of these procedures are not only illegal but also make it very difficult to locate minefields once the fighting is over.

Locating mines and mine clearance

Before mines can be neutralized or destroyed, they must first be located. Magnetic detectors are normally used for such work, where it is feasible at all.

Indeed, modern methods of manufacture are making mines increasingly difficult, or even impossible, to detect. These methods include the widespread use of synthetic materials, which cannot be detected by magnetic devices. Only a few individual parts are still made out of ferromagnetic materials, principally those used in the firing system (e.g. the percussion pin and some associated parts). In consequence, these mines can be detected only by highly sensitive equipment.

Moreover, a magnetic metal detector will react to any metal fragments or objects (shell shrapnel, smashed weapons, bits of chassis and bodywork of vehicles damaged or destroyed during combat, etc.) that are present in the ground where mines are being sought, and thus

make the work even more difficult. Sometimes metal fragments are deliberately scattered in order to complicate mine-clearing operations.

New detection apparatus using advanced technology (microprocessors, sophisticated electronics, etc.) has been developed during recent years. This is designed to detect not only ferromagnetic metals but other metals as well. According to the manufacturers, this new equipment is very sensitive and capable of detecting even plastic mines containing very few metal components, whether ferromagnetic or not. Specialists consulted on the subject, however, are not unanimous about its efficiency and reliability.

Other detection methods,⁸ in particular those using airborne infrared (IR) heat-seeking devices and millimetric radar systems, are apparently being developed and even tested. Unfortunately we have no precise information in this regard, but according to certain sources these new methods are not yet completely satisfactory. Lastly, it is also possible to use dogs specially trained to detect the presence of explosives. The results are usually very good, but unfortunately the dogs tire quickly and cannot work for more than an hour a day.

Further progress in the design of detection equipment is doubtless still possible. A lead could be taken, for example, from the equipment employed for some years in airports to detect the presence of explosives in freight or passenger baggage. This generally functions by reacting to the very faint residual vapour emitted by explosives.

According to information which has recently appeared in the specialized literature,⁹ the development of detection systems sensitive to the vapour emitted by explosives is well under way, and will soon be available on an industrial scale. These new systems simulate the olfactory sense of dogs, which is about 10,000 times more sensitive than the standard systems employed for detecting explosives and mines.

Many specialists appear to agree, nevertheless, that the only sure answer is still the "hands and knees method" i.e. moving forward on the knees and probing the area thought to contain mines with a wooden or plastic rod!

Concerning the defusing or neutralization of anti-personnel mines, here again opinion is unanimous that this is an extremely dangerous operation and that the only reasonable solution is to explode the mines individually by means of suitable charges.

Another possibility is the use of special devices¹⁰ such as explosive lines, cables or tubes to blow up a determined area *en bloc* (for instance, to open up a passage 60 - 80 cm wide for a distance of 100 m or more; the operation being repeated to increase the neutralized

surface). FAE (fuel air explosive) can also be used to neutralize a larger area more rapidly, as during the Vietnam war. It should be stressed, however, that these methods are not infallible; an increasing number of mines are so constructed that they can withstand the extreme pressure of very short duration caused by explosions in the immediate vicinity, such as those generated by mine clearance and FAE.

Other methods of mine clearance exist, but the logistics are onerous and costly. They involve armoured vehicles, fitted in front with steel blades in the form of a snow plough, wire mesh or rollers fitted with studs, chain flails, etc.

These vehicles, which are frequently employed by armies to clear a way through a minefield, require specialized personnel for their operation and maintenance, and large stocks of spare parts in order to ensure continuous operation. The method, moreover, is less than 70% effective. This is perhaps sufficient for armed forces wishing to open up a breach in a minefield, but certainly not for clearing much larger areas to make them safe for the civilian population after the cessation of hostilities. If mechanical means are employed, the same terrain will have to be covered several times to reach and destroy all the mines, some of which may lie as deep as 40 cm below the surface.

Such an operation will, of course, have to cover the entire area. According to some experts, this method of mine clearance is the most efficient and least dangerous. However, it is not infallible and any remaining anti-personnel mines would have to be removed and destroyed individually by hand.

In addition, the very high initial and operational cost of mine-clearance vehicles makes their utilization impracticable for most of the countries currently affected.

It is evident, therefore, that any mine-clearance operation will be long, costly and very dangerous. In Kuwait, for example, according to different sources,¹¹ mine-clearance teams have already lost more than 80 operatives from accidents, despite the fact that the minefields and types of mines used there are relatively well-known and the conflict was of short duration. Imagine the scale of mine clearance required in such countries as Cambodia and Afghanistan, where there may be as many as three layers of mines superimposed in certain places.

In Afghanistan,¹² where more than 30 different types of mines were reportedly used, the records of minefields, when such records exist, are very unreliable. Mines were scattered there in very large numbers (an estimated 20 to 40 million!), and certain experts consider that more than three million are still active and ready to explode. Complete

clearance is therefore probably impossible, and in many regions all agricultural activity is precluded for decades.

Bearing in mind the extent of the areas infested by mines in all the countries affected by fairly long armed conflicts, the problem of clearing them so as to ensure a sufficient degree of security for the civilian population to be resettled there can well be imagined. The task will be enormous, and very costly in terms of time and material, not to mention the inevitable risk of accidents during the mine-clearing operations.

In this connection, the question might well be asked whether mine manufacturers should help clear areas where their mines have been employed, or whether those who have laid them should be obliged to remove them once hostilities have ceased. After all, they are the only ones who know the locations and technical characteristics of the weapons they laid. They should therefore be able to ensure their neutralization and destruction at minimum cost and, especially, at minimum risk. Another possibility would be to compel mine manufacturers to contribute financially to mine-clearing operations.^{13*}

Countries producing and exporting anti-personnel mines

The short and by no means exhaustive list that we have drawn up of countries producing and exporting anti-personnel mines shows that almost all the highly and moderately industrialized countries are producing this type of weapon and that a good number of them are exporters.

According to the sources consulted, but bearing in mind that published information is often incomplete or imprecise, the main producing countries are the Russian Federation, Italy, the United States of America, Yugoslavia, Austria, China, France, and also Belgium, Egypt and Portugal. Most of these countries are also known as exporters, either of finished products or of manufacturing licences. Missing from this list is Singapore which, to our knowledge, is a

* This idea is not as strange as it might appear, because *Middle East Watch*, in a report entitled "*Hidden death: Land mines and civilian casualties in Iraqi Kurdistan*", October 1992, p. 62, invited the Italian government to become a major contributor in covering the costs of mine clearance in Iraqi Kurdistan, seeing that the majority of the mines found there appeared to be of Italian manufacture and this implied a moral obligation!

major manufacturer (under licence) and exporter, frequently working with Western countries. Lastly, it should be mentioned that mines of German and Israeli manufacture, among others, have occasionally been found in the Republic of South Africa and elsewhere. When mines manufactured in the above-mentioned countries are found elsewhere, this does not necessarily mean that the producing countries are also the direct exporters; the weapons may easily have been acquired on the unofficial arms market, captured from the enemy or quite simply stolen from depots. The political upheavals of recent years in Eastern Europe and the former Warsaw Pact countries have meant that very large stocks of arms, including enormous quantities of anti-personnel mines, are now available on both the official and the unofficial markets at knock-down prices.

With regard to prices, anti-personnel mines lend themselves to large-scale semi-automated manufacture involving very low production costs. Although we have been unable to obtain precise information on current selling prices, there are certain indications¹⁴ that the unit price may lie between 20 Swiss francs (or even half that amount) and 100 Swiss francs for the simplest types. We learned quite recently that mines of Chinese origin had apparently been offered for a unit price of less than 50 US cents.

The more elaborate types - bounding and directional fragmentation mines - are certainly more expensive. Unfortunately, the only reliable information we possess concerning their selling price relate to dummy mines used in training mine-clearing personnel. The unit cost for small quantities ranges between 300 and 500 Swiss francs. It should be remembered, however, that these models are manufactured in very much smaller quantities than real mines, and the cost price is therefore probably higher.

Conclusion

The problems raised by anti-personnel mines have taken on considerable importance because they extend well beyond the period of armed conflict during which the mines were laid, and beyond the countries where the conflict occurred. In the first instance we have seen that anti-personnel mines can remain operational for decades after their deployment, and in the medium or long term can constitute a threat to the very survival of the local population, which finds itself unable to carry on normal activities such as agriculture. As the countries concerned are frequently developing countries, they lack the

necessary financial resources to undertake complete mine clearance and will therefore have to rely on technical and financial aid provided by the international community. This will also slow their development, with consequences that are only too evident.

There is thus an urgent need for measures to prevent the uncontrolled use of anti-personnel mines. Nowadays this smacks more of terrorism than of proper battlefield conduct, whose aim, according to all the applicable instruments of international humanitarian law, should be to spare the civilian population. Perhaps the States should seriously consider banning non-detectable anti-personnel mines, whose military effectiveness we consider more than doubtful, as well as those not provided with self-neutralization or self-destruct mechanisms.¹⁵

In view of the difficulty of clearing them once hostilities are over and the dramatic consequences for the civilian population, the effects of these mines are clearly disproportionate to the military advantages which are claimed for them.

Many official and private organizations are aware of the magnitude of the problem and are seeking ways of putting a stop to this kind of terrorism. Its target is increasingly the civilian population, which pays by far the heaviest toll in present-day armed conflicts.

Gérald C. Cauderay

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The protection of prisoners of war against insults and public curiosity

by Gordon Risius and Michael A. Meyer*

Mine honour is my life; both grow in one;
Take honour from me, and my life is done.

Shakespeare: *King Richard II*

Introduction

International humanitarian law governing the treatment of prisoners of war is designed to protect almost every aspect of human welfare, in order to minimise as far as possible the adverse effects of captivity. As noted by the International Military Tribunal at Nuremberg.

“[W]ar captivity is neither revenge nor punishment, but solely protective custody, the only purpose of which is to prevent the prisoners of war from further participation in the war ... and that it [is] contrary to military tradition to kill or injure helpless people”.¹

To the individual prisoner of war certain aspects will be of more concern than others. In some conflicts, for example, hunger and disease may be his major preoccupation; in others, where food and medical care are adequate, his main anxiety may be the well-being of his family at home, and his entitlement to correspond with them. One of the concerns of international humanitarian law which is often overlooked when arguably higher priority and more immediate issues are at stake, but is nevertheless of importance, is the protection of the prisoner's dignity and honour. With the advent of electronic newsgathering techniques enabling armed conflicts to be reported by the media with much greater immediacy than ever before, there is an increasing trend

* The opinions expressed in this article are the authors' own, and do not necessarily reflect the views of either the British government or the British Red Cross Society.

¹ Judgement (1947) 41 *AJIL* 172,229.

for prisoner-of-war issues to be treated by the media in ways which diminish individual prisoner's honour and dignity, even if the motives of the media for such treatment may in themselves be honourable. The purpose of this short article is to consider the law protecting prisoners of war from "insult and public curiosity" and its origins, and to suggest how it might be interpreted in future in relation to filming and photography.

Historical background

The Third Geneva Convention of 1949 (the Prisoners of War Convention) contains no provisions specifically regulating the circumstances in which prisoners of war can be photographed. The only article which touches on the subject is Article 13, paragraph 2, which states that:

"... prisoners of war must at all times be protected, particularly against acts of violence or intimidation and against insults and public curiosity."

This prohibition is not new. Article 2, paragraph 2 of the 1929 Geneva Prisoners of War Convention used almost identical language:

"[Prisoners of war] shall at all times be humanely treated and protected, particularly against acts of violence, from insults and from public curiosity."

According to Flory,² writing during World War II about the negotiations which resulted in the 1929 Convention, it was:

"a general principle, frequently affirmed... that prisoners must be treated with humanity... The German delegate suggested that the conference of 1929 substitute for the Hague statement³ a requirement that they be protected against death, wounds, bad treatment, robbery, injuries, and public curiosity, but the conference accepted a modification of the Hague rule in stating that they must be treated at all

² William E. S. Flory, *Prisoners of War: A Study in the Development of International Law*, 1942, Washington D.C., American Council on Public Affairs, p. 39.

³ Article 4 of the Hague Regulations of 1907 said no more than that "They must be humanely treated".

times with humanity and must be protected especially against acts of violence, insults and public curiosity".⁴

The 1929 Convention provision was the basis for the trial of Lieutenant General Kurt Maelzer before a United States Military Commission in Florence, Italy, in September 1946.⁵ Maelzer, the commander of the German garrison in Rome in January 1944, had been ordered by Field Marshal Kesselring, commander of the German forces in Italy, to parade several hundred British and American prisoners of war through the streets of the Italian capital, in order to boost Italian morale. During the parade, onlookers threw sticks and stones at them. Numerous photographs were taken and published in the Italian press, under the caption "Anglo-Americans enter Rome after all ... flanked by German bayonettes". Maelzer was convicted of "exposing prisoners of war ... in his custody ... to acts of violence, insults and public curiosity", and was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment, later reduced to three years.⁶

But taking and publishing photographs of prisoners of war was hardly a new phenomenon in 1944. Most accounts of warfare since photography became popular and widespread in the early part of this century have contained such pictures.⁷ Over the last seventy-five years or so these have ranged from prisoners depicted at the moment

⁴ Flory added that the German delegate was dissatisfied with the Hague rule on the ground that "the definition of 'humanity' is not uniform throughout the world".

⁵ The case of *Kurt Maelzer*, War Crimes Report 11 (1949) 53.

⁶ The International Military Tribunal in Tokyo similarly condemned the Japanese practice of "parading prisoners of war through cities and exposing them to ridicule and insults". See the UK *Manual of Military Law, Part III*, London, H.M.S.O., 1958, p. 51. Another instance from the Second World War where allied prisoners were exposed to the wrath of the local population, on this occasion with fatal results, was the Essen Lynching case (*Heyer and others*, War Crimes Reports 1 (1947) 88). Captain Heyer, a German officer, gave instructions that a party of three allied officers were to be escorted to a Luftwaffe unit for interrogation. He ordered their guards not to interfere if civilians should attempt to molest them. These instructions were given in a loud voice, and in the hearing of a crowd of civilians. When the prisoners reached one of the main streets in Essen, they were attacked by the crowd and eventually thrown over the parapet of a bridge to their deaths. However, the charge preferred against Captain Heyer and his six co-accused at their trial by a British Military Court in December 1945 appears to have made no reference to the prisoners' exposure to insults and public curiosity (understandably, in view of the fact that they suffered far worse consequences), but instead alleged that "in violation of the laws and usages of war, [they] were, with other persons, concerned in the killing of three unidentified British airmen, prisoners of war".

⁷ See, e.g., *The Times History of the War*, two volumes of which are cited in Notes 13 and 14 below.

of surrender;⁸ receiving medical treatment on the battlefield;⁹ awaiting evacuation;¹⁰ marching into captivity;¹¹ on board ship;¹² digging trenches;¹³ undertaking agricultural work;¹⁴ and occasionally even during detention in a prisoner-of-war camp.¹⁵ More recently, with the advent of the video camera, television coverage has included footage of prisoners of war in the process of surrendering, in captivity and being repatriated. In general, neither the taking of such pictures, nor their publication or transmission, appears to have attracted much protest from any quarter, either on grounds of lack of taste or because they were thought to contravene the Third Geneva Convention. Such absence of protest may be partly the result of general ignorance of the provisions of the Convention, and partly because the majority of such pictures are not particularly shocking or offensive, at least by present-day standards.

But even if historically photographs and film of prisoners of war have aroused little concern about whether at least some pictures contravene the Third Geneva Convention, arguments can undoubtedly be put forward in support of the proposition that contraventions have

⁸ E.g. *Korea — The First War We Lost*, Bevin Alexander, Hippocrene Books, New York, 1986, following p. 448, showing Americans emerging from a cave to surrender to Chinese soldiers. A further example, referred to by H. Levie in *The Falklands War* (Coll and Arends, eds.), Allen & Unwin, Boston, 1985, p. 72, is the widely-publicised photograph of the British Royal Marines surrendering at Port Stanley, showing a number of Marines lying face down on the ground.

⁹ E.g. S. H. Best's *The Story of The British Red Cross*, Cassell & Co. Ltd., 1938, which opposite p. 144 shows a British medical officer tending a wounded Turk after the battle of Tikrit in November 1917.

¹⁰ E.g. *The Longest War — The Iran-Iraq Military Conflict*, Dilip Hiro, Grafton Books, London, 1989, which includes (following p. 136) a picture of Iraqi prisoners of war taken in February 1984.

¹¹ E.g. *At the Going Down of the Sun*, Oliver Lindsay, Hamish Hamilton, London, 1981, opposite p. 152, which includes a picture of allied prisoners of war marching to Shamuipo Camp, Hong Kong, on 30 December 1941, watched by Japanese soldiers, four days after Hong Kong surrendered.

¹² E.g. *British Forces in the Korean War*, ed. Cunningham-Boothe and Farrar, The British Korean Veterans Association, Leamington Spa, 1988, p. 132, showing North Korean and Chinese prisoners captured by Royal Marines and held aboard H.M.S. Belfast.

¹³ See, e.g. Vol. VI of *The Times History of the War*, The Times, London, 1916, which on p. 262 shows "British prisoners at work — digging trenches in Germany and preparing wood for supports for the trenches".

¹⁴ See, e.g. Vol. XII of *The Times History of the War*, The Times, London, 1917, which on p. 246 shows "British Prisoners of War engaged in farm work".

¹⁵ E.g. *Monty — The Field-Marshal — 1944 — 1976*, Nigel Hamilton, Hamish Hamilton, London, 1986, opposite p. 420, showing Field-Marshal Busch, commander-in-chief of the surrendered German armies in the north, being reprimanded by Field-Marshal Montgomery for failing to obey orders promptly.

occurred in the past. Furthermore, given the increasingly intensive coverage of conflicts provided by the media and the expanding role of the major communications networks, there is every reason to expect in future an increased tension between the demands of the media and the requirements of the Convention.

Problems of interpretation

Although few people would consider all photographs of prisoners of war to be objectionable as a matter of principle, most would surely oppose the publication or transmission of pictures of prisoners of war being interrogated under torture,¹⁶ or cowering on the ground awaiting a further beating from their captors.¹⁷ Since Article 13 of the Convention does not draw a clear dividing line between what is acceptable and what is a breach of its provisions, it may be helpful to reflect on the following considerations, which are by no means exhaustive:

a. The prisoner's honour. According to the ICRC's *Commentary*, the protection afforded by Article 13 "extends to moral values, such as ... the [prisoner's] honour".¹⁸ Depending on the circumstances, the very act of taking pictures of a prisoner of war will in some cases humiliate him and wound his sense of honour, for example, if he is forced to put on his captors' uniform for the purpose of the photograph. But what if a picture is taken of a prisoner in non-humiliating circumstances (e.g. reading a book) without his knowledge? Can it be said that his honour is affected while he remains unaware of the photograph?

b. Consequences for the prisoner or his family. Depending on the circumstances, taking a photograph of a prisoner from which it is

¹⁶ E.g. *The Illustrated History of the Vietnam War*, Brian Becket, Blandford Press, Poole, Dorset, 1985, p. 41, showing South Vietnamese Marines subjecting "a Viet Cong prisoner to on-the-spot interrogation. The prisoner's head is held under water until he's about to drown".

¹⁷ E.g. Beckett, *op. cit.*, at p. 76, with the caption "The interrogation of a NVA [North Vietnamese Army] prisoner. In a brutal, dirty war like Vietnam, there were excesses on both sides".

¹⁸ J. Pictet, ed., *Commentary on Geneva Convention III of 1949*, Geneva, ICRC, 1960, p. 141, which emphasizes that the concept of humane treatment implies more than an absence of corporal punishment, and involves a positive obligation "to stand up for [the prisoner], to give him assistance and support and also to defend or guard him from injury or danger".

possible to identify him can redound either to his advantage or to his disadvantage. For example, by proving that he was alive and in captivity on the day the picture was taken, such a picture might help to ensure his proper treatment, on the basis that his captors could thereafter hardly deny all knowledge of him, and would then be bound to provide a full account of their dealings with him. On the other hand, pictures of identifiable prisoners can endanger their families. For example, during the 1991 Gulf War the Iraqi authorities were reported to have arrested the families of Iraqi soldiers who appeared on television as prisoners of war, on suspicion that the soldiers had deserted their posts in order to surrender.¹⁹ Similar examples could be given from other conflicts.

c. The photographer's intention. Few would dispute that Article 13 is contravened where the photographer's intention is to humiliate the prisoner by taking and publishing a picture showing him in degrading circumstances. But what if the photographer is a journalist anxious to record and report degrading conditions in a prisoner-of-war camp, in the hope that international outrage will result in improvements?²⁰ Is he invariably to refrain from photographing or publishing such scenes for fear of contravening the said article? It has been pointed out that during the 1991 Gulf War the retransmission on British and American television of captured coalition aircrew being interviewed by the Iraqi authorities, and condemning the coalition action against Iraq was arguably a breach of Article 13 in its own right.²¹ However, it might also be argued that by retransmitting the offending film, the western media were doing no more than reporting a contravention of the Third Convention.

d. Routine and staged events. A distinction may be drawn between pictures of "routine" events as they take place, such as prisoners of war in the act of surrendering, and events deliberately staged for the benefit of the cameras.²²

¹⁹ See *The Times*, 13 February 1991.

²⁰ This may have been the motive of the photographer who took the picture of Bosnian Muslims in a Bosnian Serb-run prison camp featured in the Amnesty International advertisement in *The Times* on 19 September 1992. It was undoubtedly Amnesty International's motive in publishing it.

²¹ See Hampson's chapter on "Liability of War Crimes" in *The Gulf War 1990-91 in International and English Law* (ed. Rowe), Routledge, London, 1993.

²² See Hampson, *op. cit.*

The fact that it is not possible to say with any degree of certainty which, if any, of these considerations is relevant or decisive when considering a possible breach of Article 13 demonstrates the unsatisfactory state of international humanitarian law on this subject. Laws whose true meaning is unclear are generally not good laws. Ideally they should be rewritten. It is unfortunate that the 1977 Geneva Protocols,²³ which update the 1949 Conventions, leave Article 13 untouched. No doubt the whole question of photographing prisoners of war²⁴ will be reconsidered when in due course the 1949 Conventions are next reviewed, but in the meantime it would be desirable to encourage a common interpretation of Article 13 as it relates to photography.

Proposed interpretation

Although contraventions of Article 13 have occurred in previous conflicts, such as the Korean, Vietnam and Iran-Iraq Wars, it was the Gulf War of 1991 (in which breaches were alleged to have occurred on both sides) which prompted moves towards such a common interpretation. ICRC suggestions during the conflict that publishing photographs of prisoners of war inevitably exposed them to public curiosity gave rise to protests from the United States over such an interpretation of Article 13.²⁵ For a time care was taken to avoid publishing photographs showing prisoners' faces, but subsequently such caution was abandoned.²⁶ Another suggestion was that a photograph would contravene Article 13 if, but only if, it showed individuals being held captive in a humiliating way.²⁷ The idea has its attrac-

²³ Protocol I additional to the 1949 Geneva Conventions deals with international armed conflicts including wars of national liberation (Article 1.4), while Protocol II is concerned with non-international armed conflicts — see also Note 27 relating to Article 3 common to the 1949 Conventions.

²⁴ Under Article 27 of the Fourth Geneva Convention of 1949, civilians in the territories of parties to the conflict and in occupied territories enjoy protection similar to that contained in Article 13 of the Third Convention.

²⁵ *The Times*, 25 January 1991.

²⁶ See Rowe's chapter "Prisoners of War in the Gulf" in *The Gulf War 1990-91 in International and English Law* (ed. Rowe), Routledge, London, 1993.

²⁷ It is of interest that in relation to armed conflicts not of an international character, Article 3 common to all four Geneva Conventions of 1949 requires humane treatment in all circumstances and prohibits "outrages upon personal dignity, in particular, humiliating and degrading treatment" against "Persons taking no active part in the hostilities, including members of armed forces ... placed *hors de combat* by ... detention...". Thus the "humiliation" test already pertains to conflicts to which common Article 3 applies.

tions, being so closely related to the concept of the prisoners' honour, but the "humiliation" test is a subjective one, and thus unlikely to lead to consistent and uniform interpretation.

The British Red Cross Society (BRCS) took the view that the problem was sufficiently serious to justify proposing a draft resolution for consideration by the 26th International Conference of the Red Cross and Red Crescent, which was due to be held in Budapest at the end of 1991. As the conference was ultimately postponed *sine die*, the draft resolution was not discussed, but the interpretation it put forward remains valid, and the text, together with its accompanying Explanatory Note, is accordingly reproduced below.

The test proposed by the BRCS for deciding whether to publish a photograph or transmit film of prisoners of war would be whether the prisoners can be individually identified. Only if the prisoners' features cannot be recognized would it be permissible to publish or transmit. This approach has a number of advantages:

- a. It involves an objective test;
- b. It is easy to understand and to implement;
- c. Because it is concerned with prisoners of war as individuals, it reflects the understanding referred to above that Article 13 is designed to protect individual honour;
- d. By referring only to the publication or transmission of pictures of prisoners of war, it primarily restricts the media without, for example, prohibiting the taking of photographs intended for legitimate official purposes, such as the registration and documentation of prisoners of war.

Future action

Although the images of the 1991 Gulf War are fast fading from the memory as equally horrifying photographs from current conflicts catch the media's attention, the problem of defining the prohibition in Article 13, paragraph 2, of the Third Geneva Convention still remains, and action should be taken now to seek to reach a common interpretation suited to modern circumstances. There are various possible fora for starting this process: the proposed International Conference for the Protection of War Victims, which is scheduled to be held in August/September 1993, the Council of Delegates of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, which will meet in late

October 1993, and the autumn 1993 Session of the United Nations General Assembly, are just three examples.

In our rapidly changing world, it is increasingly important for States to seek ways, in addition to Diplomatic Conferences which can take years to convene, to adapt existing international humanitarian law to present needs. It is hoped that governments, perhaps encouraged by the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, will seize the opportunity to do so with respect to the protection of prisoners of war against insults and public curiosity, which may not only set a useful precedent, but also help to make the media more aware of their significant role and responsibilities in implementing international humanitarian law and of the need for them to gain a better understanding of that law.

Gordon Risius
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DRAFT RESOLUTION

PROTECTION OF PRISONERS OF WAR
AGAINST INSULTS AND PUBLIC CURIOSITY

The 26th International Conference of the Red Cross and Red Crescent,

having taken note with interest of the report submitted by the ICRC on the treatment of prisoners of war during armed conflicts,

stressing the importance of respect for the rules of international humanitarian law, in particular those contained in the Third Geneva Convention of 12 August 1949, requiring that prisoners of war be treated humanely at all times,

reaffirming in particular the rule that prisoners of war must be protected against insults and public curiosity as set out in Article 13 of the Third Geneva Convention of 1949,

noting however that the prohibition against insults and public curiosity must be interpreted in the light of modern communications technology,

aware of the important role of the media in helping to ensure respect for international humanitarian law,

recognizing however that media images of prisoners of war, which it is claimed provide evidence that prisoners of war are alive and of their standard of treatment, can also humiliate prisoners of war, endanger their families and make return to their own State more difficult,

recalling that prisoners of war, upon capture, are required only to give certain specified personal details for the purpose of identification as prescribed in Article 17 of the Third Geneva Convention of 1949,

deeply concerned that public declarations by prisoners of war are often made under duress and contravene Articles 13 and 17 of the Third Geneva Convention,

1. *calls upon* States and other competent authorities to interpret the prohibition against insults and public curiosity in Article 13 of the Third Geneva Convention of 1949 as prohibiting the public transmission of images of prisoners of war as individuals, but not forbidding the public transmission of images of prisoners of war who cannot be individually recognized,
2. *appeals to* States and other competent authorities in particular not to permit media images of prisoners of war making statements,
3. *urges* media organizations and individual journalists to act prudently and discreetly when reporting on prisoners of war, bearing in mind the effect

of publication or transmission of their work on the prisoners of war or their families,²⁸

4. *requests* States, with the support of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, to spread knowledge of the international rules for the protection of prisoners of war against insults and public curiosity to media organizations and to individual journalists,²⁹
5. *also requests* States to take appropriate measures to ensure compliance with these rules.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

PRISONERS OF WAR: PUBLICITY AND PROPAGANDA

The Third Geneva Convention of 1949 requires prisoners of war to be treated with humanity at all times (Article 13). In particular, prisoners of war must be protected against insults and public curiosity. However, this provision was agreed before the advent of television and contemporary communication technology. It has been argued that the prohibition against insults and public curiosity must be interpreted in the light of modern capabilities.

On the one hand, a newspaper photograph or television picture of a prisoner of war can be claimed to prove that he/she is alive, and to show his/her standard of treatment. On the other hand, such publicity can humiliate the prisoner of war, endanger his/her family and make his/her return to his/her own State more difficult. Consequently the media must be prudent and consider the consequences of their actions.

A practical way forward is to interpret the prohibition against insults and public curiosity as prohibiting the transmission of images of prisoners of war as individuals, whilst permitting images of prisoners of war who cannot be individually recognized, e.g. a shot of the backs of prisoners of war, of prisoners of war marching at a distance, or of a prisoner-of-war camp in the distance would be acceptable. In addition, prisoners of war should not be

²⁸ By drawing attention to Article 13, compliance with the terms of this resolution and the "individual recognition" test might encourage the media to become more familiar with international humanitarian law generally.

²⁹ As an illustration, over the last few years the British Red Cross Society has organized a number of half-day courses of instruction in international humanitarian law for trainee television journalists.

pictured making a declaration, since these are often made under duress and contravene the right of a prisoner of war only to provide personal information (Article 17, paragraph four).

The problems described above arose during the Gulf War, although they have also occurred in other armed conflicts.

Michael A. Meyer
British Red Cross
7 November 1991

**HOW ICRC FIELD ACTIVITIES SERVE
TO PROTECT THE VICTIMS OF VIOLENCE**

The ICRC was represented at the second World Conference on Human Rights which took place in Vienna from 14 to 25 June 1993. (See under the heading "Miscellaneous", pp. 319-324 the article on the work and Final Declaration of the Conference, including the address by the President of the ICRC.)

On that occasion, the ICRC drew up and distributed to all the delegations a report entitled: "Human Rights and the ICRC — International Humanitarian Law". The first part of the report deals with international humanitarian law as a body of rules aimed at curbing violence and safeguarding the fundamental rights of human beings in time of armed conflicts. The second part looks at the implementation of humanitarian law and the third part entitled: "How ICRC Field Activities Serve to Protect the Victims" describes the institution's numerous efforts to solve present-day humanitarian problems.

In its last two issues (March-April and May-June 1993), the Review concentrated on examining the legal aspects of IHL and human rights law¹ and then went on to examine the problem of internal strife.²

In response to a request by many of our readers, this issue of the Review contains several extracts of the above-mentioned report, with stress being placed on the ICRC's presence during current armed conflicts and situations of violence.

¹ See "Humanitarian law and human rights law — alike yet distinct" by Jacques Meurant, "International humanitarian law and human rights law" by Louise Doswald-Beck and Sylvain Vité, and "Implementation of human rights and humanitarian law in situations of armed conflict" by David Weissbrodt and Peggy L. Hicks, in *IRRC*, No. 293, March-April 1993, pp. 89-138.

² See "Action taken by the International Committee of the Red Cross in situations of internal violence" by Marion Harroff-Tavel and "Humanitarian standards for internal strife — a brief review of new developments", in *IRRC*, No. 294, May-June 1993, pp. 195-226.

1. The ICRC's work in present-day armed conflicts: some examples

Over the past five years the ICRC has been active in most of the armed conflicts that have been raging in various parts of the world.

Activities for prisoners of war

During the American intervention against General Noriega's government in Panama, the ICRC visited 1,352 prisoners of war and civilian internees. Its delegates provided the country's hospitals with the surgical materials they needed to treat the wounded.

During the Iran/Iraq war the ICRC played a unique part in the protection of the prisoners of war taken by both sides. In the ten years of the war its delegates registered 56,925 Iraqi POWs held in Iran and 39,588 Iranian POWs held in Iraq. Upwards of 13 million Red Cross messages were exchanged between the prisoners and their families. After the war was over, the ICRC organised the repatriation of over 80,000 POWs. Because the ICRC had carefully and systematically registered all the family messages exchanged, it is presently in a position to state that numerous POWs are still being held in both countries.

In Chad, the ICRC supervised the repatriation of 250 Libyan prisoners of war in 1990.

ICRC activities for civilians in occupied territories

In the territories occupied by Israel, the ICRC monitors compliance with the Fourth Geneva Convention relative to the treatment of civilians in time of war. For 25 years delegates have been providing protection and assistance to all the victims of the situation. They make representations to the Israeli authorities urging them to ensure that detainees and the populations in the occupied territories are treated in accordance with the rules laid down in the humanitarian treaties.

The Gulf war: using force to implement UN resolutions

As soon as the conflict broke out between Iraq and Kuwait, the ICRC let it be known that it wished to take steps to ensure compliance with humanitarian law. When the coalition forces went into action in January 1991, the ICRC, in keeping with its mandate, launched an operation to bring impartial and independent assistance to all the victims of the war.

Moreover, as a neutral intermediary, the ICRC sought by its presence and its work, to ensure that the suffering of the victims would be given due consideration at a time when political passions were running high.

Before the hostilities broke out, the ICRC called on all the parties to the conflict, reminding them of their treaty obligations to use force discriminately and to respect the rights of non-combatants.

More than once the ICRC solemnly appealed to all the belligerents, "in the name of all civilian and military victims", to show respect for the latter and to treat them humanely.

The ICRC visited 88,221 Iraqi prisoners of war held by the coalition forces; in the months following the end of hostilities it distributed medicines and medical supplies worth over 20,500,000 Swiss francs in Iraqi hospitals, and used trucks to deliver 250 million litres of drinking water throughout the country, the supply system in many towns having been damaged. Almost forty ICRC engineers helped repair a score of water treatment plants in southern Iraq and in Baghdad.

In those parts of Iraqi Kurdistan held by the Peshmerga, the ICRC delegation in Baghdad stepped in in late April 1991 to provide impartial protection and assistance to all the victims. It set up a field hospital to treat the wounded in Naopares, and brought help to 200,000 displaced people. ICRC delegates distributed urgently required supplies to over 4,000 Iraqi soldiers and officers held by Kurds and later facilitated their release and their return to their families.

The ICRC in Bosnia: mediation and protection for the civilian population

In Bosnia-Herzegovina the combatants' chief objective is to drive out of the areas they control all persons belonging to another ethnic

group. The ICRC's main objective is therefore to protect all civilians in the power of a group which is hostile to them.

The ICRC launched its operation in Bosnia-Herzegovina when hostilities broke out in April 1992. It still has great difficulty in doing everything it should, but has obtained recognition by all the parties to the conflict of its specific role as a neutral and impartial intermediary.

On several occasions, for example, it has been able to bring plenipotentiary representatives of all three belligerents to the negotiating table to discuss humanitarian issues. On 1 October 1992, an agreement was signed for the unconditional release of all detainees. Over 9,000 detainees have since been freed, more than 5,500 of them under ICRC auspices.

In May 1993, the ICRC, whose political neutrality is not questioned, is the only international agency still working in the Banja Luka area (controlled by the Bosnian Serb forces). Its delegates carry out protection and assistance activities for the civilian population, urging the combatants not to ill-treat ethnic minorities, distributing relief supplies to displaced and vulnerable individuals and delivering surgical supplies to hospitals.³

In Somalia: ICRC relief operations carried out in exceptionally dangerous conditions

In January 1992 the ICRC launched one of its largest food relief operations ever: in a little over one year it distributed 180,000 tonnes of food and 1,680 tonnes of seed, vaccinated over 500,000 head of cattle and provided medical aid on a large scale.

The war has reduced Somalia to a shambles. The ICRC has therefore had to negotiate the safety of its food convoys and their protection from bandits with the many rival clans.

Thanks to its political neutrality, the ICRC won the confidence of all the clans, who came to an agreement on guaranteeing the safety of the institution's humanitarian activities.

From the far north to the south, travelling under the escort of different armed groups made up of members of the main clans, ICRC delegates acted with complete impartiality, distributing the supplies required to meet the most urgent needs. The most vulnerable people,

³ Since the conflict broke out the ICRC has visited 13,000 detainees, forwarded over 700,000 family messages, distributed surgical materials worth 8,360,000 Swiss francs and provided half a million people with 25,000 tonnes of relief supplies.

in particular members of the weakest clans, were thus also able to benefit.

Somalia may have ceased to exist as a functioning state, but the country's medical facilities were nevertheless able to continue providing certain services thanks to an extensive ICRC support programme. Until March 1993, ICRC surgeons and anaesthetists were operating with Somali doctors at Keysemey hospital (northern Mogadishu). A mobile surgical team operated on request in all functioning medical centres. The hospitals and dispensaries in several towns received regular consignments of medicines and surgical supplies.

Over 250 wells were sunk in spots throughout the country around which groups of vulnerable people had gathered.

In Sri Lanka: food convoys bound for Jaffna protected by ICRC neutrality

The Jaffna peninsula, at the northern tip of Sri Lanka, is home to almost 900,000 people. It is connected to the rest of the island by a narrow strip of land. The Tamil insurgents have made it their stronghold, and the belligerents have been unable to reach an agreement on the opening of an overland supply corridor. The peninsula is therefore subject to a *de facto* total blockade.

Shortages of food and medicines could have threatened the survival of the civilian population. For humanitarian reasons, the ICRC asked both parties to allow it to bring supplies into the region.

That agreement having been obtained, the ICRC chartered three ships which, every month for the past two years, have been ferrying in 7,000-10,000 tonnes of essential goods (food and medicines) supplied by the authorities in Colombo. The ships are loaded and offloaded under ICRC supervision, thereby guaranteeing that their cargo is used strictly for humanitarian purposes.

Thanks to these monthly shipments, the civilian population, totally cut off from the rest of the island by the conflict, has been able to survive.

ICRC delegates based in Jaffna also use the ships to evacuate people who are wounded or seriously ill.

The former Soviet Union: the ICRC's impartial humanitarian work in Tajikistan

In December 1992, the unstable situation brought about by the internal conflict in Tajikistan led to the internal displacement of almost 500,000 people (10% of the population).

In January 1993, the conflict lessened in intensity everywhere except in the eastern Garm valley, where government troops and opposition forces continue to clash.

In view of the number of displaced people and their urgent need for medical help and relief supplies, the ICRC decided to expand its activities in Tajikistan, where it had been present since October 1992. It concentrated on providing assistance in areas directly affected by the conflict: Dushanbe and southern Tajikistan, under government control; and the Garm valley, controlled by the opposition.

During the first half of 1993 the ICRC conducted a relief operation for 150,000 particularly vulnerable people among the displaced population, enabling them to survive the winter.

In spring 1993 the displaced people started heading back to their homes. The ICRC, again with agreement of all the parties, provided relief supplies along the way.

On several occasions the ICRC appealed to the parties to the conflict to comply with humanitarian rules, and in particular not to take hostages, and to protect the civilian population, the wounded and prisoners. Combatants were asked to respect the red cross and red crescent emblems.

* * *

In all the above situations, the parties to the various conflicts recognised the ICRC's special role as a neutral intermediary between victims and combatants.

But compliance with humanitarian rules cannot be taken for granted. Serious breaches of the Geneva Conventions have occurred, and the ICRC must be tireless in its efforts to spread its message, renegotiate agreements and convince the parties to respect humanitarian principles.

2. The ICRC and multinational forces

The end of the Cold War heralded an upsurge in multinational political and military initiatives.

In Liberia, the ECOMOG regional forces are acting as a buffer between the warring factions. In Somalia, peace-keeping forces are trying to restore peace and order to the country. In Cambodia, UN forces are overseeing the application of the peace agreement signed in Paris. In Bosnia, the mandate of the UN soldiers is to safeguard the humanitarian convoys of the High Commissioner for Refugees and demilitarized and protected areas.

These multinational forces have been deployed not to make war but to prevent it. Their mandate often includes humanitarian duties.

Their mandate to restore and maintain order nevertheless occasionally obliges them to resort to force. Casualties are inevitable. In that event, the presence of a humanitarian organisation able to ensure the protection of any such victims and to act as a neutral intermediary between them and combatants is required.

Here again, the ICRC is qualified to assume this role.

In Liberia and Cambodia, ICRC delegates recently started visiting persons captured by the peace-keeping forces.

3. The ICRC's work in situations of internal violence: a few examples

In situations of internal violence, the ICRC may decide to offer its services as a politically neutral and impartial organisation that is able, by means of its activities for the victims, to ease tension in the country concerned.

In South Africa: the ICRC's role in situations of internal violence

South Africa's moves towards political change have been accompanied by tension and disturbances: armed attacks, demonstrations, arrests, states of emergency.

The Government recently agreed to allow the ICRC into police stations and prisons to ensure that detainees arrested in connection with the events are treated properly.

During the first three months of this year, ICRC delegates had private interviews with 2,916 detainees. Confidential reports on the detainees' treatment have been sent regularly to the authorities in charge, with requests for the appropriate improvements.

In the townships rocked by periodic outbreaks of violence, the ICRC is working in cooperation with the South African Red Cross Society. At each demonstration, ICRC delegates and SARCS first-aiders stand ready to step in at the first sign of violence and treat the wounded.

As a non-political organisation, the ICRC maintains an ongoing dialogue with all groups. It acts as a neutral and impartial intermediary between the victims of acts of violence and those who commit them. In so doing, it seeks to have a moderating influence on the demonstrators, who are sometimes tempted to give way to anger and brutality.

Malawi: another situation of internal violence

Malawi has been ruled since it gained independence in 1963 by a one-party regime. Many opponents to the regime have been arrested and incarcerated in the country's prisons.

In spite of an amnesty proclaimed in 1992, the determination of some sections of the population to see a multiparty system installed has led to renewed tension and a fresh wave of arrests.

In 1992 the ICRC obtained the authorities' permission to visit, in accordance with its standard procedures, prisoners being held in all places of detention in the country.

The purpose of the visits is to make sure that those interned because of their actual or alleged opposition to the existing government are not subjected to discriminatory treatment: disappearances, physical or psychological ill-treatment, inadequate material conditions of detention.

The ICRC delegates based in Malawi periodically send the authorities confidential reports on their findings. The purpose of the reports is to prompt the authorities to take all necessary measures to solve the problems observed.

In the Red Cross and Red Crescent World

DR. AHMED ABU-GOURA STEPS DOWN AS CHAIRMAN OF THE STANDING COMMISSION OF THE RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT

After more than forty years of service with the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, Dr. Ahmed Abu-Goura has decided to retire from his official functions. Dr. Abu-Goura is certainly not severing his links with our Movement, as he told me when I visited him at his residence in the Jordan Valley. He is still ready to share his wealth of experience with his friends and colleagues in the Jordan National Red Crescent Society and in various bodies of the Movement. He feels, however, that owing to his age and health it is time to give up his official functions. Although we regret his departure, we must of course respect his decision.

It therefore seems fitting to recall the milestones in the career of this eminent member of our Movement.

Dr. Abu-Goura, who is married and father of five children, has pursued a threefold career, first as a doctor, then as a politician and, lastly, as a leading figure in the Movement.

He qualified as a doctor at the University of Damascus in 1943, after which he specialized in radiology at the University of London (1950-51) and in radiotherapy at Harvard University (1956).

In 1951 he was appointed Director of the Radiology Department of the Ministry of Health in Amman.

He joined the Ministry of Health in 1965, and his political career culminated in his appointment as Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in 1968.

Turning now to his work with the Movement, Dr. Abu Goura was appointed Secretary General of the Jordan National Red Crescent Society in 1952 and became its President in 1964. He was elected a member of the Standing Commission in 1977, became its Chairman in 1981, and was re-elected in 1986.

Dr. Abu-Goura's long period of service to the Movement was marked by four major developments: the growth of the Jordan Red Crescent; the promotion of humanitarian law; the forging of closer ties between the Movement and the Arab world; and the consolidation and strengthening of the Movement's unity.

The Jordan Red Crescent's forty-five years of existence have coincided with a particularly turbulent period in history and, under the guidance of Dr. Abu-Goura, its structure and activities have developed to a remarkable degree.

In 1948, the very year when the then Transjordanian Red Crescent was created (it was renamed in 1968), war broke out in the Middle East. Despite its limited resources, the National Society displayed courage and dynamism in bringing help to military and civilian casualties of the conflict.

Among other things it set up the Red Crescent hospital, to which an out-patient unit was later added, mainly to cope with the massive influx of refugees into Amman.

The Six-Day war, the internal disturbances of 1970, the October war of 1973 and, lastly, the Gulf war were all watersheds in the history of the region and represented major humanitarian challenges for the Jordan Red Crescent.

Under the authority of Dr. Abu-Goura, the National Society rose to these challenges and did a tremendous amount of work, while at the same time building up its own capacity.

Dr. Abu-Goura was also closely associated with the international activities undertaken by the ICRC and the Federation during these periods. The long history of this cooperation was not without the tensions that are inevitable under such circumstances. The end result, however, was always a constructive solution which enabled the Movement to undertake extensive and productive humanitarian action.

Today, the Jordan Red Crescent runs two major hospitals and a number of clinics, dispensaries and nurseries. It has a blood bank, provides training for medical personnel, and runs health education courses and immunization programmes. It plays an active role in spreading knowledge of international humanitarian law and the principles of the Movement by means of its different branches and sections, including flourishing women's and youth sections.

In short, the very difficult period traversed by the Jordan Red Crescent under the leadership of Dr. Abu-Goura, far from weakening it, created an impetus which spurred its development.

As regards international humanitarian law, Dr. Abu-Goura was very closely associated with the work which gave this law its present form. In particular, he was actively involved in the Diplomatic Conference of 1974-1977, which drew up and adopted the 1977 Additional Protocols, in preparatory meetings held within the Movement, and in informal meetings organized by the San Remo International Institute of Humanitarian Law between sessions of the Diplomatic Conference. He followed closely the work of the San Remo Institute as a longstanding member of its Executive Board. Furthermore, he repeatedly voiced his concern about violations of humanitarian law

and reminded governments of their duty in that regard, especially in statements made in his capacity as Chairman of the Standing Commission. Dr. Abu-Goura has always linked his concern with respect for international humanitarian law to the even more fundamental goal of world peace. He made significant contributions to the World Red Cross and Red Crescent Conferences on Peace held in Belgrade in 1975, then in Aaland/Stockholm in 1984. He missed no opportunity to express his alarm over the arms race and to reiterate his conviction that world peace would one day be achieved. Speaking at the 25th International Conference of the Red Cross, he stated: "I add my voice to the voice of millions of people aspiring to peace", and went on to say: "I do have faith in our noble shared message of peace and humanity".

Dr. Abu-Goura undeniably played an important role in the advancement of the Movement in the Arab world. He was listened to with respect at meetings of the Arab Red Crescent and Red Cross Societies, and initiated regional dissemination seminars aimed at developing and spreading knowledge of the Movement's activities and principles in the region.

Another of his concerns was to obtain full recognition, on an equal footing with the red cross, for the red crescent emblem used by most National Societies in Islamic countries. The addition of the term "Red Crescent" to the name of the League (now the International Federation) and to that of the International Conference was the culmination of his efforts, and this he viewed as more significant than the symbol itself.

Indeed, Dr. Abu-Goura has always taken great interest in the issue of the Movement's emblems and recently had the following to say on the subject, so crucial to the unity of the Movement: "Unlike the cross, the crescent is not a religious symbol. It is used to identify Muslims, not to symbolize Islam in places of prayer. The Koran contains a single verse on the crescent: 'They ask thee concerning the New Moons. Say: they are but signs to mark fixed periods of time in (the affairs of) men, and for Pilgrimage.' However, it has so often been used to identify Muslims that it has come to be known as a symbol of Islam, placed on minarets for example. Yet it is not a symbol of prayer. As far as our Movement is concerned, the two emblems have nothing to do with religion, even though they are perceived by the public as having religious significance".

Dr. Abu-Goura underlined that, despite his attachment to the red cross and red crescent emblems, it would be worthwhile once again to seek a solution in the form of "a single emblem, devoid of any religious, racial or political connotation whatsoever".

He went on to say that this issue should be linked to the aspiration to make the Movement "an organization that is harmonious, coherent and neutral

in all its activities". To undertake a new study on the Movement's emblem would be "to work together for the future of the Movement".

This leads us to the final aspect of Dr. Abu-Goura's activities in the service of the Movement, that is, his ceaseless efforts to safeguard its unity. Having had the privilege of working with him for many years in the Standing Commission, I can attest to the fact that as the Commission's Chairman, Dr. Abu-Goura strove constantly to promote harmony within the Movement and to restore dialogue when tensions emerged. He also initiated the informal meetings of the "three Presidents" (ICRC, Federation and Standing Commission), at first with Mr. Hay and Mr. de la Mata, and then with Mr. Sommaruga and Mr. Villarroel-Lander.

For all these reasons, we take this opportunity, on behalf of the ICRC and I can safely say of the Movement as a whole, to pay tribute and express our gratitude to Dr. Abu-Goura, an outstanding figure in our Movement.

Yves Sandoz

*Member of the Executive Board
Director, Principles, Law and
Relations with the Movement*

Thirty-fourth award of the Florence Nightingale Medal

Geneva, 12 May 1993

CIRCULAR No. 568

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

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,

In Circular No. 561 dated 30 September 1992, the International Committee of the Red Cross invited the Central Committees of National Societies to submit all relevant information on qualified nurses and voluntary aides who are active members or regular helpers of a National Society or of an affiliated medical or nursing institution and who are considered suitable candidates to receive the Florence Nightingale Medal.

The object of this Medal is to honour male and female nurses and voluntary aides who have distinguished themselves, whether in time of peace or in war, by their exceptional devotion to the wounded, the sick, the disabled or persons whose health is at risk.

The International Committee, after careful study of the candidatures submitted by the National Societies, is pleased to announce that the nurses and voluntary aides listed below have been selected for the thirty-fourth award of the Florence Nightingale Medal.

CHILE

1. *Mrs Carmen Bustos López*, volunteer nurse with the Chilean Red Cross.
Director General of nursing with the Chilean Red Cross.
Exemplary career in the field of training within the National Society.

COSTA RICA

2. *Mrs Evelyn Jaenstchke Macglakin*, graduate nurse. Director of volunteer nursing staff of the Costa Rica Red Cross.

Courage and exceptional dedication to disaster victims. Exemplary work in the field of public health.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

3. *Dr Claudia Adkins*, graduate nurse. Director of nursing care.
Promotion of nursing care training. Outstanding career as a Red Cross volunteer.

ETHIOPIA

4. *Sister Tabotwa Tsegaye*, graduate nurse. Head nurse — operating theatre.
Exemplary dedication and readiness to help in a conflict situation.

FINLAND

5. *Mrs Sirkka Maija Sorvettula*, graduate nurse. Nursing adviser to the Finnish Federation of Nurses.
Outstanding career with emphasis on the promotion of nursing care.

FRANCE

6. *Miss Hélène Le Guen*, graduate social worker. Red Cross volunteer.
Exceptional dedication during the Second World War and the Algerian War of Independence.
7. *Miss Marie Rauscher*, graduate nurse and graduate social worker.
Centenarian recognized for her exceptional career with the French Red Cross in caring for the wounded during the two World Wars and for her active involvement in the social field.

GREAT BRITAIN

8. *Miss Mary Elizabeth Perkins*, graduate nurse. Field nurse.
Missions abroad for the ICRC, the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and the British Red Cross. Great capacity for work in difficult situations.

GREECE

9. *Mrs Hellen Potamianou*, volunteer nurse with the Hellenic Red Cross. Inspector of volunteer nurses.
Special dedication during the Second World War and during the Patras earthquake.

HUNGARY

10. *Mrs Galánthay Emil*, volunteer nurse with the Hungarian Red Cross.
Exceptional courage and total commitment to Red Cross activities during and after the Second World War.
11. *Mrs Marosi József*, graduate nurse. Volunteer nurse with the Hungarian Red Cross.
Exceptional dedication during the Second World War while working as a Red Cross volunteer and, subsequently, as a professional in the field of nursing care and its promotion.

IRELAND

12. *Mrs Ellen Bernadette Keane*, graduate nurse.
Exceptional dedication and pioneering work in the promotion of nursing care at home.

ITALY

13. *Mrs Myriam Mancini*, volunteer nurse with the Italian Red Cross. Health education instructor.
Outstanding career with the Italian Red Cross, particularly during the Second World War.

JAPAN

14. *Miss Yukiko Arita*, graduate nurse. Nursing adviser to the Japanese Red Cross.
A leader in the promotion of nursing care, particularly in the field of teaching.
15. *Miss Toshiko Terashima*, graduate nurse. Nursing tutor.
Exemplary career in nursing, particularly in promoting the teaching of nursing care.

NEW ZEALAND

16. *Miss Philippa Parker*, graduate nurse, member of the New Zealand Red Cross Society. Currently working at ICRC headquarters.
Numerous missions abroad and exemplary commitment in situations of armed conflict.
17. *Mrs Wendy Smith*, graduate nurse, member of the New Zealand Red Cross Society. Head of delegation for the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

Numerous missions on behalf of the International Federation, particularly for the development of nursing care in the field.

MYANMAR

18. *Mrs Yaw Nam*, graduate nurse. Nurse.
Exceptional conduct and extraordinary dedication during crisis situations.

PAKISTAN

19. *Mrs Sheila Ahsan Nagi*, graduate nurse. Nursing adviser to the Ministry of Health.
Exemplary career as a nursing professional in the fields of management and teaching at a high professional level.
20. *Miss Nisab Akhtar*, graduate nurse. Head of nursing care.
Exceptional career as a nursing professional in the fields of management and teaching, carried on simultaneously with a career as a volunteer with the Pakistan Red Crescent Society.

NETHERLANDS

21. *Miss Cornelia Baas*, graduate nurse. Field nurse for the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.
Exemplary readiness to play a part in difficult situations during missions abroad.

POLAND

22. *Mrs Eugenia Maria Binzer*, graduate nurse. Retired.
Life devoted to the needy within the context of voluntary Red Cross service.
23. *Mrs Irena Fabiańska*, graduate nurse. Retired.
Exceptional dedication during the Second World War and, subsequently, in working for the promotion of nursing care and teaching.
24. *Mrs Wacława Kamińska*, graduate nurse. Retired.
Exceptional dedication during the Second World War and subsequent voluntary and professional involvement with the Polish Red Cross.
25. *Miss Bohdana Milosława Kijewska*, graduate nurse. Retired.
Special distinction during the Second World War.
26. *Mrs Janina Parżnicka*, Red Cross volunteer nurse. Retired.
Exceptional commitment during the Second World War, with total disregard for her own safety. Outstanding work as a Red Cross volunteer.

PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

27. *Mrs Li Guimei*, graduate nurse. Head nurse.
Excellent example for the young in the field of nursing care. Great commitment in her professional life.
28. *Mrs Zhang Jin Yu*, graduate nurse. Head nurse.
Pioneering work in the field of nursing care.
29. *Mrs Zhang Shuihua*, graduate nurse. Vice president of the Red Cross Committee in Ningxia Hui.
Great dedication and pioneering work in the fields of public health and teaching.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA

30. *Mrs Myung-hee Choi*, graduate nurse. Director of nursing care.
Recognized for her dedication and high professional standards.
31. *Prof. Chung-hae Hong*, professor of nursing care with the Republic of Korea National Red Cross.
Exemplary career in the promotion and development of nursing care and in the medical and social field.

EL SALVADOR

32. *Mrs Concepción del Tránsito Guillén de Estrada*, nursing aide.
Outstanding commitment within the local section of the Red Cross, with total disregard for her own safety.

SWEDEN

33. *Miss Ingrid Andersson*, graduate nurse of the Swedish Red Cross.
Exemplary work in Sweden and in several situations of armed conflict.

THAILAND

34. *Miss Somsong Kesonmala*, graduate nurse. Nursing professional with the Thai Red Cross Society.
Special dedication to refugees and to Red Cross activities.
35. *Miss Pattana Meesook*, graduate nurse. Head nurse.
Exemplary volunteer work with the Red Cross in times of disaster and armed conflict.

The thirty-fourth award made on 12 May 1993 brings the total number of medals awarded to 1,075.

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

The Committee would be grateful if the Medals could be presented in the course of this year and requests the Central Committees to invest the presentation ceremony with a character of formality in keeping with the founders' wishes.

The International Committee of the Red Cross requests the Central Committees to convey on this occasion its warmest congratulations to the nurses and voluntary aides who are to be awarded the Florence Nightingale Medal.

With high consideration.

FOR THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

Cornelio Sommaruga
President

SYMPOSIUM ON ANTI-PERSONNEL MINES

(Montreux, Switzerland, 21-23 April 1993)

Introduction

Every year, thousands of men, women and children are victims of anti-personnel mines. The use of these often extremely pernicious weapons has resulted in a tragedy that is all the more acute in humanitarian terms as, apart from the appalling number of victims they cause, anti-personnel mines not only kill but mutilate horrendously, strike blindly at all human beings alike, and continue to spread terror for years or even decades after the hostilities have ended. Moreover, massive and indiscriminate sowing of mines renders whole regions useless for human habitation and activity, thereby resulting in substantial population movements and consequent economic destabilization in other neighbouring regions. As a method of warfare, such weapons are not in conformity with certain fundamental rules of international humanitarian law governing the conduct of hostilities, which call upon parties to distinguish between civilians and combatants, prohibit attacks against the former and therefore also prohibit the use of indiscriminate weapons, and do not permit the use of such weapons as are liable to cause excessive suffering.

As early as the seventies, the ICRC, concerned about the need to deal more effectively with certain weapons abuses, organized two important symposia of government experts in Lucerne in 1974 and Lugano in 1976. These meetings provided valuable support for the United Nations conference that followed in 1979-80. More recently the magnitude of the suffering caused by anti-personnel landmines, as witnessed by its delegates in the field, prompted the ICRC to organize a Symposium on Anti-Personnel Mines which was held in Montreux, Switzerland, from 21 to 23 April 1993.

The general objective of this Symposium was to pool the necessary facts and ideas to coordinate future action by bodies interested in alleviating the plight of mine-blast victims and taking preventive action. More specifically, the aims of the Symposium were to gain as accurate a picture as possible of the actual use of mines and the consequences

thereof; to analyse the mechanisms and methods that currently exist to limit this use or alleviate the suffering of victims, as well as to identify the inadequacies of such methods; to decide on the best remedial action; to establish a strategy on how to coordinate the work of different bodies involved in such action; and to write a report on the conference which could be used as a reference for future action and which would serve to mobilize both governments and the general public.

In order to ensure a pluridisciplinary approach, the participants consisted of established experts from various specialized fields related to the whole issue of anti-personnel mines, their use and their effects, and included military strategists, mine specialists and manufacturers, legal experts on international humanitarian law and disarmament, surgeons and orthopaedists, representatives of mine-clearance organizations, the non-governmental organizations concerned and the media. The gathering was characterized by an open-minded and constructive approach. Prior to the Symposium, preparatory reports drafted by certain participants were sent to all the others. These reports dealt with seven subjects, i.e. a realistic account of the present use of mines, the trade in mines, the human consequences, technical characteristics of anti-personnel mines, mine detection and clearance, the professional military perception of the use of mines, and the legal situation.

The Symposium began with an introductory statement followed by a brief presentation of the aforesaid reports by their authors, who answered some questions in connection with them. The second day was devoted to discussions within six working groups, into which the participants were divided. Each group dealt with one of the six following subjects: rehabilitation of mine-blast victims, mine-clearance, the 1980 United Nations Convention, proposals for further humanitarian law rules, possible restrictions on methods of manufacturing mines, and possible arms control measures relating to the sale of mines and their stockpiling. The purpose of the working groups was to conduct an in-depth examination of the advantages and disadvantages of various possibilities, their practicability and the extent to which they would actually solve the problems currently created by mines. At the end of the day, each group produced a report.

The third and final day was spent in a thorough plenary discussion of each of the six reports. This session ended with a set of conclusions that emerged from the reports and the discussions, and which are principally concerned with a coordinated strategy for future action.

Recommendations

Following the discussions on the reports of the six working groups, the Chairman stated that these reports and their conclusions were generally adopted and that some specific suggestions for future action, which was one of the main objectives the Symposium had set itself, could in fact be identified. He pointed out that the Symposium formed part of a growing movement, in which the ICRC had participated from the beginning (the symposia in Lucerne and Lugano, in 1974 and 1976 respectively), to address the humanitarian concerns raised by the use of anti-personnel mines. Its conclusions could help maintain the momentum already reached since they offered practical suggestions, based on a better understanding of the mechanisms involved, for a coordinated strategy to alleviate the suffering of mine victims by tackling the medical, commercial, legal, technical, socio-economic and data-related aspects of the problem as a whole. He then introduced the series of issues to which the suggestions referred and asked participants to comment on them and indicate the immediate follow-up action to be taken, as well as the appropriate bodies to do so. The various issues were not listed in any order of importance.

Possibility of using military medical facilities for the treatment of mine injuries

With reference to the first working group's report, one expert alluded to the difficulty of finding complete medical units to provide treatment for mine-injured civilians and noted that military medical facilities would provide a useful resource, with the additional advantage that military surgeons would appreciate the opportunity to gain field experience in dealing with trauma even though working conditions would not be the same as in wartime. The ICRC mentioned that it had published quite a few scientific papers and had renewed contact with various armies and medical corps. It was therefore suggested that the ICRC could act as a focal point in organizing seminars and lectures, and develop materials for dissemination so as to involve surgeons and medical staff in the surgical treatment and rehabilitation of people injured by mines.

Collection of information on mine-clearance research and establishment of a compensation fund for mine-blast victims

Following the reports of working groups 1 and 2, the need to create a body to centralize this information in order to attract funders

was stressed. In this context, it was noted that a feasibility study on the setting up of such a body, including questions relating to its composition and sources of financing, needed to be undertaken. The participants agreed to investigate the possibility of the United Nations assuming a centralized coordinating role and considered that a letter to the United Nations from the Symposium would be a useful basis for doing so. With regard to the establishment of an international compensation fund, it was generally felt that governments, manufacturers, buyers, sellers and licensors, as violators of humanitarian law, could be included among the contributors. Besides compensation to mine-blast victims, the fund could finance rehabilitation, mine-clearance activities, research and development, educational programmes and training.

Review of the 1980 United Nations Weapons Convention

The Chairman stressed the need for careful preparation of the review conference, and offered ICRC support in holding preliminary expert meetings, as well as in assembling documentation for a preparatory conference. He reminded the assembly that if such work was to be considered as official preparatory activities for the review conference, then governments should specifically ask the ICRC to undertake it. To this end, an expert suggested that the United Nations Secretariat could ask the ICRC to organize a preparatory meeting, whose report could then be forwarded to States before the review conference. An ICRC representative pointed out that a series of expert meetings would in fact be required for thorough examination of the various questions involved. The participants agreed that the review conference should be well prepared and welcomed the ICRC's offer to hold expert meetings. It was felt that it would be interesting to have the views of the ICRC itself, in addition to those of the experts. The Chairman believed that such a discussion should perhaps not be limited to mines alone. He also thought that an effort should be made to have the Conference on Disarmament consider the question of mines as well as the possibility of including them in the United Nations Register of Conventional Arms.

Estimation of the military necessity and socio-economic cost of mines

The Chairman said that although fragmentary evidence of the socio-economic cost of mines was readily available, it would be useful to have comprehensive information in order to be able to put military arguments based on the cost-effectiveness of mines into perspective. It

might also be useful to get a wider military view of the effectiveness of anti-personnel mines and whether or not they were essential in military terms. Perhaps the ICRC should explore that avenue. The ICRC representatives suggested that consideration could be given to the question of a total ban, but the need to resolve the issue of the military need for anti-personnel mines before governments could endorse such a ban was generally accepted.

The participants agreed to suggestions that appropriate non-governmental organizations should take on the task of coordinating a multi-disciplinary study on the socio-economic costs of mines that would include expenses relating to long-term follow-up of rehabilitation, land rendered unavailable for agriculture and cattle grazing, etc. It was also mentioned that publication of articles in medical journals, which required no coordination, could generate enormous publicity.

Technical aspects of self-destruct and self-neutralizing mechanisms

These aspects would have to be looked into in case a total ban was not acceptable. A representative of a non-governmental organization offered to work in coordination with United Nations mine-clearance experts on this question. He underlined the fact that cooperation with industry would also be important because of the many different types of mines. Attention would likewise have to be paid to existing stock-piles of mines and likely future developments in mine technology. An ICRC representative pointed out that the advice of the military and contributions from technical and research specialists would be needed. A representative of the United Nations mine-clearance team stated that they were not permitted to contact the military. It was therefore suggested that mine-clearance requirements and humanitarian needs be looked at first, and that the ICRC then put the resultant views to the military.

Collection of information on the trade in anti-personnel mines

In an effort to persuade the various States to introduce the subject of mines at the Disarmament Conference, it was felt that public access to information contained in the United Nations Register of Conventional Arms would be helpful, but it was pointed out that this information, submitted by governments, was restricted to governments only. However, there was a possibility that governments might eventually agree to make this information available to the public. One participant thought that all information provided in the context of future treaties should be open to the public, but that it would be very difficult to

have information already collected made public retroactively. Non-governmental organizations were a valuable source of information, but governments were unlikely to put information into a voluntary register. It was also stressed that non-governmental organizations could not obtain information on a country-by-country basis, as the task would be overwhelming, but that some of them could serve as a clearing house for information from all sources.

Alerting the public

One participant drew attention to a forthcoming conference in London of non-governmental organizations on how to educate the public and how to influence the military and governments to change the law. The idea of extending the involvement of non-governmental organizations was welcomed, and representatives of some of these organizations referred to their ongoing efforts, such as the reports on landmines in Cambodia, Angola and Mozambique and the compilation of a file on children and mines. The need for increased involvement of National Societies and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies in alerting the public was pointed out, as was the rôle of UNICEF and UNHCR in doing the same, even at school level. The need to keep the press informed about statistics on mine injuries was stressed. The ICRC was urged to present the results of the Symposium in various cities, for example in New York, as a means of drawing the attention of delegations to the problems involved. A suggestion was made that the President of the ICRC ask the Secretary-General of the United Nations to appeal to Member States to ratify the 1980 United Nations Weapons Convention.

Closure of the Symposium

The ICRC was applauded for holding the Symposium. It was emphasized that the excellent reports prepared for the Symposium, together with the frank discussions during the meetings, had led to a better understanding of a very complex problem. Various solutions had been suggested, not least the importance of raising public awareness of the intolerable plight of innocent civilian victims of mines. The Symposium was one step in a journey, and the ICRC would continue with the next steps. It was hoped that the participants would do so too, each in their own way.

The contents of the Symposium together with its conclusions will be published in a report prepared by the ICRC to be distributed to the governments, armed forces, National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and international institutions concerned.

WORLD CONFERENCE ON HUMAN RIGHTS

(Vienna, 14-25 June 1993)

The second World Conference on Human Rights, marking the 45th anniversary of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, was opened on 14 June 1993 by United Nations Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali.

Some 5,000 persons, representing various entities such as States, States members of the United Nations, observers and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) took part in the Conference, which concluded its work on 25 June.

In his address, the United Nations Secretary-General stressed three imperatives: the universality of human rights, guaranteed application and democratization. The Austrian Minister for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Alois Mock, elected Chairman of the Conference, also underscored the importance of the universality and indivisibility of human rights. Other eminent persons such as Mr. Thomas Klestil, President of the Republic of Austria, Mr. Franz Vranitzky, Chancellor of Austria and Mr. Ibrahim Fall, Director of the Centre for Human Rights and Secretary-General of the Conference, also delivered addresses.

The ICRC was represented at the Conference by a delegation led by Mr. Yves Sandoz, member of the Executive Board and Director for Principles, Law and Relations with the Movement. It drafted and circulated a report entitled: "Human rights and the ICRC - International humanitarian law" (see under the heading "ICRC", p. 300).

The proceedings of the Conference were conducted in three principal fora:

- The Plenary, where government delegations and organizations with observer status at the United Nations delivered their statements. The ICRC belongs to the latter group and President Cornelio Sommaruga, who joined the delegation on 23 June, delivered an address the text of which is published hereunder (see p. 326).
- The Main Committee, which reviewed the progress made in the area of human rights. It also took stock of the obstacles to the

exercise of those rights and studied the links between development, democracy and the universal enjoyment of all human rights.

- The Drafting Committee, whose task it was to draw up a provisional final declaration based on the report of the preparatory committee and the observations of participants. Excerpts from this Declaration, focusing on aspects of particular interest to the Movement, are given below (p. 329).

Before the official opening of the Conference, a meeting of all participant non-governmental organizations was held from 10 to 12 June. The Austrian government gave a reception for Nobel Peace Prize winners, including the ICRC which was represented by Professor Dietrich Schindler, member of the Committee.

ADDRESS BY MR. CORNELIO SOMMARUGA,
PRESIDENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

This is indeed a rare occasion. We have gathered here from all corners of the world to acknowledge our common humanity.

The time has come to ask ourselves whether all the treaties signed and all the mechanisms set up can stand firm against violent passions and even deliberate policies designed to annihilate the innocent.

In other words, is moral authority enough to hold barbarity in check?

We should be able to answer these questions with an unqualified "Yes". But history goes on repeating itself. The terrible sequence of war, massacres, torture and rape by no means belongs to the past; it is going on at this very moment, practically before our eyes.

So what are we to do?

For the past one hundred and thirty years the International Committee of the Red Cross has been trying to make the most cruel aspects of armed conflict less inhumane by urging the belligerents to spare non-combatants and by coming to the aid of the victims, thereby helping to defend some of the most fundamental human rights.

In the context of the hundreds of armed conflicts that it has witnessed, the ICRC has offered its services as a neutral intermediary on the basis of its mandate and its right of initiative, which are now recognized by the entire

international community. By analogy, and always with the consent of the governments concerned, it also takes action in situations of internal unrest.

What strikes our delegates working in the field is that, when all is said and done, absolutely nothing is gained by those who take up arms. On the contrary. The destruction wrought by war is, after all, not only material in nature. It tears apart the very fabric of society, the centuries-old traditions that hold a nation together and give it its vitality and creativity, that enable the arts to flourish, serve as a basis for development and tell us who we are; in short, the lifeblood of any civilization worthy of the name. The devastation brought by war is such that even the victor cannot emerge unscathed.

To the question "What are we to do?" I would reply that we must transcend the cultural, ethnic, racial and other distinctions that cause us to feel different from one another and concentrate instead on what we share, our infinitely more significant common humanity, our greatest strength. Let us respect the dignity inherent in every man and woman. Let us, at the very least, respect what jurists call the "hard core" of human rights, those rights that are inalienable whatever the circumstances.

The simple maxim "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you" sums it up, on both the individual and the national scale. Surely the level of civilization attained by a State can be measured by the respect it accords to its own minorities? If it were accepted as a rule that minorities should be encouraged by being given a representative role in recognition of their contribution to cultural diversity within the community, the world would certainly be a better place.

As you know, this is the international year of the world's indigenous peoples. Allow me to express, before their many representatives here, the earnest hope that after so many centuries of incomprehension and suffering their voices will now be heard. I should also like to take the opportunity to pay tribute to the non-governmental organizations for their tireless efforts to ensure respect for human rights all over the world.

It is safe to say that the worst infringements of human rights occur in times of armed conflict. The ICRC is required by its mandate to promote knowledge of international humanitarian law, in particular the 1949 Geneva Conventions by which virtually all States in the world are now bound, in an effort to prevent abuses against people protected by those treaties. We try to make sure that the law is known and understood by both those who have to apply it and those entitled to benefit from it. These activities focus on the armed forces, law schools, the medical profession, diplomats and specialized institutes, to ensure that individuals with a key role to play know the basic rules and do their utmost to see that they are respected. The States also have a legal obligation to spread knowledge of the law. Regrettably, some of them

take this responsibility less seriously than others, with inevitably disastrous results.

Experience has shown that when humanitarian law is properly implemented in the heat of battle, the vicious circle of excessive violence, reprisals and counter-reprisals and the ensuing mass displacement of civilians can be avoided. Compliance with the law also favours eventual reconciliation. By creating an oasis of humanity between the belligerents, it opens the way to negotiation and a possible return to peace. This same body of law confers on conflict victims the right to receive assistance, while stipulating that relief operations conducted by independent and impartial institutions can in no way be regarded as constituting interference in a State's internal affairs.

Proper knowledge of the law is therefore essential as a precondition for compliance with its provisions, but it is far from enough. Under the Geneva Conventions, States are required to set up mechanisms to repress grave breaches of humanitarian law, and we feel that these mechanisms should be used. Today this is simply not the case. The most barbaric acts go unpunished, and this only encourages further lawlessness. Moreover, these national systems must be complemented by a really effective international, indeed universal mechanism. The establishment of an international war crimes tribunal should also be encouraged for its deterrent effect.

The depositary of the Geneva Conventions, the Swiss government, is convening an *ad hoc* conference in Geneva in late August to review all aspects of the protection afforded to the victims of armed conflict. This must serve as an opportunity for all States to reaffirm their commitment to respect and ensure respect for international humanitarian law. The ICRC strongly supports this initiative, for the protection of basic rights can result only from the convergence of several different approaches which, far from being mutually exclusive, must support each other.

Each of the components of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, that is, the ICRC, the 155 National Societies and their Federation, has its own special role to play in achieving that goal, guided solely by the Movement's principles of humanity, impartiality, independence and neutrality.

As President of the institution that founded that Movement, I am pleased to join you, Mr. Chairman, Mr. Secretary-General, Excellencies, ladies and gentlemen, in this remarkable demonstration of solidarity.

May humanity and peace prevail!

"Per humanitatem ad pacem!"

VIENNA DECLARATION AND PROGRAMME OF ACTION

(Extracts)

The World Conference on Human Rights solemnly adopted the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action on 25 June 1993.

The document begins by reaffirming “the solemn commitment of all States to fulfil their obligations to promote universal respect for, and observance and protection of, all human rights and fundamental freedoms for all in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations, other instruments relating to human rights, and international law”. It goes on to state that “the universal nature of these rights and freedoms is beyond question” (I.1) and stresses that “all human rights are universal, indivisible and interdependent and interrelated” (I.5). The first part of the text then reaffirms and develops a set of principles concerning the nature, promotion and protection of human rights in general and, in particular, the fundamental rights of children, women and girls, minorities, indigenous people and persons belonging to groups that have been rendered vulnerable.

Part II of the text comprises a series of recommendations concerning coordination on human rights within the United Nations system, the elimination of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and other forms of intolerance, the protection of persons belonging to national, ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities, indigenous people, migrant workers, women and children.

Lastly, practical recommendations are made concerning the promotion of democracy, development and human rights, as well as human rights and education and implementation and monitoring methods.

* * *

The text of the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action makes several references to human rights in situations of armed conflict or of internal violence and to international humanitarian law. The recommendations which seemed of greatest significance to the Movement are reproduced below:

People under foreign occupation

“Effective international measures to guarantee and monitor the implementation of human rights standards should be taken in respect of people under foreign occupation, and effective legal protection against the violation of their human rights should be provided, in accordance with human rights norms and

international law, particularly the Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War, of 12 August 1949, and other applicable norms of humanitarian law” (I.3).

Rights of the child

After urging universal ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child by 1995, the Conference went on to recommend that national and international mechanisms and programmes should be strengthened for the defence and protection of children, in particular, the girl-child, abandoned children, street children, economically and sexually exploited children, including through child pornography, child prostitution or sale of organs, children victims of diseases including acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, refugee and displaced children, children in detention, children in armed conflict, as well as children victims of famine and drought and other emergencies” (I.21).

Displaced persons

“The World Conference on Human Rights recognizes that gross violations of human rights, including in armed conflicts, are among the multiple and complex factors leading to displacement of people.

The World Conference on Human Rights recognizes that, in view of the complexities of the global refugee crisis and in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations, relevant international instruments and international solidarity and in the spirit of burden-sharing, a comprehensive approach by the international community is needed in coordination and cooperation with the countries concerned and relevant organizations, bearing in mind the mandate of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (...)

In the light of the comprehensive approach, the World Conference on Human Rights emphasizes the importance of giving special attention including through intergovernmental and humanitarian organizations and finding lasting solutions to questions related to internally displaced persons including their voluntary and safe return and rehabilitation.

In accordance with the Charter of the United Nations and the principles of humanitarian law, the World Conference of Human Rights further emphasizes the importance of and the need for humanitarian assistance to victims of all natural and man-made disasters” (I.23).

Violations of human rights

“The World Conference on Human Rights expresses its dismay at massive violations of human rights especially in the form of genocide, ‘ethnic cleansing’ and systematic rape of women in war situations, creating mass exodus of

refugees and displaced persons. While strongly condemning such abhorrent practices it reiterates the call that perpetrators of such crimes be punished and such practices immediately stopped (I.28).

The World Conference on Human Rights expresses grave concern about continuing human rights violations in all parts of the world in disregard of standards as contained in international human rights instruments and international humanitarian law and about the lack of sufficient and effective remedies for the victims.

The World Conference on Human Rights is deeply concerned about violations of human rights during armed conflicts, affecting the civilian population, especially women, children, the elderly and the disabled. The Conference therefore calls upon States and all parties to armed conflicts strictly to observe international humanitarian law, as set forth in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and other rules and principles of international law, as well as minimum standards for protection of human rights, as laid down in international conventions.

The World Conference on Human Rights reaffirms the right of the victims to be assisted by humanitarian organizations, as set forth in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and other relevant instruments of international humanitarian law, and calls for the safe and timely access for such assistance” (I.29).

Violations of the human rights of women

“The World Conference on Human Rights calls upon the General Assembly to adopt the draft declaration on violence against women and urges States to combat violence against women in accordance with its provisions. Violations of the human rights of women in situations of armed conflict are violations of the fundamental principles of international human rights and humanitarian law. All violations of this kind, including in particular murder, systematic rape, sexual slavery, and forced pregnancy, require a particularly effective response” (I.38).

Protection of children in armed conflicts

“The World Conference on Human rights strongly supports the proposal that the Secretary-General initiate a study into means of improving the protection of children in armed conflict. Humanitarian norms should be implemented and measures taken in order to protect and facilitate assistance to children in war zones. Measures should include protection for children against indiscriminate use of all weapons of war, especially anti-personnel mines. The need for aftercare and rehabilitation of children traumatized by war must be addressed urgently. The Conference calls on the Committee on the Rights of

the Child to study the question of raising the minimum age of recruitment into armed forces” (II.50).

Freedom from torture

“The World Conference on Human Rights reaffirms that under human rights law and international humanitarian law, freedom from torture is a right which must be protected under all circumstances, including in times of internal or international disturbance or armed conflicts” (II. 56).

Education

“States should strive to eradicate illiteracy and should direct education towards the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. The World Conference on Human Rights calls on all States and institutions to include human rights, humanitarian law, democracy and rule of law as subjects in the curricula of all learning institutions in formal and non-formal settings” (II. 79).

Accession to the 1949 Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols

“The World Conference on Human Rights appeals to States which have not yet done so to accede to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 and the Protocols thereto, and to take all appropriate national measures, including legislative ones, for their full implementation” (II. 93).

Role of the United Nations

“The World Conference on Human Rights recommends that the United Nations assume a more active role in the promotion and protection of human rights in ensuring full respect for international humanitarian law in all situations of armed conflict, in accordance with the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations” (II. 96).

Accession to the Protocols by the Republic of Albania

The Republic of Albania acceded on 16 July 1993 to the Protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts (Protocol I) and Non-International Armed Conflicts (Protocol II), adopted in Geneva on 8 June 1977.

Pursuant to their provisions, the Protocols will come into force for the Republic of Albania on 16 January 1994.

This accession brings to **126** the number of States party to Protocol I and to **117** those party to Protocol II.

Declaration by the Republic of Madagascar

On 27 July 1993 the Republic of Madagascar made the following declaration regarding its recognition of the competence of the International Fact-Finding Commission:

“In accordance with Article 90, paragraph 2(a), of Protocol I additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, the Republic of Madagascar declares that it recognizes *ipso facto* and without special agreement, in relation to any other High Contracting Party accepting the same obligation, the competence of the International Fact-Finding Commission to enquire into allegations by such other Party”.

The Republic of Madagascar is the **thirty-fifth** State to make the declaration regarding the Fact-Finding Commission.

Books and reviews

THE INTERNATIONAL ROLE OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

The term “non-governmental organization” (NGO) is used to characterize an extremely wide range of undertakings. The 1992/93 *Yearbook of International Organizations* lists no less than 12,457 NGOs around the world, their activities extending to all areas of economic and social life, the arts, environmental protection, education, social welfare and humanitarian assistance. Some are highly specialized, others carry out a broad gamut of activities; some confine their work to a single community, others are active on a national scale, and still others have an internationally recognized status with operations worldwide. The size of a non-governmental organization may vary, from a group made up of a few volunteers all the way to a complex organization with a large staff and substantial sums of money at its disposal.

What, then, do all these organizations have in common? Is it possible to describe a ‘typical’ NGO? Amnesty International and *Médecins sans frontières*, for example, are well known and enjoy a recognized international status. But what of the Club of Rome or certain religious sects? Do they fit into the category?

A book published last year attempts to sort out the bewildering complexity of this category of organizations so diverse in nature, purpose, profile and activities.¹ The author, Yves Beigbeder, is a former international civil servant and an expert on both NGOs and inter-governmental organizations. Beigbeder sets out to define the term non-governmental organization before going on to trace the origins. He then explains the legal status of such bodies and describes their characteristics — weaknesses as well as strengths — before finally outlining their relationship with governments, inter-governmental organizations and each other.

The reader learns that the NGOs’ virtues are their independence, their ability to adapt, their flexibility, the motivation of their staff, their pioneering spirit and their skill in promoting and defending causes of benefit to the public and in advocating reform. On the other hand, many NGOs lack long-term strategy and planning, and the goodwill and hard work of their volunteers are not always a guarantee of professionalism. Finally, their independence can be limited or even stifled altogether by a high degree of direct

¹ Yves Beigbeder, *Le rôle international des organisations non gouvernementales*, Bruylant, L.G.D.J., Bruxelles, Paris, 1992, 198 pp. (Collection Axes Savoir).

funding or other financial facilities from public authorities or by excessive political or ideological adherence to government views.

In the chapter on humanitarian work, Beigbeder identifies three separate generations of NGOs. The first, founded on Christian faith and tradition, goes back to the very origins of the Christian church and is today represented by Roman Catholic and Protestant organizations. The second generation is quite simply the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, “a movement inspired by Christianity and born of Christianity, but nevertheless non-religious in character” (p. 59). The third generation appeared in the 1960s with the advent of the “*sans frontières*” medical organizations that espoused and practised “the right and duty to intervene internationally on humanitarian grounds” (p. 59).²

Each of these generations is concisely described with supporting examples which supply not only a revealing portrayal of the organization cited but also the context in which it works, the methods it uses and the difficulties, both operational and financial, that it must deal with. Beigbeder also draws comparisons between various NGOs, thus sharpening the identity of each in the reader’s mind. It is regrettable, however, that the mandates and activities of the different components of the Movement receive only cursory attention.

The same method is used to present the NGOs engaged in human rights work: the protection and promotion of human rights around the world are discussed generally before the leading NGOs are presented along with their general and specific activities and their work to establish rules of conduct. This is possibly the best part of the book in that the author shows the difficulties faced by NGOs in dealing with violations and the important role they play as a communication link between the general public and intergovernmental organizations and as spokesmen for the victims. Particular attention in this last respect is given to Amnesty International.

The third chapter is concerned with the activities of NGOs involved in development work. Beigbeder relates how this started with NGOs providing emergency humanitarian relief. This was followed by organizations specializing in small-scale local development and eventually those engaged in sustainable development schemes. He draws a distinction here between the NGOs from the industrialized world, which generally act as conduits of financial aid — to which they add their technical expertise — for the Third World, and NGOs from the Third World itself which provide technical support to local development organizations.

In his conclusion, Beigbeder expresses the view that the work of NGOs to promote humanitarian and human rights law will long continue to be indispensable, as will their presence in the field. Generally speaking, the 1990s will require NGOs to strengthen their administrative competence, to accept

² The author devotes several pages (pp. 82-87) to the subject of the “right to intervene on humanitarian grounds”, providing a well-balanced summary of the arguments for and against.

more openness in both their work and their finances and to increase the professionalism of those who carry out their activities.

The logical structure and succinct presentation of this book may make it seem more like a memorandum. It is in fact a valuable discourse which succeeds in dispelling much of the ambiguity surrounding NGOs and what they do. It corrects many preconceived ideas and over-simplifications. Above all, it explains why NGOs play such an important role on the international scene.

Jacques Meurant

TERRORISM AND HOSTAGES IN INTERNATIONAL LAW

*A commentary on the 1979 Hostages Convention**

This book is essentially a commentary on the International Convention against the Taking of Hostages,³ which was negotiated within the framework of the United Nations and adopted on 17 December 1979.

In Part I the author places the 1979 Hostages Convention in a broader context and deals with issues such as hostage-taking as a manifestation of international terrorism, various attempts to understand the nature of terrorism ("What is terrorism?"), and existing international instruments designed to combat aspects of international terrorism. The description of the background to the Convention is followed by an overview of the difficult history of the drafting up to its adoption without a vote (i.e. by consensus) by the UN General Assembly in 1979. This informative and well-written introduction prepares the reader for Part II, the main part of the book, in which the author examines the text of the Hostages Convention article by article. The commentary on each article is divided into two parts: an introduction giving an outline of the provision's history ("*travaux préparatoires*"); and the commentary proper, i.e. an analysis of the meaning of the rule. Lambert's book ends with a short evaluation of the Convention.

It may be useful to recall that according to the Hostages Convention the taking of hostages in an international context is an international offence. Accordingly, each State party is under an obligation to take appropriate measures to prevent the taking of hostages and to make such an offence punishable. Furthermore, and this is the main innovation of the treaty, each

* Joseph J. Lambert, *Terrorism and Hostages in International Law — A Commentary on the Hostages Convention 1979*, Grotius, Cambridge, 1990, 418 pp.

³ Approved by United Nations General Assembly resolution 34/146 of 17 December 1979; reprinted in 18 *ILM* 1456 (1979).

State party has to establish jurisdiction over an alleged offender, to prosecute him or, on request, to extradite him to a third State: *aut dedere aut iudicare*. The idea of universal jurisdiction is intended to ensure that justice is done in all cases of hostage-taking which are not exclusively the internal affair of a State. The parallel with the system of grave breaches espoused by the 1949 Geneva Conventions is obvious.

It is not intended here to examine the author's commentaries on the Convention's twenty articles. Suffice it to say that the text is well researched and well presented. The book offers the reader guidance in the interpretation of the various provisions and, taking into account the way in which they were negotiated, tries to identify the precise nature of the legal obligation created by each of them on the basis of the rule itself, its true meaning and its purpose.

In two instances the author had occasion to comment on rules which mention either humanitarian law or the ICRC. Article 12 of the Convention says that the Hostages Convention does not apply to an act of hostage-taking insofar as the 1949 Geneva Conventions or their Additional Protocols are applicable and the State is already bound to prosecute or to extradite the alleged offender. Therefore the Geneva Conventions have overriding authority when an act of hostage-taking is committed in the course of an international armed conflict. In a non-international armed conflict (where there is no corresponding obligation in humanitarian law regarding penal repression), the State concerned has to proceed on the basis of the Hostages Convention.

One of the great difficulties which the negotiators had to overcome was to decide how to deal with hostage-taking in the context of wars of national liberation. As the author explains in great detail and with an admirable command of the facts, the solution was forthcoming only after the adoption, by the Diplomatic Conference on humanitarian law in 1977, of Article 1, para. 4, of Protocol I additional to the Geneva Conventions. That rule declares wars of national liberation to be international armed conflicts. Accordingly, hostage-taking is a grave breach of the Law of Geneva even if committed during a war of national liberation, and has to be dealt with according to the ordinary rules on penal repression applicable to international armed conflict. The crucial issue of hostage-taking in wars of national liberation therefore found a generally acceptable solution through mere reference, in Article 12 of the Hostages Convention, to the Law of Geneva. The right of self-determination is mentioned in the preamble.

Article 6, para. 5, of the Hostages Convention mentions the ICRC in connection with the right of an alleged offender held in custody to communicate with third persons. According to that provision, the Convention is without prejudice to the detaining State's right to invite the ICRC to visit the detainee. This provision deals, of course, with situations not covered by the Geneva Conventions, as in situations within the purview of those treaties the right to visit protected persons is laid down by the Conventions themselves (to which Article 12 of the Hostages Convention refers). In his commentary on Article 6, para. 5, of the Hostages Convention the author refers extensively to

the statement submitted by the ICRC to the Sixth Committee in which the institution expressed its understanding of the meaning of this rule.

Lambert's *Commentary on the Hostages Convention* is without doubt a very valuable reference book. It should be of particular interest to specialists in humanitarian law, since the international rules on the repression of hostage-taking are part not only of international criminal law but also of international humanitarian law.

Hans-Peter Gasser

HENRY DUNANT AND EASTERN SWITZERLAND

The Henry Dunant Society and the Geneva Red Cross have just published a book on the links between Henry Dunant and eastern Switzerland.⁴ The closing years in Heiden of the life of the founder of the Red Cross and the relations he had with the authorities and the St. Gallen, Winterthur and Zurich Red Cross branches are described in turn and analysed by several experts. Their contributions also depict such interesting people as the journalist Georg Baumberger, the pacifist Georg Schmid, and Sara Bourcart, who worked closely with Dunant on his Green Cross project.

The first part deals with Henry Dunant's stay in Heiden. It opens with an article by the author, *Gabriel Mützenberg*, recounting Dunant's travels when, completely bankrupt, he had to leave Geneva in May 1867. By studying the letters written at the time by Dunant the author was able to retrace much of his restless wandering through France, Germany, Italy, Greece, England, Holland and Turkey.

During these wanderings, Dunant was continually fleeing persecutions — real or imaginary — until on 10 November 1881 he finally reached Heiden, where he found the peace of mind he was seeking and stayed more and more often before taking up permanent residence there in April 1892.

In the next article, *Heiden au temps d'Henry Dunant* (Heiden in Henry Dunant's time), Roger Durand investigates the reasons for which Dunant chose to spend the last eighteen years of his life in Heiden. In the mid-nineteenth century, Heiden was a very popular health resort where celebrities from all over Europe came to stay; Henry Dunant struck up a friendship with the founder of the local hospital, Dr. Hermann Altherr, and finally came to live in that hospital because he felt safest there. As Roger Durand writes:

⁴ Roger Durand *et al.*, *Henry Dunant et la Suisse orientale (Henry Dunant und die Ostschweiz)*, (Henry Dunant and Eastern Switzerland), Henry Dunant Society, Geneva Red Cross, Geneva, 1992, 208 pp. (in French and German).

“However full of setbacks Henry Dunant’s path to Heiden might have been, there it took on the air of a triumphal march. Despite all the suffering, despite the illness which even went so far as to affect his mind, after becoming a resident of this fashionable health resort he managed to recover his spirits and compel recognition from the entire world.

“Yes, he it was who founded the Red Cross! Yes, he it was who spectacularly influenced the history of mankind: men are indeed capable of imposing rules to govern their own barbarity! Yes, it was in Heiden, with the support of really genuine local people, where the maligned colossus at last fulfilled his prophetic vocation!”.

In another article, *1908-1910 — Dunant à l’hôpital — une aide de ménage raconte*, (1908-1910, Dunant while staying at the hospital — a domestic servant recalls), *Félix Christ* relates a discussion he had in 1974 with Emma Albrecht-Gütlin, who was employed as a domestic servant in Heiden Hospital in 1908. She told him that during this period Dunant lived in almost total isolation; he never left the two hospital rooms which had been set aside for him and the only people with whom he had any contact were Dr. Altherr, the matron and her niece, the cook. However, on one occasion he did agree to a visit: an unexpected one by the Tsarina of Russia.

The next article in the book is reproduced from a text published by Dr. Altherr in the *Croix-Rouge, revue mensuelle de la Croix-Rouge suisse* (Red Cross, Swiss Red Cross Monthly Review) on 1 May 1928. There he describes how he made the acquaintance of Henry Dunant in July 1887, who was then living in a modest guest house in Heiden and called him for a medical consultation. Since Dunant spoke only French, Dr. Altherr invited him regularly to his home because his wife was of French origin. At the time, Dunant was full of bitterness but he was still engaged in lengthy correspondence with people in every country in Europe and regularly wrote articles for the press. He had a modest allowance from his family and, from 1897 onwards, he received a pension from the Dowager Empress of Russia, Maria Feodorovna. Towards the end of his life he would receive no visitors: he did however make an exception for the editor of *Ostschweiz*, in St. Gallen, Georg Baumberger, author of the appeal entitled *Dunant redivivus*.

In 1904, the Tsar invited him to the International Congress of the Red Cross in Moscow; Dunant was delighted by this invitation but ill-health prevented him from attending.

The first part concludes with four articles dealing with the Dunant Museum housed in the Heiden hospital — now an old people’s home — and with the monument in Heiden erected in his memory.

The second part is devoted to notable people from the canton of St. Gallen who were in contact with Henry Dunant. It includes an article by *Philippe M. Monnier, Sur le chemin de la réhabilitation — La rencontre Dunant-Baumberger*, (On the way to rehabilitation — the meeting between Dunant and Baumberger), which tells of the correspondence exchanged between Henry Dunant and Georg Baumberger in preparation for the latter’s article on Dunant, published in September 1895. Two other articles, written by *Cornel*

Dora, describe two eminent figures, Georg Baumberger and Monsignor Augustinus Egger, Bishop of St. Gallen, whom Henry Dunant admired and trusted.

The next article in the book, by *Hans Gross-Blaser*, is about Otto Rietmann who took the famous photographs of Henry Dunant in Heiden; it contains eight reproductions of these photo portraits. Another article, by *Artur Bärtsch*, takes a look at the exchange of correspondence between Henry Dunant and the St. Gallen pacifist, Georg Schmid. On the basis of thorough research in the St. Gallen archives, in particular those of the diocese, *Roger Durand* then shows how the St. Gallen Red Cross played an important role in medical work during the war of 1870 and began regular activities as early as 1891. The author comes to the curious conclusion that Dunant seemed to have had practically no contact with the St. Gallen Red Cross. However, this conclusion is not absolutely final since Roger Durand brings his article to a close with the following words. "Fortunately, there must be many other archives still in existence. From them we will learn more about these relationships. May the St. Gallen historians get down to the task and thus complete an important chapter in their past and in ours!"

The third part gives an account of the relations between Henry Dunant and the cities of Winterthur and Zurich. It begins by reproducing a speech made in October 1985 by *Rolf Weiss*, director of the Winterthur city library. In it he recalled the links which were to be established between the local Winterthur branch of the Red Cross and Henry Dunant towards the end of his life. Thus, on 1 July 1892, the Winterthur Red Cross made Dunant its first honorary member; it endeavoured to provide him with moral and financial support at a time when he had been totally forgotten. Dunant was subsequently reinstated in 1895 and, in 1901, he received the first Nobel Peace Prize; however, during those latter years of acclaim, he did not forget the Winterthur Red Cross and continued to exchange correspondence with it.

Another article is composed of an address by the mayor of Zurich, *Thomas Wagner*, on 30 October 1985 during the ceremony to commemorate the 75th anniversary of Henry Dunant's death. In it he examines why Dunant chose to be cremated in Zurich. He explains it by the fact that, towards the end of his life, Dunant received assistance from many important people in Zurich; furthermore, cremation was still rare at that time but a movement had been set up in Zurich in support of it. In a second text, Roger Durand describes an as yet little known aspect of Henry Dunant: his militant feminism. Durand discovered an exchange of correspondence between Dunant and Sara Bourcart in which Dunant, whose ideas on the subject had changed considerably, henceforth conferred on women "the rank of guardian of the home and the last bastion of civilization". He advocated setting up an international organization with headquarters in Zurich to foster women's rights throughout the world; for example, its purpose would be to give the wife a greater say over the revenue from her work, prevent the husband from squandering his wife's financial assets, give the father and the mother equal rights in the education of their children and establish the legal equality of both

sexes. Dunant believed that this new organization should be "run and directed solely by women". However, Dunant was not trying to obtain equality between the sexes for its own sake; all that mattered to him was to strive for peace, convinced as he was that a cataclysmic upheaval lay ahead for society because it was governed by male principles. "In the scheme of things, men express themselves through suffering and war" while for him women represented love and peace. Therefore the ultimate goal of the organization which he envisaged was for women throughout the world to launch a general offensive against militarism and war.

But since Sara Bourcart had apparently lost interest in the project, Dunant gave the matter further thought and recommended setting up another organization: the Green Cross whose "Ladies" would come to the help of needy young girls and widows.

In the end, Dunant gave up the idea. Once he regained fame he had other ambitions and participated in pacifist movements because, as Roger Durand says:

"Without abandoning the cause of women, Dunant therefore used feminism as a lever to benefit mankind as a whole. Could a philanthropist find a finer way of sublimating the unjustified inferiority of women *vis-à-vis* men?"

The last article, written by *André Durand*, describes Henry Dunant's funeral in Zurich, quoting a letter by Henry's nephew, Maurice Dunant, who says that "this ceremony gave no sign that the man's greatness had lapsed into oblivion". Quite the contrary, since Dunant's nephew describes it in these terms:

"The cremation ceremony was impressive in its simplicity. When the body arrived in Zurich the Consul General of Norway, Dr. Wettstein, and two delegates from the Samaritan Society of Zurich were waiting. Then representatives of the Auxiliary Transport Societies of Munich and Lindau arrived, splendidly attired, together with the *Männerhilfsverein* (Men's Association for Relief Work) from Constance. The Imperial Legation of Russia had sent Prince Galitzine with a superb wreath. There were at least twelve superb wreaths.

All the main Red Cross Societies in Switzerland had sent delegates; there were about forty of us. In compliance with my uncle's wishes, I begged these gentlemen not to make any speeches and I thanked them on behalf of the family. In the evening I gave a dinner for the official representatives. The ashes were deposited in the Columbarium".

The book is a valuable addition to what is known of the latter years of Dunant's life, in the German-speaking part of Switzerland. It is pleasingly illustrated with numerous photographs and lithographs by Michel Rouèche.

Françoise Perret

BOOK REVIEWS

- **Aileen McCorkell**, *A Red Cross in My Pocket, Derry/Londonderry, 1968-74*, Workers Education Association and Ulster Local History Trust Fund, U.K., 1992, 88 pp.

A Red Cross in My Pocket by Aileen McCorkell, founder President of the Derry/Londonderry branch of the British Red Cross, describes the activities of that branch between 1968 and 1974 at the height of the troubles in Northern Ireland.

The booklet, with its numerous practical examples, does not deal merely with the various activities to help the most disadvantaged (elderly people and the handicapped) or the many innocent victims.

Aileen McCorkell places special emphasis on the importance of the Fundamental Principles — and particularly the principles of humanity, impartiality and neutrality — in guiding National Society volunteer workers during times of disturbances and conflict.

In the nine chapters of her booklet, written in a lively and concise style, she demonstrates the usefulness of the Principles by placing them in the context of the events in Northern Ireland. By recounting the humanitarian activities carried out during the Battle of the Bogside (Chapter 2), then later in the “no go” areas (Chapter 5) or on the terrible Bloody Sunday of 30 January 1972 (Chapter 7), she explains the meaning of the Fundamental Principles of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement in real terms and in a way which is never boring.

The author, speaking from her own experience, also reminds us that humanitarian operations can never be carried out in isolation. She stresses the spirit of solidarity among her fellow Red Cross workers and the close cooperation which developed between the British Red Cross and other humanitarian organizations likewise very active in Northern Ireland, for instance the Order of Malta and the St. John Ambulance Brigade.

A Red Cross in My Pocket (the title refers to the Red Cross arm-band which Aileen McCorkell and her volunteers carried in their pockets during particularly dangerous missions) also gives a clearer idea of an important but often relatively little known period of recent history. This instructive, highly readable booklet will certainly be appreciated by all who wish to understand better how our Movement's Fundamental Principles are put into practical effect in particularly difficult circumstances.

Philippe Abplanalp

ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT SOCIETIES

- AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent Society, Puli Hartan, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, Rue Qamil Guranjaku No. 2, *Tirana*.
- ALGERIA (People's Democratic Republic of) — Algerian Red Crescent, 15 bis, boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ANGOLA — Angola Red Cross, Av. Hoji Ya Henda 107, 2. andar, *Luanda*.
- ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA — The Antigua and Barbuda Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 727, *St. Johns*.
- ARGENTINA — The Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, 1089 *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross Society, 206, Clarendon Street, *East Melbourne 3002*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, Wiedner Hauptstrasse 32, Postfach 39, 1041, *Vienna 4*.
- BAHAMAS — The Bahamas Red Cross Society, P.O. Box N-8331, *Nassau*.
- BAHRAIN — Bahrain Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 882, *Manama*.
- BANGLADESH — Bangladesh Red Crescent Society, 684-686, Bara Magh Bazar, G.P.O. Box No. 579, *Dhaka*.
- BARBADOS — The Barbados Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, Jemmotts Lane, *Bridgetown*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, chaussée de Vleurgat, 1050 *Brussels*.
- BELIZE — Belize Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 413, *Belize City*.
- BENIN (Republic of) — Red Cross of Benin, B.P. No. 1, *Porto-Novo*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simón Bolívar, 1515, *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA — Botswana Red Cross Society, 135 Independence Avenue, P.O. Box 485, *Gaborone*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça Cruz Vermelha No. 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 93, Dondukov Boulevard, 1527 *Sofia*.
- BURKINA FASO — Burkina Be Red Cross Society, B.P. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- BURUNDI — Burundi Red Cross, P.O. Box 324, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMEROON — Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henri-Dunant, P.O.B 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA — The Canadian Red Cross Society, 1800 Alta Vista Drive, *Ottawa*, Ontario K1G 4J5.
- CAPE VERDE — Red Cross of Cape Verde, Rua Unidade-Guiné-Cabo Verde, P.O. Box 119, *Praia*.
- CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC — Central African Red Cross Society, B.P. 1428, *Bangui*.
- CHAD — Red Cross of Chad, B.P. 449, *N'Djamena*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria No. 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246-V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 53, Ganmian Hutong, 100 010 *Beijing*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross Society, Avenida 68, No. 66-31, Apartado Aéreo 11-10, *Bogotá D.E.*
- CONGO — Congolese Red Cross, place de la Paix, B.P. 4145, *Brazzaville*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rica Red Cross, Calle 14, Avenida 8, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CÔTE D'IVOIRE — Red Cross Society of Côte d'Ivoire, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle Prado 206, Colón y Trocadero, *Habana 1*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, 27 Blegdamsvej, Postboks 2600, 2100 *København Ø*.
- DJIBOUTI — Red Crescent Society of Djibouti, B.P. 8, *Djibouti*.
- DOMINICA — Dominica Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 59, *Roseau*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Apartado postal 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorean Red Cross, Av. Colombia y Elizalde Esq., *Quito*.
- EGYPT — Egyptian Red Crescent Society, 29, El Galaa Street, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR — Salvadorean Red Cross Society, 17C. Pte y Av. Henri Dunant, Apartado Postal 2672, *San Salvador*.
- ESTONIA — Estonia Red Cross, Lai Street, 17, EE001 *Tallin*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross Society, Ras Desta Damtew Avenue, *Addis Ababa*.
- FIJI — Fiji Red Cross Society, 22 Gorrie Street, P.O. Box 569, *Suva*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu, 1 A. P.O. Box 168, 00141 *Helsinki 14/15*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 1, place Henry-Dunant, F-75384 *Paris*, CEDEX 08.
- GAMBIA — The Gambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 472, *Banjul*.
- GERMANY — German Red Cross, Friedrich-Erbert-Allee 71, Postfach 1460, 5300 *Bonn 1*.
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross Society, Ministries Annex Block A3, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou, 1, *Athens 10672*.
- GRENADA — Grenada Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 551, *St George's*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3.ª Calle 8-40, Zona 1, *Ciudad de Guatemala*.
- GUINEA — Red Cross Society of Guinea, P.O. Box 376, *Conakry*.
- GUINEA-BISSAU — Red Cross Society of Guinea-Bissau, rua Justino Lopes N.º 22-B, *Bissau*.
- GUYANA — The Guyana Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 10524, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI — Haitian National Red Cross Society, place des Nations Unies, (Bicentenaire), B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.

- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, 7.^a Calle, 1.^a y 2.^a Avenidas, *Comayaguila*.
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, V. Arany János utca, 31, 1367 *Budapest 51. Pf. 121*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Raudarastigur 18, 105 *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross Society, 1, Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 110001*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross Society, Jl. Gatot subroto Kar. 96, Jakarta Selatan 12790, P.O. Box 2009, *Jakarta*.
- IRAN, ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF — The Red Crescent Society of the Islamic Republic of Iran, Avenue Ostad Nejatollahi, *Tehran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent Society, Mu'ari Street, Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross Society, 16, Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, 00187 *Rome*.
- JAMAICA — The Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76, Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — The Japanese Red Cross Society, 1-3, Shiba-Daimon, 1-chome, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 105*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10001, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 40712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA (Democratic People's Republic of) — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Ryonhwa 1, Central District, *Pyongyang*.
- KOREA (Republic of) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3Ka, Nam San Dong, Choong-Ku, *Seoul 100-043*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1359 Safat.
- LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC — Lao Red Cross, B.P. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LATVIA — Latvian Red Cross Society, 28, Skolas Street, 226 300 *Riga*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Spears, *Beirut*.
- LESOTHO — Lesotho Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 366, *Maseru 100*.
- LIBERIA — Liberian Red Cross Society, National Headquarters, 107 Lynch Street, 1000 *Monrovia 20*.
- LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA — Libyan Red Crescent, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, Heiligkreuz, 9490 *Vaduz*.
- LITHUANIA — Lithuanian Red Cross Society, Gedimino Ave 3a, 2600 *Vilnius*.
- LUXEMBOURG — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, B.P. 404, 2014 *Luxembourg*.
- MADAGASCAR — Malagasy Red Cross Society, 1, rue Patrice Lumumba, 101, *Antananarivo*.
- MALAWI — Malawi Red Cross Society, Conforzi Road, P.O. Box 983, *Lilongwe*.
- MALAYSIA — Malaysian Red Crescent Society, JKR 32 Jalan Nipah, off Jalan Ampang, *Kuala Lumpur 55000*.
- MALI — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, *Bamako*.
- MAURITANIA — Mauritanian Red Crescent, B.P. 344, avenue Gamal Abdel Nasser, *Nouakchott*.
- MAURITIUS — Mauritius Red Cross Society, Ste Thérèse Street, *Curepipe*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Calle Luis Vives 200, Col. Polanco, *México 10, D.F.*
- MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 boul. de Suisse, *Monte Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of Mongolia, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Úlaanbaatar*.
- MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, B.P. 189, *Rabat*.
- MOZAMBIQUE — Mozambique Red Cross Society, Caixa Postal 2986, *Maputo*.
- MYANMAR (The Union of) — Myanmar Red Cross Society, 42, Strand Road, *Yangon*.
- NAMIBIA — Namibia Red Cross Society, P.O.B. 346, *Windhoek*.
- NEPAL — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tahachal Kalimati, P.B. 217, *Kathmandu*.
- NETHERLANDS — The Netherlands Red Cross, P.O. Box 28120, 2502 *KC The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND — The New Zealand Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, 14 Hill Street, *Wellington 1*.
- NICARAGUA — Nicaraguan Red Cross, Apartado 3279, *Managua D.N.*
- NIGER — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 11386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA — Nigerian Red Cross Society, 11 Eko Akete Close, off St. Gregory's Rd., P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, P.O. Box 6875, St. Olavspl. 0130 *Oslo 1*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Crescent Society, National Headquarters, Sector H-8, *Islamabad*.
- PANAMA — Red Cross Society of Panama, Apartado Postal 668, *Panamá 1*.
- PAPUA NEW GUINEA — Papua New Guinea Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 6545, *Boroko*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, Brasil 216, esq. José Berges, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Av. Caminos del Inca y Av. Nazarenas, Urb. Las Gardenias — Surco — Apartado 1534, *Lima 100*.
- PHILIPPINES — The Philippine National Red Cross, Bonifacio Drive, Port Area, P.O. Box 280, *Manila 2803*.
- POLAND (The Republic of) — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, 00-950 *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 Abril, 1 a 5, 1293 *Lisbon*.
- QATAR — Qatar Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 5449, *Doha*.
- ROMANIA — Red Cross of Romania, Strada Biserica Amzei, 29, *Bucharest*.
- RUSSIAN FEDERATION — The Russian Red Cross Society, Tcheremushkinski Proezd 5, 117036 *Moscow*.
- RWANDA — Rwandese Red Cross, B.P. 425, *Kigali*.
- SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS — Saint Kitts and Nevis Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, Horsford Road, *Basseterre*.
- SAINT LUCIA — Saint Lucia Red Cross, P.O. Box 271, *Castries*.
- SAINT VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES — Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 431, *Kingstown*.
- SAN MARINO — Red Cross of San Marino, Via Scialoja, Cailungo, *San Marino 470 31*.
- SAO TOME AND PRINCEPE — Sao Tome and Principe Red Cross, C.P. 96, *São Tomé*.
- SAUDI ARABIA — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent Society, *Riyadh 11129*.

- SENEGAL — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bd Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SEYCHELLES — Seychelles Red Cross Society, P.O.B. 52, *Mahé*.
- SIERRA LEONE — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6, Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SINGAPORE — Singapore Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, 15 Penang Lane, *Singapore 0923*.
- SOLOMON ISLANDS — The Solomon Islands Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 187, *Honiara*.
- SOMALIA (Somali Democratic Republic) — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- SOUTH AFRICA — The South African Red Cross Society, Essanby House 6th Floor, 175 Jeppe Street, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg 2000*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Rafael Villa, s/n, (Vuelta Ginés Navarro), El Plantío, 28023 *Madrid*.
- SRI LANKA — The Sri Lanka Red Cross Society, 106, Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo 7*.
- SUDAN — The Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SURINAME — Suriname Red Cross, Gravenberchstraat 2, Postbus 2919, *Paramaribo*.
- SWAZILAND — Baphalali Swaziland Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 377, *Mbabane*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Box 27 316, 102-54 *Stockholm*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Rainmattstrasse 10, B.P. 2699, 3001 *Berne*.
- SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC — Syrian Arab Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA, UNITED REPUBLIC OF — Tanzania Red Cross National Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND — The Thai Red Cross Society, Paribatra Building, Central Bureau, Rama IV Road, *Bangkok 10330*.
- TOGO — Togolese Red Cross, 51, rue Boko Soga, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TONGA — Tonga Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 456, *Nuku' Alofa*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO — The Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain*.
- TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19, rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis 1000*.
- TURKEY — The Turkish Red Crescent Society, Genel Baskanligi, Karanfil Sokak No. 7, 06650 Kizilay-*Ankara*.
- UGANDA — The Uganda Red Cross Society, Plot 97, Buganda Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED ARAB EMIRATES — The Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Emirates, P.O. Box No. 3324, *Abu Dhabi*.
- UNITED KINGDOM — The British Red Cross Society, 9, Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1X. 7EJ*.
- UNITED STATES OF AMERICA — American Red Cross, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington, D.C. 20006*.
- URUGUAY — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre 2990, *Montevideo*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello, N.º 4, Apartado 3185, *Caracas 1010*.
- VIET NAM — Red Cross of Viet Nam, 68, rue Ba-Trièu, *Hanoi*.
- WESTERN SAMOA — Western Samoa Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1616, *Apia*.
- YEMEN — Yemeni Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1257, *Sana'a*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Red Cross of Yugoslavia, Simina ulica broj 19, 11000 *Belgrade*.
- ZAIRE — Red Cross Society of the Republic of Zaire, 41, av. de la Justice, Zone de la Gombe, B.P. 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA — Zambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 50 001, 2837 Saddam Hussein Boulevard, Longacres, *Lusaka*.
- ZIMBABWE — The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1406, *Harare*.

COMING OUT SOON

HANS HAUG

In cooperation with
Hans-Peter Gasser, Françoise Perret
and Jean-Pierre Robert-Tissot

HUMANITY FOR ALL

**The International Red Cross
and Red Crescent Movement**

With forewords by
Cornelio Sommaruga and
Mario Villarroel Lander

The forthcoming book sets out to give an accurate and suitably documented account of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. Unlike most of the works already published on the subject, which are mainly devoted to specific aspects of the Movement, the intention here is to present it in its entirety. The instruments of international humanitarian law, initiated and promoted by the ICRC, are also extensively discussed.

The author, *Hans Haug*, was a professor of public law, in particular public international law, at the St. Gallen University for Economics, Law and Social Sciences between 1967 and 1986, President of the Swiss Red Cross and Vice-President of the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies between 1968 and 1982 and a member of the International Committee of the Red Cross between 1983 and 1991. He begins by examining the various components of the Movement (the International Committee of the Red Cross, the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies), the seven Fundamental Principles of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, and international humanitarian law. Other subjects covered are the Red Cross and Red Crescent as a factor of peace, the cooperation of the components of the Movement with other national and international organizations, and the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and human rights.

This book is published by the Henry Dunant Institute, Geneva, and Paul Haupt Publishers, Bern/Stuttgart/Vienna. It appeared in *German* in 1991 and in *French* in 1992 (see review by Anton Schlögel in *IRRC*, No. 287, March-April 1992, pp. 202-205).

Orders should be sent to the Henry Dunant Institute, 114 rue de Lausanne, CH-1202 Geneva, Switzerland (price: 48 Swiss francs).

THE PAUL REUTER PRIZE

The Paul Reuter Fund was created in 1983 thanks to a donation made to the ICRC by the late Paul Reuter, Honorary Professor of the University of Paris and member of the Institute of International Law. Its purpose is twofold: its income is used to encourage a work or an undertaking in the field of international humanitarian law and its dissemination, and to finance the Paul Reuter Prize.

The prize, in the amount of 2,000 Swiss francs, is awarded for a major work in the field of international humanitarian law. The prize has previously been awarded three times: it was first awarded in 1985 to *Mr. Mohamed El Kouhène*, Doctor of Laws, for his doctoral thesis entitled "Les garanties fondamentales de la personne en droit humanitaire et droits de l'homme" (Fundamental guarantees of the individual under humanitarian law and in human rights). The second award was made in 1988 to *Ms. Heather A. Wilson*, Doctor of Laws, for her thesis entitled "International Law and the Use of Force by National Liberation Movements". In an exceptional decision, there were two recipients when it was awarded for the third time in 1991: *Mr. Edward K. Kwakwa*, Doctor of Laws, received the prize for his thesis entitled "Trends in the International Law of Armed Conflict: Claims relating to Personal and Material Fields of Application", and *Mr. Alejandro Valencia Villa*, a lawyer, received the prize for his book entitled "La humanización de la guerra: la aplicación del derecho internacional humanitario al conflicto armado en Colombia".

The prize will be awarded for the fourth time in **1994**. In accordance with the Regulations of the Paul Reuter Prize, to be considered for the award applicants must fulfil the following conditions:

1. The works admitted must be aimed at improving knowledge or understanding of international humanitarian law.
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