

Article 24. Distress

1. The wrongfulness of an act of a State not in conformity with an international obligation of that State is precluded if the author of the act in question has no other reasonable way, in a situation of distress, of saving the author's life or the lives of other persons entrusted to the author's care.

2. Paragraph 1 does not apply if:

(a) the situation of distress is due, either alone or in combination with other factors, to the conduct of the State invoking it; or

(b) the act in question is likely to create a comparable or greater peril.

Commentary

(1) Article 24 deals with the specific case where an individual whose acts are attributable to the State is in a situation of peril, either personally or in relation to persons under his or her care. The article precludes the wrongfulness of conduct adopted by the State agent in circumstances where the agent had no other reasonable way of saving life. Unlike situations of *force majeure* dealt with in article 23, a person acting under distress is not acting involuntarily, even though the choice is effectively nullified by the situation of peril.^{[1030] 360} Nor is it a case of choosing between compliance with international law and other legitimate interests of the State, such as characterize situations of necessity under article 25. The interest concerned is the immediate one of saving people's lives, irrespective of their nationality.

(2) In practice, cases of distress have mostly involved aircraft or ships entering State territory under stress of weather or following mechanical or navigational failure.^{[1031] 361} An example is the entry of United States military aircraft into Yugoslavia's airspace in 1946. On two occasions, United States military aircraft entered Yugoslav airspace without authorization and were attacked by Yugoslav air defences. The United States Government protested the Yugoslav action on the basis that the aircraft had entered Yugoslav airspace solely in order to escape extreme danger. The Yugoslav Government responded by denouncing the systematic violation of its airspace, which it claimed could only be intentional in view of its frequency. A later note from the Yugoslav chargé d'affaires informed the United States Department of State that Marshal Tito had forbidden any firing on aircraft which flew over Yugoslav territory without authorization, presuming that, for its part, the United States Government "would undertake the steps necessary to prevent these flights, except in the case of emergency or bad weather, for which arrangements could be made by agreement between American and Yugoslav authorities".^{[1032] 362} The reply of the United States Acting Secretary of State reiterated the assertion that no United States planes had flown over Yugoslavia intentionally without prior authorization from Yugoslav authorities "unless forced to do so in an emergency". However, the Acting Secretary of State added:

^{[1030] 360} For this reason, writers who have considered this situation have often defined it as one of "relative impossibility" of complying with the international obligation. See, e.g., O. J. Lissitzyn, "The treatment of aerial intruders in recent practice and international law", *AJIL*, vol. 47, No. 4 (October 1953), p. 588.

^{[1031] 361} See the study prepared by the Secretariat (footnote [1005] 345 above), paras. 141–142 and 252.

^{[1032] 362} United States of America, *Department of State Bulletin* (footnote [1011] 351 above), reproduced in the study prepared by the Secretariat (footnote [1005] 345 above), para. 144.

I presume that the Government of Yugoslavia recognizes that *in case a plane and its occupants are jeopardized, the aircraft may change its course so as to seek safety, even though such action may result in flying over Yugoslav territory without prior clearance.*^{[1033] 363}

(3) Claims of distress have also been made in cases of violation of maritime boundaries. For example, in December 1975, after British naval vessels entered Icelandic territorial waters, the British Government claimed that the vessels in question had done so in search of “shelter from severe weather, as they have the right to do under customary international law”.^{[1034] 364} Iceland maintained that British vessels were in its waters for the sole purpose of provoking an incident, but did not contest the point that if the British vessels had been in a situation of distress, they could enter Icelandic territorial waters.

(4) Although historically practice has focused on cases involving ships and aircraft, article 24 is not limited to such cases.^{[1035] 365} The “*Rainbow Warrior*” arbitration involved a plea of distress as a circumstance precluding wrongfulness outside the context of ships or aircraft. France sought to justify its conduct in removing the two officers from the island of Hao on the ground of “circumstances of distress in a case of extreme urgency involving elementary humanitarian considerations affecting the acting organs of the State”.^{[1036] 366} The tribunal unanimously accepted that this plea was admissible in principle, and by majority that it was applicable to the facts of one of the two cases. As to the principle, the tribunal required France to show three things:

(1) The existence of very exceptional circumstances of extreme urgency involving medical or other considerations of an elementary nature, provided always that a prompt recognition of the existence of those exceptional circumstances is subsequently obtained from the other interested party or is clearly demonstrated.

(2) The reestablishment of the original situation of compliance with the assignment in Hao as soon as the reasons of emergency invoked to justify the repatriation had disappeared.

(3) The existence of a good faith effort to try to obtain the consent of New Zealand in terms of the 1986 Agreement.^{[1037] 367}

In fact the danger to one of the officers, though perhaps not life-threatening, was real and might have been imminent, and it was not denied by the New Zealand physician who subsequently examined him. By contrast, in the case of the second officer, the justifications given (the need for medical examination on grounds of pregnancy and the desire to see a dying father) did not justify emergency action. The lives of the agent and the child were at no stage threatened and there were excellent medical facilities nearby. The tribunal held that:

^{[1033] 363} Study prepared by the Secretariat (footnote [1005] 345 above), para. 145. The same argument is found in the Memorial of 2 December 1958 submitted by the United States Government to ICJ in relation to another aerial incident (*I.C.J. Pleadings, Aerial Incident of 27 July 1955*, pp. 358–359).

^{[1034] 364} *Official Records of the Security Council, Thirtieth Year*, 1866th meeting, 16 December 1975, para. 24; see the study prepared by the Secretariat (footnote [1005] 345 above), para. 136.

^{[1035] 365} There have also been cases involving the violation of a land frontier in order to save the life of a person in danger. See, e.g., the case of violation of the Austrian border by Italian soldiers in 1862, study prepared by the Secretariat (footnote [1005] 345 above), para. 121.

^{[1036] 366} “*Rainbow Warrior*” (footnote [40] 46 above), pp. 254–255, para. 78.

^{[1037] 367} *Ibid.*, p. 255, para. 79.

[C]learly these circumstances entirely fail to justify France's responsibility for the removal of Captain Prieur and from the breach of its obligations resulting from the failure to return the two officers to Hao (in the case of Major Mafart once the reasons for their removal had disappeared). There was here a clear breach of its obligations.^{[1038] 368}

(5) The plea of distress is also accepted in many treaties as a circumstance justifying conduct which would otherwise be wrongful. Article 14, paragraph 3, of the Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone permits stopping and anchoring by ships during their passage through foreign territorial seas insofar as this conduct is rendered necessary by distress. This provision is repeated in much the same terms in article 18, paragraph 2, of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea.^{[1039] 369} Similar provisions appear in the international conventions on the prevention of pollution at sea.^{[1040] 370}

(6) Article 24 is limited to cases where human life is at stake. The tribunal in the "*Rainbow Warrior*" arbitration appeared to take a broader view of the circumstances justifying a plea of distress, apparently accepting that a serious health risk would suffice. The problem with extending article 24 to less than life-threatening situations is where to place any lower limit. In situations of distress involving aircraft there will usually be no difficulty in establishing that there is a threat to life, but other cases present a wide range of possibilities. Given the context of chapter V and the likelihood that there will be other solutions available for cases which are not apparently life-threatening, it does not seem necessary to extend the scope of distress beyond threats to life itself. In situations in which a State agent is in distress and has to act to save lives, there should however be a certain degree of flexibility in the assessment of the conditions of distress. The "no other reasonable way" criterion in article 24 seeks to strike a balance between the desire to provide some flexibility regarding the choices of action by the agent in saving lives and need to confine the scope of the plea having regard to its exceptional character.

(7) Distress may only be invoked as a circumstance precluding wrongfulness in cases where a State agent has acted to save his or her own life or where there exists a special relationship between the State organ or agent and the persons in danger. It does not extend to more general cases of emergencies, which are more a matter of necessity than distress.

(8) Article 24 only precludes the wrongfulness of conduct so far as it is necessary to avoid the life-threatening situation. Thus, it does not exempt the State or its agent from complying with other requirements (national or international), *e.g.* the requirement to notify

^[1038] ³⁶⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 263, para. 99.

^[1039] ³⁶⁹ See also articles 39, paragraph 1 (c), 98 and 109, of the Convention.

^[1040] ³⁷⁰ See, *e.g.*, the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution of the Sea by Oil, article IV, paragraph 1 (a), of which provides that the prohibition on the discharge of oil into the sea does not apply if the discharge takes place "for the purpose of securing the safety of the ship, preventing damage to the ship or cargo, or saving life at sea". See also the Convention on the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping of Wastes and Other Matter, article V, paragraph 1, of which provides that the prohibition on dumping of wastes does not apply when it is "necessary to secure the safety of human life or of vessels, aircraft, platforms or other man-made structures at sea ... in any case which constitutes a danger to human life or a real threat to vessels, aircraft, platforms or other man-made structures at sea, if dumping appears to be the only way of averting the threat." See also the Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping from Ships and Aircraft (art. 8, para. 1); and the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships, 1973 (MARPOL Convention), annex I, regulation 11 (a).

arrival to the relevant authorities, or to give relevant information about the voyage, the passengers or the cargo.^{[1041] 371}

(9) As in the case of *force majeure*, a situation which has been caused or induced by the invoking State is not one of distress. In many cases the State invoking distress may well have contributed, even if indirectly, to the situation. Priority should be given to necessary life-saving measures, however, and under paragraph 2 (a), distress is only excluded if the situation of distress is due, either alone or in combination with other factors, to the conduct of the State invoking it. This is the same formula as that adopted in respect of article 23, paragraph 2 (a).^{[1042] 372}

(10) Distress can only preclude wrongfulness where the interests sought to be protected (e.g. the lives of passengers or crew) clearly outweigh the other interests at stake in the circumstances. If the conduct sought to be excused endangers more lives than it may save or is otherwise likely to create a greater peril it will not be covered by the plea of distress. For instance, a military aircraft carrying explosives might cause a disaster by making an emergency landing, or a nuclear submarine with a serious breakdown might cause radioactive contamination to a port in which it sought refuge. Paragraph 2 (b) stipulates that distress does not apply if the act in question is likely to create a comparable or greater peril. This is consistent with paragraph 1, which in asking whether the agent had “no other reasonable way” to save life establishes an objective test. The words “comparable or greater peril” must be assessed in the context of the overall purpose of saving lives.

DECISIONS OF INTERNATIONAL COURTS, TRIBUNALS AND OTHER BODIES

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRAL TRIBUNAL

Case concerning the difference between New Zealand and France concerning the interpretation or application of two agreements concluded on 9 July 1986 between the two States and which related to the problems arising from the Rainbow Warrior Affair

In its 1990 award in the *Rainbow Warrior* case, the arbitral tribunal referred to draft article 32 provisionally adopted by the International Law Commission,^{[1043] 145} as well as to the

^{[1041] 371} See *Cashin and Lewis v. The King*, *Canada Law Reports* (1935), p. 103 (even if a vessel enters a port in distress, it is not exempted from the requirement to report on its voyage). See also the “*Rebecca*”, Mexico-United States General Claims Commission, *AJIL*, vol. 23, No. 4 (October 1929), p. 860 (vessel entered port in distress; merchandise seized for customs offence: held, entry reasonably necessary in the circumstances and not a mere matter of convenience; seizure therefore unlawful); the “*May*” v. *The King*, *Canada Law Reports* (1931), p. 374; the “*Queen City*” v. *The King*, *ibid.*, p. 387; and *Rex v. Flahaut*, *Dominion Law Reports* (1935), p. 685 (test of “real and irresistible distress” applied).

^{[1042] 372} See paragraph (9) of the commentary to article 23.

^{[1043] 145} This provision was amended and incorporated in article 24 finally adopted by the International Law Commission in 2001. Draft article 32 provisionally adopted read as follows:

Article 32 Distress

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commentary thereto, to determine whether the wrongfulness of France's behaviour could be excluded on the basis of distress. The tribunal also clarified, in this context, the difference between this ground of justification and, first, that of *force majeure*, and, second, that of state of necessity, dealt with under draft article 33 provisionally adopted by the Commission:^[1044] 146

Article 32 of the articles drafted by the International Law Commission deals with another circumstance which may preclude wrongfulness in international law, namely, that of the 'distress' of the author of the conduct which constitutes the act of State whose wrongfulness is in question.

...

The commentary of the International Law Commission explains that "distress" means a situation of extreme peril in which the organ of the State which adopts that conduct has, at that particular moment, no means of saving himself or persons entrusted to his care other than to act in a manner not in conformity with the requirements of the obligation in question' (*Yearbook ... 1979*, p. 133, para. 1).

The report adds that in international practice distress, as a circumstance capable of precluding the wrongfulness of an otherwise wrongful act of the State, 'has been invoked and recognized primarily in cases involving the violation of a frontier of another State, particularly its airspace and its sea—for example, when the captain of a State vessel in distress seeks refuge from storm in a foreign port without authorization, or when the pilot of a State aircraft lands without authorization on foreign soil to avoid an otherwise inevitable disaster' (*ibid.*, p. 134, para. 4). Yet the Commission found that 'the ratio of the actual principle suggests that it is applicable, if only by analogy, to other comparable cases' (*ibid.*, p. 135, para. 8).

The report points out the difference between this ground for precluding wrongfulness and that of *force majeure*: 'in these circumstances, the State organ admittedly has a choice, even if it is only between conduct not in conformity with an international obligation and conduct which is in conformity with the obligation but involves a sacrifice that it is unreasonable to demand' (*Yearbook ... 1979*, p. 122, para. 3). But 'this choice is not a "real choice" or "free choice" as to the decision to be taken, since the person acting on behalf of the State knows that if he adopts the conduct required by the international obligation, he, and the persons entrusted to his care, will almost inevitably perish. In such circumstances, the "possibility" of acting in conformity with the international obligation is therefore only apparent. In practice it is nullified by the situation of extreme peril which, as we have just said, characterizes situations of distress' (*Yearbook ... 1979*, p. 133, para. 2).

The report adds that the situation of distress 'may at most include a situation of serious danger, but not necessarily one that jeopardizes the very existence of the person concerned. The protection of something other than life, particularly where the physical integrity of a person is still involved, may admittedly represent an interest that is capable of severely restricting an individual's freedom of decision and induce him to act in a manner that is justifiable, although not in conformity with an international obligation of the State' (*Yearbook ... 1979*, p. 135, para. 10). Thus, this circumstance may also apply to safeguard other essential rights of human beings such as the physical integrity of a person.

that State had no other means, in a situation of extreme distress, of saving his life or that of persons entrusted to his care.

2. Paragraph 1 shall not apply if the State in question has contributed to the occurrence of the situation of extreme distress or if the conduct in question was likely to create a comparable or greater peril. (*Yearbook ... 1980*, vol. II (Part Two), para. 34.)

^[1044] 146 This provision was amended and incorporated in article 25 finally adopted in 2001. The text of that provision was identical to that of draft article 33 adopted on first reading (see *Yearbook ... 1996*, vol. II (Part Two), para. 65) and is contained in the passage of the judgement of the ICJ in the *Gabčíkovo-Nagymaros Project* case reproduced [on pp. 278–280] below.

The report also distinguishes with precision the ground of justification of article 32 from the controversial doctrine of the state of necessity dealt with in article 33. Under article 32, on distress, what is ‘involved is situations of necessity’ with respect to the actual person of the State organs or of persons entrusted to his care, ‘and not any real “necessity” of the State’.

On the other hand, article 33, which allegedly authorizes a State to take unlawful action invoking a state of necessity, refers to situations of grave and imminent danger to the State as such and to its vital interests.

This distinction between the two grounds justifies the general acceptance of article 32 and at the same time the controversial character of the proposal in article 33 on state of necessity.

It has been stated in this connection that there is no general principle allowing the defence of necessity. There are particular rules of international law making allowance for varying degrees of necessity, but these cases have a meaning and a scope entirely outside the traditional doctrine of state of necessity. Thus, for instance, vessels in distress are allowed to seek refuge in a foreign port, even if it is closed ... in the case of famine in a country, a foreign ship proceeding to another port may be detained and its cargo expropriated ... In these cases—in which adequate compensation must be paid—it is not the doctrine of the state of necessity which provides the foundation of the particular rules, but humanitarian considerations, which do not apply to the State as a body politic but are designed to protect essential rights of human beings in a situation of distress. (*Manual of Public International Law*, ed. Soerensen, p. 543.)

The question therefore is to determine whether the circumstances of distress in a case of extreme urgency involving elementary humanitarian considerations affecting the acting organs of the State may exclude wrongfulness in this case.^{[1045] 147}

The arbitral tribunal then examined France’s behaviour in accordance with these legal considerations. It concluded that

the circumstances of distress, of extreme urgency and the humanitarian considerations invoked by France may have been circumstances excluding responsibility for the unilateral removal of Major Mafart [from the island of Hao] without obtaining New Zealand’s consent [as provided for by the agreement between the Parties], but clearly these circumstances entirely fail to justify France’s responsibility for the removal of Captain Prieur and from the breach of its obligations resulting from the failure to return the two officers to Hao (in the case of Major Mafart once the reasons for their removal had disappeared).^{[1046] 148}

[A/62/62, para. 90]

[PERMANENT COURT OF ARBITRATION (UNDER UNCITRAL RULES)]

Venezuela US, S.R.L. v. Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela

The arbitral tribunal in *Venezuela US, S.R.L. v. Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela* referred to articles 12 and 20 to 25, noting that “[t]here is a breach only when the conduct of a State is not in conformity with what is required of it by an international obligation, provided that there are no circumstances precluding the wrongfulness”.^{[1047] 82}

[A/77/74, p. 17]]

^[1045] ¹⁴⁷ See footnote [40] 46 above.

^[1046] ¹⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 263, para. 99.

^[1047] ^[82] See footnote [126] 14 above, para. 155.]

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRAL TRIBUNAL (UNDER THE ICSID CONVENTION)

(DS)2, S.A., *Peter de Sutter and Kristof de Sutter v. Republic of Madagascar*

In (DS)2, S.A., *Peter de Sutter and Kristof de Sutter v. Republic of Madagascar*, the arbitral tribunal quoted article 24, noting that, in a situation of distress, “the author of a wrongful act ... ‘has no other reasonable way ... of saving the author’s life or the lives of other persons entrusted to the author’s care.’ Again, as already indicated, it is not clear how inaction by law enforcement could have been the only way to save lives”.^{[1048] 109}

[A/77/74, p. 21]

^{[1048] 109} [ICSID, Case No. ARB/17/18, Award, 17 April 2020], para. 349.