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# French soldiers who died during both World Wars: from recovery to repatriation

Emeline Verna<sup>a</sup>, Caroline Costedoat<sup>a</sup>, Alain Stevanovitch<sup>b</sup>, Frédéric Adam<sup>a,c</sup>, Yves Desfossés<sup>a,d,f</sup>,  
Alain Jacques<sup>e,f</sup>, Michel Signoli<sup>a,f</sup>

a Aix-Marseille Université, CNRS, EFS, ADES, Marseille, France

b Institut National de Police Scientifique (INPS), Laboratoire de Marseille, Marseille, France

c Inrap Grand Est, Metz, Strasbourg, France

d DRAC Grand Est, Pôle patrimoines, Châlons-en-Champagne, France

e Service archéologique, Pôle Patrimoine, Arras, France

f Comité des Experts du Musée des Invalides, Paris, France

Email addresses :

emeline.verna@univ-amu.fr

caroline.costedoat@univ-amu.fr

alain.stevanovitch@interieur.gouv.fr

frederic.adam@inrap.fr

yves.desfosses@culture.gouv.fr

archeologie@ville-arras.fr

michel.signoli@univ-amu.fr

Corresponding author:

Emeline Verna

emeline.verna@univ-amu.fr

UMR 7278 ADES, AMU-EFS-CNRS

Aix-Marseille Université – Faculté des sciences médicales et paramédicales secteur Nord

51 Boulevard Pierre Dramard

13015 Marseille, France

**Abstract:**

The study of human remains from the first and the second World War is important for enhancing our understanding of that historical period. Despite the fact that the period has been well-documented previously, gaps remain, particularly as a result of the destruction of archives. In fact, for just WWI, more than 700,000 soldiers from both sides remain missing. Scientific and political collaborations established in hopes of recovering and identifying soldiers will allow many families understand "what happened" to their loved ones and facilitate the return of the soldiers their homes. In this paper, the recovery of the human remains of French soldiers WWI and WWII will be described through the lens of the legislation in place governing the retrieval and identification of the remains, protocols established for recovery, excavation and analysis, and the dissemination data. These features will be illustrated using three case studies that involve French soldiers who died during WWI. Research of this type is the result of true interdisciplinary and sometimes international, depending on the context, collaboration. The public and academic dissemination of these archaeological discoveries, both to academics and the public, is crucial and a type of remembrance.

Keywords: World Wars, recovery, anthropological analysis, identification, duty of remembrance

**Introduction**

France was an active conflict zone during both World Wars. Even today, the remains of an estimated 700,000 missing WWI soldiers of all nationalities remain throughout the Western front alone (i.e., from the Vosges Mountains to the North Sea). The discovery of each body has occurred mainly as a fortuitous event, and typically is a result of public or private land development projects. Research or excavation projects do not typically discover the remains of soldiers. For example, a 1991 excavation of a multiple-deposition burial site at Saint-Rémy-la-Calonne (Meuse) can be cited. During this operation, the remains of 21 soldiers from the 288<sup>th</sup> infantry regiment who disappeared on September 22<sup>nd</sup>, 1914 were exhumed [1, 2]. This excavation is well-known, both to archaeological professionals and the general public, since the remains of the French writer Alain-Fournier were found among the dead.

Another example of a planned excavation operation was carried out in France, and involved the Pheasant Wood site in the commune of Fromelles. This operation was led by Oxford Archaeology at the request of the Commonwealth War Graves Commission on behalf of both the Australian and British governments. During the summer of 2009, eight burial pits were excavated. Two-hundred fifty bodies were exhumed and identified as soldiers who died during the second Battle of Fromelles, which was part of the first offensives of the Battle of the Somme in July, 1916 [3, 4].

Throughout approximately the last twenty years, major regional development work has been undertaken, particularly in the north of France. As a result, the remains of an increasing number of WWI and WWII soldiers have been discovered [5]. Knowledge of battlefield archaeology has been developed with the aim of enhancing our understanding of conflicts via deposit modes, which investigates the means by which comrades-in-arms or enemies perform burials or support the lives of soldiers during combat [6]. An interdisciplinary team was set up for each discovery that included an anthropologists, archaeologists, historians, geneticists and other professionals. The objective of the work was twofold. The first goal of the work was to adopt an archaeological approach for recovery that precisely captured the historical context of the deaths examined, and enhanced our understanding of how the funeral management of identified remains was carried out. For example, were the gravediggers brothers in arms or enemies? How do gravediggers adapt their funerary gestures to the exceptional circumstances they encountered? The second objective was to positively identify each soldier that was found. This involved identifying their nationality, unit of assignment, and even the individuals themselves, whenever possible.

In France, archaeologists and anthropologists have been interested in WWI and WWII from an archaeological point of view that considers human remains and surrounding archaeological artefacts for only the last 30 years. Though human remains are of primary interest, the discovery of diverse types of archaeological structures (trenches, rest or prison camps, tanks or planes) also allow us to compare data from soil archives with more “traditional” historical data sources including written text, photography and film.

When a soldier’s remains are discovered in France, that soldier may potentially be from several countries (Commonwealth Nations, Germany, United States, etc.). Clothes, weapons and the location of the recovery site may be used to identify the nationality of a soldier. Archaeologists may intervene in the recovery of skeletal remains found in France to identify the nationality of the soldier and to ensure that it is turned over to competent authorities from the soldier’s country. Two options then follow: either professional representatives of relevant authorities recover bones directly (Defense POW/MIA Accounting Agency, or the Commonwealth War Graves Commission) or they ask the French services to carry out an anthropological study and return remains thereafter. In 2019, the excavation of a German temporary cemetery was carried out, which was followed by the study of skeletal remains before they were handed over to the *Volksbund Deutsche Kriegsgräberfürsorge* [7].

In this article, the recovery and identification of French soldier will be presented through the lens of current legislation in place, protocols established for recovery, excavation and analyses, and the dissemination data will be illustrated using case studies. Three case studies of French soldiers who died during WWI have been developed. Each case involved a different protocol for the identification of the soldier and was performed at a different period. For instance, cases were identified using DNA

analysis before and after collaboration with scientific police. These cases also involve the recovery of human remains after an accidental discovery or during land use planning. The three cases illustrate features of different stages involved in the excavation of human remains dating from WWI and WWII and legislation that surrounded these issues that affected the identification of French soldiers.

### **French legislation regarding human remains from WWI and WWII**

#### *'Mort pour la France'*

The desire to improve the conditions of the wounded on the battlefield was solidified in 1864 via the establishment of the *Geneva Convention* [8], which France signed as soon as it was established. The *Geneva Convention* was first amended and supplemented in 1949. Thereafter, additional protocols and extensions to prisoners of war, the sick, and civilians affected by any armed conflict were enacted.

However, in France, the 1914–1918 period that occurred during the First World War, corresponded to the timeframe in which important changes in the laws pertaining to the burial of soldiers who died during combat were established. Before the First World War, burials were carried out post-battle by either victors or civilians that happened to live near the battlefield. The burial of corpses was primarily performed for sanitary reasons. In fact, soldiers of enemy armies were sometimes buried within the same graves or with horses that died during battle. From 1914 onward, a law introduced and adopted on July 2<sup>nd</sup>, 1915, which retroactively applied to those who had died since August 1914, provided a special status to any soldier who died in battle, as follows: *'Mort pour la France'*. This gave soldiers the right to a perpetual burial in a military cemetery. It also gave fallen soldiers the right to have their names inscribed on a war memorial in their village or hometown. Finally, this legal status gave the wives of soldiers killed in combat (war widows) and children (war orphans) the rights to pensions.

In 1916, the National Association of Veterans and Victims of War (ONACVG) [9] was created. The main purpose of the association was the duty of remembrance. This is an aspect of the evolution of mentalities and the law regarding war victims and casualties. In fact, the change observed in 1914 regarding the status of the body of a dead soldier was the result of a change in mentality regarding the death of loved ones that stretched several decades. This change extended beyond the death of military personnel, since it also affected civilians. For France, therefore, any conflict that occurred during or after the second half of the nineteenth century will pass from the battlefields to the fields of memory. First, the Crimean War (1853–1856) occurred. During the period, burials remained numerous, and the dead were grouped by unit (e.g., the French cemetery of Sebastopol). Then, the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 was marked by the establishment of the first national military cemeteries. However, collective burials predominated, rather than individual graves. It was only with the First World War and the generation of an individual ID tag (distributed from 1881 onward within the French army) that the

identification of each soldier was theoretically possible. It was also during this period that individual burials become the rule (when possible).

Currently, there are 275 national military cemeteries in France, which commemorate approximately 800,000 individuals that died for France alone. Eighty-eight percent of these soldiers died during the First World War. Those who could not be identified individually have been buried in ossuaries. For example, the ossuary of Douaumont (Meuse, France), built at the end of the WWI, is the location where soldiers that died during the battle of Verdun are buried (February–December 1916). In fact, 130,000 unidentified soldiers from WWI have been buried in the ossuary.

Today, when remains of French soldiers are identified, the soldier's families are notified of the discovery. Much like that which occurs in the direct aftermath of conflicts, families are given two options as to the fate of identified remains. Either they are given an individual and perpetual burial in the military necropolis closest to their place of discovery/death, or they are transferred to the communal cemetery of origin of the deceased (this transfer is paid for by the State) and buried in the soldier's family vault (the maintenance of the grave will then be the responsibility of the family). A burial ceremony with military honors is organized in both situations.

#### *Legislation regarding human remains*

Two situations often lead to the discovery of WWI and WWII human remains. These include accidental discoveries, such as the reveal of military equipment and bones after a storm or the uprooting of a tree and during land use planning. The first type of discovery occurs accidentally. In this situation, individuals that initially discover bones must call internal security forces to report the discovery, which results in the opening of a legal case, requires a local magistrate to be informed, and initiates the launching of an investigation. Typically, a pathologist is involved in establishing the death of the person (in France, only a pathologist can legally assess death in judicial procedures, even in cases that involve skeletal remains). The internal security forces, and more specially, the forensic official, create a report which includes *in situ* illustrations of the scene.

Afterward, a team of anthropologists and archeologists excavate the human remains as shown Figure 1. If they find that the remains correspond to periods of WWI or WWII based on the location of the discovery, and contextual evidence such as clothes, coins, weapons etc., the investigation is closed, legal status is revoked by the local magistrate and the remains pass into the archaeological field. The status of a suspicious death is revoked based on elements found on human remains and their immediate surroundings.

In France, human remains from WWI and WWII are not considered as forensic cases. Instead, they are typically considered archaeological finds. Some exceptions have occurred. For example, in 2013, 26 WWI soldiers were exhumed by the French police (Douaumont, Meuse). The statute of limitations in France is 20 years before the present day (day of discovery). No forensic cases or legal proceedings can be opened in France regarding the discovery of this type of human remains, even if they appear to be war victims. Clearly, limitation statutes have long expired 100 years after armistice. The management of these discoveries and their excavation operations depend on the Ministry of Culture and Communication, which executes the documentation of cases using Regional Archaeological Services in cases with needed information and documentation.

The second type of discovery occurs during land use planning. In cases of this kind, an archeological survey is carried out in order to determine whether the area contains other archaeological remains, and therefore, whether an excavation must be carried out to recover remains prior to land use planning efforts. In this case, the ministry of Culture and Communication functions as the competent authority. ONACVG is also informed of the recovery. After laboratory analyses, the remains are entrusted to the War Memorial Service.

### **Recovery, identification and repatriation**

#### *The recovery of remains*

Different types of public and private organizations may undertake the excavation and analyses of human remains in an archaeological context. However, in recent years, particularly after the emblematic excavation of Napoleon's soldiers in Vilnius by anthropologists from Anthropologie, Droit, Ethique et Santé, UMR 7268 (ADES) research unit attached to Aix-Marseille University [10], a tangible collaboration has been established between regional archaeological services, local authorities, public rescue archaeology organisms (Inrap) and private archaeological companies. Today, this collaboration is evident in academic anthropologists from ADES (funerary anthropologists, forensic anthropologists and genetic anthropologists), which are very often called upon to investigate discoveries of military remains throughout France.

It is important to mention here that National French territory was an extremely important combat zone in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries (French campaign 1814; Franco-Prussian war 1870, WWI, WWII) In addition to remains associated with aforementioned conflicts, France is rich with numerous archaeological remains from more distant historic and prehistoric periods. For this reason, and in order to respect these heritage resources, the intervention of funerary anthropologists and archaeologists is essential for respectfully and thoroughly excavating the areas that have the potential to contain the remains of both soldiers and Merovingians, for example.

### *The collaboration*

An archaeological subfield of the Great War [11] has developed over the last few years in order to study and reconstruct gestures around the historical event. Associations have been created that regularly discover the bodies of soldiers in areas that they rehabilitate. As mentioned above, the professionals involved in these discoveries are anthropologists and archaeologists from different institutions who work on the recovery and analysis of the remains.

Several years after a study has been carried out, particular care is given to the dissemination of its results. Depending on the specifics of each case, they may be published as scientific articles, as long as the wishes of the families of the deceased are honored. The authors of these articles include all participants of excavations to the individual identification of remains, in cases in which identification occurs. This type of research is the result of a true interdisciplinary, and sometimes international, collaboration (for example, Loe and collaborators [12] for WWI and Costedoat and collaborators [13] for WWII).

### *Recovery protocols and identification*

Recovery and analysis protocols are based on archaeological and anthropological techniques. The excavation of the graves of soldiers can be used to illustrate fundamental concepts and practices that apply to the excavation of any burial site. The principal questions that must be answered are regarding the means by which each body deposited (individual or mass grave) and the funerary gestures that accompany the deceased. One of the questions raised by the funerary management of the corpses of soldiers can be summarized using the following formula: Who buried whom? Was the same care given to the remains of comrades and adversaries that were faced in the conflict? For example, at the Point du Jour site (commune of Athies, Pas-de-Calais), the burial of British soldiers by other British soldiers attests to the respect they had for the dead, and seemed to be an act of comradeship. The twenty soldiers who fell in the spring of 1917 were buried in such a way that physical contact was systematically maintained between brothers in arms: the right elbow of each man covered the left elbow of his neighbor to the right. In this case, although almost all skeletons were complete, the sixteenth and seventeenth soldiers were only represented by bone fragments. However, the few fragmentary limbs that remained were carefully placed in the exact location that they would have occupied had the individuals retained their anatomical integrity [11].

Burials dug for the enemy were very different from those of comrades. In this respect, Fromelles' graves are illustrative. Following the Australian and British offensives and the German counter-offensives, German soldiers managed the burial of several hundred enemy corpses throughout July of 1916 [4, 12, 14]. Of the 250 Commonwealth soldiers buried at the Pheasant Wood site, 95 (38%) were



placed face down, which cannot be considered insignificant. It should be considered in the context of the health emergency that prevailed at these burial sites, since the bodies were deposited one by one in each grave and the graves were well behind the front lines. However, it is sometimes difficult to understand the rationales of gravediggers, whether friends or foes, for minimizing gestures for the deceased to the strictest minimum, be they brothers in arms or adversaries.

In the study of funerary gestures, the absence of a burial during the First World War is striking. Even during periods of very high mortality (plague epidemics, battles, massacres of civilian populations), the care of the deceased, although sometimes extremely minimalist, nevertheless persisted when archaeological data was read. Regarding the Great War, as a result of artillery firepower, the bodies of many soldiers were mutilated and/or struck, and immediately buried under cubic meters of earth that had been raised by bombardments. Regular archaeological operations may uncover missing persons. This type of discovery may result in the recovery of an individual. This occurred in Sommepey-Tahure (Marne), where a French soldier Fernand TERRAS (415th infantry regiment) who was hit by a piece of shrapnel on September 26<sup>th</sup> 1915, fell face down and was covered by fallen sediments projected by the artillery. In other cases, several bodies buried by firepower were exhumed. This was the case at Bétheny "Sous les Vignes" (Marne), where 13 German soldiers were discovered in individual protection holes that they themselves had dug to hastily establish a line of defense against the French counter-offensive. This makeshift position was struck by French artillery between September 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup>, 1914 [15].

The second step involves the laboratory analysis of human remains and functions to establish the biological profile and existing pathological conditions of the remains. The identification of human remains involves a complex features, and must be considered from different angles. Social identification involves the identification of a person based on features of his/her everyday life and involves relations with other family members and the position of the deceased in society. In a context of military loss, social identification also relates to the soldier's regimental unit, place of recruitment, regimental numbers, etc. In parallel to social identification, biological identification can be established, which typically involves the genetic identification of fallen soldiers. Depending on the context of study, the two identification (social ID and genetic ID) types are not weighted in the same manner throughout in the identification process. The statistical robustness attributed to the final identification will depend on contributions of each of the two identification types (see Table 7.2 in Loe et al. 2014 [4] for a more detailed discussion of the identification of the dead). The principle of identity research, which is the same for all countries, is the following: Does the genetic identification performed correspond to the social identification that has been established [16]?

The use of genetic data in the identification of remains is highly regulated in France. The discovery of a WWI or WWII soldiers falls within the framework of an extrajudicial procedure for the identification of deceased persons (decree 2012–125 of 30/01/2012). Recently, a collaboration with the Institut National de Police Scientifique (INPS) of Marseille was established, which can be activated when the use of genetic tools is considered. This collaboration is not standardized throughout France. However, there is a goal to create a standardized protocol for the identification of French soldiers that involves collaboration between research laboratories, the public laboratory of Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Culture and the Ministry of Defense.

Genetic profiles extracted from the bones can be compared with direct or indirect descendants. This requires the respect of personal data confidentiality, which is ensured by the rigorous adherence to INPS laboratory standards (laboratory rules follow French accreditation committee (CFORC) standards, and any computerized processing of genetic data must be validated by the International commission for information technology and civil liberties (CNIL). This collaboration is also important since the laboratory of Marseille has expertise in the study of both nuclear (autosomal, Y chromosome STR and DNA phenotyping) and mitochondrial DNA markers, the latter of which are effective for comparing degraded DNA with members of the same paternal or maternal lineage and increase the likelihood of living relative identification.

Moreover, assumed descendants of the exhumed soldier have been found, they must sign a consent form before their DNA can be sampled, extracted and compared with the genetic profile determined from skeletal samples. The DNA identification protocol is the same as is used in a court case. A likelihood statistic is calculated by geneticists. Then, the data is coupled with other information collected regarding the deceased. If there is no doubt that the data (biological, historical...) match, the identification is communicated to the family of the deceased and authorities such as the ONACVG. Burial is then organized according to the wishes of the family of the deceased. After a statutory period of 18 months, genetic profiles are then automatically deleted from all INPS servers.

### **Case studies**

The following sections describe three case studies to illustrate procedural differences between the cases.

#### *Cases 1 and 2: Identification of Albert Dadure (1894–1915) and Fernand Terras (1899–1915)*

Massiges (Marne) was a place of active and intense fighting between the French and German armies during the Champagne offensive in 1915. Today, an association of volunteers is rehabilitating the trenches of the sector to build a memorial. During earthworks for the rehabilitation of a trench, a

skeleton was discovered. The excavation of the remains showed that the site served as a primary burial site for French soldiers that belonged to a colonial infantry regiment (Figure 1). The number and size of uniform buttons identified suggested that the soldier had died during the winter, since some of the buttons belonged to a coat. During the search, a highly oxidized identity plate was discovered around the soldier's right wrist. Finally, the soldier was carefully buried in the French trench (a pit was dug in limestone the skull was rested at a level that was slightly elevated relative to the rest of the soldier's skeleton). Once cleaned, several pieces of information could be read on the soldier's identity plate. Its front side included the name and surname of the soldier: "Dadure Albert". On the back, the plate was detailed the town from which he was recruited: "Cherbourg" (Figure 2).

On the basis of this information, a search of the archives was carried out, which consisted of the personal page of the personnel register of the army and the death certificate that was filled out the day after the death or disappearance of the soldier. Relevant documents were found for Albert Dadure (Figure 3). The soldier belonged to the 23<sup>rd</sup> colonial infantry regiment and died on February 7<sup>th</sup> 1915 in Massiges at the age of 21. A photo and a letter from Albert's mother informing his uncle and aunt of his death was recovered from a distant cousin of soldier Dadure. The cousin was found after some research, and was determined to be the only remaining living member of Albert Dadure's family and decided to leave Albert Dadure with his brothers in arms. As a result, Dadure was reburied in the Pont-du-Marson military cemetery (Figure 4).

In a comparable situation of discovery and identification, the descendants of another soldier, Fernand Terras, made a different choice by requesting that the soldier be reburied in the family vault of his village. A very moving sentence was pronounced by his descendants: "Fernand's parents have been waiting for his return! You have found him! It is time for him to join his father and mother!"

### *Case 3: Charles Henry Lavocat (1893–1914)*

In February 2017, a temporary French military cemetery was discovered in Spincourt (Meuse) during an Inrap archaeological survey that was carried out prior to the sale of building plots. Although located in a context of an ancient protohistoric occupation, the region of northern Meuse is best known to historians as being particularly scarred by the Great War which, on August 20<sup>th</sup> and 30<sup>th</sup>, 1914, saw violent fighting in its commune (on August 25, the village was partly burned by German soldiers). Located in the Verdun sector, the village was lost by French troops in August of 1914 and was retaken at the end of 1918. Consultation of the archives of the "Pôle des sépultures" confirmed that the temporary cemetery was active from 1919 to 1924 and contained 617 French graves and those of a few Allied soldiers. The archives revealed that 105 bodies from this temporary cemetery were returned to the families of the deceased between 1920 and 1924. In 1924, all other bodies from the cemetery were permanently transferred to the national necropolis of Pierrepont in Meurthe-et-Moselle. However, an

archaeological survey showed that the temporary cemetery had previously been only partially revealed.

An excavation operation uncovered and raised approximately 400 graves. The work was completed after a discovery in the northern part of a second, lower-level, unsuspected region, which contained 30 to 40 unexcavated burials (460 m<sup>2</sup>) belonging to a primitive cemetery from German occupation at the beginning of the war (1914). An occupied coffin from the second level was found, which was associated a military plaque bearing the name of Charles Lavocat (Figure 5). The burial contained the anatomically connected bony remains of a nearly complete skeleton that bore the red remains of the pants of the early "*poilus*" soldiers (the "*piou-piou*"), along with some supernumerary bone elements. Charles Lavocat was born in a small village in the Meuse near Bar-le-Duc, and was a soldier of the 154<sup>th</sup> Infantry Regiment. He had been missing since August 22<sup>nd</sup> 1914. An anthropological study revealed that the identified skeleton belonged to a male aged 25 to 35 years old, with evidence of a gunshot wound to the head (a bullet was found inside the cranium). In order to verify the identity of the body, and given the presence of some supernumerary bones, it was imperative to perform DNA analysis. After searching the archives, Charles Lavocat's three presumed grandsons were found and contacted to determine whether they would be willing to donate their DNA to perform a profile comparison with those determined from the skeletal remains. Meetings involving the descendants of exhumed soldiers are always emotionally powerful. The three descendants signed the consent form and the genetic study was launched by the INPS in Marseille.

After the official date of the declaration of war (August 3<sup>rd</sup>, 1914), the first weeks of the conflict could be categorized into several stages in the sector of Spincourt. After the defeat of German troops on the border of Mangiennes and their retreat to the north, a frontal shock began on August 20<sup>th</sup> and ended on August 25<sup>th</sup> as the French retreated toward Verdun. Casualties were heavy (27,000 were killed on August 22<sup>nd</sup>, 1914 alone) and fighting between the Germans and the French raged. The area was considered the heart of the "Battle of the Frontiers".

The genetic results (using Y-STR chromosome) confirmed that the skeleton was indeed that of Charles Henry Lavocat. The grandsons were proud to have found their heroic grandfather and gifted the team with his photograph. Today, as per his three grandsons' wishes, the ONACVG and the department of war graves are organizing Charles Henry Lavocat's reburial ceremony in the nearest military necropolis.

## **Discussion**

The public and academic dissemination of archaeological discoveries is crucial. It is a matter of remembrance. This collective history affects entire nations, but it also involves personal and family

histories, and requires the utmost respect. Some families may wish that the discovery of one of their own is published, others will not. It is our ethical duty to respect the decisions of families in this respect as well. When consent is given by the families, work should be published in scientific journals [13, 17] and books [2]. The dissemination of work may also be accomplished via public lectures, and interviews with regional journal articles or websites [18]. When the publication of work is not possible, excavation and anthropological study reports are written and archived by the regional archaeological service associated with the location of the discovery.

The study of human remains from WWI and WWII is important to expanding our knowledge of that period of history. Though it has been well-documented, gaps in knowledge remain, particularly as a result of the destruction of key archives. Throughout the period, 80 to 100 million human lives were lost. Military losses accounted for approximately 35 million individuals. And on the Western front of Europe alone, about 3.5 million died during WWI and 2.5 million died during WWII. Further, more than 700,000 WWI soldiers from both sides remain missing. The aim of scientific and political collaborations established for their recovery and identification of these soldiers is to allow people to understand what happened to their family members and provide fallen soldiers a means to return home. However, like any research involving the human body, these studies raise *de facto* ethical questions. When human remains are discovered in the contexts of mass death and emblematic episodes of national and/or European history, public opinion and leadership from political decision-makers are particularly impactful [19]. The discovery of contemporary burials (used here in the historical sense, i.e. from the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries) raises an even more intense pathos, since these are people who lived less than five generations in the past. Therefore, the event remains present in the collective memory. Many people today have a family history marked by suffering caused by the two great world conflicts. Through the cases presented in this article, it seems essential to work as a team using an interdisciplinary approach. Furthermore, the creation of a guide that details good ethical practices for the country, or even Europe will be impactful.

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## **Figure legends**

Figure 1. The excavation of the remains of Albert Dadure (1894–1915) from a trench on the “Main de Massigues” is shown.

Figure 2. An ID tag of Albert Dadure (1894–1915) is shown.

Figure 3. The Soldier’s Personnel Form for Albert DADURE (source ‘Memoire des Hommes’, website) is shown.

Figure 4. The grave of Albert Dadure in a military cemetery.

Figure 5. The excavation of the remains of Charles Lavocat (1893–1914) from Spincourt (temporary cemetery).







## PARTIE À REMPLIR PAR LE CORPS.

Nom DadurePrénoms Albert, JosephGrade 2<sup>e</sup> cl.Corps 2<sup>e</sup> R. Infanterie Coloniale 7<sup>e</sup> B<sup>e</sup>N<sup>o</sup> Matricule. { 5884 au Corps. — Cl. 1914{ 599 au Recrutement CherbourgMort pour la France le 7 Février 1915à Mastiges, Marne,Genre de mort Mort à l'ennemiNé le 2 Avril 1894 à Audouvilleà ~~Cherbourg~~ la Hubert Département MancheArr<sup>o</sup> municipal (p<sup>r</sup> Paris et Lyon), }  
à défaut rus et N<sup>o</sup>.

Cette partie n'est pas à remplir par le Corps.

Jugement rendu le \_\_\_\_\_  
par le Tribunal de \_\_\_\_\_  
acte ou jugement transcrit le 20 Juin 1915  
à Sautenay/Meuse (Manche)  
N<sup>o</sup> du registre d'état civil \_\_\_\_\_

9017  
DADURE Albert Joseph

23° R.I.C.

MORT POUR LA FRANCE le 07.02.1915

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