

From Line on a Map to Realities on the Ground: The French-German Joint Boundary Commission at Work (1871–1877)

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From Line on a Map to Realities on the Ground. The French-German Joint Boundary Commission at Work (1871–1877)

Benoit Vaillot

Abstract

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This contribution focuses on the French-German Boundary Commission that demarcated the French-German border from 1871 to 1877, after the German annexation of Alsace-Lorraine that followed the French defeat in the War of 1870. The genesis of this border cannot be summarised by the delineation drawn on the small-scale map attached to the Treaty of Frankfurt at the end of the war. It took no less than seven years for actors to draw the borderline in the field. From 1871 to 1877, a Boundary Commissioncomposed of French and German military and geographic engineers—worked on the ground to make the new border effective. During their activities, they erected more than 5000 border stones, made more than 900 maps and settled numerous conflicts, two of which we focus on. Thanks to the diary of one of the border commissioners and the collections of archives produced by the Commission in France and Germany, we study the birth of a border from a new angle. This study emphasises the room for manoeuvre that these officials had whilst

delimiting the border, as well as the role the inhabitants played by means of petitions, letters of protest and counter-mapping. This French-German case will be put into perspective with other Boundary Commissions encountered in our research.

4.1 Introduction

In September 1870, at the height of the Franco-German war, the geographical and statistical division of the Prussian general staff published a map of the "Territory of the General Government in Alsace". After the French defeat, a sinuous green line was added to this document on a 1:300,000 scale, delineating German territorial claims on paper for the first time (Delahache 1909). The map was attached to the preliminary peace treaty of 26 February 1871: the green line fulfils the function of delimiting the new Franco-German border. The territories ceded by France to the German Empire were not listed, but were vaguely defined as being located east of this border according to the first article. The green line delineated the territorial transfer, but did not specify the territories transferred. It corresponded to administrative boundaries (communes, cantons, districts, departments), as well topographical boundaries (mountain ridges) (Fig. 4.1).

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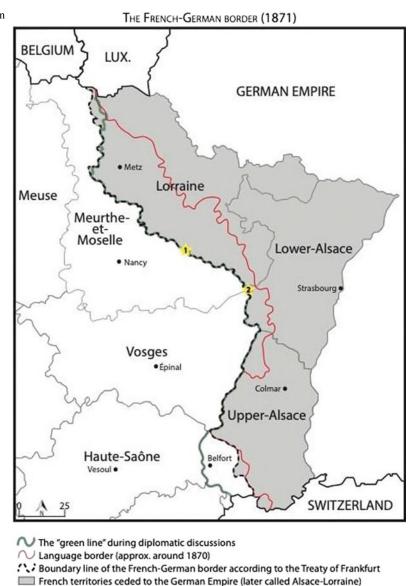
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¹French diplomatic archives (La Courneuve) then AD, TRT 18,710,007. "Das Gebiet des General-Gouvernements im Elsass", lithography by Leopold Kraatz, Berlin.

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Fig. 4.1 The French-German border (1871). *Source* Prepared by the author



Joint Boundary Commission conflicts (1. Avricourt/Igney; 2. The Two Raons)

The question of the delimitation of the 1871 French-German border is well known (Hartshorne 1950; Roth 1992, 2008), but without going into detail, it is nevertheless appropriate to explain its two main rationales, which were contradictory.² First of all, German nationalists wished to strip all territories from France in

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which they believed belonged rightfully to Germany, on the grounds that the living populations in these territories adhered to Germanic language and culture, even if they spoke French in certain social contexts and identified themselves as French. This ethno-linguistic argument was supported by Chancellor Bismarck, who sought to achieve German unity under the aegis of Prussia. Thus, the German-speaking areas of Alsace and Lorraine were to join Germany, from which they had been detached in the eighteenth

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²The question of the French-German border delimitation is detailed in my thesis: The French-German Border (1871–1914). Territories, Sovereignties, Identities.

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century. Then, the Prussian general staff sought to secure Germany by ensuring control of the strategic strongholds in Alsace and Lorraine that defended France. However, some of these military places, such as Belfort and Metz, were located in entirely French-speaking areas, where doubts arose as to the ability of the inhabitants to assimilate German culture. The green line drawn on the map synthesised these ethno-linguistic and strategic logics.

Nevertheless, French diplomats managed in extremis to negotiate a modification of its route around Belfort, within a radius that had to be determined during the discussions for a final peace treaty. In exchange, only three small French villages, which had become German memory spaces because of the exceptionally violent fighting that took place there during the war, were requested. But against all expectations, at the treaty of Frankfurt of 10 May 1871, a new counterpart was demanded from German diplomats in order to determine the Belfort radius conserved in France. German diplomats, having become aware of the presence of iron in the subsoil of the French villages immediately adjacent to the border, acquired some of them, and used the discussions on the Belfort radius for this purpose. The delimitation of the Franco-German border also followed an economic logic, which explains to a large extent the length of the negotiations. Moreover, a surprising gentleman's agreement between a French diplomat and Chancellor Bismarck led to a few villages enclosed by the green line escaping annexation.

The creation of the border that separated France and the German Empire between 1871 and 1918 is often summed up in this dimension of delimitation alone. More generally, historiography has for a long time limited the study of the creation of borders to the aspects of delimitation only, paying little attention to the aspects of demarcation. It is true that the term "delimitation" tends to absorb the term "demarcation", but these are two distinctive activities—admittedly they are linked to one another.³ Indeed, public

international law distinguishes between the deed enshrined by an inter-state agreement-delimitation—and the deed materialising the borderdemarcation.4 The first one aims to set the boundaries of an area and the latter aims to materialise its layout. It is thus both a different modality of action and also a change of scale.

The materialisation of the border is precisely what is of interest here, when it ceased being a cartographic and textual abstraction. The treaty of Frankfurt stipulated that a "commission internationale de délimitation" in French (Grenzregulirungs Kommission in German) to undertake a field visit in order to "lay out the new border". In Europe, such commissions existed at least since the Carolingian era⁵ and had increased from the eighteenth century onwards (Nordman 1998). As García-Álvarez and Puente-Lozano (2017) demonstrated, joint boundary commissions were a crucial means of territorialisation within the larger process of state-building in Europe: they made tangible the abstract "border on paper". In the last thirty years, recent studies have restored the activities of such commissions not only in Europe, but in America (St John 2012), in Africa (Lefebvre 2015; Blais 2014), and even in Asia (Ates 2013) adopting a from below perspective.⁶

In the case of the French-German border, this perspective is made possible with the help of original sources: documents from the joint boundary commission on the one hand, and a commissioner's memoirs on the other. The former represents a disparate amount of documents (letters, minutes, reports, registers with descriptions, maps, etc.), scattered in local and national

³The phases of allocation, delimitation and demarcation can be identified in Jones and Boggs (1945).

⁴Demarcation work for the 1871 French-German border was handled by a "commission de délimitation".

⁵Indeed, the Verdun treaty of 843 sanctioning the split of the Carolingian Empire included delegates on the field in charge of the delimitation of the boundaries of each kingdom. See Dion (1947), Foucher (1988) or Mieck (1990).

⁶Also, concerning Eastern Asia, I found in the Hokkaidô prefecture archives (Sapporo) in Japan, the documents of the Russian-Japanese joint boundary commission which on the Sakhaline Island demarcated the border drawn by the treaty of Portsmouth of 5 September 1905.

archives, in both France and Germany.⁷ The thousands of documents and maps which make up this corpus can seem off-putting. The same is not true for the recollections of Aimé Laussedat, a military engineer who took part in the demarcation process (Laussedat 1902). Although this source is French leaning and contains errors, his input is exceptional: he is the only one giving us an insider perspective of the activities of the 1871 French-German joint boundary commission in the field.⁸

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A comparative reading of such technical documents produced by the commissioners as well as the own memoirs of one of them allows for a tangible understanding of the production of a border.

This paper presents an analysis of the French-German joint boundary commission responsible for the demarcation of the border delimited at the Treaty of Frankfurt, highlighting both the interactions between commissioners and local populations involved in boundary making, and the multi-scalar nature of the process itself.

4.2 Preliminary Works

Soon after the Treaty of Frankfurt, the joint boundary commission began preliminary work on the demarcation. It was composed of technical officials, mostly military, as many French as German, who had received scientific training to perform the geographical and cartographical tasks indispensable for their missions. During the demarcation phase, diplomats faded away, as they were no longer playing the key role that they had during the delimitation phase. Instead commissioners Bouvier, Krafft and Laussedat on the one hand, and Bruce, Herzog

Hauchecorne (then Rhein) on the other lead the operations on the field. These commissioners worked respectively under generals Doutrelaine and Strantz, who were in charge of the liaison with their diplomats and general staff for all conflicts unresolvable on site. French commissioners followed the well-known tradition of *ingénieurs géographes* (Konvitz 1987) whilst their German counterparts were trained in military geography, whilst Hauchecorne brought with him his background as a geologist. He was specifically instructed to ensure that as much iron-rich subsoil as possible was annexed to the German Empire (Beyschlag 1902).

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One part of the joint boundary commission was gathered in Metz, and another part in Belfort, both places closed to territories negotiated during Frankfurt discussions (Laussedat 1902, pp. 79-84). There, commissioners perused, studied and reproduced the "cadastral maps" of all municipalities adjacent to the new border (Laussedat 1902, pp. 79–84). Indeed, since medieval times, borders in Europe were traced from municipal boundaries—formally parishes (Dion 1947, pp. 79–84). The territorial integrity of this administrative unit was very rarely questioned, as it represented the unit on which basic tax is calculated (Paasi 1997). Surveyors Laloy and Hufnagel sketched out the land register to be taken on site by the commissioners.

During the summer of 1871, several brigades were spread over different lengths of the border before establishing the demarcation—picketing—with the help of municipal civil servants, road, canal and port engineers and at times forestry officers. Thanks to the cadastral maps, the commissioners supervised the operations with the local mayors and local civil servants who provided information about the boundaries of their municipalities. Commissioner's sought to locate existing boundary markers on the ground

⁷AD, 2Q0 203 à 204. Boundary commission between France and Germany (1870–1878); Bas-Rhin local archives (Strasbourg) then ADBR 1J. Notizen über die Thätigkeit der internationalen Grenz-Regulierungs-Commission und Verlauf der Grenz-Arbeiten, août 1872, 71 AL 7. Grenzregulierung 1871–1879; German federal archives (Berlin) then BA, R 901/36610. Die Grenzrevision zwischen Elsaβ-Lothringen und Frankreich 1872–1879.

⁸AD, 2Q0 203. Composition of the boundary commission between France and Germany, March–May 1871.

⁹AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2 October 1871.

¹⁰AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 26 June 1871; Territoire de Belfort local archives (Belfort) then ATB, 1 μ 388. General Doutrelaine to sub-prefect of the Territoire de Belfort, 1 October 1871.

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demarcating municipalities, counties or state forests (Laussedat 1902, pp. 79–84). Between Sancy and Lommerange for example, they reused forest border stone dating back to 1784. The correct border was thus the one which used ancient boundaries, legitimised by time.

It was common for commissioners to live together during their operations (Rebert 2001). Wilhelm Hauchecorne therefore proposed to his counterpart Aimé Laussedat to stay together under the same roof, which later refused under the pretext that he preferred travelling with his wife. He felt he could not accept this gesture of friendship because the war had led to the dismemberment of his homeland (Laussedat 1902, pp. 85-104). With these two men, one can already see the future rivalry between the French school of geography and the German one at the end of the nineteenth century, as both would become important geographers. The specificity of this joint boundary commission is that it was set up immediately after the peace treaty, literally the day after, when passions had not subsided. Otherwise, commissioners generally had a preliminary agreement about the exact line of the border to follow, pending later changes to be decided on the ground.

The initial programme aimed to complete the within one year; although demarcation this overlooked that fact that on the ground, the process would spark a growing number of conflicts. 12 The section between Luxembourg and the Moselle River will now be explored as an example. The brigade there was headed by Laussedat and Hauchecorne. Local communities expressed their discontent when witnessing the demarcation operations. Inhabitants of Hussigny, Thil and Villerupt pulled pickets out during the night, compelling the commissioners to redo the surveys and peg these again (Laussedat 1902, pp. 85–104). This behaviour was encountered by every joint boundary commission. But here, the

inhabitants' patriotism expressed in the French and German archives is not only instrumental. Populations divided by the border are well known by historiography as having been integrated early on into the national "imagined community" in France, despite cultural singularities, mainly due to the early construction of the French state (Maissen 2020). 13 The mayor of Boulange ostensibly took his time in order to hinder the operations. The elected official stated that he was "not in a hurry to become Prussian" (Laussedat 1902, pp. 85–104). Elsewhere, between Briey and Mars-la-Tour, Laussedat was stopped by a woman accusing him of giving up on them, adding: "We will never be Prussians"; which did not fail to annoy Hauchecorne (Laussedat 1902, pp. 85-104).

On another note, the brigade disagreed on the boundary line near Crusnes, which was claimed by both commissioners. The treaty stipulated that the new border must hug the western boundary of Aumetz. Equipped with cadastral maps, Hauchecorne argued that the village of Crusnes belonged to Aumetz, and thus assigned to the German Empire. He wanted this village at all costs, because its soil is ferrous. Laussedat asserted that the village became a municipality in 1833, according to the Dictionary of municipalities in France, and was thus not assigned. As one can see, during the 1870s, commissioners could rely on obsolete maps from the beginning of the nineteenth century and on non-technical books. Without an agreement, the issue was postponed and handed over to the governments. In the end, diplomats decided that the French commissioner was right.

A municipality could be deemed to be either French or German depending on one's perspective. For example, Juvrecourt was located within the district of Château-Salins which was assigned to Germans. Yet, the village was located on the southern side of the mountains separating the Seille and Moncel rivers, which should have

¹¹Meurthe-et-Moselle local archives (Nancy) then ADMM, 4 M 175. Report from the general forest officer, 5 January 1874, Summary note of the boundary commission.

¹²AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 26 June 1871.

¹³This is confirmed by the massive emigration of Alsace-Lorraine inhabitants at the beginning of the 1870s.

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theoretically belonged to the French. 14 But according to the green line on the map, Juvrecourt should be annexed to the German Empire. Such contradictions were not unusual in treaties, and it was up to the joint boundary commission to find a solution. 15 General Doutrelaine felt that the map was "small-scaled (1:300,000), that the contours did not appear, that the green line was drawn roughly and that the delimitation of this map should not prevail over the one described in the treaty, when conflict arises". 16 There was no objection from the German commissioners, and so the village remained in France. This example speaks to the fact that there was room for manoeuvre, at the will of the commission, away from any government intervention.

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The archives reveal the local population's agency during the demarcation phase. For three weeks in June 1871, residents of Chavannes-surl'Étang hoped to remain French, relying on maps drawn for representatives throughout the ratification of the Treaty of Frankfurt. On these handdrawn maps, put together quite hastily to show the land loss for France, the village was not annexed to the German Empire, even though the treaty left no uncertainty on the issue. Inhabitants made claims relating to the village's geography, history and culture, arguing that their municipality was "primarily French in terms of language and way of life", that it was located "entirely in the Rhône basin" and that it had been "part of France for centuries". They mobilised ethno-linguistic, geographical and historical arguments to remain French at all costs. This mobilisation remained unsuccessful: an illconceived map gave inhabitants hope they could escape their fate, the joint boundary commission strictly applied the treaty and made them become German.

This example was not isolated: commissioners collected petitions, complaints and grievances. 18 Inhabitants also produced sketches of their own plots, which were hardly useable for the commissioners. 19 However, some people were more influential than others or at least spared no effort to influence the joint boundary commission. Large landowners are amongst those.²⁰ In Audun-le-Roman, Robert de Wendel, steward of Villerupt's forge and foreman of forges in Hayange, Moyeuvre-Grande and Stirling-Wendel payed a visit to the commissioners himself (Laussedat 1902, pp. 105–145). The wealthy industrialist family was worried that the new border could dismantle its empire. They submitted corrections for the boundary line: German commissioners were willing to consider them but demanded compensation, which was refused by the French commissioners. Local populations were convinced that the Wendel family aroused the cupidity of the Germans commissioners to move the line westward, rather than eastward.²¹

In late summer 1871, the picketing process was completed along the full-length of the border, but demarcation operations fell behind due to conflicts having emerged about the municipalities of Avricourt, Raon-lès-Leau and Raonsur-Plaine. By means of prefects, commissioners requested feedback and comments from all corporate bodies about their preliminary works, which would be examined in the autumn. Far from being forgotten, local actors were indeed essential for a clear demarcation of the border. Mayors, local leading figures, took integral part in the activities of the commission. Procurators, rectors and education officers, chief municipal officials, forest officers, presidents of chambers of commerce, bishops, etc. submitted various pieces of information in the best interest of their

¹⁴AD, 2Q0 203. Minister of the Interior to Minister of Foreign Affairs, 5 June 1871.

¹⁵The same contradiction appeared between the small-scale maps and the description of the boundary in the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo of 1848. See St John (2012). ¹⁶AD, 2QO 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 22 June 1871.

¹⁷AD, 2Q0 203. Minutes from the city council of Chavannes-sur-l'Étang, 7 June 1871.

¹⁸ADMM, 4 M 175. General Doutrelaine to Prefect of Meurthe-et-Moselle, 2 November 1871.

¹⁹For the maps produced by the residents reused by the cartographers, see Basset (1998) and Byrnes (2001).

²⁰AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1 July 1871.

²¹AD, 2Q0 203. Ministry of Foreign Affairs to General Doutrelaine, 2 October 1871.

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respective activities in order to establish a functioning border. Once the preliminary work had been carried out, the installation of the boundary marker was possible.

4.3 Of Border Stones and Maps

In winter 1871, field visits were suspended: as temperatures could be extremely low at this time of the year, particularly along the crest line of the Vosges Mountains.²² It was the time when commissioners gathered again in Metz in order to plan the final demarcation and to agree on the surveying and description of the new border. For each of the ten sections, a French-German team of two surveyors took over the process, following the work done the previous summer under the supervision of their respective commission-The preliminary works were verified according to maps and local residents. Following the laying of boundary markers, each surveyor drew out the delineation of the border and, using a 100-m strip on each side, logged it into a register and recorded it on two types of maps: 1:1250 scale detailed maps giving information on measurements, plots and the location of border stones; and 1:20,000 scale overview maps, made from the land register and enhanced using sketches completed on the ground, which contained the administrative boundaries, the location of official and natural landmarks (and sometimes even the boundaries of banality rights)²³.

Each map had to be certified by the surveyors and then validated by the joint boundary commission (García-Álvarez and Puente-Lozano 2017). Permissible differences could not exceed 1/1000th for the sides of the polygons and 1/500th for angles and apexes. The commissioners relied on measurement instruments invented or fine-tuned in the nineteenth century, such as the aneroid barometer to measure altitude or the theodolite to measure angles. They

succeeded in getting a sharper demarcation thanks to geodesy and photography. The making of these maps was then used to produce ones of smaller scales. German commissioners produced more maps than their French counterparts and favoured a larger scale, in order to become better acquainted with local realities which remained foreign to them: 727 sheets at a 1:1250 scale and 22 at a 1:20,000 scale for the Germans versus 101 and 15 for the French, which partly explains the delay with the delimitation. German commissioners were charged with surveying the territory and gathering a wide range of types of information about inhabitants, they took possession of the territory through its systematic cartography, behaviour particularly common in a colonial context (Lefebvre 2015).

The description of the border was achieved with the help of maps, but also recorded in tabular form based on the boundaries of plots on the cadastral maps.²⁴ Surveyors carefully recorded the position of each boundary marker in registers. The description was both geometrical (angles of the border-polygon, distance between each boundary marker, etc.) and topographical (boundaries of plots, middle point of the ditch, embarkments, etc.). A statement roughly describing the section precedes each register. These registers had to be certified, validated and in line with the maps.

Beyond the abstraction on paper, the border became a material reality, rooted in the land, which remained understudied nonetheless (Thevenon 2005). Since 1872, approximately 5500 boundary markers were placed between Luxembourg and Switzerland by ten brigades from the commission.²⁵ A total of 4056 major border stones indicating angles were accounted for and another 1500 secondary ones indicating

²²AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 26 June 1871.

²³ADMM, 1 F 121. Overall plan of the border 1871. ATB SM 98. Overall plan of the border 1871.

²⁴AD, 2Q0 203. Schedule for the delimitation, surveying and the description of the international French-German boundary, 29 January 1872; ADBR 1J. Notizen über die Thätigkeit der internationalen Grenz-Regulierungs-Commission und Verlauf der Grenz-Arbeiten, August 1872.

²⁵AD, 2Q0 203. Specifications for the supply and engraving of the border stones intended for the determination of the international French-German border; General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 15 April 1872.

intermediate points, which equals to an average of one every hundred metres, in such a way that one could spot the previous one when located at the foot on one of them. An angle indicating where the border lies was engraved on the top surface of each stone, and its number along with two letters on its visible surface: "F" for the French side, and "D" for the German side. In the course of its work, the joint boundary commission explicitly referred to measures taken by other commissions for other borders, which makes it possible to admit evidence of the circulation of geographical knowledge. For example, the border line was cleared of scrubs for one metre on each side, as the French-Italian joint boundary commission of 1860 had done. The border was thus perfectly visible on its delineation: no one could pretend to overlook it.

The delimitation represented a profitable market for local entrepreneurs, as the operation was estimated to cost 139,000 francs, evenly allocated between the two states.²⁶ Several entrepreneurs took part in the tender process introduced at the beginning of 1872. Wagner, a German architect recently settled in Metz, won the tender and committed to respect the specification: 26.50 francs per major boundary marker and 22 francs per secondary one. The selected type of stone had to be smooth, uniform, resistant to frost, could not crack nor be produced against the grain. The company worked under the surveyors' scrutiny and was to incur penalties in the event of any delay. Such difficulties did indeed occur in the Vosges region, due to the topography and cold weather; here the installation of boundary markers was only completed in the spring of 1873.

The issue of the maintenance and protection of the border stones rapidly emerged, which the joint boundary commission had not thought about. Some noticeable damages were noticed as early as 1872: the people responsible were almost exclusively residents from the newly annexed territories. Governments encouraged local authorities to "take the necessary measures

²⁶AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 7 March 1872.

in order to prevent any wilful or unintended damaging by the nearby populations". ²⁷ The first adopted measure was to make mayors responsible for the damages or destruction of boundary markers on the land of their municipality, in order to stop the "code of silence". A second measure aimed to have repairs or the replacement of border stones be processed by a French-German commission appointed directly by the governments. Each repair or replacement had to obtain the agreement of both parties; minutes had to be ratified by the governments who shared the cost equally. This procedure had to be repeated as many times as necessary and remained in practice until the start of the First World War.

A huge part of the demarcation work was accomplished at the beginning of the 1870s, with commissioners travelling along the border multiple times, picketing and delimiting. At the end of 1873, the border was materialised and tangible. Although most of the work was achieved without any great difficulty, some sections witnessed tensions because of disagreements about the delimitation, which significantly slowed down the work of the commission.

4.4 Two Demarcation Conflicts: The Two Raons and Avricourt

As discussed above, local populations organised themselves to look after their interests. It was not unusual to have multiple interpretations of the border delineation during the demarcation process because the negotiators unknown some realities on the ground (St John 2012). This is what happened in Raon-lès-Leau and Raon-sur-Plaine, where the emerging tensions deserve to be studied in detail. Their allegiance either to France or the German Empire was widely discussed by the commissioners, who also modified the border delineation near Avricourt, due to the location of a railway: indeed, it compromised the establishment of a working border for both the states and residents (Laussedat 1902, pp. 105–145).

²⁷ADMM, 4 M 1716. Minister of the Interior to Prefect of Meurthe-et-Moselle, 15 November 1872.

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According to the treaty of Francort, the delimitation line was indeed supposed to be modelled on the western district boundaries of Château-Salins, in the Meurthe department, and the Schirmeck canton, in the Vosges department, where Raon-lès-Leau and Raon-sur-Plaine were located. However, it was also expected that the border followed the ridge line of the mountain which did not follow the municipalities' boundaries exactly, which is why the delimitation line seemed to exclude the two municipalities from the annexation. Due to the contradiction between an administrative logic and a topographical one, the two villages could thus be considered either German or French.²⁸ Aware of this, inhabitants rallied local and national actors in order to avoid being annexed, even if it cost them dearly.

As the French government claimed to be willing to negotiate, German commissioners demanded the withdrawal of French civil servants from the two municipalities. De facto and de jure, the German Empire had sovereignty over Raon-lès-Leau and Raon-sur-Plaine (Laussedat 1902, pp. 105–145). Civil servants were chased out in July of 1871 and the German authorities pressured the municipal council to acknowledge German sovereignty. For example, the French postman collecting the mail was arrested for "theft from the German postal service". Inhabitants submitted a petition to the President, in which they revoked their elected officials considered as traitors. Then they wrote to their representatives in order to put pressure on the government for the villages to remain in France. The situation was so tense that the mayor of Raon-lès-Leau was thrown in jail by the German authorities. The joint boundary commission investigated, and Laussedat concluded that the mayor, "a simple man in both heart and spirit, but also stubborn and an ardent patriot, held out with more obstinacy rather than reason".29

The tenacity of the residents paid off as the German commissioners accepted to withdraw the two small villages at the end of 1871, although retaining the state forest and the landlocked properties.³⁰ Landowners complained, although they were happy not to become Germans. Raonlès-Leau lost 1100 hectares, which represented nine tenth of its surface area, and Raon-sur-Plaine lost close to 700 hectares, about two third of its surface area. The separated forest areas were added to the German municipality of Gandfontaine, which resulted in a very original demarcation: the new border delineation followed the edge of the forest domains for 18 km, which requires no less than 152 boundary markers. The mayor and priest of Raon-sur-Plaine described the joy of the residents for "being returned to the motherland" (Laussedat 1902, pp. 131–134). However, this joy was short lived, as the village's economy was tied to the forest; residents were dependent on the unrestricted collection of dead wood for cooking and heating, whilst municipalities relied on the forest for revenue.

The French commissioners argued for the government to buy back the forest areas, without success because "Germany considers the mountain and the col du Donon to be of the upmost strategic importance". 31 The retaining of the local woodlands allowed the German army to reinforce its strategic position at the mountain top which peaks at 1009 m. Ultimately, the issue was settled: since the "excessive sinuosity of the demarcation line" prevented the effective monitoring of the border by agents from both countries, the commissioners gave back to France in 1872 a forest house and two sawmills, in exchange for the cession of three plots practically hemmed in German territory. Forests were very often the object of conflict during the demarcation phase, due to their strategic importance for

²⁸The German commissioners support the connectedness theory (*major pars trahit ad se minorem*): the annexation of the district and the county affects all municipalities within, even the ones located on the western side of the mountain. Laussedat (1902).

²⁹AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 30 August 1871.

³⁰AD, Additional convention to the 12 October 1871 peace treaty, article 10; ADBR 87 AL 581. Die Landesgrenze zwischen Deutschland und Frankreich 1873–1918.
³¹AD, 2Q0 203. General Doutrelaine to Prefect of Meurthe-et-Moselle, 5 September 1872; Moselle local archives (Metz) then ADM 2 AL 3. Abtretung der Gemeinde Raon-les-Leaux.

states and their economic importance for the inhabitants. The French-Spanish boundary commission had also faced this problem in 1847 with the Iraty forest (Puyo 2002). The flexibility of the German commissioners here can easily be explained, they kept everything that had an economic and strategic interest, whilst getting rid of extremely hostile and French-speaking populations.

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An issue of a different type arose in Avricourt; however, this time the joint boundary commission immediately reached an agreement regarding the necessary changes. The train station of the village, which was due to become German, was located simultaneously on the Paris-Strasbourg international line and at the junction leading to the small stations of Dieuze in Germany and Cirey in France (Laussedat 1902, pp. 131–134). The commissioners realised that a faithful fulfilment of the border delineation would complicate border controls, railway traffic and the everyday life of the residents all at once. Indeed, the entire municipality of Igney and part of Avricourt would end up hemmed in French territory by the railway line, disconnected from the rest of the annexed territories. It would make it impossible for residents to get to German territory directly without passing through France, unless they cross a level crossing. Another issue was the fact that French trains would have to transit into German territory for a few hundred metres.

French commissioners thus proposed to move the border by 6 kms at the railway line, which resulted in all railway infrastructure remaining in France. This solution solved the problems identified by both parties, but had the disadvantage of divesting the German Empire from having a strategic railway junction and a station located on the international line connecting Paris to Strasbourg, and thus to Berlin. The French proposition was however accepted, on the condition that a new railway station be built on the German side, paid for by the French government.³² In October 1871, the commissioners sealed the

agreement: Igney and the portion of Avricourt located south of the railway line were returned to France. This small plot of land was thus under German sovereignty until 1 January 1872. The portion which remained German, north of the line, took the name of Deutsch-Avricourt.

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Whilst awaiting for the Deutsch-Avricourt station to be built, the existing station and the railway infrastructure were returned to France, but the German government enjoyed its use without restriction and governed it in terms of policing, justice and customs. The splitting up of Avricourt had thus resulted in two mirrormunicipalities, each being the border stop of their respective state for roads and trains until 1914—a border crossing unintended by the treaty so to speak. In the two Raons, as well as in Avricourt, the integrity of the municipality was not respected in the name of pragmatism and realities on the ground. The settlement of these two demarcation conflicts led to changes in the delimitation line decided by the Treaty of Frankfurt, that is why each one of these joint boundary commission agreements led to the signing of a delimitation agreement by the French and German governments.³³ The demarcation work involved inhabitants mobilisation and resulted in a change in the delimitation of the boundary, reversing the simple centre versus periphery dynamics imposition and contestation.

4.5 Make Sovereignty Possible

If the demarcation of the border could upset inhabitants, the joint boundary commission could also retain pre-existing relations, or better, make use of their assistance, if this facilitated the exercise of sovereignty, and the work of the customs administrations in particular. The commissioners indeed considered local realities in the minutes of the demarcation in 1877,

³²ADBR, 1 AL 58. Settlement of the financial dispute between the two municipalities split by the border and the ones restored to France.

³³Additional Conventions of 12 October and 11 December 1871 to the Peace Treaty.

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documentation which marked the end of their activities. ³⁴ This is again quite common to many borders (García-Álvarez and Puente-Lozano 2017), although here they have been reduced to the bare minimum.

The relationship between communities and/or private individuals was affected by the new border. This resulted in multiple transnational landowners with assets scattered in two countries with different legislations and regulations. A harvest coming from a neighbouring field one day was now an imported asset subject to entrance and exit fees. This is why, in order to facilitate "the exploitation of property and forests near the borders", a variety of goods produced within a 10 kms radius on either side of the border became free of customs duties.³⁵ The cross-border old roads could be used by their owners under the same conditions as if they were entirely located on the same state's territory. These provisions were not unheard of: one finds them in all demarcation operations taking place in Europe at the time (Bouisset 2002). Their concrete application allowed municipalities such as Raon-lès-Leau (see above) to supply sawmills with wood coming from neighbouring German territories.

Commissioners strived to adapt sovereignty in territorial and exclusive terms to all social and cultural realities they encountered. All jurisdictional and ambiguous spaces had to be divided between states so that they became integrated clearly into one or the other (Di Fiore 2017). Article six of the Treaty of Frankfurt had explicitly provided that the diocesan and parish boundaries coincide with the new border. Also, Protestant and Jewish communities that became German were split up from the French consistories. Thus, the demarcation process involved an unexpected actor: the Holy See. 36 A French-German diocesan delimitation commission was

The demarcation of a border can also be an opportunity to reaffirm existing rights, even ancient ones, between communities. The most well-known historical case is the *lies et passeries* agreement between mountain communities in the Pyrenees concerning forestry and grazing laws on both sides of the French-Spanish border, which for some dates back as far as the twelfth century.³⁸ The German municipalities of Pettoncourt, Moncourt and Deutsch-Avricourt, for example, demanded and received the right to graze on land located in French border towns.³⁹ The municipal council of Pettoncourt even unearthed a royal ordinance dated 22 May 1786, logged at the parliament of Metz, to defend this aboriginal right.

When the border cut off a road perpendicularly, the state exerted its sovereignty up to the point where the delineation ran and deployed customs officers with ease. But when the border cut off a road in its length, the collection of customs fees became an issue, as well as the maintenance of the pavement. Indeed, in this case, the exercise of sovereignty was made difficult since residents and customs officers could switch sovereignty as they pleased, by choosing which side of the road to walk on; the maintenance of half of the pavement by each of the states did not make the necessary repairs an easy

formed and implemented the pontifical decrees pursuant to the Treaty of Frankfurt: all the parishes grouping several municipalities crossed by the border were split up.³⁷ The inhabitants of Ajoncourt and Arraye-et-Han, for example, who were baptised in the same church and who were buried in the same cemetery, were brutally separated by this process. The diocesan delimitation commission followed the demarcation realised by the joint boundary commission.

³⁴ADBR, 87 AL 581. Minutes of the delimitation between France and the German Empire, 26 April 1877.

³⁵Additional convention to the 10 May 1871 peace treaty between France and Germany, 11 December 1871, article 12.

³⁶Rem in ecclesiastica, pontifical decree of 14 June 1874.

³⁷3 ADP 21. Travaux de la commission mixte pour la délimitation des nouvelles circonscriptions diocésaines 1873–1874.

³⁸The *lies et passeries* in the Pyrenees were renewed by French-Spanish treaties in the nineteenth century, during the demarcation of the border. See Roige et al. (2002).

³⁹AD, 2Q0 204. Minister of the Interior to Minister of Foreign Affairs, 11 May 1875, Minister of Finance to Minister of Foreign Affairs, 5 June 1875.

task. Such a situation, which makes everyday life complicated, pushed the mayors of Moncourt and Coincourt to demand, and later obtain, neutrality for common border roads in terms of customs. The joint boundary commission established a list of 43 roads and common pathways, totaling 43 kms of delineation, split in length for their maintenance and "made neutral in terms of customs." This meant that residents carrying goods could use the roads without having to pay customs fees, and police officers could travel along these roads uniformed and armed. Each state maintained the stretch of road belonging to the other state, and maintenance costs were equally split.

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On multiple sections, the border followed a river bed and thus crossed over bridges, some of which had been destroyed or damaged. 42 Because it was impossible to maintain or rebuild a bridge from one side only, the boundary commission divided the task, with eight bridges for France and nine for the German Empire. Maintenance costs were also split equally, so that none of the states waived their sovereignty over their half of a bridge. 43 Thus, the bridge linking Réchésy to Seppois-le-Bas was entirely maintained by the German administration, but France paid for half of the costs. Furthermore, the commissioners forbid the costs to be paid by a newly introduced toll: residents were thus assured to never have to pay to cross the border via the bridge.

Such adjustments made the life of inhabitants and customs officers easier. The two French municipalities of Vaucourt and Xures, linked by a pathway which went through the German municipality of Lagarde, secured their neutrality, having

requested it. 44 For the sake of reciprocity, the same decision was taken for the pathway linking Aboncourt to Bioncourt via the French municipality of Bey. The maintenance of the few metres on foreign soil had to be carried out by the state who made use of it, and maintenance costs were equally split. It was further assumed that local coalitions, led by mayors and councils, aimed to preserve the types of trade and sociability which the border disrupted. For instance, in November 1871 the municipalities of Coincourt, Lagarde, Parray, Vaucourt and Xures expressed their wish to receive similar agreements from the commission, and proposed adjustments to the delineation in order for customs duties to be waived.

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The commissioners were particularly focused on forests near the border, due to their economic and strategic importance as illustrated above.⁴⁵ Public and private forestry officers received the responsibility of policing the border. Private landowners carried on compensating their own guards, but they had to be nationals and state certified. In France as in Germany, an extraordinary provision with regards to common law enabled the exercising of sovereignty. Local authorities with remaining woodlands on the other side of the border, such as Sancy in the Lommerange area, could request for the neighbouring state to have an officer from the forestry administration police the wooded areas. Public landowners had the privilege to further manage their forest properties according to the rules of the dependent country and to let their employees move freely on both sides of the border.

With the clear distinction between maintenance costs of roads, bridges, etc., the limits of state sovereignty differed from its *exercise*, and that this is a necessary condition for the functioning of a border: the joint boundary commission developed a specific sovereignty regime (Agnew 2005). If the *sovereignty* and its *exercise* would be applied for the exact same territory,

⁴⁰AD, 2Q0 204. Minister of the Interior to Minister of Foreign Affairs, 11 May 1875.

⁴¹ADBR, 87 AL 581. Minutes of the delimitation between France and the German Empire, 26 April 1877, article 3. ⁴²ADM, 15 AL 165. Negotiations with France on the topic of border bridges (1874–1914).

⁴³ADBR, 87 AL 581. Minutes of the delimitation between France and the German Empire, 26 April 1877, article 7.

⁴⁴AD, 2Q0 204. Minister of the Interior to Minister of Foreign Affairs, 11 May 1875.

⁴⁵ADBR, 87 AL 581. Minutes of the delimitation between France and the German Empire, 26 April 1877, articles 12 and 13.

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with no possible adjustment, residents of Foussemagne would have had to pay customs duties six times when using the road to Chavannes-sur-l'Étang; the French and German states would have had to each build three customs offices, one hundred metres apart, at each point where the road crosses over the border delineation. In order to make the border operational, the customs boundary between the two states was moved to a middle point on the crossborder road: one of the few pragmatic adjustments, aiming to facilitate the daily life of the populations and state action, but which did not change the border demarcation.

4.6 Conclusion

Between 1871 and 1877, the French-German joint boundary commission demarcated the border delimited by the Treaty of Frankfurt. Faced with diplomats' unfamiliar realities, the commissioners roamed the new border laying the border stones, which turned an abstraction on paper into a concrete material border. They even were at the origin of delimitation modifications. Beyond the laying of boundary markers, they also sought to enable state sovereignty by making the border efficient, in order to turn it into a long-term and usable boundary, sparing populations the impracticality of repeated border crossings. The location and reading of original sources allow us to restore inhabitants' agency by looking at documents in which they shared their thoughts with the aim to shed light on how much of a disruption the new border was for them. For this reason, the inhabitants of Raon-lès-Leau were remarkable: they fought at all costs to remain French. This case might seem anecdotal, but the amount of petitions, complaints and grievances in the archives is significant. Besides, these documents were considered, assessed and discussed within the demarcation process of the border. Not only did demarcation agents take part in its delineation and operability, but local populations also played an active role. The decisions and actions of the French-German joint boundary commission challenged the argument that commissioners strictly followed state orders; as García-Álvarez and Puente-Lozano demonstrated for the Iberian peninsula borders, instead these decisions created an institutional space for the circulation of different territorial visions of the border, connecting different actors and scales implied in the demarcation process (García-Álvarez and Puente-Lozano 2017).

At the end of the 1870s, the green line on a map had become a reality. The border was clearly materialised so that no one in France or in Germany could contest it or pretend ignorance of its location. All had been planned, from the maintenance of the boundary markers to the practical exercise of sovereignty. The joint boundary commission operations show us that the production of a border is a long-term, multiscale, political and social process involving multiple actors, and cannot be understood as the drawing of a line on a map. The time elapsed between delimitation and demarcation (six years) was extremely fast in comparison with other European borders. Up until the eve of the First World War, this border was challenged by inhabitants and numerous destructions boundary markers were recorded. This is why, Aimé Laussedat, wrote at the turn of the century: "this border, well or badly drawn, cannot last" (Laussedat 1902, p. 215). As we know the future proved him right.

Archival Sources

AD	French	diplomatic	archiv	res (La
	Courneu	ve).		
ADBR	Bas-Rhir	local archiv	es (Stra	isbourg).
ADMM	Meurthe-	et-Moselle	local	archives
	(Nancy).			
ATB	Territoire	e de Belfort	local	archives
	(Belfort)			
BA	German federal archives (Berlin).			

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