

# (Dis)entangling the local, the national, and the international: civilian internment in Germany and in German-occupied France and Belgium in global context

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#### CHAPTER 1

# (Dis)entangling the Local, the National, and the International

Civilian Internment in Germany and in German-Occupied France and Belgium in Global Context

Matthew Stibbe

Since the 1990s, an increasing body of scholarly work has addressed the complex issue of civilian internment during World War I in different local, national, regional, and imperial settings. Scholars are also beginning to explore the interconnected and global nature of this phenomenon and its links to a broader "dynamic of destruction" incorporating economic blockades, forced migration, violence against enemy soldiers and prisoners of war, the use of gas, air, and submarine attacks, the deliberate targeting of cultural treasures by invading armies, and the 1915 Turkish genocide against the Ottoman Armenians. Yet there are still some important gaps in our understanding of particular camp systems, including, as Uta Hinz noted in 2003, in the case of imperial Germany, where the exact motives for the internment of more than 100,000 enemy civilians over the course of the war, most of them French and Belgian nationals, remain obscure and unexplained. This is even more surprising given the prominent place of internment in the propaganda war between Germany and its enemies during the years 1914 to 1918.

Previous literature has dwelt on three aspects of the internment question. First it has been interpreted as a means by which nation-states sought to monitor and persecute alien minorities in wartime. The lead here was taken by France and Britain, which were the first states in 1914 to implement measures against enemy citizens living in their midst, including expropriations,

expulsions, and incarceration. Similar ordinances were also introduced in their respective colonies and dominions, as well as in German overseas territories in Africa and the Pacific overrun by Allied troops in the opening months of the conflict.6 Second, the development of internment into a worldwide phenomenon during the war has been attributed to two main factors, retaliatory measures introduced by Germany and Austria-Hungary in autumn 1914 affecting British and French nationals living there, and the decision made by countries that subsequently joined the Allied campincluding Italy in 1915, Portugal and its Atlantic and African possessions in 1916, the United States, Panama, and Brazil in 1917, and Siam and Haiti in 1918—to follow the Anglo-French example when it came to the treatment of enemy aliens, albeit with certain local variations.7 Finally, things came full circle when France and Britain took the lead again in permanently expelling former German and Habsburg internees in 1919-20, including from their overseas colonies and dominions, a process that went hand in hand with French epuration (purification) measures in the "regained" border provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.8

This metaview of civilian captivity in World War I is not necessarily unique. In fact, it is very close to the narrative put forward by the German Reichstag's Committee of Investigation into the causes and consequences of the war in its final report, published in 1927, which held Britain and France responsible for instigating mass internment in 1914 and portrayed German measures as purely reactive. It also explains the focus on Ruhleben, the camp near Berlin used by the German authorities to house British civilian internees during the war, in subsequent historiography. Over and over again, the German Foreign Office made clear that the Reich was holding these prisoners in retaliation for the alleged mistreatment of German nationals in Britain and the British empire, and that they were in effect bargaining counters. In November 1916 Johannes Kriege (1859–1937), the head of the Foreign Office's legal department, even offered an "all for all" exchange of civilian prisoners between Germany and Britain in a speech in the Reichstag, a proposal that was subsequently rejected by the Imperial War Cabinet in London. 11

However, while Ruhleben makes a very good case study for understanding the experience of World War I captivity, not least as its inmates left behind so many written sources, it was not at all typical of internment camps in Germany. Its proximity to the German capital, the comparatively low turnover of prisoners, and the protection from abuse offered by the fact that Britain and its overseas colonies and dominions held up to ten times as many Germans, meant that this camp developed a remarkably rich cultural life, with sports, theater, educational courses, and a range of other "national"

pursuits marking it out as the site of a particularly vibrant "community at war." Above all, though, Ruhleben stood out because its inmates were relatively well fed, even in 1917–18, and were not required, at any stage in the war, to perform forced labor. This placed it at the positive end of a long continuum of different types of camp and camp experience.

More to the point, the four to five thousand British internees held here represented only a tiny fraction of the total number of civilian prisoners in Germany and German-occupied parts of Europe during the war. According to John Horne and Alan Kramer, for instance, at least ten thousand French civilians and thirteen thousand Belgians had already been deported from occupied regions to camps in Germany by the end of 1914.14 The numbers increased significantly in 1915 and continued to rise thereafter, not least as enemy civilians were now also being deported from conquered territories in the east-from the Government-General in Warsaw and the area known as Ober Ost. 15 France and Belgium nonetheless remained the principal source of internees. In most cases deportation orders appear to have come from military commanders on the ground, with little coordination between the districts assigned to particular armies in the areas behind the front line. The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), in a report published in October 1918, painted a picture of mounting chaos, with no central authority in charge of German internment policy, no evidence of rational planning, little concern to ensure compliance with international conventions or preexisting customs of war, and a complete breakdown in accurate record keeping:

Some civilian detainees in Germany appear to have been transferred to prisons in Belgium and occupied France, where they can neither communicate with their families in unoccupied France, nor receive aid parcels, nor have visits from representatives of the neutral powers charged with their protection. We regret that up till now it has proved impossible to obtain any kind of information on the conditions those prisoners are being held in.<sup>16</sup>

Using a variety of sources, including the files of the legal department of the German Foreign Office in Berlin, Red Cross publications, and military records held in the Bavarian War Archive in Munich, this chapter will look at the motivations for internment and deportation of civilians from German-occupied northern France and Belgium as a specific case study. A central argument will be that if we want to understand German internment practices, and why they differed in particular contexts, we have to look beyond internment itself as simply being shaped by the requirements of "grand"

strategy" (Ger. große Politik), state-directed labor, and migratory policies or the subjective need to respond in kind to the worldwide internment of German civilians by Allied countries. Rather, the views of military commanders operating in the occupied rear areas, and their assessment of the changing material, psychological, and security interests of their troops, were also significant determinants. The concluding section will address some of the conceptual implications of these findings for writing the history of World War I captivity specifically as global history. First, though, it will be necessary to offer a general overview of German attitudes towards French civilians in the invaded territories.

# German Internment Policies in Occupied France and Belgium

German internment and deportation policies in occupied northern France and that part of Belgium subject to direct military rule were determined to some extent by the administrative structures set up by the German army in the field. Once the initial fighting had ended, a distinction was made between the immediate front-line area (Ger. Operationsgebiet), from which almost all French and Belgian civilians were compulsorily evacuated, and the rear area (Ger. Etappengebiet, Fr. étape), which was divided into six separate districts (Etappen) of different size and population density, corresponding to the six German armies operating on the Western Front. Each district was ruled by a rear-area inspectorate (Etappeninspektion) and a series of rear-area commanders (Etappenkommandanten), who were responsible for labor procurement, policing local communities, and ensuring the security of the occupation troops. The Etappeninspektionen in turn were answerable to the army supreme command, the Oberste Heeresleitung (OHL).<sup>17</sup>

The initial wave of deportations, from September to December 1914, was, as Horne and Kramer rightly note, carried out as a "localized response" to a variety of imagined threats, including fear of spies and irregular fighters (Ger. Franktireurs; Fr. franc-tireurs) and a perceived need to deter or punish would-be resistance by taking hostages. Since women, children, and men above military age were included among the ten thousand French civilians and the thirteen thousand Belgians sent to camps in Germany at this time, the rounding-up of men capable of bearing arms cannot be regarded as the only motive, although it certainly played a part. <sup>18</sup> Meanwhile, a similarly confused mixture of concerns was behind the parallel deportation of domestic political suspects from Alsace and Lorraine by the harsh new military regime imposed on these border provinces from the beginning of the war. As many as four hundred German nationals—mostly political leaders, lawyers, and

journalists suspected of pro-French sentiments—were expelled from Lorraine alone, with some held in internment camps and others subjected to forced residency (Ger. Zwangsaufenthalt) in the German interior. Members of the Roma and Sinti communities were likewise forcibly removed, first from the fortress area around Strasbourg and then from the whole of Alsace-Lorraine; some of them subsequently ended up in Baden, Bavaria, and other parts of western and southern Germany, where they soon became a target for local prejudice and persecution. <sup>20</sup>

In the meantime, as far as these initial deportations are concerned, there is little evidence of a coordinated policy directed from the top. The German Foreign Office intervened only when it discovered that Swiss nationals were also being expelled from Upper Alsace, fearing that this could harm relations with an important neutral state.21 Otherwise, it preferred not to know about the actions of German military commanders in occupied France and the Belgian étape, particularly as the Reich authorities at this point were attempting to draw international attention to atrocities committed by Russian troops in East Prussia in 1914-15, when some thirteen thousand German civilians, including women and children, were rounded up and expelled into the interior of the tsarist empire.<sup>22</sup> Similarly, the decision to intern all British males of military age resident in Germany and German-occupied territory on November 6, 1914, was officially presented in the German press as a legitimate act of retaliation for the internment or mistreatment of Germans living in Britain and its colonies.<sup>23</sup> The German Foreign Office, then, had good reason not to involve itself directly in these early deportations of hostages and "suspect" civilians from France, Alsace-Lorraine, and Belgium, even if it knew something about them from Swiss and other sources.24

The Prussian War Ministry in Berlin, and its Bavarian counterpart in Munich, were even less inclined to reveal details about civilian deportees being held in camps on the German home front. As early as December 1914, the chairman of the Central Committee of German Red Cross Associations, which in October 1914 had been designated as the central inquiry office (Zentral-Nachweise-Bureau) for POWs in Germany, wrote to the Prussian War Ministry to protest about the "inadequate" nature of its lists of civilian prisoners, noting that it had received complaints from the ICRC on this score. Even when the lists began to improve after March 1915, the age, gender, and nationality of the internees were still (deliberately?) omitted, although nationality (as well as rank and number) were included for military prisoners. Drawing attention to the fact that the German field armies in France and Belgium were deporting women, children, and elderly men, as well as civilian males of draft age, to camps in the interior, was something that the German

military authorities wished to avoid. In line with this, the *Unterkunftsdepartement*, the section of the War Ministry that was responsible for compiling the lists, did not even seek to define the term "civilian prisoner" until April 1916. According to a circular issued by Colonel (later General) Emil Friedrich, the head of the *Unterkunftsdepartement*, to senior military commanders, the war ministries of Bavaria, Saxony, and Württemberg, and the heads of various branches of the civilian government, "Zivilgefangene" were "enemy civilians... who were not serving in a hostile army when the war broke out and have not enlisted since, but who have nonetheless been placed in a German prisoner-of-war camp—regardless of whether they are still of arms-bearing age and whether they have been found to be permanently unfit for active service or not." Even then, he was at pains to stress that this definition was provisional and not a "definitive answer to what is essentially a question of international law."<sup>26</sup>

In fact, rather than the War Ministry, it was the rear-area commanders in northern France and Belgium who first cultivated a more sophisticated knowledge of the legal aspects of civilian internment and deportation. Imperial Germany's military leaders, both before and after 1914, were strong advocates of a concept of wartime occupation, partly enshrined in the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907, that made civilian resistance illegal and put the onus on local inhabitants to buckle down and accept the authority of the hostile army.<sup>27</sup> In 1914-15 this assumption was made easier by the American decision to feed the population of occupied Belgium and France in a scheme organized by the businessman and future US president Herbert Hoover. As far as the German military were concerned, this meant that there could be no legitimate reasons for hunger protests. 28 Occupied civilians accused of harming the German army's combat readiness, spying, hiding weapons, inciting public disorder, stealing from military stores, or assisting Allied soldiers on the run could be tried and sentenced to death or long periods in prison by special military courts, as were indeed hundreds of French and Belgian men and women. Otherwise, in meeting its legal obligation to "ensure, as far as possible, public order and safety," Germany military rule would respect the "laws in force in the country" prior to the occupation, as stipulated under article 43 of the 1907 Hague Convention on the Laws and Customs of War on Land (Haager Landkriegsordnung, HLKO).29

Very quickly, though, a new problem arose. Under article 52 of the HLKO, occupied populations could be required to contribute to the day-to-day functioning of municipalities, for instance through the maintenance of roads, buildings, and public utilities, provided that they were not forced to take part in "military operations against their own country" and were

paid at customary local rates.<sup>30</sup> But what happened if they refused? Could this be punished as an (unlawful) form of resistance? As time went on, the rear-area commanders and field police were faced with more and more cases of "work refusal" (Ger. Arbeitsverweigerung), and they looked for guidance from the rear-area inspectorates on how to react.<sup>31</sup> For the latter, as Philippe Nivet puts it, "the security of the occupation troops and respect for order" were a "constant concern."<sup>32</sup> Recognition of patriotism as a legitimate motive for "work refusal" was off the cards, because it did not fit with the German military's cultural conception of how occupied civilians should behave. Yet ignoring the problem was also not an option, given the increasing labor shortages in the occupied zones, and the supposed damage done to the morale of the occupation troops themselves, and even ordinary Germans on the home front, when faced with "recalcitrant" and "work-shy" French and Belgian civilians.<sup>33</sup>

Instead, three different solutions presented themselves. First, some of those who had been deported to Germany in the early phase of the war might be brought back to occupied France or the field army zones of Belgium, on the understanding that they would work, and that refusal to work might result in their being deported (and thus separated from their families) again. In this way persons who were increasingly described in radicalized language as "useless eaters" (Ger. unnütze Esser)—as they had to be fed in camps in Germany, and yet did not contribute to the domestic war economymight be made to earn their own keep.34 In the district administered by the Sixth Army, individual rear-area commanders were given responsibility from December 1915 for making requests for specific individuals to be returned. The ability to bear arms was not considered a barrier to release, but those originally deported because they were suspected of spying or because they had "made a social nuisance of themselves" (Ger. sich lästig gemacht haben), for instance through petty criminality, drunkenness, or unregulated prostitution, were to remain in captivity.35

How many were discharged from camps in Germany is difficult to determine, given the loss of the relevant Prussian military records during Allied bombing raids on Potsdam in early 1945, but individual case files in the Bavarian War Archive certainly indicate that a considerable number were returned. Later in the war those released and sent home might be required to sign work contracts with the German army. The commander of the third Bavarian army corps (attached to the Sixth Army) even had an answer to those Frenchmen who refused to sign such contracts out of fear that they might be labeled as "traitors" to France and called to account after the war. According to a suggestion he circulated to other corps commanders, they

might be issued with a written affidavit testifying that "the work was performed against their wishes on the orders of the occupation authorities."<sup>37</sup> On the other hand, as the commander of the second Bavarian army corps also made clear in March 1917, "those unfit for work can only be permitted to return to the occupied zone in exceptional circumstances."<sup>38</sup>

A second solution to the problem of labor shortages and Arbeitsverweigerung in the Etappengebieten of occupied France and Belgium was the use of direct force. As Annette Becker has shown, this happened for the first time on a grand scale at Easter 1916, when roughly twenty thousand women and teenage girls from the French industrial towns of Lille, Roubaix, and Tourcoing, many of middle-class background, were rounded up on the orders of the Sixth Army's rear inspectorate and transported to rural areas, where they were put to temporary work on agricultural projects. These deportations were accompanied by compulsory gynecological examinations in an attempt to undermine the victims' class and gender identities (by treating them like prostitutes and dehumanized "objects" available to be used at any time for military ends).<sup>39</sup>

Worse was to follow in October 1916, when, coinciding with the appointment of Paul von Hindenburg and Erich Ludendorff to the third OHL, a series of forced labor battalions (*Zivil-Arbeiter-Bataillone* or ZABs), twenty-five in total by spring 1918, each composed of four companies of five hundred workers, were set up in occupied France and in the Belgian étape. The targets this time were unemployed but able-bodied men of various nationalities, who were moved around in gangs to work on infrastructure, agricultural, or forestry projects and were sometimes deployed directly behind the front lines, within the range of Allied gunfire. The men were paid, but unlike "free" laborers, they were forced to wear special colored brassards, were not permitted leave to visit their families other than in "exceptional" circumstances, and were under armed guard twenty-four hours a day.

Third, from 1917 enemy civilians held in internment camps in Germany might be directly transferred to the ZABs operating with the field armies in northern France and Belgium, either immediately upon their release or after they refused to sign work contracts following their return home. Now the impetus came from the OHL itself, which took over and centralized what had previously been a more localized effort and in so doing also adopted and rendered acceptable a radicalized language when talking about civilian prisoners. On February 24, 1917, for instance, the Prussian War Ministry in Berlin received a telegram from the Quartermaster General, Ludendorff, which read:

In order to relieve prison camps on the home front of the burden of useless eaters and to provide a new source of labor for the armies [in

the field] we propose to return all French and Belgian civilian prisoners who were deported from the occupied areas to the same, so long as they are physically fit and are not currently employed in Germany. [The purpose is] to exhort them to work [sie zur Arbeit anzuhalten]. We request that all acting corps commanders be instructed to deliver prompt information on the number of civilian prisoners being held in their districts who would fall into the category of suitable returnees.<sup>42</sup>

Again, because of the loss of the relevant Prussian military records, it is impossible to say how many persons were affected, but in the Bavarian War Archive there is evidence of forced return being imposed on a number of male French civilian prisoners.<sup>43</sup> The ICRC and the Spanish embassy in Berlin, which was charged with protecting French and Belgian interests in Germany for the duration of the war, also regularly complained that they could do nothing to help civilian prisoners who had been transferred back to occupied France or the Belgian étape. The German authorities would only grant them permission to inspect camps on the home front and neither the Prussian or Bavarian War Ministries, nor individual camp directors, had the authority to compel the field armies to account for the welfare and whereabouts of (former) civilian prisoners in their districts. A Spanish embassy official, for instance, informed an ICRC delegation to Berlin in spring 1917 that French and Belgian internees who had been returned to occupied territories administered by the field armies were not able to correspond with their families and that their names did not appear on recent lists of prisoners handed on via the German Red Cross. He also alleged that some of them had been forced, contrary to international law, to take part, alongside Russian POWs, in demolition work on the Somme sector of the Western Front in association with the German army's strategic withdrawal to the heavily fortified Hindenburg line.44 This is but one reason for being skeptical about what it actually meant when civilian deportees from occupied territories were discharged from internment camps in Germany. In other contexts, too, as we shall see in more detail below, "release" could simply mean being transferred from one form of war captivity to another.

#### Internment on the German Home Front

How many French civilians were deported to Germany during the period from 1914 to 1918? As the Prussian ministry of war's final figure of 111,879 enemy civilians interned on the home front by October 1918 was a cumulative total only and was not broken down according to nationality or release date, it is impossible to say how many of these officially acknowledged internees

were French or Belgian (as opposed to nationals of other enemy countries). The ICRC, which remained distrustful of German record keeping, believed that by 1916 the German army was in effect operating a revolving-door policy when it came to civilian prisoners from France and Belgium. Fresh deportations were thus matched by releases of detainees already in Germany, some of whom were sent back to the occupied territories as an additional labor resource, some of whom "voluntarily" signed contracts with German employers on the home front and were therefore recategorized by the Prussian War Ministry as "former civilian prisoners" (see below), and some of whom were allowed to travel to nonoccupied France via Switzerland under exchange agreements reached with the French government. According to the ICRC's final estimates, at least 100,000 French and Belgian civilians were deported to Germany during the war, 96,337 of whom had already entered the home-front camp system before the end of 1917. This represented an average of 350–400 new civilian prisoners each week. 46

As in 1914, so again after 1915, the German motives for using deportation as a weapon of war were mixed. At times, considerations of *große Politik* played a role, especially when it came to ordering targeted reprisals against occupied French and Belgian civilians in response to the Allies' global war against German imperial holdings and property interests overseas. In 1915 all German civilians and soldiers held in West Africa following the joint Anglo-French occupation of German colonies there in 1914 were deported en masse to camps in French North Africa (in defiance of the German demand that they be released from captivity altogether or sent on to mainland France). They were joined in North Africa by tens of thousands of German combatants captured in Europe. Germany's ability to retaliate in kind was severely limited, not least as the only prisoners it held outside Europe were a few hundred British and Belgian nationals arrested in 1914–15 in German East Africa. Even the latter had to be abandoned to advancing Anglo-Belgian forces in early 1916.<sup>47</sup>

Targeted reprisals in Europe promised more immediate results. Thus, in April 1916 a series of temporary deportation measures were successfully initiated that forced the French authorities to agree to transfer Germans held in Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia to camps in metropolitan France (where, as was loudly proclaimed in the German press, they would no longer be guarded by nonwhite African troops). Altogether 250 French civilians, as well as 30,000 military POWs, were sent to work in the marshes in German-occupied Latvia and were only brought back to Germany once France had agreed to German demands. Similar forms of reprisal were also instigated in November 1916 against a select group of French notables; in June 1917

against 200 Belgian civilians; and in January 1918 against 1,000 French civilians, 600 of them men and 400 of them women, all in connection with the alleged abuse of German civilians in colonial contexts or the ongoing refusal to release German nationals deported by the French army from the small part of Alsace it had managed to occupy in August 1914.<sup>49</sup>

Meanwhile, hostage taking at the local level also continued to play a role in deportations, reflecting the priority that the German army gave to ensuring the security of its own troops in the occupied zones by seizing notables (men and women) as a guarantee for the good behavior of particular towns and villages. 50 Nonetheless, by the second half of 1916 at the latest, the competing needs of different sections of the German war economy for labor, the growing success of the Allied naval blockade, and a desire to overcome the negative effects of "work refusal" at home and in occupied territories, had come to take priority over other factors. This was seen, most notoriously, in the case of the sixty thousand unemployed Belgian workers forcibly sent from the civilian-administered parts of occupied Belgium (i.e., the area beyond the étape) to Germany between October 1916 and March 1917. The policy ran against the wishes of the German governor-general in Brussels, General Moritz von Bissing, but it had the approval of the OHL and several leading German industrialists, including Carl Duisberg, Alfred Hugenberg, Walther Rathenau, and Hugo Stinnes.51

The aim was to persuade the deportees to sign "voluntary" work contracts, thus transforming them into "free" workers. However, in the end only 13,376 of them complied, and the rest—more than three-quarters of the total—were eventually returned to Belgium following protests from German Reichstag deputies and neutral states, including the Vatican, Spain, and the United States. In fact, as far as enforced foreign labor was concerned, the German domestic economy benefited much more from the 500,000–600,000 Russian-Polish seasonal workers who were trapped in the country when the war broke out and were refused permission to return home, or who were "voluntarily" recruited for labor in Germany from German-occupied Russian Poland after 1915; and from the roughly 2.5 million military POWs of all nationalities who were held in camps on the home front and were required to work, unless they were invalids or officers. A

How did French and Belgian deportees experience their internment in Germany? While figures from the Prussian ministry of war suggest that by October 1918 as many as eighty camps on the German home front held some civilian prisoners (alongside military POWs), only a handful held more than five hundred civilians: Frankfurt-an-der-Oder (634); Havelberg (1,820); Holzminden (4,240); Limburg-an-der-Lahn (1,174); Rastatt (1,223); Ruhleben

(2,318); Senne (2,462); and Traunstein (623).<sup>55</sup> Apart from Ruhleben, which was for British nationals only, it is likely that French and Belgian civilians together made up the largest group in most of these camps. Certainly this was the case with Holzminden, in the duchy of Brunswick (today in Lower Saxony), which according to figures from May 1916, included 2,535 French men, ninety-six French women, and thirty French children, together with 991 Belgian men, fifty-four Belgian women, and twelve Belgian children among its 5,866 civilian inmates.<sup>56</sup> Inspectors from the Spanish embassy in Berlin expressed concerns about overcrowding in the civilian compound there and the fact that "upright" French and Belgian women were housed together with prostitutes.<sup>57</sup> It was also alleged that male prisoners and guards had access to the female barracks at night. Both claims were hotly contested by the Prussian ministry of war.<sup>58</sup>

The allegation that the German camp system on the home front forced civilian prisoners to work against their will was also denied by the German military authorities, both during and after the war. Zivilgefangene, like officer POWs, were supposedly only ever recruited for labor outside the camps on a voluntary basis.59 This matched international agreements reached with the British, French, and Russian governments at an early stage in the war, adherence to which was considered crucial by the German Foreign Office in order to protect the interests of German civilians in Allied hands. 60 The Belgian deportations of 1916-17, which anyway were halted in March 1917, subsequently looked like an unfortunate exception. In April 1918, for instance, the Prussian War Ministry reassured the German Foreign Office, in response to a series of negative reports in the pro-French Swiss press, that "the former civilian prisoners who are working in German industries are all volunteers. They are hired and paid on the same basis as German workers."61 The use of the phrase "former civilian prisoners" is significant here, as it suggests that some internees were being "released" (and therefore removed from the lists forwarded to the German Red Cross and from the protections offered by the accord with the Allies on the nonuse of civilian internee forced labor) after "agreeing" to work in the German domestic war economy. Officially they were no longer captives but "free" laborers who had "chosen" to accept offers of industrial or agricultural employment in exchange for their liberty.

Reports from neutral inspectors nonetheless suggested something rather different. At the end of April 1917, for instance, Spanish embassy officials who had visited the Havelberg camp, then in the Prussian province of Brandenburg (today in Saxony-Anhalt), noted that "the 150 French civilian prisoners who volunteered to work in the Hahn'sche works in Grossenbaum [Duisburg] in exchange for the promise of being allowed to visit their

families in occupied France after a period of four months, are still waiting for this promise to be met."62

A few weeks later, a report on civilian prisoners at Holzminden claimed that "the French and Belgian civilians sent to the Hannover-Hainholz works are living under conditions which leave much to be desired. . . . The prisoners are granted only a limited amount of freedom, causing them to suffer from low morale. . . . If they refuse to work or make complaints they run the risk of being beaten." 63

And in August 1917 similar accusations came from Russian civilian prisoners at Holzminden who had been forced to work in a communal kitchen and a local factory: "They told us that if they refused to work they were threatened with being sent to clear marshes or being conscripted into labor details in Lichtenhorst or Verdener Moor, places known for the terrible conditions which the prisoners are expected to endure."

Just how many "former" enemy alien civilian prisoners were recruited into the German workforce after 1916, and how many experienced the varying degrees of coercion detailed above, is difficult to say due to the loss of the relevant Prussian military files. Admittedly, much larger groups of enemy POWs and migrant laborers—notably Russians, Russian Poles, Dutch nationals, Belgians who "voluntarily" signed contracts, and Italians—worked in the German war economy on the home front, with "former" civilian internees therefore only representing a small proportion of the total foreign workforce.<sup>65</sup>

The global economic context is also important in understanding why the conflict was increasingly seen in Germany, particularly but not only among extreme right-wingers, as a "war of work" between nations and races.66 When it came to the use of labor resources, nationalists asserted, German "quality" and "cultural creativity" would triumph over the Allies' access, through colonies and overseas commerce, to the endless, undifferentiated mass of racially or culturally inferior "human material" (Ger. Menschenmaterial) supposedly on offer for hire from outside Europe.<sup>67</sup> From late 1916 the pressure on all able-bodied, patriotic civilians in Germany to work grew stronger, especially after the passage of the Auxiliary Service Law (Gesetz über den vaterländischen Hilfsdienst) on December 5. The latter introduced labor conscription for every German male aged sixteen to sixty who was not serving in the armed forces or working in essential industries in an ultimately unsuccessful bid to eradicate "malingering."68 It was around this time, too, that Hindenburg famously insisted that the war economy should operate according to the principle that "whoever does not work shall not eat."69 It is even possible that the willingness of the supreme military authorities to endorse

the substantial exchange agreement reached with the French government at Bern in April 1918 was conditioned by the knowledge that those prisoners still left in the camps—the so-called "useless eaters"—were of no economic value to Germany, given that most of them were too sick (or of too high a social standing) to be pressured into offering themselves as "free" workers. 70

Even so, the move toward what Hinz calls the "economic totalization of the war" after 1916<sup>71</sup> should not blind us to the fact that many of the original decisions about the use of deportations and forced labor in the war against enemy civilians were taken not by the third OHL under Hindenburg and Ludendorff, or by government ministries in Berlin and Munich, but by individual camp directors in the German interior and army commanders on the ground in occupied France and the Belgian étape. The implications of this, and the possibility of a significant transfer of cultural attitudes toward civilian "enemies" from the occupied zones to the home front and back again, will now be addressed.

# Internment in Occupied Territories and on the Home Front

In spring 1915, according to Helen McPhail's work, a group of French civilian deportees from Peronne returned to occupied France with tales of having been incarcerated somewhere near Frankfurt-am-Main, where they were forced to perform heavy labor, including stone breaking and road mending.<sup>72</sup> This was probably the camp at Limburg-an-der-Lahn, which held mainly military, and some civilian detainees from 1914 onwards. For this particular group of returnees, though, and many like them, "release" and repatriation were mixed blessings. True, they might now be reunited with their families and businesses. However, particularly if they were unemployed, they might also be expected to engage in "emergency maintenance work" (Ger. Notstandsarbeiten) on public amenities under the direction of the local rear army commander. Even before the introduction of the ZABs in October 1916, evading such service, or encouraging others to do so, could result in a three-year jail sentence imposed by a German military court, or huge fines of up to six thousand marks (for those who were able to pay them).<sup>73</sup>

More generally, by 1915 German field commanders had moved beyond simply outlawing, punishing, and deterring active civilian resistance to the occupation. Rather, passive resistance in the form of "work refusal" was now also criminalized and its perpetrators treated as "incorrigible laggards" (Ger. böse Bummler), irrespective of their class background. They were labelled "work-shy persons," who supposedly feigned patriotism as a "cover-story" to enable them to "continue their idle lifestyles undisturbed while cozily

pocketing their municipal unemployment benefits (gemeindliche Arbeitslosenunterstützung)."75 A regulation issued from army general headquarters in October 1916 ordered rear-area commanders in charge of rounding up "ablebodied persons" for Notstandsarbeiten to include those who led purposeless lives "as a result of gambling, drinking, idleness, unemployment or workshyness."76 Men recruited into the ZABs were not only to be screened for their "fitness to work," but from January 1917 they were also required to undergo medical checks for sexually transmitted infections, a deliberate act of degradation which—as in the case of the women and teenage girls caught up in the Easter deportations of 1916—confirmed their status as legal nonentities and disenfranchised "objects" at the mercy of a foreign military power, rather than occupied civilians with rights as well as obligations guaranteed under the prevailing laws and customs of land warfare.77 And those who were unable to work on health or other grounds were often disparaged in biological terms as "useless eaters" (Ger. unnütze Esser),78 or singled out as "inferior specimens" (minderwertiges Menschenmaterial).79

French and Belgian civilians, in other words, were divided into two groups-"orderly" subjects, who were willing to accept the legitimacy of the occupation under international law and thus the need to maintain a correct attitude toward work and a consistent Leistungsbereitschaft (willingness to perform), and those more "alien" or "criminal" elements, who represented a danger to military security, community harmony, and the well-being of the field armies. Furthermore, the harsh, repressive measures directed against the latter were legitimized by reference to the supposed benefits of compulsory labor and "German work" as a prophylactic tool against joblessness and the "chaos" of urban life, and not just by particular interpretations of international law.80 The rear-area inspectorate for the Sixth Army even complained in December 1916 that those French civilians forcibly assembled into the initial ZABs were not made of the strongest "human material" (Menschenmaterial) because they "are drawn almost exclusively from the urban population" and were "often in poor health as a result of the unhygienic conditions in working-class quarters." By contrast, "the stronger rural population cannot be recruited into the ZABs because they are not unemployed and are urgently needed for agricultural work."81 Yet it was precisely these prejudices against the city poor—which probably pre-dated the war but were radicalized by imagined and real wartime encounters with French and Belgian civilians, including with the much feared but largely mythical Franktireurs at the start of the occupation82—that made the German army feel that the ZABs were a crucial part of their current military struggles and an essential means of making the German nation more resilient in the face of further (biological) trials of strength and nerve ahead. In other words, for commanders on the ground, the argument that urban unemployment was a danger to "order" was not simply a legal subterfuge—as it was for those lawyers in the German Foreign Office in autumn 1916, who cited article 43 of the HLKO as a means of justifying their support for deportations within the occupied zones—but a matter of genuine conviction and cultural belief.<sup>83</sup>

The transfer of such ideas by the German military to the invaded territories administered by the field armies, and from there back to the home front, can be seen most vividly in a little-known, planned social intervention that was drawn up in the localized context of southern Bavaria in the last months of the war, where prejudice against the "unemployed" and "big city scum" (Großstadtgesindel) was also rife.84 Through an agreement between the public authority responsible for the promotion of rural infrastructure, soil conservation, and water supply systems in the Munich region (the Kulturbauamt Munchen) and the acting commander of the first Bavarian army corps district (covering most of southern Bavaria), a scheme was hatched in summer 1918 to send a group of carefully selected "work-shy and criminally-inclined adult males" from Munich to a "productive construction site" (Ger. Kulturbaustelle) belonging to the Wielenbach community enterprise scheme (the "Genossenschaft Wielenbach") in the town of Weilheim. Here they would be "compel[led]...to work... at the appropriate rate (minimum five marks per day) minus their food and accommodation costs."85

Initially a total of two hundred inmates was envisaged, with a guard of fifty soldiers.86 By September 1918 the camp was ready to receive 160 prisoners.87 Unfortunately, there is little information about the specific criteria that were to be used to select prisoners from among the bigger population of petty criminals and the unemployed in Munich. More significant was the self-consciously experimental nature of this project, and the early statement from the senior official in charge of POW camps in southern Bavaria that "the inner life of the Baustelle should follow the model of a POW work camp."88 Here, then, we can see the "traces of a totalitarian war ideology" that both Hinz and Becker refer to, albeit this time directed not at enemy civilians, aliens, or POWs but at "internal enemies."89 At the same time it is possible to identify crossovers with the Eastern Front as well as the Western Front, for it was in the occupied east, as Vejas Gabriel Liulevicius has shown, that "notions of 'German work' and 'cultural [or productive] work' were fused"—with military officials casting themselves as "bringers of Kultur" to foreign "lands and peoples."90 Indeed, viewed from rural and smalltown southern Bavaria, the poorer, inner-city districts of Munich might also appear as a "foreign" space, exemplifying all the negative traits of an unproductive, globalized, and massified *Unkultur* and, worse still, inhabited by a "criminal" or "parasitic" underclass in need of German "cultivation." <sup>91</sup>

Further north, the acting commanders of the second and third Bavarian army corps districts were likewise aware of the plans to create a camp at Weilheim and pushed for a policy of concentrating "gypsies from all the [Bavarian] army corps districts" there, thereby transforming a project with a local focus into one with larger, regional dimensions. The inclusion of women was considered "impossible for the time being" but was not ruled out for the future. Plans were also mooted to build two further "productive work camps" (or *Kulturbaustellen*) at Schlehdorf and Herzogsägmühle near Peiting, both of them again in southern Bavaria (Oberbayern administrative district). On October 11, 1918, the acting commander of the first Bavarian army corps even wrote to his counterparts in the second and third army corps districts, asking them to begin identifying suitable candidates to send to Weilheim: "In the first instance the persons selected should be given a thorough medical examination to ascertain their ability to work, since only those who are fully fit for labor are of any use in Weilheim."

There is no evidence that any prisoners actually arrived at Weilheim before November 1918. If they did, they would have been there for a matter of two to three weeks at most. In any case, a letter of January 1919 from the acting commander of the first Bavarian army corps to the other Bavarian army commanders indicates that "the work camp [Arbeitslager] at Weilheim-Wielenbach" had had to be closed "owing to the revolution." 96 Nonetheless the project, even if it had insufficient time to get off the ground, points to an interest shown by Bavarian military and police officials on the home front in drawing "lessons" from the experience of work units in POW camps and occupied territories and their willingness to appropriate the same kind of brutalized language to describe what they were doing and why-for instance, via references to "hygienic measures" against "criminal vermin" (Ger. verbrecherisches Gesindel);97 the categorization of Gypsies as a "pest" (Ger. Plage);98 or the constantly expressed desire to force "tramps" and "work-shy persons" to sign up for construction and other jobs as an appropriate means of supporting the war effort and providing local communities with improvements to their infrastructure.99

The very notion that social "undesirables" at home could be cast, in effect, as prisoners of war and exploited for their labor on the same basis and for the same ends as enemy POWs is itself a good illustration of one of the central features of civilian captivity in World War I Germany, namely its

combination of improvisation and radicalization. Also evident in the "Weilheim project" was the strong emphasis on finding new and locally effective ways (Ger. wirksame . . . Zwangsmaßnahmen),100 to (re)establish order in the midst of the increasing economic, social, and human chaos of war, a chaos that returned to Germany with the revolution of 1918-19, the hyperinflation crisis of 1923, and the Great Depression from 1929. At the political level there were certainly some echoes of the recent past in the program that the Nazis developed for governing Munich in case their putsch in November 1923 succeeded. Point 16 of this program called for the detention of "security risks and useless eaters" in "collection camps" (Sammellager), where they would be required to work. Those who refused would face the death penalty, in line with the punishment facing military deserters (but not yet civilians) during the war. 101 And in respect to "experiments" in social policy, while it would be wrong to see a direct line or linear path to the German concentration camps of the 1930s in any of the developments discussed here, it is worth bearing in mind Jane Caplan's point that "there are no ex nihilo creations in complex bureaucratic states." In particular, for local administrative bodies keen to cooperate with the self-styled "emergency" directives of the Hitler regime in 1933-1936, "the issue of labor . . . provided one of the principal public legitimations for the camps."102

Returning to the plans for a work camp at Weilheim in 1918, the most striking parallel with experiences on the Western Front lies in the close attention paid to how the prisoners in Bavaria were to be supervised, with a strong emphasis on preventing escapes and ensuring the "maintenance of security."103 As with the ZABs in northern France and the Belgian étape, then, the armed military guards were to be carefully selected and trained, while concern for their physical and moral welfare dictated that they should take all steps necessary to prevent and deter violence from the "persons dangerous to public order" (Ger. gemeingefährliche Personen) in their custody. 104 This included the denial of visits or communication between prisoners and their friends or relatives on the outside, as well as regular searches of prisoners for knives and other weapons, and a ban on smoking or drinking alcohol during working hours. More to the point, "infringements of the work regulations and of orders and instructions issued by the military director or the site management will constitute an offence under the state-of-siege law."105 This meant that any kind of resistance to forced labor, active or passive, was criminalized and turned into an act of deliberate sabotage against the German war effort, as was already the case for some of the French (and Belgian) civilians of working age living in the étape.

# (Dis)entangling the Local, the National, and the International

The different strands of German internment policy discussed in this essay confirm Annette Becker's finding that while there were various kinds of camps for enemy civilians on the home front and in occupied France and Belgium, there was as yet no fully fledged "concentration camp system" in World War I. 106 Rather, the motives for internment were too complex and too contradictory to speak of a coherent approach. True, the lawyers of the German Foreign Office had decided that, from the end of 1914 onward, civilian prisoners might be legitimately used as hostages in order to put pressure on the Allies to release the tens of thousands of German nationals that they were holding at the global level. This policy was also endorsed by the Prussian and Bavarian ministries of war, by Reich Chancellor Bethmann Hollweg, and at one point even by the kaiser, Wilhelm II. 107 Yet, on its own it cannot explain why more than 100,000 enemy subjects were interned in Germany between 1914 and 1918. Retaliation at the international level was not the only motive, nor was "national" outrage at the treatment of German minorities abroad.

One possible solution to this conundrum is to apply the notion of a dual POW system operating within several of the belligerent states during the war to the case of French and Belgian civilian deportees and internees in German captivity. According to Heather Jones, this dual system evolved when camps were divided into two different types: "on the one hand, the home front camp and working unit network, and, on the other, a largely separate [and even harsher, M.S.] system of army-run prisoner of war labor companies which remained at or near the front area as a permanent labour force, working directly for armies." Yet while this model works convincingly for explaining the violence experienced by military POWs in western Europe—as Jones's comparative findings ably demonstrate 109—to apply it to the German treatment of civilian prisoners would assume a level of centralized design and coordination not evident in the sources.

What the materials available in the Bavarian War Archive do tell us, on the other hand, is that much of the thinking behind the deportation and internment policies implemented by military commanders on the ground was based on a particular war culture and response to dealing with enemy civilians and "internal enemies" that lay at the complex intersection between local, national, and international developments and between the home front and multiple fighting fronts, including *Ober Ost* as well as the *Etappengebieten* in occupied France and Belgium. At the national level some of this thinking

may have emerged out of earlier cultural attitudes and practices within the German military that predated World War I. Isabel Hull, for example, has argued that the German general staff derived one particularly important "lesson" from the wars of 1866 and 1870–71: that violence constrained by extramilitary factors, such as diplomacy or international law, while still potentially sufficient for overpowering the enemy's conventional military forces, might be ineffective in the face of popular insurgency and guerrilla warfare. These "lessons" were then applied to the treatment of enemy civilians in colonial wars (including the genocidal campaigns against the Herero and Nama in German South West Africa in 1904–1908) and to the inhabitants of European territories invaded by German troops during World War I.<sup>110</sup>

However, such continuities offer a partial explanation at best. To a much greater degree the German field armies' thinking in late 1914 was connected to specific experiences in Belgium and France. This included both the initial Franktireur scare of August–October and the way it triggered an unanticipated sense of alarm that colored and radicalized responses to subsequent challenges. Among these challenges, the new and unfamiliar situation that German commanders faced when confronted with the phenomenon of patriotic work refusal on the part of the local population, and the existential anxieties this produced concerning the morale, comfort, and physical safety of their own troops as well as the resolve of the home front and the troops fighting on the front line, stood out in particular.

Contrary to Hull's findings, then, German army commanders were able to think in strategic, extramilitary, and even domestic-political terms. 111 In many ways they had to, given what they faced, namely the unexpected (and disorientating) combination of static trench warfare in northern France and Belgium, global economic blockade and inability to defend overseas colonies and markets, and multiple occupations in eastern and western Europe, with their incredibly high labor demands. This produced a set of dilemmas that their more confident forebears during the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71 and the colonial conflicts of the late nineteenth century had not encountered and could not have imagined. In short, by the beginning of 1916 at the latest, the commanders on the ground in the Etappengebieten could not see how they could continue to run an orderly, self-sufficient occupation regime in a modern industrial society such as northern France and Belgium-and in the midst of a global, industrialized conflict like the Great War-without introducing radical and innovative measures to combat the modern, urban "disease" of idleness and work-shyness. The only alternative to conscripting enemy civilians was to displace the burden of provisioning the occupation troops wholly onto the home front, an option that the German field armies in northern France and

Belgium were not willing to consider—even if they might have hoped or foreseen that some of their policies aimed at combatting work-shyness among occupied civilians would eventually be taken up on the home front too.

Finally, what are the implications of these findings for our understanding of the relative importance of local, national, and international factors—and the complex links between them—when considering civilian internment as a global phenomenon during World War I? Tammy Proctor has rightly argued that from 1914 onward internment developed into a "deliberate state policy" aimed at civilian "outsiders" within particular countries. Equally it was a means by which opposing states sought to wage war against each other on the European and worldwide stages. 112 Nonetheless, as the German example suggests, it was also a policy that states could easily lose control of, particularly when local and regional factors were also brought into the equation. At the national and international levels, the Prussian war ministry and the imperial government in Berlin had signaled that they had more or less given up on securing any worthwhile material advantages for the home front from civilian internment, or even achieving a better bargaining hand with the Allies, when, admittedly at a very late stage in the war, they negotiated the wide-reaching Bern and Hague exchange agreements with France and Britain in April and July 1918 respectively.

Under these schemes, thousands of eligible civilian internees and military POWs were repatriated, although repeated delays in implementation meant that thousands more were still waiting to be released as the war came to an end. Similarly, recruitment to the ZABs in occupied France and Belgium was supposedly halted in spring 1918, with the existing battalions marked for disbandment. 113 Yet on the ground in the last months and weeks of the war, enemy civilians were still being held in German military custody, in the East as well as the West. They were also being moved between the home front and the rapidly disintegrating German lines in the still-occupied parts of France and Belgium, and between established camps, civilian and military prisons, abandoned warehouses, and other makeshift places of incarceration, none of which were accessible to ICRC inspectors. 114 At the same time, ad hoc plans were being laid by the military authorities in Bavaria for the internment of "gypsies" and "petty criminals" as a local solution to the supposed problem of "work-shyness" and "disorderly" lifestyles.

German policy at home and in occupied northern France and Belgium was not, of course, made in a vacuum. Integrating the diverse and typically unbordered strands of local case studies such as this into a global framework for understanding World War I captivity raises new and exciting conceptual challenges. In particular, it forces us to rethink what might be called the

"connectivity conundrum" and the key historical-political assumptions that go with it. 115 Too often comparative histories of the internment phenomenon are written in terms of a simplistic binary division between top-down global and international processes (such as migration flows or the development of a common set of laws on the rules of land warfare) and what are sometimes cast as "provincial," inward-looking or "micro" responses at the subnational and local levels. A more comprehensive view needs to factor in and make visible the reciprocal interplay between different spatial levels that lies hidden beneath the surface of the constant movement of ideas, practices, and mentalities, as well as peoples, across rapidly changing (wartime and postwar) borders and jurisdictions. Only thus can we begin to identify—and bring together—the many different ways in which World War I was a turning point in the global use of prison camps—both as sites of mass incarceration for combatants and noncombatants, and as imagined spaces existing at the increasingly fluid intersection of the local, the national, and the international.

#### **Notes**

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- 1. For examples of the most recent scholarship, see Manz, Panayi, and Stibbe 2019; Stibbe 2019; Manz and Panayi 2020; Bauerkamper 2021; Caglioti 2021.
  - 2. Stibbe 2013a.
  - 3. Kramer, Alan 2007; Jones, H. 2011a.
  - 4. Hinz 2003.
  - 5. Hinz 1999.
  - 6. Panayi 2014; Murphy 2017.
  - 7. Stibbe 2013a, 161-62.
  - 8. Panayi 2014, 24-25; Boswell 2000, 141.
  - 9. Deutscher Reichstag 1927, 719-855.
  - 10. Jahr 1999; Stibbe 2008a.
  - 11. Stibbe 2008a, 139, 143.
  - 12. As argued most recently by Jahr and Thiel 2019, 41-42.
  - 13. Stibbe 2004.
  - 14. Horne and Kramer 2001, 166.
  - 15. On Ober Ost, see Liulevicius 2000.
  - 16. Stibbe 2006, 16.
- 17. For a concise overview of the administrative structure of the German military occupation, see Wilkin 2016, 230–31.
  - 18. Horne and Kramer 2001, 166.
  - 19. Boswell 2000, 133.
- 20. See, e.g., Munich Police Inspectorate to the Bavarian State Ministry of Interior, July 6, 1915. Copy in Bayerisches Hauptstaatsarchiv Munich, Abteilung IV:

Kriegsarchiv (henceforth BayHStA-KA), Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 986.

- 21. See the legal department's extensive correspondence about this issue in Bundesarchiv Berlin-Lichterfelde (henceforth BArch), R 901/82914.
  - 22. Watson 2014b.
  - 23. Stibbe 2008a, 40.
- 24. See, for example, Bureau international feministe de renseignements en faveur des victims de la guerre, Lausanne, to the German envoy in Bern, December 26, 1914, in BArch, R 901/82914.
- 25. Central Committee of German Red Cross Associations, Department for POW Welfare, to the Prussian Ministry of War, December 8, 1914, in BArch, R 901/82913.
- 26. Begriff: "Kriegs- und Zivilgefangene"—communique issued by the Prussian War Ministry, April 17, 1916. Copies in BayHStA-KA, Infanteriedivisionen (WK) 4379, and BArch, R 901/82917.
  - 27. Gumz 2014, 72-73.
- 28. On the Hoover-administered Committee for Relief in Belgium (CRB), which operated in Belgium from October 1914 and in northern France from March 1915, see McPhail 2000, 61–88. Hunger was nonetheless a common feature of life under German occupation by early 1916, especially in big cities like Lille.
  - 29. Liszt 1920, 476.
- 30. See Commander of the Sixth Army, "Grundsätze für die Verwendung von freien Arbeitern aus der Zivilbevölkerung des besetzten Gebietes," October 17, 1916, which makes explicit reference to article 52, in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando III. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 2315.
- 31. See, for instance, Geheime Feldpolizei, Zweigstelle Valenciennes, to the Rear Area Inspectorate of the Sixth Army, September 2, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Etappenformationen (WK), 146.
  - 32. Nivet 2011, 52.
- 33. Geheime Feldpolizei, Zweigstelle Valenciennes, September 2, 1916 (as note 31 above). Connolly 2018, 254–58, notes that work refusal in the occupied Nord "was rare" and "successful refusals even rarer," but he still gives many examples where it happened. For the German military, imagined or "attempted" episodes were in any case as important as real ones.
- 34. See, for instance, the use of the phrase "useless eaters" in Commander of the second Bavarian army corps, Korpstagesbefehl, November 12, 1915, in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando II. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 693, Bd. 2: Kriegsgefangene, 1915–17.
- 35. Supreme Commander of the Sixth Army to all army corps commanders, December 17, 1915, in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando II. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 693, Bd. 2: Kriegsgefangene, 1915–17.
- 36. See the dozens of case files in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando II. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 693, Bd. 5: Rückkehr von Zivilgefangenen 1917.
- 37. Commander of the third Bavarian army corps to the commanders of the fifth and sixth Bavarian army corps, November 20, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando III. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 2315.

- 38. Commander of the second Bavarian army corps, March 2, 1917, in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando II. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 693, Bd 5: Rückkehr von Zivilgefangenen 1917.
  - 39. Becker, A. 1998, 68-77.
- 40. Watson 2014a, 404; Hull 2014, 138–40. Five ZABs were also set up in the territory administered by Ober Ost in the east. See Watson 2014a, 402; and Liulevicius 2000. 73–74.
- 41. See also Supreme Commander of the Sixth Army to all army corps commanders, November 12, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Infanteriedivisionen (WK) 4074.
- 42. Quartermaster General to Prussian Ministry of War, February 24, 1917. Copy in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando I. Armeekorps (WK) 2005.
- 43. See the examples in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando II. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 693, Bd. 5: Rückkehr von Zivilgefangenen 1917.
- 44. Missions d'Etude: Mlle Cramer et M. Boissier à Berlin, Copenhague et Stockholm (March-April 1917), in Archives du Comité International de la Croix-Rouge, Geneva, C G1/419/XI. On the demolition work on the Somme in early 1917, see Geyer, Michael 2006.
  - 45. Doegen 1919, 29.
  - 46. CICR 1921, 136-37. See also Becker, A. 1998, 233.
  - 47. Stibbe 2013a, 165.
- 48. The figure of 250 civilians sent to German-occupied Russia in April 1916 is cited in Prussian War Ministry to German Foreign Office (Auswärtiges Amt, henceforth AA), November 6, 1916, in BArch, R 901/82917. On the thirty thousand military POWs deported at the same time, see Jones, H. 2011a, 136–7.
- 49. AA to the Dutch Legation in Berlin, June 28, 1917, in BArch, R 901/84337. See also Nivet 2011, 129–32; Stibbe 2013a, 165–66; Bulletin International des sociétés de la Croix-Rouge, no. 194, April 1918, 221–22.
- 50. Nivet 2011, 127–29; McPhail 2000, 38; Becker, A. 2014a, 275–77; Connolly 2018, 20. See also the many individual examples in BayHStA-KA, Generalkommando II. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 707; and BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 2137.
  - 51. The key study on this episode is Thiel 2007.
  - 52. Watson 2014a, 386-87.
  - 53. Herbert 1986, 91.
  - 54. Oltmer 2006, 68-69.
- 55. Jahr and Thiel 2019, 43. See also Kriegs- und Zivilgefangene in Gefangenenlagern, Lazaretten und Austauschstationen (zahlenmäßige Aufstellungen nach dem Stand vom 10. Mai und 10. Oktober 1918), in BArch, R 67/525.
- 56. See Bestand Holzminden, May 13, 1916, in Evangelisches Zentralarchiv Berlin, 51 C III g 2.
  - 57. Spanish embassy in Berlin to AA, June 19, 1916, in BArch, R 901/82917.
- 58. Prussian War Ministry to AA, September 4, 1916, in BArch, R 901/82917. Even so, the Spanish embassy's complaints are corroborated by other sources. See, e.g., the report drawn up on December 4, 1916 by Adelaide Livingstone, head of the British government's Committee on the Treatment by the Enemy of British Prisoners of War, after interviewing six British women who had recently returned from Holzminden, in the National Archives, Kew, London, FO 383/210.
  - 59. Doegen 1919, 175.

- 60. Hull 2014, 132.
- 61. Prussian Ministry of War to AA, April 2, 1918, in BArch, R 901/84319.
- 62. Spanish Embassy in Berlin to AA, April 30, 1917, in BArch, R 901/84319.
- 63. Spanish Embassy in Berlin to AA, May 24, 1917, in BArch, R 901/84337.
- 64. Spanish Embassy in Berlin to AA, August 16, 1917, in BArch, R 901/84337.
- 65. Herbert 1986, 84 and 100; Watson 2014a, 388-92.
- 66. Conrad 2010, 363.
- 67. Trarore 2014, 61. On the use of the brutish term "Menschenmaterial," see also Mosse 1990, 179.
  - 68. McElligott 2014, 12 and 16-17.
  - 69. Watson 2014a, 381.
  - 70. On the Bern accords of April 26, 1918, see Becker, A. 1998, 255-66.
  - 71. Hinz 2006, 359.
  - 72. McPhail 2000, 39.
- 73. See, for instance, Proclamation of the Rear Inspectorate of the Sixth Army, June 4, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Etappeninspektion (WK) 146.
  - 74. See also Thiel 2007, 126, 179.
- 75. Geheime Feldpolizei, Zweigstelle Valenciennes, to the Supreme Commander of the Sixth Army, September 2, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Etappenformationen (WK) 146. According to Connolly 2018, 18, it was not uncommon in some of the industrial towns in the occupied north for more than 43 percent of the population to be in receipt of unemployment benefits paid out from municipal insurance funds, although how much of this was due to German requisitioning of materials and how much to "work refusal" is difficult to determine. On the functioning of French municipalities under the German occupation, and their continued responsibility for ensuring the "welfare of the population," including the payment of benefits to those on the unemployment register, see also Nivet 2011, 42–52.
- 76. Ordannance concernant la restriction des charges publiques de secours et l'aide à porter en cas de calamité publique, Großes Hauptquartier, October 3, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Etappenformationen (WK) 147.
- 77. Quartermaster General, "Neuaufstellung von Z.A.B.s und Einziehung von Ersatzarbeitern," January 2, 1917, in BayHStA-KA, Etappenformationen (WK) 147.
  - 78. See notes 34, 35, and 42 above.
- 79. Rear Inspectorate of the Sixth Army to the Quartermaster General, December 27, 1916, in BayHStA-KA, Etappenformationen (WK) 172.
- 80. On the value-laden term "Deutsche Arbeit" or "German work" as a category denoting supposedly "superior" national characteristics and social "inclusion"/"exclusion" on the basis of "performance" (*Leistungsbereitschaft*), and, equally importantly, its emergence as a discursive tool in welfare policies and "preventive social policing," see Campbell 1989, Caplan 2005, and Hörath 2014. For the "interconnectedness" of this concept, in other words its development in global, international, and transnational contexts, as well as within Germany itself, see also Conrad 2010, 334–79; and for its wartime "fusion" with the idea of German "cultural work" in the occupied East (Ober Ost), see Liulevicius 2000, 45–47.
  - 81. Rear Inspectorate of the Sixth Army, December 27, 1916 (as note 79 above).
- 82. Horne and Kramer 2001. Prewar fears of urban degeneracy and the "corrupting effects of city life," including sexual deviance and associated threats to German "manhood," are also emphasized by Crouthamel 2014, 17.

- 83. On the "tortured construction of Hague article 43" put together by the AA's legal department in September 1916 to support its contention that deportations within the occupied zones for purposes of recruitment into the ZABs could be lawful if they were presented as a means of safeguarding "public order and security," see Hull 2014, 133.
- 84. On the largely hostile attitude of Bavarian peasants toward impoverished city dwellers, both during and after the war, see Ziemann 2007, 191–209; and Geyer, Martin H. 1998, 184–86.
- 85. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to various departments, October 2, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 86. Inspectorate for POW camps of the first Bavarian army corps to the acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps, June 19, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 87. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the Inspectorate for POW camps of the Bavarian first army corps, September 7, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 88. Inspectorate for POW camps of the first Bavarian army corps to the acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps, June 19, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 89. Hinz 2006, 363; Becker, A. 2014a, 258, 280. On German (mis)treatment of other kinds of "internal enemy," this time political suspects as well as "social undesirables" such as vagrants, prostitutes and homosexuals, see André Keil's contribution to this volume.
  - 90. Liulevicius 2000, 26, 45-46.
  - 91. Liulevicius 2000, 46, 71; Conrad 2010, 364.
- 92. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the Inspectorate for POW camps of the Bavarian first army corps, September 7, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 93. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to various departments, October 2, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 94. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the Inspectorate for POW camps of the Bavarian first army corps, September 7, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 95. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the acting commanders of the second and third army corps, the State Ministry of Interior and the Munich Police Inspectorate, October 11, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Armeekorps (WK) 986.
- 96. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the acting commanders of the second and third army corps, January 11, 1919, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Armeekorps (WK) 986.
- 97. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the Inspectorate for POW camps of the Bavarian first army corps, September 14, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.

- 98. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the Bavarian State Ministry of Interior, May 26, 1917, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 986.
- 99. Bavarian War Ministry to the acting commanders of all three Bavarian army corps, February 17, 1917, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 986; Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to the Inspectorate for POW camps of the Bavarian first army corps, August 18, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 100. Inspectorate for POW camps of the first Bavarian army corps to the acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps, June 19, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
  - 101. Evans, R. 2003, 346.
  - 102. Caplan 2005, 26, 31.
- 103. Inspectorate for POW camps of the first Bavarian army corps to the acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps, June 19, 1918, BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678. On the similar concern to prevent escapes and "unrest" among the ZABs in France and the operational and rear areas of occupied Belgium, see Thiel 2007, 127.
- 104. Acting commander of the Bavarian first army corps to various departments, July 11, 1918, in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
- 105. Vorläufige Dienstanweisung für den militärischen Leiter der Baustelle Weilheim, n.d. [September 1918], in BayHStA-KA, Stellvertretendes Generalkommando I. Bayerisches Armeekorps (WK) 678.
  - 106. Becker, A. 2014a, 281.
  - 107. Stibbe 2008a, 31-37.
  - 108. Jones, H. 2008a, 30.
  - 109. See also Jones, H. 2011a, 374-75.
  - 110. Hull 2014, 289. See also Hull 2005, 117-30.
  - 111. Hull 2005, 115.
  - 112. Proctor 2010, 204-5.
  - 113. Thiel 2007, 129-30.
  - 114. Stibbe 2006, 16.
- 115. Some of these assumptions are usefully unpicked in Douki and Minard, 2007.

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