



International Boundary Study

No. 56 – October 1, 1965

Bulgaria – Greece Boundary

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**The Geographer
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Bureau of Intelligence and Research**

INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

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BULGARIA – GREECE BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Bulgaria–Greece boundary is 307 miles (494 kms) in length and is demarcated. Beginning on Tumba Mountain peak at the tripoint with Yugoslavia, the boundary follows eastward along the ridge of the Belasica (Belasitca) Planina, to the confluence of the Struma and the Bistriza (Bistritsa) Rivers. Continuing in an easterly direction, the boundary crosses the Mesta (Gr: Nestos) and the Dospat rivers, following the water divide between the basin of the Maritsa on the north and the basins of the Mesta and other rivers on the south, to the Daoul river at boundary markers 181 and 182. Thence the boundary turns northward a distance of 47.5 miles (76.7 kms) to the Maritsa (Evros) River, which it follows southeastward a distance of 9.5 miles (15.3 kms) to the tripoint with Turkey in the river.

II. GEOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

A. Physiography

The Bulgaria–Greece boundary area is situated in an east–west direction near the center of the Balkan Peninsula. Like other parts of the Balkans, the topography is rugged and irregular. From the north on the Bulgarian side, the chief physiographic feature is the Balkan Mountain range, or Stara Planina, located south of the lower Danube and curving eastward toward the Black Sea. The main chain of the Balkans presents a long gentle slope to the Danube River. At the foot of the steep southern slope lies a long narrow fertile valley bounded to the south by a linear range of hills known as the Anti-Balkans. Beyond this, in turn, is the wide valley whose southern wall is formed by the slopes of the Rhodope Mountains which follow generally along the boundary in an east–west direction. The broken and dissected ranges of the Rhodope are lower in the Thracian area where the mountains open into the well-developed Maritsa Valley. Beyond the Maritsa, to the east, the Rhodope form the Istranca Mountains in the Bulgaria–Turkey boundary area. On the western end of the Rhodope are the massive Rila Mountains whose highest peak of 9,597 feet is the highest point of East Central Europe. South of the border the wedge-shaped Rhodope extend to the Aegean, east of the Vardar valley at Thessaloniki. The Rhodope together with the Balkan ranges enclose the fertile Rumelian Basin (Maritsa Basin) whose largest depression opens toward the Aegean and is drained by the Maritsa River.

In Greece, the boundary region is physiographically an extension of the Balkans. As in Bulgaria, the Rhodope are higher and more numerous in the west with little land for upland plain or plateau. Altitudes range from about 2,000 to 8,000 feet presenting formidable barriers especially along the boundary. The mountains are drained southward by the Struma (Gr: Strimon) and the Mesta (Gr: Nestos) rivers which cross the boundary to the Aegean Sea. The rivers including their affluents, after cutting

through rocky and narrow mountain defiles, flow through a number of relatively fertile basins and plains.

The rivers vary considerably in volume. In spring, because of melting snows, in fall due to rains, the rivers are deepest and are torrential in the mountains. Downstream the rivers form large pools and marshes, meander a great deal, and frequently change course during floods. In summer, volume in the rivers diminishes as much as 90 percent permitting fording in many places.

B. Land Use

The fertile Rumelian Basin is a major agricultural area of Bulgaria, where intensive gardening is conducted. On the higher lands fruit trees and potatoes are the main crops, especially around Sofia. On the lower lands wheat and corn are the main crops. The plum orchard furnishes the slivovica, an alcoholic beverage, which is a staple to the Bulgarian peasant; the vines and the almond tree are other crops. Tobacco is an important export item; some cotton is also produced along the Maritsa. Perhaps most characteristic of agriculture in the Rumelian Basin is the vast fields of roses, especially around Kazanlik, which are cultivated on an industrial scale. Bulgaria is the chief world exporter of rose essence for perfumery, although chemical producers have hurt the industry.

South of the boundary, in Greece, wheat, barley, and corn are the leading crops. Vine culture and the mulberry tree are common, and tobacco is an important crop especially in the Vardar valley.

C. Climate

Climate in the boundary area ranges between continental and Mediterranean. In Bulgaria the continental climate prevails. The summers are hot, the winters cold; and the rainfall, although distributed throughout the year, is heaviest in summer. Temperature ranges from the mean minimum of 26° in January to the mean maximum of 74° in July; rainfall ranges from the mean minimum of 1.24 inches in October to 3.4 inches in May.

In Greece, south of the Rhodope, the Mediterranean climate prevails especially along the Aegean coastal areas. The summers are hot, the winters mild. The rainfall is in the winter, and very seldom during the dry summers. Temperature ranges from the mean minimum of 41° in January to the mean maximum of 80° in July; rainfall ranges from the mean minimum of .7 inches in July to 3.4 inches in February. As might be expected, considerable snow falls in the mountain areas.

D. Political Geography

The Bulgaria–Greece boundary is as intertangled in political geography as any boundary in the Balkans. Throughout history, the boundary area has been exposed to

multitudinous internal and external influences, giving rise to the general impression of the entire Balkan Peninsula as one of continuous turmoil. Like the Bulgaria–Turkey¹ and the Greece–Turkey² boundaries, the Bulgaria–Greece boundary centers on control of the key landbridge connecting Europe and Asia. Today the main land and rail routes from northwestern Europe via Belgrade and Sofia (e.g., Orient Express) follow the Maritsa valley through Plovdiv (Philippopolis), Edirne (Adrianople), and cross the Straits to Asia. This same route brings to mind pre-World War I international rivalries and intrigue relating to the "Berlin to Baghdad Railway." The strategic importance of the region, therefore, involves not only the interests of all countries in the vicinity but also the rival interest of the Great Powers.

1. Early History

In early classical times the boundary area was in great measure Hellenic in character and dominated by Greece. In the fifth century B.C., at the height of classical Greece, most of the Balkan Peninsula, including the Black Sea region, was occupied by Greeks. Less than two centuries later, the boundary region itself became the locale from which Philip of Macedon³ commenced the conquest of the Greek City-States on the Aegean Peninsula and later his son Alexander conquered Asia minor and the Near East.

In the first century A.D., the boundary area was a part of the Roman Empire which controlled the entire Balkan Peninsula. During nearly three centuries of Roman rule the area prospered until large numbers of "barbarians" assaulted the frontier outposts of the Empire. The strategic site at the confluence of three rivers (Arda, Maritsa, and Tunca) was recognized by the Roman Emperor Hadrian (117–138) who founded the city of Hadrianopolis to control access to land routes in all directions.

Although the defeat of the "barbarians" in the historic battle of Adrianople (Edirne) in 378 A.D. was a major victory in Rome's struggle to maintain the empire's frontier on the Danube River, the entire Balkan region was soon occupied by Gothic and other Teutonic tribes. Great Slavic invasions commenced in the sixth century. Crossing the Danube, they later occupied the entire Balkans in such numbers as to give a Slavic character to the Peninsula.

The Bulgars, believed to have arrived in the area about the same time as the Slavs, gradually merged with the Slavic peoples. By 670 A.D. the Bulgars established themselves south of the Danube around Varna. While conquering, they were absorbed by the more numerous Slavs; they adopted Slavic culture and language but retained the Bulgar name and political organization.

Until the Turkish conquests of the Balkans in the fourteenth century, the fate of Bulgaria varied according to the relative strengths and weaknesses of its rulers, and that of the Byzantine Empire headquartered at Constantinople. The division of the Roman Empire

¹ IBS No. 49, Bulgaria–Turkey Boundary, May 15, 1965.

² IBS No. 41, Greece–Turkey Boundary, November 23, 1964.

³ After whom Philippopolis, now Plovdiv, was named.

between west and east in the fourth century, together with the ascendancy of the Eastern or Byzantine half, led to increasing Greek, as opposed to Latin, political and cultural influences. In this respect the very closeness of the boundary area to Constantinople, the "new Rome," favored Greek over Bulgar, Slavic, and other political and cultural interests. Thus within the varied twists in politics and society and especially in the upper echelons of civil and church authority, Greek influence predominated.

2. Ottoman Period

The Ottoman Turks crossed the Dardanelles about the middle of the fourteenth century to commence an energetic campaign against the declining Byzantine Empire. Adrianople, a key city on the landbridge, captured in 1361, became the Ottoman capital. Plovdiv (Philippopolis) was taken in 1364, and Sofia in 1382. In 1389, the Turks defeated the Serbs, their Rumanian allies, as well as the Bulgarians, bringing the entire area of the present Bulgaria–Greece boundary under Ottoman control.

Most of northern and eastern Greece and the entire Balkan area was captured before the fall of Constantinople in 1453. In 1456, Sultan Muhammad II captured Athens and Attica, deposing the Venetian rulers who had previously defeated the Frankish conquerors.

The first centuries of Ottoman rule were preferable to the feudal rule of the westerners whose early enthusiasm for the Jerusalem Crusades led to hostility between Latin (western) and Greek (eastern) Christianity. By the fifteenth century, two hundred years of Frankish, Venetian, and other western domination resulted in such bitterness among Orthodox Greeks to make Muslims seem more welcome than the Catholics of Rome.

It is not necessary here to delve into the ramifications of the rise and fall of Ottomanism and of Great Power Rivalries in the Balkans. Suffice to say that the Greek War of Liberation began in 1821 and was supposedly terminated by the Treaty of London of July 1827, which prescribed independence. However, it was not until Russian armies almost reached Constantinople that the Sultan formally accepted Greek independence in the Treaty of Adrianople in September 1829.

After prolonged debate, the London Convention of May 7, 1832, confirmed an independent Kingdom of Greece under the protection of Great Britain, France, and Russia. The Convention also delimited the boundary to include the entire Peloponnesus (the minimum area debated) in Greece and a northern boundary extending from the Gulf of Volos on the Aegean Sea westward to the Gulf of Ambracia (Amvrakikos).

The later years of the 19th and the early 20th century, despite episodes of internal quiescence, were years of increasing agitation. Both within Greek and in other Balkan regions, nationalist forces of all colors, the European Powers, and adventurers of all sorts competed and cooperated in raising banners of liberation against the "decaying and corrupt" Ottoman Empire. The fact that high "moral purpose" went hand in hand

with territorial acquisition was fortunate but did not deter the switching of sides, "joining with the devil," or jockeying for gain at the expense of an ally.

Bulgaria remained under Turkish domination until the Russo–Turkish Wars of 1877–78 when Russian forces advanced to Chatalja near the Bosphorus. Bulgaria then became an autonomous tributary of the Turkish Sultan. While the Powers at the Congress of Berlin in 1878 limited the expansive proportions that Russia desired ceded to Bulgaria in the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878), the Treaty of Berlin (July 13, 1878) established a compact state of Bulgaria extending from the Balkan Mountains to the Danube River. Bulgaria's subject status under the Ottoman Sultan remained.

As for Greece, the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) ignored territorial claims in northern Greece, in favor of the interests of creating "Greater Bulgaria" with access to the Mediterranean and practically the whole of Macedonia included. Nor did the Congress of Berlin in upsetting "San Stefano" satisfy Greek demands beyond an injunction to Sultan 'Abd al-Hamid II to seek an agreement with Greek King George for the modification of the Greek frontier. This was finally done in 1881 when Greece acquired most of Thessalia (Thessaly) and a part of Epirus, thereby extending the Greek boundary from the southern slopes of Mt. Olympus in the east to the Arachtos (Arakhtos) river in the west.

3. The Balkan Wars

Political and territorial change quickened in the years preceding World War I. Within Ottoman Turkey, there was increasing demand for governmental reform. In Bulgaria and other Balkan provinces the growing forces of nationalism and independence, accelerated by increasing European power rivalries, were leading toward warfare. In 1908, Bulgarian Prince Ferdinand, taking advantage of the Young Turk revolution and Austro–Hungarian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina which rendered the Turkish Porte temporarily powerless, proclaimed himself Czar of independent Bulgaria.

As in Greece, Bulgaria's independence whetted and magnified memories of the Bulgarian Empire in medieval times. During the summer of 1912, a secret treaty between Bulgaria and Serbia, followed by similar agreements with Greece and Montenegro, committed the Balkan Allies to drive Turkey out of the Balkans. Arrangements were made while Turkey was at war with Italy (1911–1912), a war which ended with Turkey enfeebled. Disorder and agitation in Macedonia and Thrace increased. In October the Balkan Allies presented joint demands to Turkey for reforms in Macedonia, which were unacceptable. Turkey then declared war on Bulgaria and Serbia on October 17, 1912. On October 18 Greece declared war on Turkey; this marked the beginning of the First Balkan War. Shortly thereafter the Bulgarian Army took Mustapha Pasha (Sevilengrad) and Kirk Kilissee (Kirklareli), and in March 1913 captured Adrianople itself. The Turkish army retreated to within twenty-five miles of Constantinople, reducing European Turkey to the Chatalja and Gallipoli peninsulas. The Greek Army, also successful, captured Salonika on the Aegean and Janina not far from the Albania border and also acquired Crete, Samos, and other islands.

The success of the Balkan League countries quickly exposed their separate and conflicting ambitions; these became readily apparent in the Bulgaria–Greece boundary area. For example, Salonika was claimed by Bulgaria, Greece, and Serbia. Bulgaria's claims, included in the earlier secret agreements, were quickly frustrated by the Serbs and the Greeks who, alarmed by Bulgarian successes, turned against their former ally. As a result, Bulgaria attacked the Serbian and Greek armies along the Macedonian frontier in June. Thereupon began the short but intense Second Balkan War, in which Turkey joined Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania against Bulgaria. With Bulgaria fighting on nearly all fronts, Turkey recaptured Adrianople easily. An armistice took place in July and a Treaty of Peace was signed at Bucharest on August 10, 1913, between Bulgaria and her former Allies.

Territorial changes between Bulgaria and Greece as a result of the Treaty of Bucharest delimited the Bulgaria–Greece boundary from the Strumitsa (Struma) area in an easterly direction for some distance, thence in a southerly direction to the Aegean Sea, coinciding with the Mesta (Nestos) River in its lower course. Bulgaria's long vaunted claim to an outlet on the Aegean was limited to about a seventy mile strip between the Mesta and Maritsa rivers.

4. World War I

The obvious outcome of the Balkan Wars was deep bitterness and intense desire for vengeance manifested by the Balkan States. Bulgaria found its chance to retaliate in World War I, by siding with Turkey and the other Central Powers in October 1915. Confining her military operations to the Greek and Serbian frontiers, Bulgaria became the thoroughfare between the Danube and the Bosphorus for German reinforcements to Turkey. In October 1918 Bulgaria was defeated following the final Balkan drive of the Allied Armies.

The Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, November 27, 1919, which ended Bulgaria's part in World War I, delimited the entire Bulgaria–Greece boundary as presently demarcated. As a result, Bulgaria was cut off from the Aegean. An economic outlet in the form of transit rights through Thrace to the Aegean was ensured by the Allied and Associated Powers. The conditions of the guarantee were to be fixed at a later date. However, when the subject was raised in the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, Bulgaria rejected the offer of transit rights at the port of Dedeagatch (Alexandroupolis) as inadequate.

E. Ethnography

Throughout history the ethnographic description of the boundary area has been exceedingly complex. Constant exposure to the tangled political rivalries, the jumbled topography, and the area's location astride ancient land routes have influenced the varied convolutions of the human landscape. Any attempt toward objectivity in describing the demographic pattern of the region requires qualification as to time, specific location, and political interest.

1. In Ancient Times

In ancient times the region was inhabited by Illyrians and Thracians. The Hellenes occupied much of the Aegean Peninsula to the south, especially the maritime locations. No doubt other Indo-European and probably some Asiatic racial elements can also be identified. The varied ethnic elements converged in the general area of Macedonia which, although ill-defined, included the boundary area and parts of the Vardar–Morava river valleys in present day Yugoslavian territory. Whatever the historical merit of whether the Macedonians were Hellenes or not, the entire boundary area was Hellenic in character in the fourth century B.C. during the reign of Alexander the Great.

The great Slavic immigrations which took place in increasing numbers from the third through the seventh centuries probably absorbed the Thraco–Illyrians. The Bulgars, although reluctant to concede that Slavs preceded them, are known to have settled south of the Danube in the seventh century. Like the Huns and the Avars who preceded them (Goths and other Teutons also preceded them), and like the Magyars and the Turks who followed them, the Bulgars, classified as Turanian, Mongol, or Tatar, are of Ural–Altaic origin.

2. The Ottoman Period

Following the Ottoman Turkish crossing of the Straits in the 14th century and the conquest of the Balkans, the Ottoman social and political pattern was imprinted on the ethnographic map. During five centuries of Ottoman rule, the map included Bulgar, Greek, Turk, Serb, Macedonian, Gypsies, Vlachs, Armenians, Russians, Jews, Albanians, Circasians, and others. The term "Balkanization" lends apt description to this ethnographic puzzle. Despite its complexity, however, society and politics, inseparable in Ottoman times, fitted an over-all pattern that could be described as an ethnic mosaic. This ethnic pattern is well known as the Millet (Turkish: people united by a common faith; fr. Arabic: Millah, creed) system.

While the Empire was in ascendancy, a steady migration of varied peoples from Asian lands moved into the Balkans and to the outer European boundaries of the Ottoman Empire. As the Empire declined the migrations reversed direction.

Population figures in Ottoman times vary considerably in validity and must be taken with a good measure of skepticism. However, the 1910 Census estimate for Bulgaria is as follows:

Total Population: 4,337,516			
Bulgars	3,203,810	Jews	37,663
Turks	488,010	Armenians	12,270
Rumanian	75,773	Germans	3,863
Gypsies	98,004	Russians	3,275
Greeks	63,487	Other	61,690
Pomaks	26,000		

At this time the number of Turks in the Arda, Maritsa, and the Tunca valleys and in eastern Rumelia was probably about half the total population.

Under the Turkish regime in Macedonia and western Thrace, no detailed statistics of population were kept. Serbs, Bulgars, Turks, Greeks, Vlachs, Albanians, Jews, and Gypsies all inhabited the area. An approximate estimate of the population about 1910 in the Macedonia area near the Vardar and the Mesta rivers is as follows:

Total Population: 1,140,000	
Greeks	250,000
Turks	250,000
Slavs	380,000 (includes Serbs and Bulgars)
Vlachs	150,000
Jews	110,000

The population in Western Thrace between the Mesta and the Maritsa (Evros) rivers may have been about 150,000 including 60,000 Greeks, 60,000 Turks, and 30,000 Bulgars.

3. The Present Scene

Two Balkan Wars (1912–1913), World War I, and the Greek–Turkish War (1919–1922) caused severe upheavals of population in the boundary area. This shifting across Balkan boundaries of varied ethnic groups all but erased the demographic pattern of Ottoman times. The scope of the migrations due to years of almost continuous conflict can be seen by citing some estimates. Probably about 200,000 Bulgars, Greeks, Turks, and others crossed international boundaries during the First Balkan War (1912–1913). With Bulgaria and Greece as Allies, thousands of Bulgars, Greeks, and other Turkish subjects were forced out of Turkish Thrace westward into Bulgarian, Greek, and Serbian held territories. Conversely, Turks, Pomaks (Turkified Muslims of Bulgar extraction), and other Muslims were forced out of Bulgaria, Serbian Macedonia, and Greece into Turkey. In the Second Balkan War (1913), with Bulgaria fighting against Greece and her former Balkan Allies, the movements again changed direction. This time Bulgars and Pomaks fled northward from Serbian and Greek Macedonia into Bulgaria; while Greeks, Serbs, and others migrated southward.

The migrations continued during World War I with Bulgaria siding with Germany and Turkey. Finally, a Convention concerning Reciprocal Emigration between Bulgaria and Greece in conjunction with the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, signed November 27, 1919, provided for the voluntary emigration of respective minorities. According to the figures of the Mixed Commission, 53,000 Bulgarians, in addition to 39,000 who left Greece earlier, availed themselves of the agreement. The number of Greeks leaving Bulgaria after World War I was listed as 46,000, amounting to practically the entire Greek minority at the time.

A more striking change in ethnic complexion took place as a result of the Greek–Turkish War (1919–1922) following Turkey's signing of the World War I armistice in 1918.⁴ The defeat of the Greek armies in Anatolia and the consequent expulsion of thousands of Greeks from the Smyrna (Izmir) area led to an agreement to exchange population between Greece and the new Turkish Republic. Smyrna was said to have had a Greek population of 375,000; Athens then had a population of 168,000.

The population exchange, one of the most remarkable of its kind, was embodied as a Convention and included in the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923. Upwards of one million Greek refugees left Turkey; about 400,000 Turkish refugees left Greece. Most of the Greeks were settled in the Macedonian and Thracian areas acquired as a result of the Balkan Wars. Thus, in addition to the population explosion, Greece homogenized the Bulgarian boundary area, which in effect "settled" the "Macedonian Question" for Greece by eliminating what was formerly a heterogeneous population.

The total population of Greece as of the census estimate of 1963 is 8,548,000. The estimate for Western Thrace totals 356,555 as of the 1960 census. The latter figure includes about 95,000 Muslims, of whom Turks number about 65,000 and Pomaks about 25,000.

The population of the First Order administrative districts (Nomos) bordering the Bulgarian boundary as of the 1951 census is as follows:

<u>Nomos</u>	
Serrai	221,100
Drama	119,100
Xanthi	89,800
Rhodopi	104,800
Evros	<u>141,100</u>
Total	675,900

In Bulgaria, the population of the 1956 census estimate was:

Total Population: 7,613,709			
Bulgars	6,506,541	Russians	10,551
Turks	662,018	Greeks	7,500
Gypsies	197,865	Jews	6,029
Macedonians	187,789	Others	13,406
Armenians	22,000		

⁴ Op. cit., IBS No. 41, Greece–Turkey Boundary

The population as of 1963 of the four First Order administrative districts (Okrug) bordering the Greek boundary is as follows:

<u>Okrug</u>	
Blagoevgrad	304,700
Smolyan	151,400
Kurdzhali	281,900
Khaskovo	<u>296,200</u>
Total	1,034,200

The total population for all Bulgaria as of December 1963 given in the Bulgarian Yearbook is 8,111,100. A breakdown of population according to minorities is unavailable.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Bulgaria–Greece Boundary was last defined by the Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Bulgaria, signed at Neuilly-sur-Seine on November 27, 1919. With the exception of the fixing of the tripoint with Turkey, the boundary is as demarcated in 1921 by La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco–Bulgare in accordance with the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine. The entire boundary is essentially that formed by the Treaty of Bucharest, August 10, 1913, eastward to point 1587 (Dibikli)⁵ and again eastward along a newly drawn line to point 1295 on the Bulgarian–Turkish boundary of 1913 (Treaty of Constantinople) four kilometers north of Kuchuk Derbend⁶ where the boundary enters the Daoul stream; thence northward along the 1913 boundary to the Maritsa (Evros) River. The boundary then follows the principal course of the Maritsa downstream a distance of 9.5 miles to the Turkish tripoint prescribed in the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923, and finally fixed in the Maritsa River by a demarcation commission in 1926.

A Protocol annexed to Article V of the Treaty of Bucharest defined the boundary between Bulgaria and Greece as follows:

The frontier line begins on the ridge of Belasica Planina at the Bulgaro–Servian frontier; follows that ridge, then descends the ridge which is situated north of Iürükleri and extends to the confluence of the Struma and the Bistrice, runs up the Bistrice, then in an easterly direction to Cengané Kalesi (1500). Thence it extends to the crest of Ali Butus (No. 1650) and follows the dividing line of the waters, Nos. 1820, 1800, 713, and Stragac. Thence, continuing along the dividing line of the waters, it takes an easterly and then a north-easterly direction, following the dividing line of the waters between Nos. 715 and 660 and extending to Nos. 1150 and 1152, whence it follows the ridge east of the village of Rakisten, crosses the Mesta, runs toward the summit of Rusa and Zeleza, crosses the Despat

⁵ As shown on "Treaty Map."

⁶ As on "Treaty Map"; now known as Mikron Dherion.

(Rana) Suju and extends to Cuka. From this point it again follows the dividing line of the waters, passing through Sibkova, Cadirkaya (1750), Avlika Dag (1517), Kajin Cal (1811), Debikli (1587),...

The distance from the tripoint with Yugoslavia at Tumba mountain (marker #1) to marker #233 (point 1587) on Debikli⁷ mountain, along the 1913 line is 96.5 miles (155.7 kms).

The newly drawn line following the water divide "between the basin of the Maritsa on the north and the basins of the Mesta Karasu and the other rivers which flow directly into the Aegean Sea on the south; thence eastward to a point on the frontier of 1913 between Bulgaria and Turkey about 4 kilometers north of Kuchuk-Derbend,⁸...following the crest line forming the southern limit of the basin of the Akcehisar (Dzuma) Suju," is 153 miles (246.3 kms) in length. The Demarcation Commission of 1921 defined this portion of the boundary in two sectors, B1 and B2.

Sector B1 comprises 171 intervisible boundary pillars numbered consecutively from east to west following a distance of 87 miles (140 kms) from marker #1, located at altitude 1054 meters, about 2000 meters west of the summit of Kartal Dag (Gr: Papikion Oros) to the junction with the old 1913 Bulgaria–Greece boundary at Dibikli. Sector B2 consists of 182 intervisible markers, commencing from the same point (#1, Kartal Dag) and following from west to east a distance of 66 miles (106.3 kms) to the Daoul stream.⁹

The boundary thence follows northward along the old 1913 Bulgaria–Turkey boundary to the Maritsa River, partly on land and partly on water a distance of 47.5 miles (76.7 kms). This segment of the boundary is demarcated by 187 boundary markers numbered from 320 to 321A fixed on both banks of the Maritsa, following southward to markers numbered 506, 507, and 508 located at the confluence of the Kizil Deli Dere (Stream) with the Daoul Dere (Stream) at which point the 1913 boundary joins the 1919 boundary on the Daoul Dere.

The Treaty of Constantinople between Bulgaria and Turkey, September 29, 1913, defined the boundary from the Maritsa southward to the new 1919 (Treaty of Neuilly) Bulgaria–Greece boundary as follows:

... from there (the Maritsa) arrives in a straight line at Cermen–Déré, north of the railway bridge (Cermen–Déré is the stream which flows into the Maritza three kilometers east of the village Cerman) and then, passing around Cermen on the north, goes to Tazi-Tépézi. The frontier leaves Cermen to Turkey and, following the course of Cermen–Déré, crosses the railway line northwest of Cermen; it still follows the same stream and rises to Tazi-Tépézi (hill 613). (The point where Cermen-Déré crosses the railway line, northwest of Cermen, is five kilometers

⁷ On "Treaty Map."

⁸ Mikron Dherion.

⁹ Unnamed in the Treaty of Constantinople.

away from the center of the village Cermen and three thousand two hundred meters from the western end of the Mustafa-Pacha bridge.)

The frontier leaves the highest point of Tazi-Tépési in Ottoman territory, and starting from this point follows the line of separation of the waters of the Arda and of the Maritza, passing near the villages Yayladjik and Gjuldjuk (Goldzik), which rest in Ottoman territory.

Starting from Goldzik the frontier passes over hill 449 and then to hill 367, and, from this hill, goes southward in almost a straight line towards the Arda. This straight line passes one kilometer west of Kektachli, which remains in Ottoman territory.

The frontier line, after reaching the Arda from hill 367, follows the right bank of the Arda and comes to the mill which is one kilometer south of the village of Tchingirli; from this mill it follows the line of the watershed east of Gadjohor-Déré; it passes one kilometer east of the village Gadjohor and, leaving the village of Drébisna to Bulgaria and passing about one kilometer east of this village, descends to Atéren-Déré one kilometer south of this village; thence it goes in a southwesterly direction, by the shortest route, to the source of the stream which flows between the villages Akalan and Kajliklikeuy and follows the thalweg of this waterway down to the river Kizil-Déli.

Starting from this stream the frontier, leaving Gotch-Bounar in Bulgaria, follows the course of the Kizil-Déli-Déré and thence, following the thalweg of the stream which branches off towards the south¹⁰...

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

The following treaties and other acts pertain directly to the present Bulgaria-Greece boundary:

A. Treaty of Peace between Bulgaria and Roumania, Greece, Montenegro and Serbia, signed at Bucharest July 28/August 10, 1913.

Protocol annexed to Article V of the Treaty of Bucharest, defined the frontier between Bulgaria and Greece.

The Treaty of Bucharest ended the Second Balkan War between Bulgaria and her former Allies of the First Balkan War.

B. Treaty of Peace Between Bulgaria and Turkey, signed at Constantinople September 16/29, 1913.

¹⁰ The Daoul Dere (stream)

Article I defines the Bulgaria–Turkey frontier including that part of the boundary which became the Bulgaria–Greece boundary in accordance with the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, 1919.

The Treaty of Constantinople ended the Second Balkan War between Bulgaria and Turkey.

C. Treaty of Peace Between the Allied and Associated Powers and Bulgaria, signed at Neuilly-sur-Seine, November 27, 1919.

Article 27, defines the frontiers of Bulgaria.

Article 28, prescribed the 1:1,000,000 map to be attached to the Treaty, as the official "Treaty Map" and specified its limitations.

Article 29, defines the composition and the responsibilities of the Boundary Commission.

This Treaty defined the Bulgarian–Greece boundary according to the Treaty of Bucharest, 1913, and along a newly drawn line subsequently attributed by the Allied and Associated Powers to Greece, thence along the 1913 line, Treaty of Constantinople, to a point along the Maritsa River.

D. The 1:1,000,000 scale map "Bulgarie".

The official "Treaty Map" as annexed to the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine.

E. La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare, Sofia, 1922.

This commission established according to the Treaty of Neuilly delimited and demarcated the entire Bulgaria–Greece boundary in 1921.

F. Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and various Allied Powers, signed at Lausanne, July 24, 1923.

The Treaty of Lausanne defined the tripoint with Turkey which finally was fixed on the Maritsa River by the Greece–Turkey demarcation commission in 1926.

G. Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1947.

This treaty confirmed all Bulgarian frontiers "which existed on 1 January 1941."

V. SUMMARY

The Bulgaria–Greece boundary is 307 miles (494 kms) in length, comprises 257 miles (414 kms) on land and 49 miles (80 kms) on water. The entire boundary is demarcated; 674 intervisible boundary pillars are erected on the segments on land. The Treaty of

Paris, February 10, 1947, confirmed all Bulgarian frontiers "which existed on 1 January 1941." There are no active disputes regarding the specific alignment of the boundary.

Shortly after World War II communist guerrilla warfare in Greece resulted in considerable boundary violation and other excess. In December 1953, a Greek–Bulgarian Frontier Commission awarded a group of disputed islets in the middle of the Maritsa (Evros) river to Greece. Recently, a joint communique issued on September 29, 1964, following the termination of an official visit of the Greek Foreign Minister to Sofia, cited a statement by the Bulgarian Premier that "all territorial claims are excluded forever." It would seem, therefore, that boundary friction which has persisted so much in the past, if not "excluded forever," is eliminated for the present.

Location of the boundary markers are shown on Sheets 1A–7A, 1B1–8B1, 1B2–6B2, and 14C–19C of La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare, 1:25,000, prepared by the official Boundary Commission of 1921. For a large scale depiction of the boundary, this series is recommended. A reasonably accurate representation of the boundary is found on Army Map Service 1:250,000 scale (Series M-501) Sheets NK 34–9, NK 35–7, and (Series K 502) Sheet NK 35–8. A small-scale depiction of the boundary is found on Army Map Service 1:1,000,000 scale (Series 1301) Sheet NK 34 and Sheet NK 35 which also includes the Bulgaria–Turkey and Greece–Turkey boundaries.

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