

REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

-France-

“In Paris... I saw society cut into two: those who possessed nothing, united in a common greed; those who possessed something, united in a common terror.”



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REVOLUTIONS OF 1848.....	1
-France-.....	1
.Letter from Deputy Secretary General.....	3
Introduction to the Committee.....	4
Reason and Revolution.....	5
Political and the Social Background of the Country.....	6
Europe’s Experience of the Wave of Revolutions Throughout 1848.....	7
The Potential Impact of Foreign Powers on the Revolution's Outcome.....	8
Tension Between Social Classes and their Respective Prospects.....	8
The Continuum of the July Revolution.....	9
The New Government of 1848 Constituent National Assembly.....	11
Feast Concord in 21 May 1848.....	11
France’s participation in the Metternich system after the Congress of Vienna and the reemergence of Absolutism.....	12
Men of the provisional government.....	13
Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte.....	14
Reforms of Bonaparte.....	17
Character List:.....	18
Keywords:.....	22

.Letter from Deputy Secretary General.

Valuable Guests, Honourable Members of the Academy and Distinguished Delegates,

With pride and joy, I welcome you all to the latest iteration of the decade-surpassing tradition of Kabataş MUN. For this edition we have refurbished numerous committees, all of which present the highest caliber academic experience. Furthermore, throughout this experience we have strived to facilitate innovation as a Model UN Conference. While exhibiting our unique offerings, our aim was always being an exemplar and inspiration for the upstarts and the ‘Freshmen’ of the Community at large. This wouldn’t have been possible if it weren’t for the relentless exertions of our assiduous members of our Academy Team working in harmony with our ever meticulous Organization, for this symbiosis is what enables us to be so confident in ourselves. Most importantly though, I would like to thank and declare my content for my compatriots, Ece and Ayşe as we share the opportunity to constitute this year's Secretariat. Finally, as the final offering to the altar of the legacy of Kabataş MUN family, I announce my gratitude to our precedents who brought us up on the stairwell of our journey.

My crown jewel, among the vast array of Committees we offer, is though must be this one-of-a-kind JCC, for which I and my venerable Head of Crisis Ela have toiled to gather the perfect team, deliberated to create the best harmony among our ranks and experimented on many previous occasions for this final act. Overarching our vocational experience was only our passion for academic excellence and obsession of historical accuracy as we studied the Spring of Nations from many books, from differing perspectives of nations and the diverging lenses of paradigms.

I was lucky enough to be gifted with the priceless camaraderie of 3 of my hard working Under-Secretary Generals, each tasked with the specialty of one of three partitions of cabinets and I was lucky enough to be working together with some of the best minds of the vocation of crisis, as my Crisis Team members. Finally, for my Academic Assistants, as they come in an array of experience but each passionate as one another, I can only thank them for their additions and care for detail.

To further establish an understanding of our design, I will continue to explain the layout of our projection. We have dissected this hexagonal entanglement into three partitions of cabinets in accordance with their relevance to the broader environment during the epoch of the Springtime of Nations. Furthermore we allow and encourage you, as the delegates, to converse, with different cabinets and seek alliances while settling disputes for the greater cause of your agenda.

If you wish to prosper, and ascend to prominence, or to preserve your position in political relevancy; then you shall toil under the pressure of time, with pen and steel at hand, gunpowder and eloquence in your breath.

— Efe Mehmet Gıdır

Introduction to the Committee

The Revolution of 1848 occurred in reaction to the quash of liberal riots in 1830, which arose against the system, established by conservative states of Europe in the 1815 Vienna Congress. Main impulses of the revolutions are especially intensifying of demands related to liberalize of the trade at the end of rising of the production and in this context forming of proletariat, who hadn't got any social and political rights and trying to live in subsistence level in the big cities of the Europe. That means, the conservative administration style, which remained from old times, couldn't keep up with the changes, occurred in the social and economic life of the new term, any more. So, we can refer to the revolution of 1848 as the riot of the mercantile class, who demands liberalization of trade and the proletariat, who demands social and political rights. These two classes, who had different motivations, had collaborated for reaching their goals in a short period. But their interests resolved within the process and demands of the proletariat became the main impulse of the revolutions.

These revolution movements spread to almost all the countries of Europe and the conservative regimes of these countries had been forced to accept revolutionaries' some main demands, especially in social and political areas (right to elect and be elected, constitutional monarchy, human rights etc.). But the revolution attempts failed because of differentiation of demands of mercantile class and proletariat as mentioned above and the rioters hadn't got such a riot experience before. However, most of the thoughts' and practices' principles, which are the main principles of modern social and political structure, had been founded by the revolutions of 1848 (nationalism, socialism, liberal trade, constitution, democracy, human rights, right to elect and be elected, freedom of press etc.)

These movements led to unification of Germany and Italy, First and Second World Wars, forming of two rival economic systems (Capitalism and Socialism) and the Cold War. In other words, the results of the revolution directly affected the forming of modern political systems and institutions.

In this context, we will try to evaluate reasons of the revolution of 1848 in the first part, development of the revolution on the basis of the European countries in the second part, conclusions of the revolutions in the third part and contribution of the revolutions to the modern political mentality in the conclusion part within the frame of our study.

Reason and Revolution

The years leading up to the July Revolution of 1848 in France were characterized by a series of economic crises and social unrest across Europe. The period from the early 1840s through the late 1850s witnessed a range of economic difficulties, with 1845–47 emerging as particularly challenging years due to poor harvests, trade cycle downturns, and financial panics. The failure of basic food supplies in 1845–47 triggered famine and hunger riots throughout Europe, exacerbating social tensions. The high grain prices during this period led to decreased demand for manufactured goods and services, resulting in widespread unemployment and economic downturns. Furthermore, the grim conditions faced by industrial workers, including long working hours and poor living standards, fueled socialist and revolutionary sentiments. The revolution of 1848 was not merely a social upheaval; it was the rising of the urban laboring poor demanding a new state and society. These economic and social factors, combined with the consolidation of liberal and nationalist movements, created a volatile environment ripe for revolutionary change.

The widespread anticipation of revolution across Europe, fueled by economic hardship and social discontent, ultimately culminated in the explosive events of 1848. The atmosphere of revolutionary fervor was pervasive, with Victor Hugo famously remarking in 1831 that he already heard the "dull sound of revolution" echoing beneath the surface of Europe. By 1847, this anticipation was palpable, and in 1848, the explosion of revolution was inevitable. The period preceding the July Revolution of 1848 in France was fraught with economic turmoil and social discontent that reverberated across Europe. Beginning in the early 1840s and extending through the late 1850s, a succession of economic crises rocked the continent. However, it was the years 1845–47 that emerged as particularly dire, marked by a trifecta of challenges: dismal harvests, trade recessions, and financial panics. These adversities triggered widespread famine and hunger riots, notably in Ireland, Flanders, and Silesia, further exacerbating the already strained social fabric. The failure of essential food supplies in 1845–47 unleashed a cascade of consequences, as grain prices soared, diminishing the populace's purchasing power for other goods and services. Consequently, unemployment surged, particularly in urban industrial centers, where laborers endured grueling workdays and abysmal living conditions. The plight of the industrial working class, coupled with the growth of socialist and revolutionary ideologies, added fuel to the revolutionary fire. As the specter of revolution loomed large across Europe, fueled by economic distress and simmering social discontent, the stage was set for the explosive events of 1848. This anticipation of upheaval was not confined to France alone; it permeated the continent, with Victor Hugo's prescient words in 1831 capturing the sense of inevitability: the "dull sound of revolution" rumbling beneath the surface. By 1847, this anticipation had reached a crescendo, and in 1848, revolution erupted, reshaping the political landscape of Europe.

Political and the Social Background of the Country

The Great Famine in France, while terrible, resulted in enormous social, economic, and political reforms. Socially, the famine increased awareness of socioeconomic deficiencies and encouraged greater cooperation among the working class and country farmers. The suffering caused by the famine promoted movements encouraging social justice and measures to reduce poverty and inequality. Furthermore, efforts to address the suffering of the starving ended in increasing philanthropy and philanthropic projects aimed at assisting people in need.

On the other hand; politically, famine caused calls for political reform and expanded government involvement in settling social and economic concerns. The populace's suffering suggested the flaws of current political institutions, increasing calls for more representation and accountability. These opinions encouraged the growth of radical political movements calling for democracy, social equality, and workers' rights. Beyond that, the government's response to the famine, or lack thereof, shaped popular views of the ruling regime and produced rage with established authorities.

The working class in France experienced numerous social and economic difficulties during the nineteenth century, reflecting broader trends in European industry and urbanization. The working class, which included urban laborers, craftsmen, and rural peasants, faced significant social gaps and insecure living conditions as French society rapidly transformed. Economically, industrialization caused considerable changes in the labor market, with the growth of factories and mechanized manufacturing, resulting in labor concentration in urban areas. However, this change created terrible working conditions, long hours, and low earnings for industrial workers, becoming worse poverty and inequality. Further added to the instability of the economy was the agriculture sector, which many rural peasants depended on and which faced difficulties like tenancy, landlessness, and shifting market prices. Politically, the working class felt itself isolated and isolated within the current political structure. The July Monarchy, established in 1830 upon the July Revolution, failed to solve the working class's social and economic problems, leading to growing discontent and anger with the occupying authority. Under King Louis-Philippe, the monarchy supported the interests of the capitalists and elite, therefore causing existing inequities and neglecting the concerns of the general public. As a result, demands for political change and increased representation connected with the working class, who aimed dealing with established power structures and demand social justice.

Although the revolution was first welcomed with excitement, the goals of the lower classes were not entirely accomplished. The subsequent ascent to power of Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte and the establishment of his authoritarian government crushed prospects for significant social change and preserved the status quo of working-class exploitation and elite supremacy.

Europe's Experience of the Wave of Revolutions Throughout 1848

The wave of revolutions that raced over Europe in 1848 was a turning point in the continent's political history, ushering in an era of unprecedented confusion and political instability. From France to Hungary, Italy to Germany, and beyond, the 1848 revolutions were marked by a common yearning for political reform, social equality, and national emancipation. Politically, these revolutions were fueled by a variety of motivations, including unhappiness with authoritarian administrations, calls for constitutional democracy, and desires for national unification.

In France, the February Revolution of 1848 overthrew the July Monarchy and established the Second Republic, ushering in a brief period of political experimentation and social transformation. However, the republic eventually failed due to internal disputes and political instability, culminating in the ascent of Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte to power and the foundation of the Second French Empire. Likewise, in other regions of Europe, the 1848 revolutions tried to challenge entrenched power systems and demand increased democratic rights and liberties. In Germany, revolutionary movements wanted to unite dispersed areas and establish a constitutional monarchy, but in Italy, nationalists battled for independence from foreign domination and the formation of a unified state.

In Hungary, revolutionaries desired independence from the Austrian Empire as well as increased recognition of Hungarian national identity. Despite their initial momentum and extensive popular support, several of these revolutionary groups eventually failed to achieve their objectives. The 1848 revolutions were distinguished by internal divides, outsider intervention, and revolutionary governments' incapacity to govern successfully and sustain stability. Furthermore, conservative

The Potential Impact of Foreign Powers on the Revolution's Outcome

Given the complex political circumstances of the day, foreign countries had the ability to have a substantial influence on how the French Revolution of 1848 turned out. Neighboring powers, each with its own political and strategic concerns, expressed both alarm and interest in the French revolution within the larger European environment. The political environment of Europe in the middle of the 19th century was shaped by conflicting interests and alliances, creating a precarious power balance. Many European kingdoms were fearful of revolutionary upheaval and determined to maintain their distinct monarchies and domains of influence following the Napoleonic Wars. Meanwhile, nationalist enthusiasm and social unrest drove the spread of revolutionary ideas throughout the continent, challenging the current situation system. Foreign nations kept a careful eye on French events and worked to stop the spread of the revolutionary movement, especially conservative monarchies like Austria, Prussia, and Russia. They were tempted to interfere in French affairs in order to protect their interests because they feared that the revolution may spark similar instability within their own countries. Military intervention was one way that foreign countries might influence the result of the revolution. Fearing for their lives from the revolutionary unrest in France, these authorities debated using force to impose order and put an end to revolutionary movements. For instance, Austria, Prussia, and Russia established the Holy Alliance, a conservative alliance designed to uphold monarchy and quell revolutionary aspirations throughout Europe.

Diplomatic concerns and internal conflicts among the European countries hindered the prospect of direct military intervention in France.

Foreign nations also attempted to influence French affairs through diplomatic channels, utilizing their international alliances and diplomatic corps to do so. They might have attempted to mediate diplomatic resolutions to the situation or extended financial or political support to groups that shared their objectives. For instance, Britain was cautious of revolutionary excesses and worked to advance stability through diplomatic involvement even if it typically supported liberal changes. Foreign nations may also have an indirect impact on the outcome of the revolution by giving exiled political personalities or dissidents in France safety or assistance. These people might then start opposition movements or try to get backing from other countries, which could increase France's internal political issues.

Tension Between Social Classes and their Respective Prospects

In 1848, France had to be faced with a social tension between the social classes and the respective prospects. These tensions stemmed from the vast differences in income, privilege, and opportunity that characterized French society at the period. The upper class, which included the aristocracy, landed gentry, and bourgeoisie, possessed enormous wealth, political power, and social standing. They controlled a large portion of the land, held key positions in government and industry, and lived lavishly and extravagantly. However, their affluence was frequently based on the exploitation of the lower classes, who worked in factories, mines, and fields under brutal conditions for pitiful pay. In contrast, the lower classes, who included urban laborers, rural peasants, and artisans, experienced severe economic suffering, social isolation, and political disenfranchisement. Living in crowded buildings or desolate rural areas, many people found it difficult to make ends meet and had little chance of improving their situation or going up the social ladder. They also had to put up with harsh working conditions, long hours, and little pay, which caused a great deal of unhappiness and animosity toward the ruling class. These tensions began to surface during the 1848 revolution, when the lower classes organized to demand social and political change and rebel against their oppressors. The working class's complaints and demand for more rights and representation served as a major catalyst for the February Revolution, which resulted in the toppling of King Louis-Philippe and the founding of the Second Republic.

The Continuum of the July Revolution

A growing number of people against French King Louis-Philippe I's reign emerged in the revolutionary year of 1848. In his early years as the "Citizen King" of the July Monarchy, Louis-Philippe worked to quell radical uprisings while balancing liberal reforms with bourgeois concerns. Radical republicans and the working class, however, were more displeased with his administration due to its perceived bias towards the rich elite and its inability to solve socioeconomic issues. The main components of Louis-Philippe's revolution approach to management were repression and concessions. He first made modest adjustments, like firing unpopular ministers and announcing plans for election reform, in an effort to appease demonstrators. But these actions did not address the root causes of disappointment, nor did they meet the demands of the revolutionary movements.

The July Monarchy is marked by the triumph of the wealthy bourgeoisie, a return to Napoleonic influence and colonial expansion. Louis-Philippe is known as the "citizen king" because of his bourgeois manners and clothes, but his reign proves differently. Although Louis-Philippe's government revised the Constitutional Charters of 1814, it is still generally unresponsive to the needs of lower class citizens. Legitimists and Bonapartists, in addition to revolutionary leftists, begin to oppose the ruling government.

During the July Monarchy in 1848, King Louis-Philippe I ruled over France. After King Charles X was overthrown in the July Revolution of 1830, Louis-Philippe, also referred to as the "Citizen King," assumed authority. The liberal and bourgeois bent of the July Monarchy was evident, since Louis-Philippe presented himself as a constitutional monarch dedicated to modest changes. However, his reign was marked by increased social unrest, economic inequality, and political corruption. Discontent simmered beneath the surface despite promises of social development and constitutional rule, eventually leading to the February Revolution of 1848 and the overthrow of the July Monarchy.

The culmination of several occasions and underlying conflicts that had been building for years was the French July Revolution of 1848. During the Bourbon Restoration, which came about when Napoleon Bonaparte's empire crumbled, the seeds of discontent were planted. There was simmering discontent among the workers, intelligentsia, and bourgeoisie despite efforts to bring back the pre-revolutionary order. These tensions were made worse by King Charles X's increasingly authoritarian reign and attempts to undo liberal advances. The July Revolution was caused by his decision to enact the July Ordinances in 1830, which limited press freedom, eliminated the Chamber of Deputies, and curtailed suffrage.

The result of these massive demonstrations was the toppling of Charles X and the accession of Louis-Philippe, also known as the "Citizen King," to the throne.

The masses' demands, in particular those of the working class and radical republicans who favored more extensive social and political reforms, were not entirely met by Louis-Philippe's rule. Discontent among the public was further stoked by economic troubles that were made worse by a string of

economic downturns. Support for the monarchy declined as a result of the government's inaction on these complaints, corruption scandals, and a perceived bias in favor of the wealthy elite. The ascent of socialist and republican movements, including the July Monarchy, demonstrated the increasing yearning for transformation and established the foundation for the transpirations of 1848.

The moment of clarity occurred in February 1848 when demonstrators and government authorities engaged in violent altercations following a peaceful demonstration in Paris. The government's decision to forbid a banquet hosted by legislators who supported change was the spark that sparked the explosive keg. With barricades put up throughout the city and fierce street fighting, this incident—known as the February Revolution—quickly turned into a full-scale rebellion. With the July Monarchy coming to an end and a new phase of political unrest and revolutionary fervor in France commencing, Louis-Philippe abdicated the crown in response to growing pressure and fled to England.

The years between 1830 and 1848, when King Louis-Philippe I ruled France, are known as the July Monarchy. It all started with the July Revolution of 1830, which resulted in King Charles X's ouster and Louis-Philippe's installation as the head of a constitutional monarchy. As the "Citizen King" and an advocate of moderate reforms, Louis-Philippe epitomized the bourgeois and liberal mindset that defined the July Monarchy. However, the July Monarchy encountered difficulties like economic instability, social inequality, and political corruption despite early promises of constitutional rule and social advancement. These problems ultimately played a role in the February Revolution of 1848, which resulted in the foundation of France's Second Republic. After the July Revolution of 1830, King Louis-Philippe founded the July Monarchy, which ultimately collapsed for a variety of reasons. Although Louis-Philippe first presented himself as a constitutional monarch dedicated to liberal ideals, his reign came to be identified more and more with the bourgeois and elite's interests, ignoring the goals of the radical republicans and the working class. Economic inequality remained as a result of industrialization, which benefited the wealthy at the expense of workers' subpar working conditions and low pay. Corruption scandals have damaged the monarchy's image by undermining popular confidence and emphasizing its connections to the wealthy elite. Under the surface, social unrest was fuelled by perceived injustices and cyclical economic downturns. Growing discontent eventually stemmed by the failure of the monarchy to deal with these complaints and implement significant reforms, which ultimately led to the February Revolution of 1848 and the fall of the July Monarchy.

The New Government of 1848 Constituent National Assembly

Following the French Revolution of February 1848, which saw King Louis-Philippe overthrown and the Second Republic proclaimed, a new administration was constituted with the intention of enacting major political changes. The establishment of the Constituent National Assembly, an organization entrusted with writing a new constitution and creating the framework for the nascent republic, was essential to this process. Representatives chosen by universal male suffrage made up the Constituent National Assembly, which reflected the revolutionaries' desire for democracy. Establishing a structure for democratic administration that would attend to public grievances and guarantee political stability was its main goal. An important turning point in French history was the establishment of the Constituent National Assembly, which signified the end of the country's monarchical past and the beginning of a more inclusive and democratic system of governance. Its discussions and choices would influence the Second Republic's direction and set the stage for future developments in French democracy. The Constituent National Assembly set out to write a new constitution that would uphold the values of liberty, equality, and fraternity, led by individuals like Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, and Louis Blanc. The Assembly proceeded in trying to establish a democratic framework that would represent the goals of the revolution in the face of internal conflicts and external pressures, such as the prospect of counterrevolutionary violence and foreign intervention.

Feast of Concord in 21 May 1848

The Feast of Concord, observed on May 21, 1848, was a significant event conducted in France during the violent 1848 revolution. It was organized by the provisional government, which developed by the February Revolution that killed King Louis-Philippe and resulted in the declaration of the Second Republic. The Feast of Concord was created to encourage national unity and healing in the face of political unrest and social upheaval.

The gathering was held on the Champ de Mars in Paris and drew hundreds of people from many backgrounds. It included a spectacular banquet where representatives from many political factions, including republicans, socialists, and conservatives, dined together in a spirit of unity and solidarity.

The symbolism of breaking bread together was intended to emphasize the shared goals of the revolution and to foster a sense of unity among the French people.

The Feast of Concord was also accompanied by speeches and ceremonies aimed at promoting the principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity that were central to the republican ideals of the revolution. It served as a public demonstration of the provisional government's commitment to national reconciliation and democratic governance.

France's participation in the Metternich system after the Congress of Vienna and the reemergence of Absolutism

The Metternich system, named after Austrian statesman Klemens von Metternich, was a conservative political order that emerged in Europe after the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Following the catastrophic events of the Napoleonic Wars, the Congress of Vienna sought to reestablish stability and peace on the continent. Under Metternich's guidance, the system tried to crush revolutionary movements while upholding the principles of constitutionality, monarchy, and power balance among European governments. France's participation in the Metternich system following the Congress of Vienna was distinguished by its return to European diplomatic circles under the restored Bourbon monarchy. The Bourbon Restoration in France established a conservative rule that aligned with the Metternich system's ideals, attempting to maintain domestic order and stability while adhering to monarchist and conservative values in European affairs. France's membership in the Concert of Europe, a diplomatic framework established by the major nations to solve common concerns and prevent conflict, demonstrated its commitment to the Metternich system. Yet the resurgence of absolutism in France was brief. With efforts to protect conservative ideals and repress revolutionary feeling, the Bourbon monarchy faced internal and external opposition that eventually led to its demise. The July Revolution of 1830 ended in the deposition of King Charles X and the foundation of the July Monarchy under King Louis-Philippe. This signified a transition from absolutism to constitutional monarchy, reflecting France's ongoing legacy of revolutionary ideals as well as the limitations of conservative government in the face of popular discontent. The 1830 Revolutions strengthened liberalism in Europe, leading to the establishment of a constitutional monarchy in France and the expansion of rights and freedoms. The revolution spread across Europe, resulting in Belgium's separation from the Netherlands and declaration of independence, and in 1905, Sweden and Norway becoming two separate kingdoms. The 1848 Revolutions marked the collapse of the Metternich system.

Men of the Provisional Government

The provisional government has to be faced with a formidable and an insuperable situation conceived by the political confusion, social thrust and economic instability in the aftermath of February Revolutions in France.

Following a period of tremendous political and social unrest, the revolution culminated in the toppling of King Louis-Philippe and the foundation of the Second Republic.

The difficult responsibility of leading the country during this turbulent period of transition fell to the provisional administration, which was made up of a wide range of political factions, from moderate republicans to socialist and radical radicals. But the significant ideological differences among its members swiftly showed through in the fractures that soon developed inside the interim government, making it more difficult to implement cogent policies.

Concerns over the Republic's future course were among the main points of dispute among the temporary administration. Some members espoused more radical and socialist ideologies, calling for extensive reforms intended to address social inequality and empower the working class, while others supported a more conservative and moderate approach, hoping to establish a stable democratic order based on liberal principles.

Along with these urgent economic problems, the provisional government also had to deal with significant unemployment, financial instability, and poverty. Socioeconomic complaints had contributed to the revolution in part, and the new regime faced significant challenges in resolving these underlying issues. Insufficient resources of the government and conflicting demands impeded efforts to enact economic changes and relieve social distress.

Despite these internal divides and foreign threats, the temporary administration fought to exert its authority and keep control of the country. The streets of Paris continued to be a hive of public protest and political agitation as various factions fought for control and tried to direct the revolution in ways that suited their goals.

Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte, the nephew of previous Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte, rose to prominence in this volatile and unstable environment. Louis Napoleon positioned himself as a uniting figure capable of bringing stability and order back to France by taking advantage of the political vacuum and the popularity of his name.

His triumphant presidential campaign in December 1848 ultimately constituted a momentous shift in French politics, opening the door for his later consolidation of power and the creation of the Second French Empire.

Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte

Ever since the fall of Napoleon in 1815, a Bonapartist movement had existed in France, hoping to return Bonaparte to the throne. According to the law of succession established by Napoleon I, the claim passed first to his own son, declared "King of Rome" at birth by his father. This heir, known by Bonapartists as Napoleon II, was living in virtual imprisonment at the court of Vienna under the title Duke of Reichstadt. Next in line was Louis Napoleon's eldest uncle, Joseph Bonaparte, followed by Louis Bonaparte, but neither Joseph nor Louis had any interest in re-entering public life. When the Duke of Reichstadt died in 1832, Louis Napoleon became the de facto heir of the dynasty and the leader of the Bonapartist cause.

In exile with his mother in Switzerland, Louis Napoleon enrolled in the Swiss Army, trained to become an officer, and wrote a manual of artillery (his uncle Napoleon had become famous as an artillery officer). Louis Napoleon also began writing about his political philosophy—for as the early twentieth century English historian H. A. L. Fisher suggested, "the programme of the Empire was not the improvisation of a vulgar adventurer" but the result of deep reflection on Napoleonic political philosophy and on how to adjust it to the changed domestic and international scenes. As early as 1832 he presented a reconciliation between Bonapartism and republicanism through the principle of popular sovereignty. He believed a strong emperor existed to execute the will of the people. He published his *Rêveries politiques* or "political dreams" in 1833 at the age of 25, followed in 1834 by *Considérations politiques et militaires sur la Suisse* ("Political and military considerations about Switzerland"), followed in 1839 by *Les Idées napoléoniennes* ("Napoleonic Ideas"), a compendium of his political ideas which was published in three editions and eventually translated into six languages. He based his doctrine upon two ideas: universal suffrage and the primacy of the national interest. He called for a "monarchy which procures the advantages of the Republic without the inconveniences", a regime "strong without despotism, free without anarchy, independent without conquest". He also intended to build a wider European community of nations

Failed coup, exile in London (1836–1840)

Louis Napoleon at the time of his failed coup in 1836

"I believe", wrote Louis Napoleon, "that from time to time, men are created whom I call volunteers of providence, in whose hands are placed the destiny of their countries. I believe I am one of those men. If I am wrong, I can perish uselessly. If I am right, then providence will put me into a position to fulfill my mission." [14] He had seen the popular enthusiasm for Napoleon Bonaparte when he was in Paris, and he was convinced that, if he marched to Paris, as Napoleon Bonaparte had done in 1815 during the Hundred Days, France would rise up and join him. He began to plan a coup against King Louis-Philippe.

Louis Napoleon launching his failed coup in Strasbourg in 1836

He planned for his uprising to begin in Strasbourg. The colonel of a regiment was brought over to the cause. On 29 October 1836, Louis Napoleon arrived in Strasbourg, in the uniform of an artillery officer; he rallied the regiment to his side. The prefecture was seized, and the prefect arrested. Unfortunately for Louis-Napoleon, the general commanding the garrison escaped and called in a loyal regiment, which surrounded the mutineers. The mutineers surrendered and Louis-Napoleon fled back to Switzerland.

Louis Napoleon was widely popular in exile and his popularity in France continuously grew after his failed coup in 1836 as it established him as heir to the Bonaparte legend and increased his publicity.

Travel

King Louis Philippe had demanded that the Swiss government return Louis Napoleon to France, but the Swiss pointed out that he was a Swiss soldier and citizen and refused to hand him over. The King responded by sending an army to the Swiss border. Louis Napoleon thanked his Swiss hosts, and voluntarily left the country. The other mutineers were put on trial in Alsace, and were all acquitted.

Louis Napoleon traveled first to London, then to Brazil, and then to New York City. He met the elite of New York society and the writer Washington Irving. While he was traveling to see more of the United States, he received word that his mother was very ill. He hurried as quickly as he could back to Switzerland. He reached Arenenberg in time to be with his mother on 5 August 1837, when she died. She was finally buried in Rueil, in France, next to her mother, on 11 January 1838, but Louis Napoleon could not attend, because he was not allowed into France.

Louis Napoleon returned to London for a new period of exile in October 1838. He had inherited a large fortune from his mother and took a house with 17 servants and several of his old friends and fellow conspirators. He was received by London society and met the political and scientific leaders of the day, including Benjamin Disraeli and Michael Faraday. He also did considerable research into the economy of Britain. He strolled in Hyde Park, which he later used as a model when he created the Bois de Boulogne in Paris. He spent the winter of 1838-39 in Royal Leamington Spa in Warwickshire.

Second coup, prison, escape and exile (1840–1848)

Living in the comfort of London, he had not given up the dream of returning to France to seize power. In the summer of 1840 he bought weapons and uniforms and had proclamations printed, gathered a contingent of about sixty armed men, hired a ship called the *Edinburgh-Castle*, and on 6 August 1840, sailed across the Channel to the port of Boulogne. The attempted coup turned into an even greater fiasco than the Strasbourg mutiny. The mutineers were stopped by the customs agents, the soldiers of the garrison refused to join, the mutineers were surrounded on the beach, one was killed and the others arrested. Both the British and French press heaped ridicule on Louis-Napoleon and his plot. The newspaper *Le Journal des Débats* wrote, "this surpasses comedy. One doesn't kill crazy people, one just locks them up." He was put on trial, where, despite an eloquent defense of his cause, he was sentenced to life in prison in the fortress of Ham in the Somme department of Northern France.

Return and early affairs

Louis Napoleon quickly resumed his place in British society. He lived on King Street, St James's, London, went to the theatre and hunted, renewed his acquaintance with Benjamin Disraeli, and met Charles Dickens. He went back to his studies at the British Museum. He had an affair with the actress Rachel, the most famous French actress of the period, during her tours to Britain. More important for his future career, he had an affair with the wealthy heiress Harriet Howard (1823–1865). They met in 1846, soon after his return to Britain. They began to live together, she took in his two illegitimate children and raised them with her own son, and she provided financing for his political plans so that, when the moment came, he could return to France

1848 Revolution and birth of the Second Republic

Louis Napoleon as a member of the National Assembly in 1848. He spoke rarely in the Assembly, but, because of his name, had enormous popularity in the country.

In February 1848, Louis Napoleon learned that the French Revolution of 1848 had broken out; Louis Philippe, faced with opposition within his government and army, abdicated. Believing that his time had finally come, he set out for Paris on 27 February, departing England on the same day that Louis-Philippe left France for his own exile in England. When he arrived in Paris, he found that the Second Republic had been declared, led by a Provisional Government headed by a Commission led by Alphonse de Lamartine, and that different factions of republicans, from conservatives to those on the far left, were competing for power. He wrote to Lamartine announcing his arrival, saying that he "was without any other ambition than that of serving my country". Lamartine wrote back politely but firmly, asking Louis-Napoleon to leave Paris "until the city is more calm, and not before the elections for the National Assembly". His close advisors urged him to stay and try to take power, but he wanted to show his prudence and loyalty to the Republic; while his advisors remained in Paris, he returned to London on 2 March 1848 and watched events from there.

Louis Napoleon did not run in the first elections for the National Assembly, held in April 1848, but three members of the Bonaparte family, Jérôme Napoléon Bonaparte, Pierre Napoléon Bonaparte, and Lucien Murat were elected; the name Bonaparte still had political power. In the next elections, on 4 June, where candidates could run in multiple departments, he was elected in four different departments; in Paris, he was among the top five candidates, just after the conservative leader Adolphe Thiers and Victor Hugo. His followers were mostly on the left, from the peasantry and working class. His pamphlet on "The Extinction of Pauperism" was widely circulated in Paris, and his name was cheered with those of the socialist candidates Barbès and Louis Blanc.

The Moderate Republican leaders of the provisional government, Lamartine and Cavaignac, considered arresting Louis Napoleon as a dangerous revolutionary, but once again he outmaneuvered them. He wrote to the president of the provisional government: "I believe I should wait to return to the heart of my country, so that my presence in France will not serve as a pretext to the enemies of the Republic."

In June 1848, the June Days Uprising broke out in Paris, led by the far left, against the conservative majority in the National Assembly. Hundreds of barricades appeared in the working-class neighborhoods. General Louis-Eugène Cavaignac, the leader of the army, first withdrew his soldiers from Paris to allow the insurgents to deploy their barricades, and then returned with overwhelming force to crush the uprising; from 24 to 26 June, there were battles in the streets of the working class districts of Paris. An estimated five thousand insurgents were killed at the barricades, fifteen thousand were arrested, and four thousand deported.

Louis Napoleon's absence from Paris meant that he was not connected either with the uprising, or with the brutal repression that had followed. He was still in London on 17–18 September, when the elections for the National Assembly were held, but he was a candidate in thirteen departments. He was elected in five departments; in Paris, he received 110,000 votes of the 247,000 cast, the highest number of votes of any candidate. He returned to Paris on 24 September, and this time he took his place in the National Assembly. In seven months, he had gone from a political exile in London to a highly visible place in the National Assembly, as the government finished the new constitution and prepared for the first election ever of a president of the French Republic.

Reforms of Bonaparte

During his presidency and subsequent reign as Emperor Napoleon III, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte, implemented a series of reforms aimed at modernizing France and consolidating his own power.

Infrastructure initiatives, such building roads, bridges, and trains, have been expanded as a major reform. This has promoted economic growth and strengthened national infrastructure. Furthermore, Louis Napoleon implemented social changes, including as labor regulations to enhance working conditions and public health initiatives to prevent disease and promote cleanliness. Additionally, he supported trade and industry in an effort to bolster the French economy, which helped many people become more prosperous. Further, Napoleon brought about political changes, including as the 1852 Constitution's suffrage expansion that gave more people the ability to vote. To maintain power and quell criticism, these changes were sometimes coupled with authoritarian tactics, which reflected Napoleon's dual devotion to dictatorship and progress. All things considered, his reforms had a long-lasting effect on France, influencing its course over the 19th century.

Character List:

François Jean Dominique Arago:

Dominique François Jean Arago was a well-known politician and scientist from France who was essential in the 1848 revolutions. Arago, who was born in 1786, first became well-known for his abilities as an astronomer and physicist and for his significant contributions to electromagnetism and optics. Arago participated actively in the July Revolution of 1830, advocating for King Charles X's removal and Louis-Philippe's installation as the July Monarch. Later on, though, he lost faith in Louis-Philippe's reign, especially when it came to matters of political and press freedom. Arago became a pivotal position in the interim administration that succeeded Louis-Philippe's during the 1848 upheavals. He was a well-known republican who supported democratic reform, and as such, he was instrumental in determining the goals and objectives of the administration. Arago's compassion for liberal causes can be seen in his support of policies like the elimination of slavery and universal suffrage. Arago's political clout decreased in the wake of the June Days Uprising, a bloody conflict between the government and radical rebels in 1848, notwithstanding his contributions to the new government.

Adolphe Thiers: During the 1848 revolutions, prominent French statesman and historian Adolphe Thiers was crucial. Thiers, who was born in 1797, initially became recognized as a liberal historian and journalist before establishing a career in politics. He was an outspoken opponent of King Louis-Philippe's administration during the July Monarchy, pushing for increased civil rights and constitutional change. Amidst the revolutionary turmoil that engulfed Europe in 1848, Thiers became a significant player in French politics. He was crucial to the February Revolution, which resulted in Louis-Philippe's overthrow and the Second Republic's formation. Thiers was a member of the temporary government and then Prime Minister, where he faced the difficult challenge of consolidating France amid social upheaval and political turbulence. Thiers' political positions during the 1848 revolutions demonstrated his pragmatic approach to government. He supported modest reforms aimed at maintaining order and stability while balancing the interests of many factions in French society. However, his attempts to reconcile interacting demands frequently drew condemnation from both conservative and radical factions. Despite his efforts, Thiers' tenure

as Prime Minister was marred by difficulties, especially the June Days Uprising and conflicts with socialist and republican institutions.

Flora Tristan:

Flora Tristan was a French-Peruvian socialist thinker and activist who supported women's and workers' rights in the nineteenth century. She was born into a prosperous Peruvian family in 1803, and her experiences with privation and abuse encouraged her dedication to social justice. Tristan's writings and actions advocated for gender equality, labor rights, and social transformation. She was a key figure in the 1848 revolutions, pushing for working-class rights and participating in socialist movements throughout Europe. Tristan's political activities in 1848 included forming workers' associations, giving speeches, and producing notable works like "The Workers' Union." Her contributions influenced the discourse on social justice and paved the way for subsequent labor movements and feminist action. Tristan's reputation as a trailblazing champion for justice and equality lives on, despite the resistance and persecution she faced.

Louis Blanc: Known for his socialist ideas and activism, Louis Blanc was a key player in the European revolutions of 1848. He promoted the creation of social reforms to alleviate the conditions faced by the working class, especially the idea of "social workshops"—places where laborers jointly own and run production. Blanc thought that attaining social justice and equality required economic democracy. Blanc became a prominent socialist voice during the 1848 upheavals, pushing for social reform and workers' rights. He was a key figure in the French Revolution of 1848, pushing for the application of his socialist ideals while serving in the provisional government. Ultimately, Blanc's socialist experiments, such as the social workshops, failed to garner broad support or find long-term success in spite of his best efforts. Still, Louis Blanc's ideas and advocacy for social justice had a long-term impact on the socialist movement and the evolution of progressive politics in Europe. He remains a pivotal figure in the history of socialism and the fight for workers' rights.

Armand Barbès: Armand Barbès was a key figure in the 1848 revolutions, particularly as a revolutionary socialist and republican leader in France. He struggled for radical political and social transformation, especially during the February Revolution, which deposed King

Louis-Philippe and ended the July Monarchy. Barbès was instrumental in planning and conducting insurrectionary events in Paris, particularly the February 1848 barricade uprisings. Despite his efforts, Barbès' radical vision contrasted with the more moderate objectives of the interim administration formed after the revolution. He was eventually captured and imprisoned for his role in a failed coup in May 1848. Despite his detention, Barbès remained a symbol of revolutionary dedication and a rallying point for extreme leftist parties in the turbulent year of 1848.

Louis Juchault de Lamoricière: Louis Juchault de Lamoricière was a significant French military leader and politician during the 1848 revolutions. He commenced his career in the French army, where he rose through the ranks after making a name for himself in Algeria. Lamoricière's political position in the 1848 uprisings was highlighted by his participation in the events of June Days in Paris, where he commanded troops against revolutionaries. Despite his military prowess, Lamoricière's adherence to Louis-Philippe's management, as well as his actions during the June Days, made him unpopular with revolutionaries. Following the demise of the July Monarchy, Lamoricière resumed his military career, serving in various roles under successive governments. However, his involvement with conservative administrations, as well as his suppression of revolutionary activities in 1848, damaged his reputation in certain areas.

Félicité de La Mennais: Félicité de La Mennais, an important French Catholic priest and philosopher, was a key figure in the 1848 uprisings as a supporter of liberal and democratic ideologies. He pushed for social justice, workers' rights, and the creation of a culture of equality. La Mennais was a key player in supporting democracy and constitutionalism, and his writings influenced many rebels during this time. He worked to combine Catholicism and progressive political views, arguing for a more inclusive and democratic society. Despite his efforts to influence the path of the revolutions, La Mennais eventually encountered opposition from both conservative groups within the Catholic Church and extremist sections within the revolutionary movements.

Alphonse de Lamartine: Alphonse de Lamartine was a key figure in France's 1848 uprisings, holding important political positions at this time. Lamartine was a key voice among moderate republicans, advocating for democratic reforms and social justice. He became a significant player in the transitional administration formed during the February

Revolution, serving as Minister of Foreign Affairs. Lamartine's fluency and moderation contributed to the revolution's calm and orderly transition of power. He was instrumental in removing the monarchy and establishing the Second Republic, which promoted ideas of liberty, equality, and fraternity. However, Lamartine's influence diminished as radical forces gained momentum, resulting in the breakdown of the temporary administration and the ascent of more radical leaders.

Keywords:

Socialism is a political and economic system in which property and the means of production are owned in common, typically controlled by the state or government.

Proletariat is the lowest or the one of the lowest classes in both social and economic way in the community.

Absolutism is a concept of political authority created by historians to describe a shift in the governments of the major monarchies of Europe in the early modern period.

Liberalism is a political ideology centered upon the belief in action, the essential goodness of the human race, a theory in economics emphasizing individual freedom from restraint and autonomy.

Communism is a form of government mostly associated with the ideas of Karl Marx, based on the goal of eliminating socioeconomic class struggles by creating a classless society in which everyone shares the benefits of labor and the state controls all property and wealth.

Republicanism is a political ideology centered on the concept of a government where power resides in elected individuals representing the citizen body, and leaders are not monarchs. It emphasizes civic virtue, the rule of law, and the public good.

Protectionism is a political system developed to protect domestic industry and economy by imposing heavy tariffs on foreign goods.

Parliamentarism is a type of regime based on the government's responsibility to the parliament has been taken for granted. Oldest conceptualisations on parliamentary terms as 'Government by Discussion.'

The Legitimists are royalists who adhere to the rights of dynastic succession to the French crown of the descendants of the eldest branch of the Bourbon dynasty, which was overthrown in the 1930 July Revolution.

Napoleonic Wars was the series of wars that ranged France against shifting alliances of European powers. Originally an attempt to maintain French strength established by the French Revolutionary Wars, they became efforts by Napoleon to affirm his supremacy in the balance of European power.

The Communist Manifesto written by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels in 1848, is a foundational text of Marxist theory. Because of the economic, social and political crisis in 1848 Europe, Marx and Engels decided to create a text called Marxist theory. The theory practically exhibits the settlement of the class struggle, which the significant European countries striven at that time period, which is dictatorship of the proletariat then social equality and last the communism world. The theory was built up opposite the thought of fascism, capitalism and imperialism. In the following centuries, theory will become the one of the “most assimilated ideologies.

Charter of 1814, was a constitution granted by King Louis XVIII of France shortly after his restoration. The Congress of Vienna demanded that Louis bring in a constitution of some form before he was restored.

A Provisional Government is an emergency or interim government set up when a political void has been created by the collapse of a very large government.

The Movement Party was a centre-left liberal monarchist political group during the July Monarchy.

The Campagne des banquets are public campaigns launched by opposition men at the end of Louis-Philippe's reign, with the aim of spreading the ideas of electoral and parliamentary reform. When meetings were banned, reformist banquets were held. This campaign, led by Odilon Barrot, brought together all opposition tendencies.