

REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

FRANKFURT – POLAND – PRUSSIA

“In times of revolution nothing is more powerful than the fall of symbols.”



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Table of Contents

REVOLUTIONS OF 1848.....	1
FRANKFURT - POLAND - PRUSSIA.....	1
Table of Contents.....	2
.Letter from Deputy Secretary General.....	3
Prussia.....	5
German Society in Transition After 1789.....	5
Prussia's Defeat and the Treaties of Tilsit (1807).....	5
Impact of the Napoleonic Wars on Prussian Society and Politics.....	6
Junkers.....	7
Congress of Vienna (1813-15).....	7
The emergence of a 'Third Germany'.....	8
Reforms in Prussia and Austria.....	9
The Wars of Liberation and the Restoration of the Old Order.....	10
The German Confederation, a Battle-Ground for Forces of Reaction and Modernization.....	11
The Voice of the People.....	12
Patriotic and National Issues.....	12
Dichotomy of the History of the Confederation.....	12
1830.....	13
The Nationality Issue and the Formation of Political Groups.....	15
French February Revolution.....	15
Baden.....	16
Bavaria.....	17
Palatinate.....	17
Saxony.....	18
Berlin.....	18
The Revolution in Berlin.....	18
Frankfurt Government.....	19
Frankfurt National Assembly.....	19
Appointment of Archduke John Baptist Joseph Fabian Sebastian as a Regent in Germany.....	20
March Revolutions.....	21
Frankfurt Parliament.....	22
Prussian Reforms.....	22
Liberals' view of independence in 1848.....	23
St. Paul Church.....	23
Politicians' view towards Prussia and Austrians.....	23
Poland.....	24
Polish Lithuanian Commonwealth.....	25
The Partition of the Commonwealth.....	26
Austrian Partition.....	27

Russian Partition.....	27
Prussian Partition.....	29
Social Structure in Poznan.....	30
Overview.....	31
Europe in the face of the uprising.....	32
Conditions of living in exile.....	35
The Great Emigration.....	35
Czartoryskists.....	36
Lelewelists.....	37
Młoda Polska (Young Poland).....	37
Polish Democratic Society (TDP).....	38
Poitiers Manifesto.....	39
Possibilities of Democratic Agitation.....	39
Organizations of the 1830s in Galicia.....	40
Relationships of the 1840s in the Poznań region and the Kingdom of Poland.....	42
The Failed Outbreak of the Uprising.....	44
Krakow Uprising.....	45
Peasant uprising in Galicia.....	46
Spring of Nations in Poland and the Events of 1848.....	46
Poznań Uprising.....	47
Spring of Nations in Pomerania.....	49

.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 furbished 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 annunciate 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

Prussia

German Society in Transition After 1789

After the effects of the French Revolution, the burgeoning literary and philosophical elite, while successful in reviving German thought and culture, contributed in merely a minor way to the reform while mostly wars against France strengthened patriotism and nationalism.

The older generation of writers and philosophers, associated with adapting the ideas of the French Enlightenment to German, were in favor of the events in the West Rhine. Even though some of the famous writers and literary people experienced the bad effects of the French Revolution they were in favor of the idea of freedom whilst the younger generation was enthusiastic about the changes that the Revolution would bring about. On the other hand, the skeptical generation of Goethe and Humboldt was wiser as they recognized that Germany was not ready for such an upheaval.

Prussia's Defeat and the Treaties of Tilsit (1807)

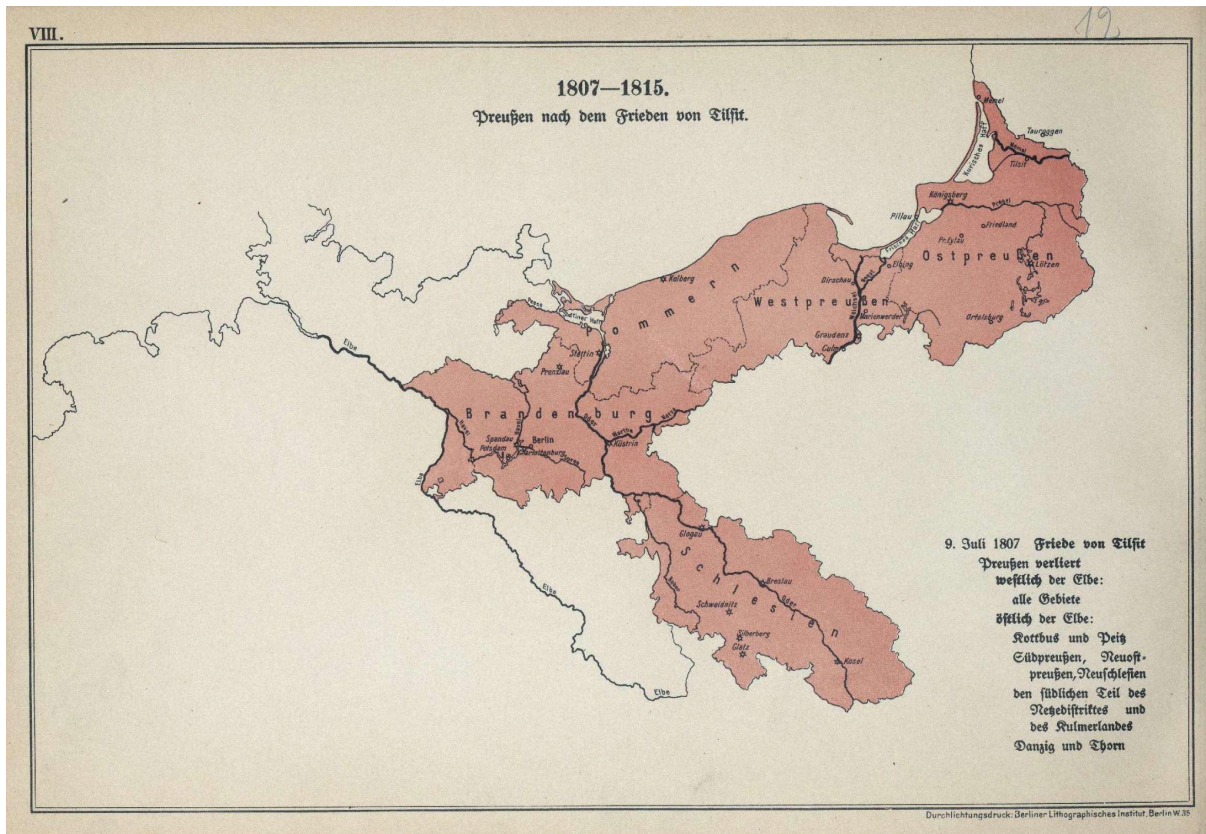
To begin with, let's start by covering the conflicts that happened with Napoleon, the defeat of Prussia and other nations, and these being concluded with the treaties of Tilsit, which resulted in significant territorial losses for Prussia and powerful French influence in the region.

The War of the Fourth Coalition (October 1806 to June 1807) was a major conflict during the Napoleonic Wars (1803-1815). The Fourth Coalition consisted of Russia, Prussia, Saxony, Sweden, and the United Kingdom, against the First French Empire, the Confederation of the Rhine, Polish rebels, and Spain. The war resulted in a French victory, solidified by the Treaties of Tilsit.

On 9 October 1806 Prussia declared war on France sparking the War of the Fourth Coalition. Though Prussia had stayed neutral during the previous eleven years of war, concerns over France's rising hegemony in Central Europe led King Frederick William III of Prussia to declare war on French Emperor Napoleon I. But the Prussians were sorely underprepared and were defeated by the French Grande Armée at the double Battle of Jena-Auerstedt. Berlin fell to the French two weeks later. After Prussia's defeat, Saxony switched sides with the Treaty of Posen and joined the Confederation of the Rhine, a league of German states under Napoleon's protection.

In December 1806, the Grande Armée crossed the Vistula River and engaged the Russian army at the Battle of Eylau (7-8 February 1807). With neither side winning much of an advantage, the French and Russian armies withdrew into

winter quarters only to clash again four months later at the Battle of Friedland (14 June 1807). This time, the Russians were decisively defeated. On 25 June, Napoleon met with Tsar Alexander I of Russia to discuss not only peace but also a Franco-Russian alliance. The first treaty was signed between Tsar Alexander and Emperor Napoleon. There was the second treaty, which was signed between King Frederick William III of Prussia and Napoleon I, resulting in Napoleon forcing Prussians to cede almost half of their territories out of which he later established the Kingdom of Westphalia and the Grand Duchy of Warsaw as French client states.



Map of Prussia after the Treaties of Tilsit

Impact of the Napoleonic Wars on Prussian Society and Politics

The impact of the Napoleonic Wars on Prussian society was disruptive towards the traditional social structures, precisely by the introduction of French Revolutionary ideas of equality. That brought about challenges to the privileges of the Junkers and increased social mobility.

On an economic basis, the Napoleonic Wars caused upheavals since the French occupation led to heavy taxes and undermined trade, which led to some considerations of ways to recover and strengthen the economy in various ways.

Also, the society was affected in a way that fueled their nationalist sentiments, which means the people were for the idea of German nationalism which would mean to resent the French. The loss of territory inspired the

people for German unity and wishes for independence from foreign interference were raised. Prussian intellectuals, the enlightened population, writers, and artists had significant roles in the promotion of nationalist ideas.

Junkers

In a nutshell, Junkers were German nobilities known for their conservativeness, loyalty to the monarchy, and preference to keep the status quo, and their provinces were in Eastern Germany such as Brandenburg, Pomerania, and East Prussia. They formed the backbone of the Prussian military officer corps and held significant positions in government and bureaucracy. For centuries the Hohenzollern rulers and the Junkers had maintained a tacit alliance. The Hohenzollerns exercised political authority, while “the nobility became a service nobility; it identified its interests with those of the state which gave it positions of honor and profit.”

Congress of Vienna (1813–15)

The Congress of Vienna was a major event in determining the way that international law has gone and it regulated 19th-century diplomacy. All the states in Europe were forming alliances and using foreign affairs strategies for their benefit regardless of the consequences. Then, they decided to hold a congress to bring peace and solve the issues. Though, of course, every nation went there with their own interests and wishes. Austria wanted to stop Prussia and Russia from expanding much since the former had eyes on Poland and the latter on Saxony, and Austria was not glad about this since she was afraid that Prussia would take the lead of Germany therefore Austria wanted to expand not in Saxony but in the Rhine. Prussia aimed to expand both in Saxony and the Rhine and since this would lead to a conflict with Austria, Prussia planned to be together with Russia in the congress.

In March 1814, even before Napoleon had been defeated, his four major enemies—Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia—had agreed to remain united, not only to defeat France but to ensure peace after the war. After Napoleon’s defeat, this Quadruple Alliance restored the Bourbon monarchy to France in the person of Louis XVIII and agreed to meet at a congress in Vienna in September 1814 to arrange a final peace settlement.

The congress’s treatment of Poland, to which Russia, Austria, and Prussia all had claims, illustrates this approach. Prussia and Austria were allowed to keep some Polish territory. A new, nominally independent Polish kingdom, about three-quarters of the size of the duchy of Warsaw, was established with the Romanov dynasty of Russia as its hereditary monarch. Although the Russian tsar Alexander I (1801–1825) voluntarily granted the new kingdom a constitution guaranteeing its independence, Poland’s foreign policy (and Poland) remained under Russian control. Prussia was compensated for its loss of Polish lands by receiving two-fifths of Saxony, the Napoleonic German kingdom of Westphalia, and the left bank of the Rhine. Austria in turn was compensated for its loss of the Austrian Netherlands by being given control of two northern Italian provinces, Lombardy and Venetia.

During the 1815 Congress of Vienna, the 39 former states of the Confederation of the Rhine joined the German Confederation, a loose agreement for mutual defense. It was created by the Congress of Vienna in 1815 as a replacement for the former Holy Roman Empire, which had been dissolved in 1806. Attempts of economic integration and customs coordination were frustrated by repressive anti-national policies. Great Britain approved of the union, convinced that a stable, peaceful entity in central Europe could discourage aggressive moves by France or Russia.

Germany, from Napoleon to Confederation

The emergence of a 'Third Germany'

The growing rivalry between Prussia and Austria and the earliest hostilities were an indication that the old structures of the Empire were out of joint and could no longer provide sufficient protection for the smaller states. Although several of the campaigns against France did not involve the Empire, the territories of the Rhineland and of the central and southwestern states suffered from military action and from political uncertainty. Baden alone faced an influx of 10,000 French immigrants, more than the whole of Prussia and Austria.²⁷ These immigrants formed their own military forces, acting at times as if they were an army of occupation. In addition, the smaller states had to endure billeting by Austrian and French armies on their territories throughout the three coalition wars. Baden therefore sought a closer association with France, concluding an armistice in 1796. Württemberg and the Palatinate had already declared their neutrality in 1792, at the outbreak of the first coalition war. Economic co-operation, too, was closer between Baden and France than with most other German states, the result being that Baden, Württemberg and later Bavaria were generously compensated for the territorial losses they incurred across the Rhine. This type of territorial horse-trading caused some political unease, especially amongst Baden's wealthier classes, and, when the Helvetian Republic was established, there was some attempt to accede to the new state, an initiative soon suppressed by Austrian intervention.²⁸ Bavaria, too, became increasingly wary of plans to integrate her territory within Austria's borders. Similar anxieties were expressed by many of the smaller ecclesiastical principalities, fearing loss of independence, nominally still guaranteed by imperial law, but already openly violated by Emperor Francis II. In general, the policies of the two major German powers seemed to indicate that their own self-interest not only outweighed common imperial interests, but also ignored the new patriotic impetus which had emerged within literary and philosophical circles. This outlook can also be illustrated by their lukewarm response to attempts at creating a militia along the lines of the French 'levee en masse', which had produced an army of some 850,000 citizen soldiers. Friedrich Christian Laukhardt, a military expert, deplored the lack of commitment among German politicians to this idea, particularly in Prussia and Austria. He concluded that 'the great states of Austria and Prussia are reckoned incorrectly as belonging to Germany or to the Roman Empire', otherwise they would share 'a single interest for the welfare of the fatherland'. After Austria's defeat at Austerlitz and only months before the establishment of the Rhenish Confederation, Karl Dalberg, Archbishop and Imperial Chancellor, called upon

Francis to abdicate the imperial crown in favour of Napoleon. In a letter to the French ambassador, he proposed the restoration of Charlemagne's empire, 'composed of Italy, France and Germany', to the exclusion of Prussia and Austria. Dalberg's suggestion conveys a romantically antiquarian tone: with the Final Recess of 1803 the imperial order had been all but abolished. The imperial deputation, in negotiation with the French government at Regensburg, reorganized German territory on a more far-reaching scale than at any time in German history. By a process of 'secularization' all ecclesiastical territories were abolished, with the exception of the seat of the Teutonic Order and the Electorate of Mainz, which became secularized but independent. In addition to changes on the left bank of the Rhine, three electorates, nineteen bishoprics and forty-four abbeys were abolished. In a further process, known as 'Mediatisierung', 112 free imperial cities and countless smaller territories were incorporated into existing German states. Only the cities of Bremen, Lübeck, Frankfurt, Nuremberg and Augsburg succeeded in retaining their independence for a little longer. The main beneficiaries of these changes were the central and southern German states, particularly Baden, Württemberg and Hesse-Darmstadt. They owed their new importance to Napoleon, who had created a strategy buffer zone between his own country and Prussia and Austria. The establishment of the Confederation of the Rhine in July 1806 was the natural consequence of this policy, establishing a 'Third Germany' in all but name and undermining the two larger powers of Austria and Prussia. The abolition of the Holy Roman Empire was now a mere formality, since, as the young Hegel observed, by forfeiting the power to defend itself, it had already lost its significance as a state.

The most significant reforms occurred in territories directly under French control. In 1792, the French National Convention introduced its democratic constitution in all occupied lands. Napoleon, while revoking extreme revolutionary laws, implemented the Code Napoleon in the territories on the west bank of the Rhine, Westphalia, the Grand Duchy of Berg, and Frankfurt. These constitutions showcased revolutionary aspirations, promoting civil equality, religious tolerance, trial by jury, and the abolition of serfdom, guilds, and aristocratic privilege. However, measures such as local levies for French troops, suppression of religious practices, and resentment from dissolved guilds fueled anti-French sentiments, fostering political awareness and a climate of revolt.

Within the Confederation of the Rhine, French pressure led to the imposition of the Code Napoleon, though it didn't always improve democratic rights. In Württemberg, old corporate states, despite their flaws, opposed an absolutist duke but were abolished in favor of a centralized state under King Frederick I, maintaining the privileges of the landed gentry. Baden and Bavaria fared better due to enlightened ministers Freiherr von Reitzenstein and Count Maximilian Montgelas, who valued the French reform spirit of true patriotism, advocating for fair and incorruptible legal frameworks.

Reforms in Prussia and Austria

Prussia was severely weakened by the Treaty of Tilsit (1807), while Austria, though suffering after Austerlitz, retained some benefits from Joseph II's reforms. Austria faced problems similar to other German states, submitting to

French domination, paying high reparations, and conceding territory. However, these losses were less critical since they were mostly outside the Habsburg heartlands. In contrast, Prussia lost crucial territories, including Westphalia, the Rhine provinces, and Polish acquisitions. The Treaty of Tilsit reduced Prussia's power significantly, with much of its territory occupied by French forces, crippling its economy and reducing its army.

Both Prussia and Austria had indecisive and reactionary monarchs, but their political strategies differed. Austria, under Prince Clemens von Metternich, maintained neutrality and accepted French supremacy to check Vienna's reformist party. Internal rivalries hindered clear reforms, resulting in conservative policies that strengthened the nobility. Minor legal reforms and a militia were established, but they did not significantly modernize the administration.

Prussian reforms, led by von Stein, aimed for civil equality, social mobility, and economic freedom but faced criticism. Peasants, turned into unprotected laborers, suffered from confiscation of their land. The 1808 municipal reform introduced elected town mayors and magistrates, reducing guild power but not extending to rural areas. Army reforms after Stein's dismissal aimed to create a national army, though the nobility remained dominant in the officer corps.

Historians debate the liberal and democratic nature of Prussian reforms. Despite limited progress towards liberalism, the intellectual and literary elite's nationalism grew, fueled by anti-French sentiments. Philosophers like Fichte and poets like Arndt, Jahn, and Körner advocated for a free and independent German nation state. Stein's reforms aimed to inspire a moral, religious, and patriotic spirit for independence. Scharnhorst and education reforms by Wilhelm von Humboldt contributed to this intellectual renewal, with the University of Berlin becoming a center for German patriotism. Despite economic hardships, an intellectual elite emerged in Prussia, fostering public opinion and a patriotic conscience, while Austria remained entrenched in pre-revolutionary sentiments.

The Wars of Liberation and the Restoration of the Old Order

Historians often emphasize the role of German nationalists in the fight against Napoleonic domination, recognizing this struggle as a key element in Germany's national awakening. Despite their loyalty to France, the rulers of the Confederation of the Rhine saw their troops decimated during Napoleon's Russian campaign. Austria, led by Prince Metternich, wavered in its support, unsure whether to back Russia against France. Prussia's King Frederick William III and his chancellor, Hardenberg, were similarly indecisive.

The uprising against Napoleon was driven by the enthusiasm and efforts of Prussian reformers such as Stein, Scharnhorst, Clausewitz, and General Yorck von Wartenburg. By August 1812, Stein, serving Tsar Alexander, began organizing a German legion and raised a militia in Eastern Prussia in January, using his influence to secure Germany's military liberation. Ernst Moritz Arndt captured the national mood with his patriotic writings,

including the "Catechism for the German Soldier" (1813), earning him the title of poet of the liberation.

Against this backdrop, in December 1812, General Yorck decided to remove his army from French control and join the campaign against Napoleon, initially opposed by Frederick William. On Chancellor Hardenberg's advice, the king reluctantly switched sides, moving his court from Berlin to Breslau, beyond French reach. He decreed the establishment of a militia (Landwehr) and a reserve (Landsturm), creating a de facto citizens' army, an unprecedented decision for a Prussian king. On 17 March, three months after Yorck's decision, the king issued the famous proclamation "To my people," forming a new pact between the monarch and his subjects. Earlier, Stein had demanded a German constitution, warning that German princes who didn't join the national cause would lose recognition from allied armies.

Although these events may not have had significant numerical involvement or political clout, they essentially constituted a national revolutionary uprising. The victorious allies soon countered this perceived threat. The Congress of Vienna (November 1814–June 1815) restored a pre-revolutionary order, with most diplomats favoring eighteenth-century absolutism. Stein's proposals for a German constitution or a modernized, liberal Holy Roman Empire were opposed by Metternich and the great powers at Vienna, as well as the smaller southern German states, who resisted subordinating their sovereignty to a democratic nation-state. At Metternich's behest, the Holy Alliance between Russia, Austria, and Prussia was formed, declaring:

"In accordance with Holy Scripture which commands all men to consider themselves brothers, the three monarchs will remain united through the bonds of a true and indissoluble brotherhood, viewing each other as compatriots and considering themselves as fathers vis-a-vis their subjects and armies, in order to protect religion, peace, and justice."

This statement mocked the Rights of Man, which had proclaimed the equality and freedom of all men a quarter of a century earlier.

The German Confederation, a Battle-Ground for Forces of Reaction and Modernization

Napoleon's defeat sowed discord among the victorious powers. Progressive elements in Prussia, led by Stein, along with politicians from the former Rhenish Confederation and much of the German intelligentsia, opposed the reactionary Holy Alliance of Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

The Congress of Vienna, dominated by monarchs and their advisers, favored reactionary forces, reflecting the spirit of eighteenth-century absolutism. Territories were divided without regard to linguistic and cultural ties, maintaining a balance of power that served imperial interests rather than modernizing tendencies fostered by the French Revolution and Napoleonic wars. Metternich aimed to preserve the old order, viewing any change as revolutionary. The British ambassador, Sir Thomas Cartwright, noted that any non-conforming opinion was labeled as revolutionary.

Progressive figures like Stein and Humboldt were sidelined. Historian Joseph Görres criticized the political order as unrepresentative and expedient. Two main issues were particularly discouraged:

The Voice of the People

The concept of a people's army (Bürgerwehr) captured the popular imagination as a German equivalent to the revolutionary levée en masse. Though its military impact was limited, it was seen as a popular uprising, immortalized in literature. The Congress settlement disappointed these aspirations, and the Bundesakte (1815) established a confederation of German states requiring constitutions based on corporate principles. This was ignored by Austria and Prussia, causing significant discontent.

Patriotic and National Issues

The divisions of Italy and Poland were seen as anachronistic, reflecting the outdated Habsburg Empire's multinational nature, which no longer matched the new landscape. The patriotic agenda was undermined; Stein's plan for a 'Third Germany' was rejected, and Metternich diluted Hardenberg's proposals, removing the independent court of law and limiting national representation at Frankfurt. The Confederation, dominated by Austria, was weaker than the old Empire, lacked central executive power, and failed to meet the people's aspirations for a German nation-state. For Humboldt and other patriots, the outcome was a disappointing shadow of their hopes.

Dichotomy of the History of the Confederation

The history of the Confederation can be divided into two periods: from its inception to the July Revolution (1815–1830) and from 1830 to 1848. The first period was particularly reactionary, with Metternich dominant until 1818 and Austria maintaining a strong position despite waning support from Western powers. After 1830, Austria's influence weakened, Prussia's role strengthened, and tensions arose between Austria and smaller German states, reawakening the national issue.

Prussia was less autocratic due to recent memories of the popular uprising against Napoleon and its attempt to initiate a Customs Union (Zollverein), which required a more conciliatory attitude towards constitutional states. Hardenberg, Gneisenau, and Humboldt supported this liberal stance, although Stein shared Metternich's concerns about changing the estates' role. During the Congress of Vienna, King Frederick Wilhelm III proposed a constitutional commission to form a representative body in Berlin, but this promise was forgotten after 1815 due to reactionary advisors and the Junker class.

Prussia's bureaucratic regeneration transformed its society from subjects to citizens. Despite this, the reactionary period between 1815 and 1830 saw administrative deterioration, highlighting the relationship between constitution and government. The Prussian civil service became dominated by aristocrats, frustrating liberals over the unfulfilled promise of a

constitution. Austria faced similar issues, with a pronounced camera administration leading to deep pessimism among officials, formalistic routines, and reluctance to take responsibility. The success of Prussia and Austria in overriding the constitutional issue was confirmed at the Congress of Aachen, but their reactionary stance ultimately led to defeat.

1830

The intellectual and political climate changed after the French July Revolution. Independent writers, academics, and some university professors gained prominence, shifting from Romantic nostalgia to direct political agitation. The new literature took on a more specific tone:

"Our faith is at one with the faith of mankind; fine talk and sweet dreams are over. ... I wanted to write about literature and have begun with politics. Of course! It is the defining mark of modern literature that it is the child of politics, or, in plain German, the child of the French July Revolution."

The previous emphasis on beauty and truth over political reality faced increasing skepticism, as did Hegel's idea of the unity of reason and reality. This shift from imaginative subjectivity to material objectivity became a significant topic in philosophy and literature. The new generation, no longer captivated by the beautiful, heroic, and ingenious, focused instead on the ugly, unwashed, and exploited proletarian, often anticipating the growing power of the working classes. Ferdinand Freiligrath foresaw the new potential of the fourth estate:

We are the power! Our hammers will rejuvenate this old and rotten thing, the state,

We who till now, by God's wrath, are the proletariat!

What initially seemed to be academic debate soon gained political significance. Karl Marx famously said, "Philosophers have only interpreted the world; the point is to change it." Writers began to turn their words into action, with forward-looking journals like "The New Century" and "Young Europe" embodying this shift. This "Young Germany" movement embraced technology and the railway, signaling a new era.

A moderate liberal climate also emerged within universities, positioned between conservative figures like Carl Ludwig von Haller and the radical Young Germany movement. Karl Theodor Welcker, a professor of constitutional law, described the 1830s as a distinctly political period, advocating for corporate bodies to participate in state politics. This liberal movement, gaining stimuli from France and Switzerland, extended across the Confederation.

The **Hambach** Festival exemplified this new political atmosphere, responding to the French July Revolution and political unrest in Aachen, Berlin, Hamburg, Hesse, and Brunswick. It became an organized focus for a new international dawn, inspiring patriotism. Johann Georg Wirth, the festival's chief organizer, and Philip Jakob Siebenpfeiffer voiced this new patriotism, supporting freedom movements in Greece, Poland, Spain, Italy, France, and others.

The festival was a reaction to increased press censorship, seen as an anachronism by progressives. Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden initially had relaxed censorship laws, but after the French July Revolution, these attitudes hardened, causing conflict between the Confederation and these states over monarchic principles versus liberal and constitutional ideas. The Hambach Festival, attended by 30,000 people, was met with severe government repression, but it failed to subdue the growing spirit of political dissent.

Two incidents highlight the national significance of constitutional violations. First, Queen Victoria's accession in 1837 severed the union between England and Hanover, a former Personal Union of the British crown. Ernst August, Duke of Cumberland, suspended Hanover's liberal constitution, leading to protests and the dismissal of seven professors, known as "The Göttingen Seven." This move generated nationwide sympathy, with funds raised and honorary doctorates awarded.

Second, a constitutional conflict involving the Catholic Church in Prussia's Rhine province anticipated Bismarck's Kulturkampf. Archbishop von Droste-Vischering's adherence to a papal decree on mixed marriages led to his arrest, sparking national protests and forcing the Prussian government to make concessions.

Religious strife played a major role during the Pre-March period, with churches supporting both reactionary and liberal factions. Prussia, with its Protestant state church, frequently clashed with the predominantly Catholic Rhineland Westphalia, exemplified by the conflict involving Archbishop Droste-Vischering. His distant relative, poetess Annette von Droste-Hülshoff, witnessed a riot in Münster where the Prussian army subdued stone-throwing citizens chanting anti-Prussian and pro-archbishop slogans.

Ludwig Börne, a "Young Germany" writer and critic, believed writers mediated radical intellectual ideas to the public, laying the groundwork for revolution. The accession of Frederick Wilhelm IV in 1840 brought renewed disappointment, as he resisted liberal reforms. This heightened the urgency for political action, as Germans lacked a parliament, trial by jury, and rights to free speech or assembly.

The educated middle-class Germans (Bildungsbürger), although not politically astute, continuously insisted on constitutional issues and political participation, making these topics universally relevant. This culminated in the demands of March 1848, which included the right to a constitution based on popular suffrage, press freedom, and a clear division between the judiciary and the administration.

The Nationality Issue and the Formation of Political Groups

Even the complex issue of national unity revolved around the constitutional nature of the Confederation. Uprisings in Poland, Greece, Italy, and Spain, all involving Confederation member states, significantly impacted public opinion and sharpened national awareness. France's revival of old claims to German territory left of the Rhine in 1840 provoked strong anti-French sentiments.

The nationalist movement gained further support in 1842 from an association formed to complete the Cologne cathedral, leading to a more liberal climate in Prussia, a relaxation of censorship, and the establishment of political associations. This movement advocated for democratic rights, freedom of assembly, and a constitution.

In Baden, the development of political parties was particularly focused, influenced by proximity to France and Switzerland. Party formation with specific programs was widespread not only in major political centers like Vienna, Berlin, and Frankfurt but also in the provinces.

The re-emerging Gymnasts' Associations broadened their base to include craftsmen and clerical workers, while Carnival Associations in the Rhineland seceded from conservative central organizations to develop democratic and revolutionary concepts. Secret communist cells formed in the Rhine and Main regions, establishing contacts with radical branches in Paris, Brussels, and London.

The **militia** was another politically active force. In contrast to conservative, monarchist veteran associations, civil guards (Bürgerwehren) were more liberal, especially in the southwest. Initially established as a police force to curb civil unrest, Prussian militias were more conservative, becoming politically active only after March 1848.

The Spring of Nations in Germany

French February Revolution

The French February Revolution of 1848, which resulted in the establishment of the Second Republic in France, served as a significant catalyst for revolutionary fervor across Europe, particularly in the German states. This revolution's reverberations were felt strongly in the Rhineland cities, where news of the upheaval in Paris prompted widespread excitement and anticipation of similar transformative changes within Germany. Moderate liberal figures, such as Dahlmann, captured the revolutionary spirit with declarations like "Plus de Bourbons. Vive la République," signifying a rejection of monarchical rule and an embrace of republican ideals.

The Mannheim Assembly on February 27, 1848, witnessed an enthusiastic reaction from radical republicans like Friedrich Hecker, who vividly described the scene of jubilation and immediate calls for action to achieve

Germany's liberation and long-desired reforms. This revolutionary sentiment quickly spread to other German cities, notably Berlin, which, unlike its subdued reaction during the 1830 revolution, felt deeply impacted by the events in France, perceiving them as a profound threat to their stability.

Vienna also experienced a sense of insecurity, with figures like Saxon diplomat Count Vitzthum reporting that the seasoned statesman Metternich seemed at a loss for solutions amidst the growing chaos. The anticipation of war with France further intensified the political atmosphere, as liberals and democrats hoped for a unified national response from the German governments, including a return to Prussia's reformist democratic trajectory of 1813. Conversely, the fear of conflict provided the Frankfurt Federal Diet with a pretext to appeal for national unity as a means to restore order and prevent revolutionary spillover from France.

The enduring legacy of the French Revolution of 1789 loomed large in the collective consciousness, underscoring the potential for profound political change while also eliciting a sense of relief when it became clear that a Franco-German war would not materialize. Thus, the French February Revolution significantly influenced the revolutionary wave in Germany, shaping the political landscape and aspirations for national unity and democratic reforms.

The revolutions spread from France across Europe; demonstrations against the government erupted soon thereafter in both Austria and Germany, beginning with large protests on 13 March 1848, in Vienna. This resulted in the resignation of Prince von Metternich as chief minister to Emperor Ferdinand I of Austria, and his going into exile in Britain.

Afraid of suffering the same fate as Louis-Philippe of France, some of the German monarchs acquiesced to the demands of the revolutionaries, at least temporarily. In the south and west, large popular assemblies and mass demonstrations took place. They demanded freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, written constitutions, arming of the people and a Parliament.

Baden

The Baden Revolution had two phases: between the beginning of March 1848 and September 1848 there were two attempts to form a republic in southwestern Germany: the Hecker Uprising and the rebellion led by Gustav Struve in Lörrach. With the defeat of Friedrich Hecker and his followers at Kandern and his flight into exile, and the arrest of Gustav Struve in September, this first phase ended.

The second phase began—after the rejection of the Constitution of St. Paul's Church by the most of the royal houses of the German Parliament—with the May insurrections of 1849, not only in Baden, but also in other German states (especially in the Bavarian Rhenish Palatinate). They represented an attempt to enforce the constitution (the so-called Imperial Constitution Campaign). This second phase ended in Baden with the defeat of the rebels at the last battle in July 1849 in Rastatt.

Characteristic of the Baden Revolution, unlike other uprisings in the German Confederation, was the persistent demand for a democratic republic. By contrast, the revolutionary councils and parliaments of the other principalities of the Confederation favoured a constitutional and hereditary monarchy.

Radical democratic and early socialist revolutionaries were strongly represented in Baden. Some of the most prominent leaders were Friedrich Hecker, Gustav Struve and his wife Amalie, Gottfried Kinkel, Georg Herwegh and his wife Emma. Furthermore, Wilhelm Liebknecht, who at that time was relatively unknown but later co-founded the Social Democratic Workers' Party of Germany (SDAP), the predecessor party of SPD (the socialist party in Germany), participated in September 1848 in the uprising in Lörrach and in May 1849 in the Baden Revolution as Struve's adjutant.

Bavaria

In Bavaria, King Ludwig I lost prestige because of his open relationship with his favourite mistress Lola Montez, a dancer and actress unacceptable to the aristocracy and the Church.[12] She tried to launch liberal reforms through a Protestant prime minister, which outraged the state's Catholic conservatives. On 9 February, conservatives came out onto the streets in protest. This 9 February 1848 demonstration was the first in that revolutionary year. It was an exception among the wave of liberal protests. The conservatives wanted to be rid of Lola Montez, and had no other political agenda. Liberal students took advantage of the Lola Montez affair to stress their demands for political change. All over Bavaria, students started demonstrating for constitutional reform, just as students were doing in other cities.

Ludwig tried to institute a few minor reforms but they proved insufficient to quell the storm of protests. On 16 March 1848, Ludwig I abdicated in favor of his eldest son Maximilian II.[12] Ludwig complained that "I could not rule any longer, and I did not want to give up my powers. In order to not become a slave, I became a lord." Although some popular reforms were introduced, the government regained full control.

Palatinate

When the revolutionary upsurge revived in the spring of 1849, the uprisings started in Elberfeld in the Rhineland on 6 May 1849. However, the uprisings soon spread to the Grand Duchy of Baden, when a riot broke out in Karlsruhe. The state of Baden and the Palatinate (then part of the Kingdom of Bavaria) were separated only by the Rhine. The uprising in Baden and the Palatinate took place largely in the Rhine Valley along their mutual border, and are considered aspects of the same movement. In May 1849, the Grand Duke was forced to leave Karlsruhe, Baden and seek help from Prussia. Provisional governments were declared in both the Palatinate and Baden. In Baden conditions for the provisional government were ideal: the public and army were both strongly in support of constitutional change and democratic reform in the government. The army strongly supported the demands for a constitution; the state had amply supplied arsenals, and a full exchequer. The Palatinate did not have the same conditions.

The Palatinate traditionally contained more upper-class citizens than other areas of Germany, and they resisted the revolutionary changes. In the Palatinate, the army did not support the revolution, and it was not well supplied. When the insurrectionary government took over in the Palatinate, they did not find a fully organized state or a full exchequer. Arms in the Palatinate were limited to privately held muskets, rifles and sporting guns. The provisional government of the Palatinate sent agents to France and Belgium to purchase arms but they were unsuccessful. France banned sales and export of arms to either Baden or the Palatinate.

Saxony

In Dresden, the capital of the Kingdom of Saxony, the people took to the streets asking King Frederick Augustus II of Saxony to engage in electoral reform, social justice and for a constitution.

German composer Richard Wagner passionately engaged himself in the revolution in Dresden, supporting the democratic-republican movement. Later during the May Uprising in Dresden from 3-9 May 1849, he supported the provisional government. Others participating in the Uprising were the Russian revolutionary Michael Bakunin and the German working-class leader Stephen Born. In all, about 2,500 combatants manned the barricades during the May Uprising. On 9 May 1849, together with the leaders of the uprising, Wagner left Dresden for Switzerland to avoid arrest. He spent a number of years in exile abroad, in Switzerland, Italy, and Paris. Finally the government lifted its ban against him and he returned to Germany.

Berlin

The Revolution in Berlin

Until the revolution of 1848, Berlin was the second city in the German-speaking lands. Despite extensive rivalries between Austria and Prussia, Metternich's reactionary 'system' kept Berlin subordinate until his rule ended. Events in 1848 highlighted Berlin's dependence on Vienna, with Berliners waiting for signals from the Austrian capital to take political action. The head of the Berlin police reported that citizens felt humiliated that "all around Prussia things are in motion" and that when news of revolution in Vienna arrived, Berlin felt uneasy about its inaction. Prussia's final counter-revolutionary moves also came only after Vienna's revolution was defeated, subtly shifting the balance of power in favor of Berlin over Vienna.

Vienna was larger and more cosmopolitan than Berlin, but their social and economic structures were comparable. Berlin had a stronger industrial output, while its bourgeoisie was weaker and more provincial. Between 1800 and 1848, Berlin's population grew from 172,000 to 410,000, with many immigrants among the city's poorest. The middle class was only 5% of the population, while over 80% belonged to an ill-defined underclass. The bourgeoisie included industrialists, merchants, civil servants, and artisans, forming a relatively homogeneous group with shared educational backgrounds and interests. Academics, journalists, and freelance writers, although less represented than in Vienna, formed a vocal group eager for change and more liberal policies.

The proletariat, accounting for 85% of Berlin's population, included journeymen, skilled workers, unskilled workers, domestic servants, and the sub-proletariat. Unlike Vienna, Berlin's workers were more integrated into the city, making them less distinct but more easily mobilized for political action. By the 1840s, Berlin became significant in mechanical engineering, especially for steam locomotives. Reports before the revolution indicated tensions between the proletariat and the city administration, but demonstrators excluded the king from their accusations, suggesting he was unaware of their plight.

Despite a calm beginning in March 1848, news of the Paris revolution deeply impacted Berliners. People gathered in the streets, coffee houses, and libraries to discuss the events. Public lectures and readings on building barricades were organized. From March 6, public gatherings took place beyond the Berlin police's jurisdiction, and the Prussian government initially tolerated them, offering vague promises of relaxing anti-democratic laws. On March 14, the king agreed to call a meeting of the Vereinigte Landtag for April 27, later moved to April 2, and promised to relax press laws. However, the public mood remained volatile, viewing the king's moves as outdated and demanding closer responses to public demands.

King Frederick William IV, contrasting with Emperor Ferdinand, had his character shaped by experiences like Napoleon's occupation of Prussia and the Wars of Liberation. He opposed liberalism and constitutional democracy, instead favoring medieval romantic concepts of monarchic rule by divine right and dreaming of a modernized Holy Roman Empire. Despite this, he was interested in technological innovation, architecture, and the natural sciences. His advisors, like Leopold von Gerlach and Ernst Wilhelm Hengstenberg, reinforced his views on divine rights. His confidant, Joseph Maria von Radowitz, was influenced by anti-democratic views. Frederick William was politically astute, abhorred violence, and was committed to the national issue but opposed any constitutional settlement that might impinge on his divine rights.

Supporting this regime was the Protestant church, a bastion of reaction, conservatism, illiberalism, and anti-Semitism. Influenced by theologian Hengstenberg, the church declared opposition to authority as disobedience against God and supported the reactionary Brandenburg government and the role of the Prussian military under General Wrangel when the counter-revolution gained momentum.

Frankfurt Government

Frankfurt National Assembly

A preliminary parliament (Vorparlament) met in Frankfurt am Main in March 1848 at the instigation of liberal leaders from all the German states (including Austria), and it called for the election of a national assembly (Nationalversammlung). The elections were duly held, though the electoral laws and methods varied considerably from state to state, and on May 18 the national assembly met in the Church of St. Paul (Paulskirche) in Frankfurt. Moderate liberals held a majority in the assembly, though the entire political

spectrum was represented among its deputies. The liberal Heinrich von Gagern was elected president of the parliament.

The Frankfurt National Assembly spent much time debating various plans for a unified Germany, but it also had to decide on immediate practical problems, such as the nature of the executive power and Germany's territorial extent. Archduke John of Austria, a comparatively liberal uncle of the Austrian emperor Ferdinand, was appointed regent of Germany and head of the assembly's (putative) executive power on June 29. Yet it soon became clear that the executive appointed by the assembly had no power except as was granted to it by the governments of the individual states. The Frankfurt National Assembly attempted to take over the conduct of a war with Denmark concerning the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, but Prussia, ignoring the assembly, abruptly concluded the war in August. By this time, Prussia's Frederick William IV had lost all patience with the liberals and had turned increasingly toward ultraconservative advisers. In Austria the emperor Ferdinand had abdicated in favor of his nephew Francis Joseph, who likewise relied on conservative ministers.

Appointment of Archduke John Baptist Joseph Fabian Sebastian as a Regent in Germany

Upon the March Revolution of 1848, the Frankfurt Parliament began deliberations on establishing an all-German government to replace the existing Federal Convention. This move was driven by the desire to create a unified national authority capable of representing and governing the German states collectively. On June 28, 1848, following a proposal by the liberal politician Heinrich von Gagern, the Frankfurt Assembly voted in favor of establishing a central authority, known as the Provisorische Zentralgewalt (Provisional Central Power). The next day, a broad majority elected Archduke John of Austria as the regent of the realm (Reichsverweser), marking a significant step towards unification.

Archduke John accepted his nomination as head of the fledgling German Empire on July 5, 1848. His acceptance was a symbolic gesture aimed at consolidating the various German states under a single executive authority. Subsequently, on July 12, delegates of the Federal Convention, responding to public pressure, formally ceded their powers to him. This transfer of power was a critical moment in the nascent German unification movement, as it represented a shift towards a centralized governance structure.

On July 15, before departing for Vienna, Archduke John appointed key ministers to his provisional government. These appointments included Anton von Schmerling, Johann Gustav Heckscher, and Eduard von Peucker, with Prince Carl of Leiningen as minister president and head of government. However, despite these efforts, Archduke John's political office was largely ceremonial, with limited practical authority. All laws required his signature, but his ability to influence policy was constrained by the entrenched powers of the individual German states.

The challenges to the Regent's authority were immediate and significant. On July 16, 1848, War Minister von Peucker issued an order for all German Federal Army soldiers to parade in honor of the Regent on August 6, marking Archduke John as the supreme commander of the Army in Germany. Upon his arrival in

Vienna, however, Austrian War Minister Latour expressed strong disapproval of what he saw as interference by the provisional German government in Austrian military affairs. This incident highlighted the persistent tension between the aspirations of the Frankfurt Assembly and the realities of existing state powers.

Early attempts by the Frankfurt government to assert supreme command over the German Federal Army faced staunch resistance from member states. To bolster support, the left-wing politician Robert von Mohl joined the Leiningen Cabinet on August 9. However, the government faced further instability when Leiningen resigned on September 6 after the Frankfurt Assembly refused to ratify the Armistice of Malmö, which Prussia had signed during the First Schleswig War. Anton von Schmerling temporarily took over as head of government, but by November 1848, the cabinet lost the support of the centrist Casino faction and ultimately its majority in parliament. Schmerling's resignation led to the appointment of Heinrich von Gagern as the new minister president on December 17, despite his opposition to the 'Lesser German' solution, which excluded Austria from the unification process.

Under the terms of his Regency, Archduke John was prohibited from participating in the drafting of the Frankfurt Constitution, which was adopted on March 28, 1849, after prolonged negotiations led by Gagern. The constitution aimed to establish a unified and democratic German state but was met with significant opposition, particularly from Prussia. Archduke John, disillusioned by the strong position of Prussia, considered resigning but was persuaded to remain by appeals from National Assembly President Eduard von Simson. The situation deteriorated further when King Frederick William IV of Prussia rejected the Frankfurt Constitution in April 1849, prompting Gagern's resignation on May 10.

Prussia exerted pressure on Archduke John to vacate his office, but he remained out of a sense of duty, supported by Austria's Prime Minister, Prince Schwarzenberg, who sought to curb Prussian ambitions in Germany. Despite this backing, Archduke John withdrew to the health resort of Bad Gastein. By this time, the National Assembly had been reduced to a rump parliament led by radicals, effectively opposing the Regent. The Regency existed in name only, with Archduke John maintaining formal correspondence with Vienna and Berlin but wielding no real power. He finally resigned on December 20, 1849.

The Frankfurt National Assembly and the provisional government it established ultimately failed to achieve German unification. When Archduke John visited Frankfurt in 1858, he expressed regret over the unfulfilled aspirations of the 1848 revolutions. The efforts of the Frankfurt Parliament and its central authority, though unsuccessful, laid important groundwork for future unification efforts and highlighted the complex interplay of liberal, nationalist, and conservative forces in 19th-century Germany.

March Revolutions

The main demands of the German opposition were the granting of fundamental and civic rights regardless of property requirements, the appointment of liberal governments in individual states, and, most importantly, the creation of a German nation-state with a pan-German constitution and a popular

constitution. On March 5, 1848, opposition politicians and state deputies met in the Heidelberg Assembly to discuss these issues. They decided to establish a preliminary parliament (Vorparlament) that would prepare elections for the national constitutional assembly. They also elected a "Committee of Seven" (Siebener Ausschuss) that would invite 500 people to Frankfurt.

This development was accompanied and supported by protest rallies and riots in several German states since the beginning of March, including Baden, the Kingdom of Bavaria, the Kingdom of Saxony, the Kingdom of Württemberg, Austria and Prussia. Under such pressure, individual princes recalled existing conservative governments and replaced them with more liberal committees called "March Governments" (März Regierungen). On 10 March 1848, the Bundestag of the German Confederation appointed a "Committee of Seventeen" (Siebzehnerausschuss) to draft a constitution; On March 20, the Bundestag called for elections to the constitutional assembly of the confederation states. After the bloody street fights (Barrikaden Aufstand) in Prussia, the Prussian National Assembly was also convened with the task of drafting a constitution for this kingdom.

Frankfurt Parliament

The Frankfurt Assembly was the first independent and elected parliament representing the whole of Germany. The session was held in St. Paul's Church in Frankfurt from May 18 1848 to May 31 1849. The main reason for the establishment of the Assembly was the "March Revolutions" in the German Confederation states. The Assembly was a part and result of this revolution. As a result of long negotiations, the Assembly adopted the Frankfurt Constitution, which declared a German empire based on the foundations of parliamentary democracy. This constitution met the demands of Vormärz's liberal and nationalist movements and laid the groundwork for fundamental rights.

This constitution and the points on which it was based arose as opposition to the Metternich Restoration system. The constitution also proposed a, parliamentary monarchy ruled by the emperor, a member of the dynasty, but the King of Prussia IV. Friedrich Wilhelm rejected the proposal on the grounds that if he was offered this rule, the rights of the princes of the German states would be restricted.

Prussian Reforms

There have been many periods in the history of Prussia in which it has carried out reforms. Usually the most important reforms, however, took place in the 18th and 19th centuries. These reforms were divided into 3 headings. Military Reforms: During the reign of Friedrich Wilhelm II, the Prussian army became Prussia's main force. These reforms were carried out with the aim of increasing the discipline of the army, professionalizing the soldiers and increasing their effectiveness. These reforms enabled Prussia to become one of the greatest military powers in Europe. Educational reforms: In the 18th-19th centuries, Prussia underwent a number of radical changes in the education system. Under the influence of Wilhelm von Humboldt, the transition to the modern education system was made. With this system, the state was enabled to have a greater say in education and led to the dissemination of education. Bureaucratic reforms: During the reigns of Frederick Wilhelm the Great and Friedrich Wilhelm II, a number of bureaucratic reforms took place aimed at

strengthening the central government and ensuring an effective state administration. these bureaucratic reforms laid the foundations of the modern state and also made Prussia a strong centralized state

Liberals' view of independence in 1848

Liberals' view of independence movements in general may vary according to the political and social events of that period, but the main tendencies they show are nationalism, national identity, the principle of liberal democracy, opposition to feudalism and despotism, freedom and the right to expression. Liberals were generally under the influence of nationalism and wanted to strengthen their national identity, supporting independence movements and advocating national unity and independence. They believed that governments should be based on the will of the people, and that independence could only be achieved through the existence of a democratic system that would allow the people to determine their own destiny. Liberals opposed feudalism and despotism and thought that the powers of central governments should be limited. Liberals were advocates of freedoms and freedom of expression. They saw independence movements as a social movement that struggled to protect the freedoms and rights of individuals. However, when we look at the essence of the matter, the views of these people on the independence movements could vary depending on the political and social conditions of the period and region they lived in and the specific characteristics of their demands.

St. Paul Church

The St. Paul's Church Council is a historic body in Minnesota. The assembly is a meeting of church members and leaders to discuss the governance of the church and its impact on society. The assembly may be focused on the future of the church, its mission and services, or it may focus on how to be more effective for the church's congregation and community. The vast majority of those who attended the St Paul's church council in Frankfurt in 1848 were members of various political persuasions and social classes. Participants in this assembly included liberals, democrats, nationalists, representatives of the bourgeoisie, labor leaders, intellectuals and some aristocrats. Liberals and democrats, usually members of the bourgeoisie; They were people who defended democratic reforms, fundamental rights and freedoms. The nationalists represented groups that supported German national unity and the unification of Germany. Labor leaders were present in parliament to defend the rights of the working class and fight for better working conditions. Intellectuals and intellectuals often attended the assembly to disseminate their ideas and ideals, and made efforts to promote social change. Some aristocrats, on the other hand, participated in the assembly, supporting reformist and liberal views. On the whole, those who were included in the St Paul's Church assembly were representatives of various political and social groups that demanded democratic and national change in Germany.

Politicians' view towards Prussia and Austrians

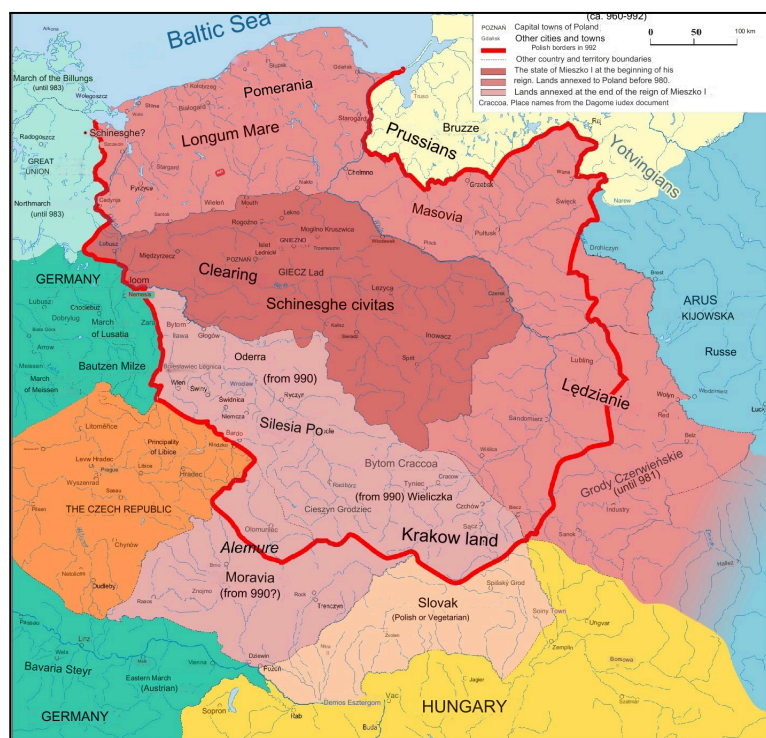
During the Revolutions of 1848, politicians' views towards Prussia and Austria often varied. Prussia was seen by many politicians as the leader of German unity, particularly liberals who favored democratic changes and

national unity inside Germany. It was anticipated that Prussia would take the lead in bringing Germany together. However, Prussia's political leaders, especially King Henry IV. While Friedrich Wilhelm favored moderate reforms, some liberals demanded more radical changes. As for Austria, the Austrian Empire was multinational and, given Austria's ethnic and religious diversity, faced demands for national identity and autonomy. Therefore, many politicians, especially groups wishing to strengthen their national identity, opposed Austria's central authority and demanded greater autonomy or independence. As a result, politicians' views towards Prussia and Austria varied depending on their overall goals, such as German unification and democratic reforms.

Poland

The roots of Polish history can be traced to ancient times, when the territory of present-day Poland was settled by various tribes including Celts, Scythians, Germanic clans, Sarmatians, Slavs and Balts. However, it was the West Slavic Lechites, the closest ancestors of ethnic Poles, who established permanent settlements in the Polish lands during the Early Middle Ages. The Lechitic Western Poland, a tribe whose name means "people living in open fields", dominated the region and gave Poland - which lies in the North-Central European Plain - its name.

However, Poland, as a unified realm, was begotten far before the national awakening of the people, or the creation of a patriotic identity. The first ruling dynasty of this unified kingdom was the house of Piast. Duke Mieszko is considered as the *de facto* creator of the state of Poland, as he consolidated the west slavic tribes under his rule. His popularity in the context of Polish history is furthermore elevated by his adoption of Catholic Christianity, which was later on the most prominent feature of the Christian feudal regnal ideology.



Mieszko's dominion was formally reconstituted as a medieval kingdom in 1025 by his son Bolesław I the Brave, known for military expansion under his rule. The most successful and the last Piast monarch, Casimir III the Great, presided over a period of economic prosperity and territorial aggrandizement before

his death in 1370 without male heirs. The period of the Jagiellonian dynasty in the 14th-16th centuries brought close ties with Lithuania, a cultural Renaissance in Poland and continued territorial expansion as well as Polonization that culminated in the establishment of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in 1569, one of Europe's largest countries.

Polish Lithuanian Commonwealth



The official name of the state was the Kingdom of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. In the 17th century and later it was also known as the 'Most Serene Commonwealth of Poland', the Commonwealth of the Polish Kingdom, or the Commonwealth of Poland.

Western Europeans often simplified the name to 'Poland' and in most past and modern sources it is referred to as the Kingdom of Poland, or just Poland. The terms 'Commonwealth of Poland' and 'Commonwealth of Two Nations' were used in the Reciprocal Guarantee of Two Nations. The English term Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and German Polen-Litauen are seen as renderings of the 'Commonwealth of Two Nations' variant.

Other informal names include the 'Republic of Nobles' and the 'First Commonwealth' or 'First Polish Republic', the latter relatively common in historiography to distinguish it from the Second Polish Republic.

As the informal endonyms of the Commonwealth evidently convey the proto-democratic aspect of the kingdom. The state possessed an extraordinary

system of governance and its Golden Liberty placed controls upon monarchical authority, a precursor to modern concepts of democracy. Legislation was enacted by the General Sejm, a bicameral parliament administered by the szlachta nobility, and the king was bound to comply with the constitutional principles dictated by the Henrician Articles. The country also maintained unprecedented levels of ethnic diversity and relative religious tolerance, guaranteed by the Warsaw Confederation Act of 1573, though the degree of religious freedom was not always uniform and varied over time. Poland acted as the dominant partner in the union. Polonization of nobles was generally voluntary, but Catholicism imposed across the large realm was resisted by some minorities.

Demise of this seemingly democratic state was, ironically, due to a combination of the corrupted nobility of the sejm itself and destruction brought by external conflict. Sejm, the very system which was supposed to defy an oblivious king to ruin the prosperity of the nations of the Commonwealth had allowed and steered the laws to protect only the noble landed gentry.

The commoners were seldom represented or cared for if any. This alienation of the Polish nobility and intelligentsia from the common folk would endure even to the 19th century, Napoleon's constitutional vassal state Duchy of Warsaw and even the Congress Poland.

The Partition of the Commonwealth

The Partition of Poland refers to the division of the Polish state into three separate parts towards the end of the 18th century, partially ending the existence of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and causing it to disappear for 123 years. The partitions were orchestrated by the Habsburg monarchy, the Kingdom of Prussia, and the Russian Empire. The territories were divided among these empires, each acquiring control over different regions.

The first partition of Poland, marking the beginning of the three partitions that ultimately led to the dissolution of the state, occurred in 1772. This partition was a result of the Russo-Ottoman War of 1768-1774, which ended with Russia's victory, strengthening its position and posing a threat to the Habsburg Monarchy. The primary reason for the partition was Russia's increasing power, which threatened both Prussia and the Habsburg Monarchy. King Frederick II of Prussia initiated the partition to prevent Austria from entering the war. The weak state of the Commonwealth, including territories already under significant Russian influence, was divided among Austria, Russia, and Prussia, restoring the balance of power between these empires in Central Europe.

The second partition of Poland, which marked the second phase of the state's dissolution, occurred in 1793. After the Russo-Polish War of 1792 and the formation of the Targowica Confederation in 1792, Prussia and the Russian Empire agreed to partition the region. The Polish parliament, the Sejm, reluctantly accepted the second partition to prevent the third partition and the complete annexation of the state. This partition also led to the end of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

The third partition of Poland, which marked the final phase of the state's dissolution, occurred after the suppression of the Kosciuszko Uprising in 1794, led by Tadeusz Kosciuszko. Following its failure, Prussia, Russia, and the Habsburg Monarchy completed the annexation of Poland, depriving it of its independence. The third partition was followed by a series of Polish uprisings until Poland regained its independence in 1918.

In English, the term "Partition of Poland" is sometimes used geographically to refer to the regions seized by the occupying empires, namely the Austrian Partition, the Prussian Partition, and the Russian Partition.

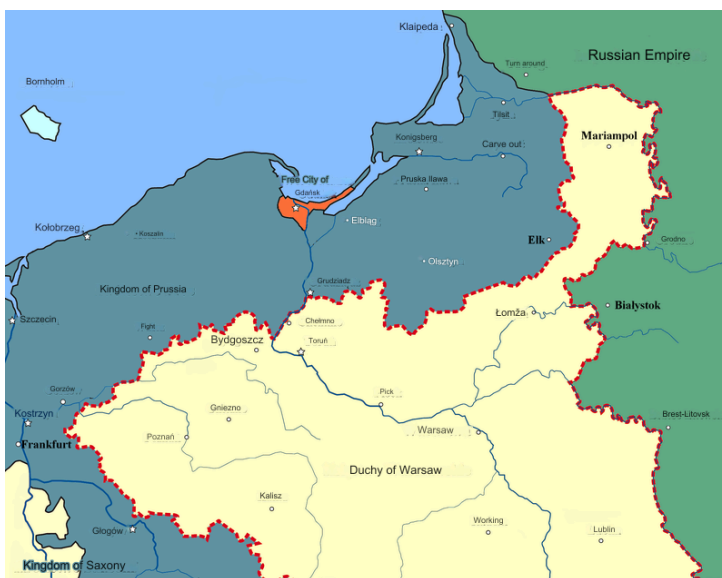
Austrian Partition

During the First Partition of Poland, which occurred between 1772 and 1775, Austria seized the divided territories, becoming the second-largest state in terms of both land and population after Russia. With over 2.65 million people and more than 130,000 square kilometers of land acquired, Austria became the second-largest beneficiary of the partition.

The Austrian Empire incorporated several significant regions of Poland into its territories, including the Duchies of Zator and Oświęcim, Krakow, Sandomierz, and Galicia. Additionally, following the Third Partition, Austria gained Western Galicia and Southern Masovia.

Several significant events mark the history of the Austrian Partition. These include the establishment of the Napoleonic Duchy in 1807, the war between Austria and Poland in 1809, supported by France, and the victorious Battle of Raszyn in 1809, resulting in the recapture of the Duchies of Krakow and Lwow. However, with Napoleon's fall, the Congress of Vienna in 1815 returned control of these duchies to Austria. Through the Congress, Krakow emerged as an independent state under the joint control of Austria, Prussia, and Russia, lasting for a decade. Nevertheless, Austria ended this status after suppressing the Krakow Uprising in 1846.

Russian Partition



The Russian Partition, sometimes also referred to as Russian Poland, encompasses the territories that the Russian Empire annexed and took control of during the late 18th-century Partitions of Poland. The lands acquired by the Russian Empire constituted the largest portion of Poland's

population, residing on approximately 470,000 square kilometers of land, making it the largest territorial acquisition. Additionally, the majority of the Polish population fell under the Russian Empire's rule with the acquisition of these lands.

Even before the events of the late 18th-century partitions of Poland, the Russian Empire had already invaded and taken control of some territories of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. The first portion of the Russian Partition occurred in the late 17th century through the Treaty of Andrusovo signed in 1667, which granted Russia the Commonwealth's territories in Eastern Ukraine. During the Third Partition of Poland, Russia acquired Courland, all Lithuanian territories east of the Nieman River, and the remaining parts of Volhynian Ukraine.

One of the significant events during the existence of the Russian Partition was the Warsaw Uprising in 1794. This uprising resulted in a massacre in the Praga district of Warsaw, where approximately 20,000 civilians were killed by the Russian Imperial Army, regardless of gender, age, or any other factor.

In 1807, following another victory, Napoleon established the Duchy of Warsaw after the Fourth Coalition War against Prussia and Russia. The Duchy was personally held in union by King Frederick Augustus I of Saxony. However, with the Congress of Vienna in 1815, the Duchy was dissolved, and all its territories were returned to their previous rulers. A Tsarist Kingdom of Poland was established in the returned territories, with the Tsar assuming the title of King of Poland. The protectorate was gradually integrated into Russia throughout the 19th century.

Nevertheless, the relentless colonial activities of the Russian Empire led to the November Uprising of 1830-1831, which took place in the heartland of partitioned Poland. The uprising, which ended unsuccessfully, resulted in further repression and punitive actions by Russia against the Polish people.

The Russification policies implemented in the territories of the Russian Empire were harsh and brutal. Particularly after the November Uprising of 1830-1831, significant pressure was exerted on the Polish population. Many Poles who actively participated in the uprising emigrated to the west, captured and exiled to Siberia, most of the commoners, which sought asylum in Prussia or Austria after their armies were defeated, were returned to the Russian Partition with promises of amnesty. However there still was a great amount of western



emigrants, this emigration in history of Polish peoples was named as the Great Emigration due the extent of its effect.

Important figures formed political organizations for the fostering of the lives of the emigres and to facilitate another Polish revolution against the 'Holy Alliance'. Polish revolutionaries condemned the 1830 Revolutions leaders, as they saw them as another oppressor to the Polish people and found their indecisiveness in adjoining the commoners to the fight. The period between 1831-1848 saw a rise among the emigrated left-winger Polish political organizations.

Prussian Partition

Sometimes referred to as Prussian Poland, the Prussian Partition, or Prussian Section, encompasses the territories and populations acquired by the Kingdom of Prussia during the Three Partitions of Poland in the late 18th century. The territorial integrity acquired by Prussia from the partitions covered approximately 140,000 square kilometers of land formerly belonging to the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

Following the First Partition, Frederick II settled around 60,000 German families in the annexed Polish territories to Germanize the acquired lands and further enrich Prussian territory. The new territories were also seen as providing an increased tax base, additional population for the Prussian military, and an alternative to the overseas colonies of other major powers. Frederick viewed the conquered Polish territories as a bridge to achieve these goals.

As Frederick pursued his conquests, he followed an imperialist policy that prioritized the security interests of his state. Additionally, he employed propaganda to legitimize his colonialism and exploitation of Poland for his own benefit. Frederick claimed that the Polish government was the worst in Europe after the Ottoman Empire. However, in a letter to his brother Prince Henry, Friedrich admitted that the Polish territories were economically profitable.

Frederick's ultimate goal was to displace, expel, and replace the Polish population in the conquered territories with Germans, whom he considered better workers. To achieve this, Frederick invited numerous German citizens to settle in the conquered lands with promises of free land. Additionally, he plundered Polish properties, gradually appropriating them and redistributing them to German citizens. Frederick also heavily taxed Polish nobles and aimed to expel them from their lands, further weakening their power. As a result of these policies, Friedrich settled approximately 300,000 German colonists in the conquered territories.

Frederick exploited the outlying regions of Prussia under the pretext of an enlightened civilizing mission. He attempted to Germanize the Polish population through education. Creating an environment where Polish was marginalized, both Polish and German were used in education, and individuals were encouraged to speak German. Additionally, compulsory military service

in the Prussian army was seen as a means to Germanize the Poles. Frederick boasted that by such means, he would gradually eliminate all Poles.

In the Second Partition of Poland, the Kingdom of Prussia invaded and annexed the important cities of Gdańsk and Toruń (Thorn), which had been within the borders of the Kingdom of Poland since 1457. This invasion sparked the first Greater Poland Uprising in Kujawy under the leadership of Jan Henryk Dąbrowski. The revolt came to an end after General Tadeusz Kościuszko was captured by the Russians.

In the Third Partition, Prussia annexed the Podlasie region and the remaining parts of Masovia, while the capital city of Warsaw was handed over to the Russians twenty years later by Frederick III. The Second Greater Poland Uprising erupted in Wielkopolska in 1806, preceding Napoleon's defeat of Prussia and the establishment of the Duchy of Warsaw in 1807. However, Napoleon's defeat during his Russian Campaign led to the dissolution of the Duchy at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, and the return of control to Prussia.

The third Greater Poland Uprising under Ludwik Mierosławski occurred in 1846. The Uprising was intended to be part of a general uprising against all three states that had partitioned Poland. In Berlin, 254 insurgents were charged with high treason. Two years later, during the Spring of Nations, the fourth Polish uprising broke out in and around Poznań in 1846, led by the Polish National Committee. The Prussian army pacified the area and 1,500 Poles were imprisoned in Poznań Citadel. The Uprising showed Polish insurgents that there was no possibility whatsoever to negotiate Polish statehood with the Germans. Only sixty years later, the Greater Poland Uprising (1918-1919) in the Prussian Partition helped Poland regain its freedom in the aftermath of World War I.

In the Prussian partition, Poles were subjected to extensive Germanization policies. Frederick brought approximately 300,000 colonists to the territories he conquered to facilitate Germanization.

However, this policy had the opposite effect to what the German leadership had expected: instead of assimilating, the Polish minority in the German Empire became more organized, and its national consciousness grew. Among the Three Partitions, the education system in Prussia was at a higher level than in Austria and Russia, despite its aggressive attack on the Polish language specifically, resulting in the Września children's strike in 1901-04, which led to persecution and imprisonment for refusing to accept German textbooks and German religion lessons.

Social Structure in Poznan

Poznań had a large Polish population deeply attached to its culture and language. This population was mainly engaged in occupations such as local administration and trade. However, the Germanization policies implemented by the Prussian Administration had an impact on this large Polish population living in Poznań. Additionally, there was a population of German workers settled in Poznań by Frederick. This German segment worked in various sectors such as agriculture, trade, and industry. The presence of the German population interacted with the Polish population, influencing social and cultural dynamics. Looking at the class structure in Poznań, it

consisted of the Polish nobility and landowners, as well as the working class. Although Polish noble and landowning families traditionally existed in Poznań, they weakened over time due to the reforms and policies implemented by Frederick and the Prussian Administration, leading to changes in the structure of the land they owned. The working class generally engaged in occupations such as agriculture, industry, and trade, constituting a significant source of income in Poznań.

1830 November Uprising

Overview

The November Uprising, also known as the Russo-Polish War or the Cadet Revolution, which took place between 1830 and 1831, is one of the significant steps taken by the Polish people to regain independence in their fragmented and oppressed country. Although it ended in failure, the uprising laid the groundwork for subsequent revolts and demonstrated the Polish people's commitment to freedom to the world and the occupying Russian Empire.

The main objective of the uprising was to push back the Russian Empire, which exerted pressure on Congress Poland, seized control of its administration, and subjected the people to unimaginable atrocities, in order to regain independence for Poland. When a revolution broke out in Paris in July 1830, and Russian Emperor Nicholas I indicated his intention to use the Polish army to suppress it, a secret society of Polish infantry officers initiated an uprising in Warsaw on November 29, 1830. Although civilian supporters and the officers organizing the uprising failed to assassinate Grand Duke Constantine, the emperor's brother and the commander of the armed forces in Poland, or capture the Russian barracks, they succeeded in seizing weapons from the arsenal, arming the Polish population, and gaining control of the northern section of Warsaw.

The partial success of the insurgents was supported by the reluctance of Grand Duke Constantine to take action against them and his eagerness to suppress the uprising. However, lacking clear plans, intelligent and decisive commanders, and discipline, the rebel population lost control of Warsaw, which they had seized, to political figures who restored order in the city.

The uprising gained widespread support, leading the insurgents to formally depose Nicholas as the King of Poland. However, the disorganized and undisciplined armies were unaware of the imminent arrival of Nicholas' army

of about 120,000 troops and were unprepared. Nonetheless, the Polish army, with a force of 40,000, showed resilience in some battles. Despite their resistance, the Polish army could not stop the Russian advance and the Battle of Grochow on February 25.

Afterwards, the Russians settled into winter camps. However, Polish armies continued to revolt in Lithuania, Belarus, and Ukraine, which were under Russian control at the time, in the spring of 1831. Yet, Polish commanders lost confidence in the uprising and withdrew from leadership, also failing to secure foreign support they relied on.

As a result, after a major Russian victory at Ostrołęka on May 26, 1831, the uprising lost its momentum. Uprisings in western Russian provinces were crushed, and the people began to lose confidence in the leaders of the revolution. When the Russians finally attacked Warsaw on September 6, the Polish army withdrew to the north. Subsequently, the territories of Congress Poland fell under stricter and more repressive Russian control. Following this, the Poles surrendered by crossing into Prussian territory, and the November Uprising came to an end.

Europe in the face of the uprising

The November Uprising was born on the wave of revolutionary aspirations that took over most of Europe. In France, Belgium, Germany and Italy it was known that Poles, standing up to tsarism, thwarted the armed Russian intervention, and thus they strengthened the chances of liberation movements in the West. Revolutionary elements were sympathetic to Poles and enthusiastic about their victories. The French left attacked the government for its indifference to Poland and stormy demonstrations taken for this reason shook the streets of Paris several times. Many French and Germans came to volunteer to fight in the Polish ranks. The November Uprising had a stimulating effect on Hungarians, Czechs and Slovaks, as a model of active defense of nationality. And contributions reached Poland from these countries, volunteers. The example of Poles accelerated the crystallization of new, more active and aware political groups and camps. In Russia itself, 1831 brought a wave of social riots. Conspiracy circles, suppressed after the Decembrist uprising, were also revived here and there. 11 About the November Uprising Student youth in Moscow and St. Petersburg universally sympathized with the Poles. One of the student groups in Moscow had very few realistic plans for revolution in agreement with the Poles, but it soon fell apart, it seems the effect of provocation. The prevalence of pro-Polish sentiments in progressive circles of Europe testified eloquently to the importance of the Polish issue in the international context of that time revolutionary movement.

Cabinets of European powers reacted completely differently to the November Uprising. For the French government and England, this outbreak was a convenient phenomenon because it allowed them to regulate matters Western Europe without regard to Tsarist Russia. That way, thanks A neutral Belgian state was established for the Polish uprising. Powers Western powers, however, had no intention of helping the Poles. If the government of King Louis Phillip

expressed his "sympathy" for Poland several times, he did it exclusively for the sake of public opinion.

Czartoryski managed the diplomacy of the November Uprising as president of the government. The agents he sent to all capitals emphasized the legal and conservative nature of the uprising and sought intervention or mediation in the Polish case. However, in Paris and London they were met with indifference from offices. The Prussian government, formally neutral, actively supported Russia, concentrating a lot of troops on the border, not allowing weapons and volunteers to enter Poland.

Austria took a stronger stance rather than being ambiguous. Wishing that the uprising would fail, she did not fight it openly. The army was busy suppressing the Italian Revolution, therefore fearing for its fate Galicia avoided provoking Poles. Czartoryski deluded himself that he was offering the Polish crown to one of the Habsburgs to gain Austrian help. His efforts in Vienna were unsuccessful, and as the uprising was drawing close to collapse, the attitude of Austrians towards him also became more severe. People were removed from leftist circles which had ideas of shifting the uprising to Galicia in order to not trigger the anger of the Habsburgs.

August 15

After the Battle of Ostrołęka, the uprising entered a period of crisis. Hope for victory was slipping away, but internal difficulties were multiplying. War exhausted treasury reserves, and the propertied classes were timid to extend their losses any further.

August 15, 111

The government expanded arms and ammunition factories, but only in industry stagnation occurred. The poor in Warsaw were outraged by high prices and unemployment. In the Łódź district, weavers of German nationality were openly against the uprising. Therefore, dissatisfaction with the way things were conducted was growing from various sides.

In this situation, the reactionary circles gathered around the commander-in-chief, Czartoryski, raised their heads and headed towards capitulation. Skrzynecki continued to maintain it with all intention of passivity of the army, only sending small groups for the sake of appearance against one or another Russian column. His supporters put forward a motion in the Sejm for government reform, in practice for the establishment of a dictatorship that would crush the opposition leftist and loosed its hands to make arrangements with the enemy.

The left has taken up challenge and unleashed a violent agitation in the press, in the Sejm, and on the streets of Warsaw against the commander-in-chief and against the "couch coterie" The slogan became "popular uprising", i.e. calling the masses of the people to arms. Szaniecki's relevant motion in the Sejm set the condition that "peasants will acquire land ownership without violating private property."

Ziemiańska most were reluctant to this project. Taking into account requests for opinions a popular uprising was adopted, but in a limited form, with the

exception of peasants under arms they will be under the command of the nobility and under strict military rigor.

The idea of any promises to alleviate the obligations of peasants or farmers was also rejected with any proposals of giving them land ownership. The popular uprising achieved, this way, the opposite effect than intended. It distracted the peasant from farming during the harvest, without giving him anything in return. The village offered recruits reluctantly. The nobility also sabotaged this peasant formation, and the command did not know how to use the peasant army. A common mob, corrupted in execution, in military terms it failed the test. The long inaction of the army finally began to bear disastrous results.

In June, Dybicz, who died of cholera, was replaced in the tsarist army by a new commander chief, Paskiewicz. He led his main forces through the voivodeship Płock down the Vistula, which he crossed near the Prussian border. Enemy it now threatened Warsaw from the west, from the side no longer protected by the wide area river line. Skrzynecki did nothing to prevent the tsarist army from doing so a risky march.

The eyes of the general public were finally opened. There was an uproar in Warsaw. On June 29, a crowd of people showed up in front of the castle, demanding punishment for traitors and with difficulty they were appeased. In the Patriotic Society, day after day There were demands for the resignation of the government and the leader. They united with the left wing of the political party in Warsaw young "supernumerary" officers, as well as refugees from the "taken lands". Only when Paskiewicz had already entered Łowicz did the Sejm decide to reconcile Skrzynecki from the command. His temporary successor was General Dembiński, a good soldier and not a capitulator, but a conservative who refused to give in to the pressure of the "street".

Czartoryski was removed from Warsaw and other "discredited" people who joined the expedition. Ramorino drove as far as Brest, achieved no tangible successes, but was urged to do so. He didn't have time to return to save Warsaw. It was defended by only 34-40 thousand. army against 77 thousand enemies. On September 6, Paskevich ordered an attack on the strongest point of the Wola suburbs. While defending it, the disabled general, Józef, fell heroically to Sowiński. Krukowiecki started negotiations and proposed a solution to the Sejm and ending the war.

The Sejm, under the influence of the "Kaliszans", rejected this demand and took it away when Krukowiecki took power. The battle flared up again, but the Polish command was mainly concerned with preventing civilians from participating in it.

The enemy was already reaching the third line of fortifications. New war council decided to give up the city; the army moved to the right bank of the Vistula and retreated to Modlin. After the fall of Warsaw, Polish forces were still in Płock and Lublin and Kielce approx. 60 thousand people, twice as many as when the uprising broke out.

However, the generals did not want to fight any further. Ramorino hastily retreated to Galicia. In Modlin, the war council imposed General Maciej as the leader of the Sejm Rybiński, who resumed negotiations with Paskiewicz. The

Sejm was in session at first in Zdrozým, later in Plock, he protested against the capitulation, but he could no longer impose his will on the command. The only thing he achieved was to prevent formal surrender.

Active, patriotic the people of Warsaw played a role, saving the existence of the uprising in the November Uprising itself, serving the support of the left-wing opposition, eager to fight until the last moment. For the November Uprising of the conscious part of the nation in all three partitions It became a great experience, intensifying her patriotic feelings, which she expressed the most complete poetry of the time. Friedrich Engels, comparing two Polish uprisings several years later: of 1830 and 1846, he called the first of them a "conservative revolution". This is paradoxical; the list well reflects the dual nature of the November movement. Conservative or even the counter-revolutionary leadership did not erase the revolutionary character of the fight of Poles against tsarism itself. This is best revealed by the role played by the uprising on an international scale.

Poland, blocking the path of military interventionist tsarism, strengthened the chances of revolutionary and national liberation movements in the West. She set an example of international solidarity among peoples facing oppression. The insurgent left did not for a moment equate the fight against tsarism with the fight against it to the Russian nation. On the contrary, honoring the memory of the Decembrists, Polish patriots expressed hope that they would find allies in the Russian nation against a common oppressor. On Lelewel's initiative, entering Russian troops were welcomed at the beginning of the war, raising flags with the inscription: "For our and your freedom". This motto, affirming international importance of the Polish issue, was also taken up by November emigration.

Politics of the Great Emigration

Conditions of living in exile

The defeat in 1831 convinced all patriots of the ineffectiveness of the previous methods of defending independence. In the country, under Paskevich's oppression, public discussion on the causes of the defeat and the future of the nation was not possible. This discussion was started by participants of the November Uprising who voluntarily left the country.

The Great Emigration

The emigration in the post-November years was to produce an environment that forged new - and different -- programs of action and tried to implement them for the salvation of Poland. ,

Two main factors determined the number and nature of emigration. The first was the amnesty announced by the tsar at the end of 1831, from which members of the government and parliament, as well as the most prominent participants of the November Uprising and the events of August 15, were excluded. The leaders of the uprising falling into these categories encouraged their comrades to emigrate en masse. The Prussian and Austrian authorities, having disarmed the insurgents passing through the border cordon, treated them in accordance with the tsar's recommendations: they tried to force soldiers and non-commissioned officers to accept amnesty, and did not pose any difficulties for officers in leaving for the West. As a result, the vast majority of rank-and-file insurgents, despite their resistance, were pushed to the Russian side and forcibly incorporated into the tsarist army. The emigrants were mainly officers and civilian intelligentsia, three-quarters of them were of noble origin. They were held back from returning not only by honor, but also by the international situation.

In France, Germany and Italy the wave of revolutions has not yet subsided. The opinion of these countries was enthusiastic about the Polish "knights of freedom". Songs were sung in their honor, banquets were hosted, and an alliance against despots was declared. The expected revolutionary upheaval or conflict between the superpowers seemed to open up opportunities for the Polish cause again. In this case, it was worth maintaining as many cadres of the Polish army as possible abroad. People of various beliefs cooperated in organizing these emigrations.

Disposition of the Polish Revolutionaries to different alignments

Czartoryskists

The right wing was occupied by Czartoryski's camp. It gathered most of the insurgent dignitaries, senior officers and wealthy landed gentry, but also many average emigrants who were impressed by the prince's relations or who sought his protection. While in emigration, the Czartoryskist camp evolved in a liberal direction: they now recognized the need to abolish serfdom, and perhaps even gradual enfranchisement, and agreed to equal rights with the nobility of the wealthy bourgeoisie. Referring to the tradition of May 3, they aimed at a constitutional monarchy based, following the French model, on a property census. In exile, however, they adhered to the principle of authority, claiming that the November Uprising was brought down by the lack of a strong government. Prince Adam was the "chief" and his followers owed him blind obedience. They also deliberately put aside worldview discussions until after the victory; the relevant principle was: "First be, and then how to be." This is how the Union of National Unity was organized in 1833, a complex structure with five degrees of initiation, with top-appointed authorities.

The internal contradiction of the Czartoryski camp resulted from the fact that it aimed at armed insurrection and reforms, and could find support in the country only among the wealthy landed gentry, who were afraid of insurrection and were slow to reform. This camp also emphasized its attachment to Catholicism, but failed to find any support from Rome, where

Poland's rights to independence were not recognized. Diplomatic overtures of Fr. Adam's goal was to regain pre-partition Poland, but they settled on the legal basis of the Congress of Vienna, violated by Russia, the Congress Kingdom, as their starting point.

Leftist Poland condemned Fr. Adam for betraying the interests of the nation, distracting it from revolutionary activities. In 1834, almost 3 thousand emigrants signed a protest against Czartoryski's policy, stigmatizing him as an "enemy of Polish emigration". Despite extensive relations and material resources, Czartoryski's camp remained a relatively narrow circle. A group of his young supporters, headed by Janusz Woronicz, declared at the end of the 1830s that they believed Fr. Adam as the Polish "de facto king". Publicly, Fr. Adam did not acknowledge this declaration, but he did not distance himself from it, which only made him laugh. Czartoryski had wider opportunities to act in the field of diplomacy . His influence remained insignificant both abroad and in the country.

Lelewelists

The center, relatively numerous emigrant circles remained faithful to the tradition of the November Uprising, i.e. the idea of noble revolutionism. Allying with the people, not with the governments, in the name of the slogan: "For our and your freedom", winning the people to the national cause, without rejecting the nobility, these were the most characteristic features of this trend. The main character here was always Lelewel. His concepts, historiosophical ideas, the theory he preached about the original Polish "communal government" also influenced the left. In everyday practice, however, Lelewel did not want to associate himself with the democrats. In 1833, he categorically spoke out against serfdom, but he hesitated as to what the future rural system should look like. In any case, he wanted to avoid framing the issue in a way that would exclude the nobility from the national movement.

In the spring of 1833, armed uprisings were announced in France, Italy, Germany and Poland. They all failed, the revolutionary forces turned out to be too weak. The supreme coal mining authority, the Supreme Universal Committee, at the last minute refused to sanction these projects. Zaliwski's guerrilla movement found no support in Poland. The attack in Frankfurt am Main was suppressed after a few hours. However, upon learning of the Frankfurt accidents, Polish coal workers from the Besançon plant, Karol Stolzman and Ludwik Oborski, encouraged 500 participants to march. After crossing the French border, they learned that they had no reason to go any further. So they found shelter for a short time in Switzerland, where many political emigrants from Italy and Germany were gathered at that time.

Młoda Polska (Young Poland)

It was a staffed and semi-secret organization (known existence, secret participation). Its aim was to take over the leadership of all left-wing emigre groups and then to lead the conspiracy in the country. It professed republican and democratic principles, without specifying the program of social reforms.

Some of its members, e.g. Szymon Konarski, co-editor of the magazine "North" spoke in favor of taking away the estates of that part of the nobility that did not take part in the uprising. At the time of its greatest growth, Młoda Polska had 142 members, associated in 39 communes. It did not manage to subdue emigration, in particular the Democratic Society refused to cooperate with Młoda Polska. In 1835, the bravest members of the organization, including Tadeusz Żabcicki, Szymon Konarski and the Zaleski brothers went as emissaries to the country. For a few years, they also became the leaders of the domestic conspiracy; however, the activity of Young Poland in exile weakened.

Polish Democratic Society (TDP)

The Polish Democratic Society gradually developed a specific ideology and program. The first group of a dozen or so founders recruited subsequent supporters, convinced by the deep belief that in a free, broad discussion they would develop reliable guidelines for the liberation of Poland. A group of members living in one town formed a section, and its activities consisted mainly of ideological discussion. The sections maintained contact through... correspondence

At first, the actual leadership of the organization remained in the hands of the "Paris Complex", or rather its changing leaders. Over time, the "Complex" was divided into several sections, according to the districts of the city of Paris. An uninhibited discussion soon revealed significant differences of opinion within the Society. On the second anniversary of the uprising (November 29, 1832), Krępowiecki gave a speech in French in Paris, in which he gave his own interpretation of the last movement. He claimed that Poland's destruction was caused by the nobility and the oppression of peasants they practiced, and that the false principle of "national harmony" proclaimed during the uprising served only counter-revolutionaries. He therefore demanded a break with the nobility; the nation, he argued, could only be liberated by a radical social revolution. He did not hesitate Krępowiecki also used the example of the leaders of the Ukrainian people: Nalewajki, Chmielnicki and Gonta. This speech caused wild outrage in the noble emigration circles, and the leadership of the TDP, Krępowiecki, Gurowski, Pułaski and several even more prominent members, also distanced themselves from him. This conflict showed that the leaders of the Society (Płużański, Janowski, Heltman and others) refrained from extreme radicalism.

They recognized the need to enfranchise and make peasants independent, and rejected the idea of liquidating landed property. Mainly concerned with maintaining the ideological unity of the Society, they unhesitatingly removed individuals and entire sections leaning either in a liberal or more extreme revolutionary-democratic direction. This "purification" of the Society took place mainly in the years 1834-1835, when the functions of the Central Section were taken over from Paris by the section in Poitiers. Under this new aegis, the Society's law was developed collectively, and then a public discussion on its confession of faith was held. Heltman's draft was discussed in sections and in many points changed; further amendments did not receive a majority. After a year-long discussion, the final version was voted on, signed by 1,135 members and made public on November 3, 1836. The new program, adopted at the end of 1836, included the main provisions of the previous draft.

Poitiers Manifesto

"Poland must win independence with its own forces, that these forces rest in the people, that democracy will liberate these forces."

"Everything for the people, everything by the people" from this slogan resulted in theses about the freedom and equality of all citizens and the electability of all offices (it meant a republic, although the Manifesto did not mention this word, taking into account the suspicion of the French police).

Practically, the Poitiers Manifesto announced that on the first day of the outbreak of the upcoming Polish uprising, the national government would announce free enfranchisement of all peasants using any land. It ended with the announcement of breaking the resistance of the nobility if they tried to oppose this reform.

Possibilities of Democratic Agitation

While working on its program of enfranchisement, Polish democracy believed that it had found a reliable way to recruit the peasants in the cause of National Salvation and liberate the homeland. However, the matter was not that simple where the feudal system still existed; the village lived in isolation and dispersion, unable to act on a nationwide scale, deprived of a clear understanding of its own situation. The village felt the oppression of the direct oppressor of the ruler, the ruler, the heir, and this oppression gave rise to hatred.

A Galician peasant did not want to take medicine for a sick child at the hands of the heiress; he suspected it was poison... The same peasant was waiting for an improvement in his fate from the "good emperor".

Everywhere in Europe (except France in 1789) agrarian reforms came from the government, in the name of the monarch, in the interest of strengthening the conservative power. Poles were the first in Central Europe to plan a reform against the monarchs in the interests of freedom and progress.

How could they gain the trust of the peasants? - the rebellion was still ongoing, and the foreign official was able to fuel this disbelief. The revolutionary democrat had a chance of winning over the peasant, because he was ready to side with the people against the nobility. However, the nobility saw the revolutionary democrat as a mortal enemy; prevented him from entering the village and thwarted his agitation.

This very point - reaching the peasants with properly set propaganda - was the central issue of the conspiracy after 1831. Initially, when this propaganda was of a moderate nature, the conspirators still found support in some patriotically disposed courts. From the beginning, however, the conspiracy activity had to be based on layers without wealth: the urban intelligentsia

and the impoverished and small nobility. After 1840, slightly larger groups of craftsmen, workers and peasants also took part in the movement.

The first insurgent initiative came from emigration and found fertile ground in Galicia, where many participants of the uprising were still staying. One of Lelewel's emissaries, Walerian Piekteiwicz, established a secret organization here that was to collect weapons and recruit volunteers for the partisans. Its territory, as it was understood, was to be the Russian partition; Therefore, some Galician landowners, including Count Wincenty Tyszkiewicz at the head. Their organization was later referred to as the Nameless Union, as it had no name, statute or ideology, and only helped migrant workers. In the winter of 1832/1833, several dozen emissaries led by Col. arrived secretly from France to Galicia. Zaliwski at the head. The project was poorly prepared. In exile, it was opposed by Czartoryszczyzna and the Dwernicki Committee, while the coal industry refused to support him. Zaliwski wanted to operate with small units after

Organizations of the 1830s in Galicia

...A dozen or so people who would appear simultaneously throughout an entire partition area up to the Dnieper: alerting the enemy, cutting off communications and agitating for a general uprising. The guidelines for the emissaries spoke generally about the liberation of Poland from sea to sea, about the sovereignty of the people and the granting of land to peasants, and about equality and freedom of all citizens. The partisans were to address these slogans to the manors, which in turn were supposed to influence the peasants. Most of them were caught by the army within a few weeks, without gaining the support of the population. 3 were hanged, about 60 were killed in action, many others were sentenced to hard labor. In the Poznań region, emissaries were arrested and a trial was brought against the citizens who supported them. Similarly, the Austrians, who for some time had been ignoring the works carried out in Galicia against their neighbor, now, after the agreement in Münchengrätz, began to catch emissaries and expel foreign subjects. Zaliwski himself was sent to prison. His undertaking was extremely reckless and showed a lack of understanding of the country's capabilities.

The Induction was from there stated that it was necessary to precede the new insurrection attempts with a longer propaganda campaign. It was undertaken by one of Zaliwski's companions, Karol Borkowski, who at the end of 1833 began to expand the coal industry in Galicia. His helpers were mainly emigrants: Seweryn Goszczyński, Henryk Dmochowski and others. Several patriotic landowners were also involved. The coal workers began to carry out their propaganda by creating small, five-person circles of the Union of People's Friends; they were not supposed to know that they were subject to the coal management. These circles were created separately in the landed gentry and intelligentsia circles; "friends of the people" were advised to continue propaganda among the peasants. Emissaries were sent to Poznań (Leon Zaleski) and Volhynia (Ignacy Kulczyński), and relations with Hungary were established. The director of the Ossolineum, Konstanty Słotwiński, secretly printed agitational literature in the printing house of his coal plant, passing it off as published in exile.

However, Austrian regulations against emigrants led to a very quick destruction of the coal industry. Already in 1834, most of its founders were under lock and key. Then, a group of activists of the Union of Friends of the People led this organization further, and soon transformed it into a new, "Polish" coal industry, already independent of the Paris International Committee. The Union's propaganda campaign was concentrated in the urban environment in Lvov, spreading among lower officials, writers, students and clerics, as well as the small bourgeoisie. A young lawyer, Franciszek Smolka, came to the forefront of the organization. The coal industry in Kraków underwent a similar evolution, and thanks to Goszczyński and Lesław Łukaszewicz, it also separated from the foreign headquarters.

The following year, — 1835, emissaries of Young Poland appeared in Krakow. This organization, associated with Mazzini and the Italian liberation movement, placed emphasis on the fight against Austria, and therefore on the Krakow-Galician area. Lelewel's envoys: Żabcicki, Konarski and the Zaleski brothers, reached an agreement with Goszczyński and Łukaszewicz regarding the assumptions of the new organization of the Association of the Polish People. Compared to the earlier secret unions, the Act of Association emphasized the social issue more strongly, setting itself the goal not only of liberating Poland from foreign violence, but of the complete rejuvenation of the nation. As usual, emphasis was placed on freedom and equality of all citizens, but there was also talk of a unicameral parliament, elected by popular vote. The peasants were generally promised the abolition of serfdom and enfranchisement.

The Association was intended to be a three-partition institution. It was headed by the Main Church based in Kraków; provincial "zemstvos" for Krakow, Galicia, Poznań, the Kingdom of Lithuania and Ukraine were subordinated to him. Lviv coal miners were recruited for the Association, placing their leaders: Smolka and Teofil Wiśniowski at the head of the local zemstvo. Konarski went to Ukraine as an emissary, Gustav was delegated to Warsaw Ehrenberg. An agreement was also reached with democratic conspirators in the Czech Republic and Slovakia. A group of Czech patriots came to Krakow and pledged brotherhood with the Poles on the Kościuszko Mound. Two divergent trends soon emerged in the Association of the Polish People. The more moderate, liberal one only wanted to influence propaganda as before on the nobility and "enlightened" classes, instilling in them sympathy for the people. He saw the date of the uprising in the distant future. The Smolki group from Lviv was especially inclined in this spirit. Meanwhile, among the academic youth in Krakow, a more sincerely democratic tendency prevailed: direct agitation among the people. So they began to create revolutionary circles among Polish and Jewish craftsmen. Leon Zaleski conducted propaganda among the miners in Jaworzno, as well as among the highlanders. The conspirators tried to collect weapons and learn fencing. The famous song by Ehrenberg became an expression of the anti-noble sentiments of this community. to you, gentlemen magnates!"

Relationships of the 1840s in the Poznań region and the Kingdom of Poland

At the end of the 1830s, the fires of secret work ignited by the Lelewelists died out one by one. Their direction was now to be taken over by the TDP Centralization, which in 1840 was moved to Versailles. It drew on the experience of its predecessors: two outstanding activists of the Association of the Polish People, Goszczyński and Wiśniowski, had fled from Galicia to France, pointed out to Centralization the risk and impossibility of direct agitation among the peasants, and advised them to start working with the nobility, as before. In Centralization, Heltman and Tomasz Malinowski took this point of view into account. Compared to the Lelewelists, they changed their method in that they established conspiracy committees in the country closely related to Centralization, through the person of a permanent emissary in them. In this way, they expected to keep the work in the right direction. In 1839, Walerian Breński founded such a committee in Poznań, and Wincenty Mazurkiewicz in Warsaw. Galicia, engulfed by mass arrests, was left aside. Through Königsberg and Augustowskie, instead they reached Lithuania. Two landowners, the Skarżyński brothers, as well as a doctor, Anicety Renier, spread democratic beliefs there among the small and middle nobility and the Vilnius intelligentsia.

The Poznań committee was headed by **Karol Libelt**, a philosopher and educator devoted to democratic views, but far from radicalism. Taking advantage of a milder political course, he could inspire propaganda without any obstacles. From 1838, "Tygodnik Literacki" was published in Poznań under the editorship of Antoni Woykowski, a magazine with a lively editorship and a progressive orientation. It preached democratic principles almost without cover, and by fighting against the organic activists under Marcinkowski's banner, opinion was prepared for the uprising. Serfdom in the Prussian partition was basically already liquidated, so the Poitiers Manifesto seemed acceptable to the Greater Poland nobility. **Libelt's Committee** found support among the landowners, especially since it did not emphasize a quick date for the uprising. However, this compromise policy soon encountered resistance. As the class struggle intensified in the countryside, so did the mood of conspiracy. In the 1830s, revolutionary and democratic tendencies came to the fore only sporadically, but in the 1840s this phenomenon would become more and more frequent. Against this background, protests against the management of the organization from distant Paris began to multiply. The left wing of the national conspiracy wanted to take it into their own hands and lead it their own way, the right wing was afraid that the left would not reach an agreement with Paris and therefore also opposed the Paris leadership. In both variants, the slogan was the same: only the people had the right to decide on the date and form of the uprising.

Opposition to Paris first became apparent in the Kingdom. The new organization founded by Mazurkiewicz was called the **Union of the Polish Nation** and had branches in several provincial cities. The most active was the Lublin cell, headed by a young lawyer, Aleksander Karpiński. Karpiński's inspiration was Henryk Kamiński, the owner of the estates near Chełm, an economist and theoretician of the revolutionary movement. Disappointed with

the Czartoryski supporters with whom he had initially collaborated, he was deeply moved by the belief that the **Poitiers Manifesto** provided the correct solution to the issue of Poland's liberation. He only wanted to convey the truth about enfranchisement to the peasants in the most effective way possible and to inspire them to fight. Kamiński considered conspiracy an unnecessary risk, but he was a supporter of mass propaganda, which should reach from the intelligentsia and nobility to court officials, and through them to the people. At the moment of the outbreak, it is enough for each group to have an energetic "apostle" who will announce a social revolution, and the entire village will follow him. Kamiński was aware that some of the nobility may be reluctant to enfranchise the peasants; therefore he wanted to announce unequivocally that every landowner who opposes the revolution is to be punished with death. In his opinion, the threat of revolutionary terror was to break the resistance of the nobility and make spending unnecessary.

Kamiński presented his thesis in the book entitled *On the vital truths of the Polish nations*, published in Brussels in 1844, under the pseudonym of Filaret Prawdoski, he explained what the future "people's war" would look like: a universal, one-off uprising of all the inhabitants of the country who take up scythes, forks, axes and their sheer mass. They crush the enemy's resistance. Kamiński presented the same idea in a more accessible way, in the form of questions and answers, in the *Democratic Catechism*, published a year later. Both books gained enormous popularity in patriotic circles, but aroused horror among the conservative landed gentry (as Spirydion Przewdzicki) cursed in the *Psalm of Love* what seemed to him an encouragement to slaughter the nobility; he contrasted the social revolution with his own solidarist slogan: "the Polish people with the Polish nobility". Prawdoski and Przewdzicki were not as far apart as they might seem; Kamiński was not a revolutionary democrat and also wanted the nobility to participate in the uprising. He just did not believe that the nobility would join the uprising without strong coercion... However, the truth is that everything he wrote about the "people's war" served to awaken revolutionary-democratic sentiments in society.

Kamiński's cousin and friend was Edward Dembowski, 10 years younger than him, a carefully educated and extremely talented young descendant of a landed gentry family. At the age of 20 (1842), he founded the magazine "*Przegląd Naukowy*" in Warsaw and, within the limits set by censorship, he attacked serf exploitation, class superstitions, clericalism and all forms of retrogression. He became the main animator of the entire circle of literary youth, including also women "enthusiasts" — whose talents he used for revolutionary propaganda. Active, of course, in the conspiracy itself, he pushed the Association of the Polish Nation to quickly take up the fight. He came across the trail of a revolutionary organization active in Warsaw, composed of craftsmen, gained their trust and became enthusiastic that among them they decided to abolish property ownership! In 1843, he was about to signal an armed outbreak when he was surprised by a new wave of arrests. Dembowski managed to escape and ended up in Poznań.

The Libelt Committee, in which Centralization was represented by Malinowski and Heltman, had more and more difficulties in postponing the date of the uprising.

Groups of landowners associated with the conspiracy (Władysław Kosiński, Adolf Malczewski) sensed the increase in radical moods; At times it seemed to them that it would be safer to start the uprising earlier, while the right wing was still in control. Dembowski skillfully inflated these moods, because he himself wanted to take the reins out of the hands of Centralization. Against the Libelt Committee he found support in more radical elements. Around 1842, Walenty Stefański, a printer, bookseller and publisher, organized a separate secret organization in Poznań, commonly called the Plebeians' Association. Craftsmen and journeymen, as well as school children, entered it. The union's branches existed in many cities in Poznań and Pomerania, and also reached Upper Silesia. Stefański had contacts among Polish soldiers in the Prussian army, and he also recruited small groups of peasants-farmers. Edward Dembowski got closer to the "plebeians" and strengthened them in their opposition against **Karol Libelt**. Without looking at the Centralization of Versailles, he was thinking about the tri-partition uprising of 1844.

Year 1846

The Failed Outbreak of the Uprising

The uprising preparations carried out from the beginning of the 1940s in Pray were accompanied by a revolutionary upheaval spreading over the countryside. **The serfs from Galicia and the Kingdom, the agricultural proletariat from Silesia and Poznań, rose up against court oppression.** This ferment worried the landed gentry elements involved in the movement. For many of them, the only way to avert the agrarian revolution was faster than the outbreak of a national uprising. In their opinion, the enfranchisement of peasants-owners, according to the principles of the Poitier Manifesto, was intended to enable — satisfy the village and persuade it to participate in the struggle under the leadership of the nobility.

By 3 days: they imagined that by announcing the abolition of serfdom at the last minute they would also win the peasants to their side. Meanwhile, on February 18, a small unit of Austrians entered Krakow, called to the rescue by a local resident. The three members of the future National Government present in the city lost their heads and decided to call off the outbreak of the uprising; a few hours later they withdrew this appeal order as well. This is how the plan for a simultaneous, nationwide outbreak collapsed. Even where such an organization existed, local leaders refrained from acting either on orders from Krakow or out of a sense of their own weakness. The already gathered troops went back to their homes, wanting to wait out the course of events. Only in a few places there were short-term armed uprisings.

In Galicia, the movement was paralyzed by the attitude of the peasants. Small insurgent units armed themselves in manors; in the eyes of the people it was a noble job. Democratic propaganda did not reach the villages in time; meanwhile, Austrian officials told the peasants that they would receive freedom if they proved loyal to the emperor. So nowhere did the Galician peasants allow themselves to be persuaded by the nobility to take part in the uprising; here and there, such as in the Tarnów area, peasant groups disarmed the insurgents and handed over the beaten and injured people to the Austrians.

Even where slightly larger insurgent units gathered (e.g. near Sanok), they dispersed without a fight. Teofil Wiśniowski, at the head of 50 men, forced a hussar squadron twice as large to retreat in Narajów (in the Brzeżański province), but he also dismissed his men, seeing that he could find no followers anywhere.

The Prussian partition did not move as a result of preventive arrests. Only among the Kashubians, thanks to the agitation of a young student-democrat, Florian Ceynowa, was there a weak attempt to protest. A group of about a hundred farmhands and laborers gathered to attack the Prussian garrison in Starogard. However, the landowner leader Józef Puttkamer-Kleszczyński sent them home. A few days later, news spread about the outbreak of the uprising in Kraków. Groups of conspirators not subject to arrests, mainly from the Plebeians' Union, thought of fighting again and attacking the Citadel in Poznań, where the conspiracy leaders were imprisoned. The urban poor were to take part - local peasants were also recruited, especially from the village of Górczyn, headed by the brothers Maciej and Jan Palacz. But the Prussian authorities were prepared for this.

On the evening of March 3, a column of insurgents approaching from Kórnik was ambushed at the Chwaliszewski Bridge. There was no uprising in the city, and its initiators fell into the hands of the police. In the entire territory of Poland, only in two centers did the movement not collapse from the very beginning. An uprising against the invaders began in Kraków, and a peasant uprising against the nobility spread from Tarnowski. However, these two movements did not unite into a nationwide agrarian revolution, but turned against each other.

Krakow Uprising

In the Kraków City State, conditions were ripe for an uprising in 1846. Urban poor, students, miners from Jaworzno and Wieliczka, and enlightened peasants near Kraków supported the national cause. On February 20-21, insurgents clashed with Austrians in the city but were repelled. However, Austrian commander Collin withdrew on February 22, leaving Kraków free.

The National Government of the Republic of Poland was established, with Jan Tyssowski, Ludwik Gorzkowski, and Aleksander Grzegorzewski as key members. They issued a Manifesto calling for national uprising, promising abolition of privileges, land for peasants, end of serfdom, social welfare, and land distribution. The proclamation was enthusiastically received, with 6,000 volunteers armed within three days.

Despite internal conflicts, Tyssowski declared himself dictator on February 24 to counteract the spreading peasant movement. Edward Dembowski arrived, advocating for social revolution and deeper Manifesto reforms, including immediate end of serfdom, tax reduction, and free salt distribution. He organized a "revolutionary club" and sent emissaries to promote the revolution.

However, Austrian Colonel Benedek's march from Tarnów swayed Galician peasants with promises of money. On February 26, he defeated an insurgent unit near Gdów. Dembowski led a procession to Podgórze but was killed by Austrian infantry on February 27, ending the uprising.

Negotiations with Austrians followed, and Tyssowski resigned, leading volunteers to the Prussian border and disarming on March 4. The revolution, lasting only nine days, was the first social revolution in Poland, merging national and social issues. Despite its brief duration and failure to gain wider peasant support, it inspired revolutionary democrats like Engels and Marx.

Peasant uprising in Galicia

The peasant uprising of 1846 in Poland was a significant act of resistance against feudal exploitation, often mischaracterized by the nobility as due to ignorance or bureaucratic plots. It was a spontaneous response to worsening serfdom and exploitation by the Austrian government and local lords. Legal disputes over land and burdens fostered peasant resistance and leadership.

Amid crop failures and natural disasters in 1844-1845, peasants faced homelessness and hunger, with ineffective relief from the nobility and bureaucracy. Protests began in 1845, but democratic efforts to channel peasant unrest were thwarted by noble conspirators. By February 1846, rumors of noble plots to kill peasants led to armed village guards. The failed noble attack on Tarnów on February 18 sparked widespread peasant uprisings against manors, not in defense of the emperor but against the feudal class.

Peasants invaded manors, destroying property and court files, and dividing the spoils. This "rabacja" swiftly spread across Tarnów and neighboring districts. Authorities attempted negotiations and punitive measures, dispersing peasant units and punishing leaders by the end of February.

Spring of Nations in Poland and the Events of 1848

Germany and Italy; numerous nationalities of Central Europe were awakening to independent life. Various antagonisms: political, national, and social, intensified in the years 1846-1847 as a result of natural disasters and the economic crisis, and the tenacity of the conservative governments of Guizot and Metternich led to the release of these antagonisms in the form of barricade coups. The series of European revolutions, picturesquely called the "Spring of Nations," was a combination of events of various nature, conditioning each other, but also counteracting each other.

The Polish issue was to be placed at the very center of these events; it was, in Marx's words, the revolutionary component of Prussia, Austria, and Russia. Every upheaval in Poland weakened the system of the Holy Alliance — and vice versa, every revolution in Europe increased the chances of liberation for

Poles. Hence the unique compatibility of interests between the cause of the European revolution and the Polish cause. Polish patriots, revolutionaries in other countries and the leaders of the counter-revolutionary camp were equally aware of this agreement.

In anticipation of new revolutionary shocks, the Polish emigration recovered quickly from the defeat of 1846. The Democratic Society sympathized with the **Krakow Manifesto** and took credit for this revolutionary act. Under this impression, most members of the Union (including Lelewel, Worcell, Krępowiecki) joined the **TDP**. At the beginning of 1847, Central Command sent an emissary to Poland, Józef Wysocki, who established severed contacts with conspiracy circles in Poznań, Kraków, and Warsaw. It was also agreed with the branch office of **Young Italy** in Paris that Polish democrats would come to the aid of Italy if an uprising were to break out there first. The trial of Polish conspirators in Berlin was used for propaganda purposes. The leading defendant, Mierosławski, publicly stated there that the last Polish movement was the work of Central Command, that it had no social goals, only national ones, that it did not turn against the German nation, but only against tsarism. These theses were obviously tendentious, they were intended to popularize the Polish cause among progressive German opinion.

Poznań Uprising

In the Poznań region, the events of 1846 contributed to the intensification of antagonisms: both class and national. Bailiffs excluded from the regulation reacted strongly to the news from Galicia. In the pre-harvest season of 1848 there were hunger riots in villages and towns, and there were riots against manors. At the same time, Prussian repressions against patriots strengthened the antipathy towards the Germans. After being imprisoned, peasants and workers suffered as much as the intelligentsia and nobility. The propaganda of the Plebeians' Union referred to the slogans of the Krakow Manifesto, proclaiming that by expelling the Prussians, the Polish people would regain their rights. Stefański, who had just been released from prison, was in charge of this work. The February coup in Paris led to the expectation of a conflict between the monarchies of "old Europe" and republican France. The agents of Centralization wanted to involve Poland in this conflict, causing an uprising in all three partitions. Stefański was also involved in this.

In Berlin that day, the victorious people forced a political amnesty on the king. The Polish convicts, led by Mierosławski and Libelt, were released from the prison in Moabit. Mierosławski spoke to the crowd, announcing a joint armed march of Germans, Poles and other liberated peoples against tsarism. At that moment, not only the German revolutionaries, but also the **liberals coming to power in Berlin, thought of war with Russia as a means that could accelerate the unification of Germany**. For this purpose, they were ready to use Poles. At the same time, the Poznań deputation that came to Berlin, headed by Archbishop Przyłuski, mainly wanted to reach an agreement with the government and avoid an armed conflict. Meanwhile, Frederick William IV, behind the back of his liberal ministers, called on the commander in Poznań, General Colomb, to restore by force order. The Poznań committee missed the first moment when, taking advantage of the general confusion, it was possible to attract crowds of scythemen to the city and attempt to take over the Citadel. Stefański noticed the conciliatory maneuvers of the landed right, but did not

decide to openly oppose them; he was afraid of raising the slogan of an agrarian revolution due to the tragic Galician precedent of 1846. Meanwhile, Polish committees were spontaneously formed in the provinces, removing the partitioning powers and arming the scythemen. This movement also reached **Pomerania, the Chełmno region**. Most of the landowners, the general public, were involved in it for various reasons.

Polish population of towns, a large percentage of bailiffs and agricultural workers, smaller groups of enfranchised farmers. The landless and smallholders expected land reforms; The National Committee, however, was reserved in its promises of a social nature and spoke about rewards for peasant volunteers in rather general terms. Mierosławski, who arrived in Poznań at the end of March, became the head of the War Department; he had recruited 6-7 thousand people, but he wanted to arm and train them, so he postponed entering the Kingdom of Poland. Meanwhile, Colomb concentrated his forces and on April 3 declared a state of siege in Poznań. From Berlin he was ordered to refrain from repression, because General Willisen went to Poznań on a peacekeeping mission. He was a liberal, favorable to Poles; He offered provincial autonomy to the National Committee and demanded disarmament in return. The right wing of the Committee accepted this offer with enthusiasm, Libelt and Stefański with reluctance. Mierosławski protested on behalf of the army, but he also hesitated before calling the peasants to uprising because, as he himself claimed, he did not want to be in the role of Szela, leading the peasants against the nobility.

In Jarosławiec on April 11, a compromise was reached: Willisen agreed to leave four Polish "camps" under arms, with a total strength of almost 3,000 people. **The possessed nobility accepted this arrangement with a sigh of relief, while the peasants, who were ordered to go home, shouted: "betrayal!"**

Mierosławski had no belief in either peasant movement or war with Germany; in 4 camps he detained 4-5 thousand people under his command, but he organized them for an offensive to the east, still under the illusion that it would happen in Europe to a grand anti-Russian coalition. Meanwhile, soldiers and some revolutionary-minded officers demanded revenge on the Prussians. A clash was inevitable, because General Colomb already had orders to disperse the camps by force. In the National Committee on April 25, the right wing pushed through a resolution on disarmament. The army did not recognize her, the left wing left the Committee as a sign of protest, but none of them did not take any political action of her own.

The revolutionary achievements were retained in Prussia even after 1848, and the institution of the Sejm, in which the Prussian partition was also represented, was retained. The initially introduced universal and equal voting was already replaced in 1849 by a much tighter electoral law, which ensured an advantage for the most taxed population groups. In the Poznań region, this ordinance was to the advantage of the landed gentry. In the name of national solidarity, Polish deputies in the Prussian Sejm formed a Polish Circle, obliged to act uniformly in the chamber. The landed majority of the Circle adhered to the principle of not interfering in German affairs, and demanded the national rights of the Grand Duchy of Poznań, referring to the

old decisions of 1815, but did not care about the fate of their compatriots in Silesia and Pomerania.

The few democratic deputies who, like Krotowski, sought agreement with the German left, referring to the principle of equality and brotherhood of nations, were not allowed by the presidium of the Circle to speak at the plenum. The conservative attitude of the Circle did not ensure its success; on the contrary, the harassment of the Prussian administration soon reduced the number of Polish deputies elected from Poznań from 16 to 6.

Under pressure from popular movements in various provinces of Prussia, including in Silesia, the Prussian Sejm took up the revision of the enfranchisement legislation that was unfavorable to peasants. In the years 1848-1850, many remaining feudal burdens were abolished free of charge, such as the right of manors to hunt on peasant lands. Subsequently, all exclusions from participation in regulations were abolished. In this way, smallholder peasants were also allowed to be enfranchised, of course only those who had not been displaced by the manors during the previous few decades. It is characteristic that the landowners from the Polish Circle voted in the Sejm against numerous, more progressive sections of the new law.

Spring of Nations in Pomerania

The year 1848 was pivotal for Pomerania's political history. Following the Spring of Nations, Gdańsk Pomerania saw increased social activism similar to Poznań. Despite an unsuccessful attempt to form an armed force in the Chełmno region, Pomerania engaged in legal activities, electing five Polish deputies to Berlin, participating in the Polish League, and expanding the native language press. Unlike Poznań, Pomerania's national activity was more democratic, led by the intelligentsia and petty bourgeoisie due to the lesser influence of the Polish gentry and opposition from the episcopal curia. Journalists Ignacy Łyskowski and Julian Prejs significantly stirred patriotic sentiments among the Pomeranian peasantry. Peasant deputy Antoni Elminowski defended peasant demands in the Prussian Parliament.

In Western Pomerania, German-occupied areas saw anti-feudal riots during the revolutionary year, quelled by the national guard. Fourteen out of thirty deputies from this province were peasants, including five representatives of the rural poor.

In Masuria, national agitation was sparked by Pastor Gizewiusz, elected envoy to Berlin, who died before assuming office. Political life shifted to constitutional clubs, discussing current issues in Polish. Journalist Antoni Gasiorowski promoted Polish nationalism in these clubs, which were eventually dissolved by reactionary forces in Berlin. The year 1848 politically awakened the Masurian peasantry but did not solidify their connection to Poland.