

History of
Grünewald

Kreis Neustettin
Pomerania

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Preface

Grünewald, a small rural village in Eastern Pomerania, was probably founded in the 14th or 15th century by German settlers. It moved with the times, but, all in all, its appearance as a farming village was preserved through the centuries. When the German inhabitants had to leave the town in 1945/46, the original structure of the town was still visible.

Today Grünewald is called Mieszaki and is inhabited by Polish people who do their best to preserve the buildings. But unfortunately, Mieszaki seems to be too far away from the prospering cities and important roads, so the general appearance of the town is poor with the exception of the public buildings: the church and the school are in an excellent state. More and more houses are pulled down – in addition to those houses which were destroyed after 1945, when they were no longer needed, because the new Polish population was much smaller than the old German had been. Nevertheless, my husband and I did enjoy our visit to Grünewald in 2001. In contrast to most other cemeteries, the Grünewald cemetery was not destroyed after 1945 and it is really worth a visit.

In this short summary about the history of Grünewald, I concentrate mainly on the time before 1900, because most of the emigrants left the town before this. The problem is that in addition to the general history of Pomerania (until 1648), Prussia (1648-1871), and Germany (1871-1945) there are few facts available on the particular history of Grünewald, mainly because the archives in Poland were not open for Germans for more than 50 years, and only now it is possible to research there as easily as everywhere else. Ernst Mielke searched through most of the books about the Neustettin region and asked the people who have grown up in Grünewald about every little detail they remembered. His first book tells Grünewalds history until 1945, but it concentrates on the years after 1880 since there was little detailed information about the earlier times. His second book is about the things that happened to the people of Grünewald after the war ended in 1945, when they had to leave their home. I have included further general information, which is easy to obtain in Germany but may be difficult to find if you do not live in Europe. Furthermore I added to this everything which might be of interest from the churchbooks (up to now I have collected all Grünewald entries for the years 1794-1874) and the sources on the internet which might be of interest. I also added many German key words – for two reasons: on the one hand, I am often not sure about the translation of historical terms like “Deutscher Zollverein” => “German Customs Union”, and, on the other hand, I want to provide you with the key words you will need for an Internet research including German sites. I appreciate all suggestions and additions you might have. Send your comments to haertlin at student.uni-kassel.de

Political Structure:

In the earlier times Grünewald consisted of the **village Grünewald**, the estate of the v. Glasenapp family, called **Günewald-Gut**, and the cottages in the wood, which appear in the churchbooks as **Grünewald-Busch**. Beginning in the 1840ies, the farms which are scattered over the hills were added. They were called **Grünewald-Abbau**.

During the 13th and 14th century what later became Kreis Neustettin was a part of the Belgard region.

In 1724, the land was divided into counties (Kreise or Landkreise), which were hardly ever changed during the following centuries.

In 1815, Eastern Pomerania was divided in three districts (Regierungsbezirke): Stettin, Stralsund, and Köslin. Kreis Neustettin was a part of Köslin district.

About 1925, the township Grünewald included the following settlements:

Grünewald Gemeinde, Grünewald Gut, Burghof Gemeinde, Neuhütten Gut, Steinburg Gut, Zuch Gemeinde und Zuch Gut. (Gemeinde means town or township, Gut means estate, usually still owned by the old families of the gentry.)

After 1945, Eastern Pomerania (Hinterpommern), to which Grünewald belonged, became a part of Poland and the German population had to leave the country. Eastern Pomerania's Polish name is Pomorze. Western Pomerania (Vorpommern) stayed German, first as a part of East Germany, until, in 1990, Germany was reunified. Western Pomerania is now a part of the German state Mecklenburg-Vorpommern.

In Germany it is common to use the spelling which was the last official spelling until 1945, except when the name of a town was changed during the 3rd Reich. In this case we usually use the last form of the old name. So I write Grünewald and not Grünwald or Grünenwalde like in the older records.

Polish names of the towns around Grünewald:

Grünewald – Mieszalki
Augustenhof – Ubocze
Burghof (Altmühl) – Radusz
Steinburg – Kamionka
Glasenapp – Godziszlaw
Zechendorf – Czechy
Gramenz – Grzmiąca
Naseband – Nosibady
Bublitz – Bobolice
Bärwalde – Barwice
Neustettin – Szczezinek
Belgard - Białogard
Köslin – Koszalin

Pomerania and the first German settlers

~**1000** - Around the year 1000 the rivers Elbe and Saale used to mark the border between the land which was settled by Germans on the western side and Slavic peoples (Pomeranians and Poles) on the eastern side. Family names started to come into use, though in many cases the people found the first names sufficient to identify a person even in written documents (until 1500).

1181 – The Pomeranian duke Bogislaw I became a duke of the German Empire. Before this he had ruled independently, but the threat by the Polish caused him to join the German Empire.

~**1150** – German settlers started to settle in Pomerania in the second half of the 12th century (deutsche Ostsiedlung). They brought their belief with them, so Pomerania was soon christianized. The greater part of the country was settled by Germans during the 13th and 14th century (Silesia 13th c., East Prussia 14th c.). The main reason why the local gentlemen called

the German settlers into the country was that they hoped to raise their tax income. After a certain number of tax-free years – depending on how much work had to be done until the farm was established – the new settlers would be good tax-payers. Another reason was that it was difficult to defend the sparsely populated country against the Polish, a higher population would also help to fight against this threat. The German settlers were granted personal freedom, but the Pomeranian population originally were bondsmen. It is generally assumed that the Pomeranians later were allowed to settle under the same conditions as the Germans, so there was no impediment for intermarriages, which might be one explanation why the German language was soon generally accepted (though the original Slavic language was spoken until about 1500 in some regions). At some time in the following centuries the farmers lost their freedom and became bondsmen again, it is not known when or how this happened, but it was before the churchbooks started (about 1650).

In contrast to the peaceful integration of Pomerania into the German Empire, East Prussia and West Prussia were conquered by the Teutonic Order of Knights (Deutscher Ritterorden).

1347-52 – The first big epidemic of the plague, which killed about 1/3 of the people everywhere in Europe. Repeated epidemics caused the population to decrease for the next 200 years. This decline in population put an end to the eastward movement of settlers. For about 200 years, all German countries were working to recover from the plague (or probably even longer). Many towns everywhere in Europe, in West Germany as well as in Pomerania, had to be resettled, the people usually came from the surrounding towns.

But nevertheless, the German settling in eastern Europe (Poland, Russia, Hungary) later continued until far into the 19th century, when the mass emigration to North America started. There have even been recorded families in which one son went to the USA while another settled in Volhynia (Wolhynien, now in Russia).

~**1530** – Reformation. After Luther had published his 95 Theses in 1517, it took some years until the Lutheran Church had developed its organisation, which was more or less done by 1530. Pomerania was, like most of Germany, Lutheran. Only after the Counter-Reformation (1555-1648) and the 30 Years' War did most southern German countries become Catholic again.

1618 – The 30 Years' War began.

1620 – A map of this year shows Grünewald under the name Schonwold. Schonwold means "schöner Wald" = "beautiful wood", Grünewald means "green wood". These old maps were not very exact, so it is not surprising that Schonwold or Grünewald was drawn a bit out of place like many other towns. It appears to be 3 km more to the west on this map.

1622 – Casimir v. Glasenapp allowed Czech refugees from Bohemia to settle on his land east of Grünewald. The town was called Zechendorf (town of the Czech people).

1628 – Joachim and Curt v. Glasenapp, the owners of Grünewald, pay taxes for 25 Hakenhufen, 4 Kossäthen, 1 miller, 1 farm worker, 1 shepherd, and 1 inn in Grünewald.

1640 – Friedrich Wilhelm I (1640-88). He modernized the administration of the country, introduced a standing army, and organized the economy according to the principles of mercantilism.

1648 – The 30 Years' War ended. Eastern Pomerania (Hinterpommern) became a part of Brandenburg-Prussia, later called only Prussia. Western Pomerania (Vorpommern) became a part of Sweden (it was reconquered step by step by Prussia in the years 1658, 1720, 1815). After 1648 the Mennonites started to immigrate to different parts of Germany.

~**1650** – A musketeer called Abraham, obviously one of the people who had made profit during the war, bought the farm which included the office as Schulze for 400-500 Gulden. This farm had a size of 2 Hufen (Landhufen) = about 60 Pomerania Morgen = about 40 ha. If this information is correct and not just a family myth, it means that this family was free at that time. The documents now still available do not show the Abraham family who had the Schulze office as being freemen.

1685 – The Huguenots obtained official permission to settle in Prussia.

The 18th century

1701 – Friedrich I. (1701-13) crowns himself as King of Prussia.

1713 – Friedrich Wilhelm I. (1713-40, “Soldatenkönig”) becomes king of Prussia. He improved the administration and the army of the country, also the school system.

1717 – The v. Glasenapp family of Gramenz pays taxes for 14 Halbbauer farms in Grünewald.

1717 (or 1722 according to other sources) – Universal school attendance became obligatory.

1732 – Prussia admits about 15,000 religious refugees from the Salzburg region (today in Austria) into the country. These refugees were called Salzburger.

1740 – Friedrich II. (1740-86) (Friedrich der Große => “the Great”) Friedrich II. was a great supporter of the Enlightenment. He immediately proclaimed religious freedom and freedom of the press when he became king of Prussia. Many religious refugees came to Prussia during the centuries (Mennonites, Salzburger, Huguenots).

1740-1742 – First Silesian War.

1744 – Ostfriesland became a part of Prussia (Friedrich II. was the heir of Ostfriesland’s ruler).

1744-1745 – Second Silesian War.

1748 – The Prussian king ordered that all state owned land which was still not cultivated should be measured and sold to settlers. Each piece of land should have the size appropriate for a Kätner or Häusler. Though Häusler means ‘owner of a house’, there was always a big garden or even a small field included. During the reign of Friedrich II., 57,000 settlers were allowed to settle in Prussia.

1754-1755 – Crop failures in Pomerania (The time between 1740-56 is recorded as a time of many crop failures).

1756-1763 – Seven Years’ War

1770-1772 – Crop failures in Pomerania.

1772 – First division of Poland, Prussia annexed West Prussia (east of Pomerania) and the Netze region. The three divisions of Poland worked like this: each time Prussia, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and Russia annexed a part of Poland until nothing was left. The Polish had no possibility to prevent this, since they were not able to fight against three enemies at the same time.

1777 – A list of Grünewald’s inhabitants shows 144 males and 99 females. There were 8 Vollbauern, 19 Halbbauern, 7 Kossäthen, and 3 Instleute/Einlieger. There were three craftsmen in town: a blacksmith, a cartwright, and a taylor. Furthermore, there were 3 soldiers. (See the chapter on population.)

1786 – Friedrich Wilhelm II: (1786-97). He restricted religious freedom and introduced censorship again.

1789 – French Revolution. It caused the French Revolutionary Wars, the Napoleonic Wars, and the Wars of Liberation.

1792-1795 – French Revolutionary Wars.

1793 – Second division of Poland. Prussia annexed Posen.

1794 – The codification of the Law of Prussia was finished (allgemeines Preußisches Landrecht). This written law also included religious freedom and freedom of the press, which had already been practiced to a certain extend.

The priests have to hand in transcriptions of the churchbooks to the administration from this year on.

1795 – Third division of Poland. Prussia annexed a part of the country located southeast of East Prussia.

1797 – Friedrich Wilhelm III. (1797-1815)

The 19th century

1803-1812 – Napoleonic Wars.

1806 – Napoleon (France) defeated Prussia near Jena and Auerstedt. As a consequence Prussia had to pay high reparations and lost all its possessions situated west of the river Elbe, and also the Polish regions annexed during the divisions of Poland.

1807 – The liberation of the farmers was begun. Step by step (1807, 1811, 1850) the farmers got personal freedom, the right to buy their land, the right to buy themselves out of the services.

1811 – Freedom of trade was introduced in Prussia. Guild orders were repealed.

1812 – The Jews were given civil rights (Judenemanzipation).

1813-1815 – Wars of Liberation.

1814 – The universal conscription was introduced to provide the Prussian army with soldiers, which were needed to liberate Prussia from the French occupation.

1815 – The German League (Deutscher Bund) was founded, an important step towards the unity of Germany and the founding of the German Empire in 1871.

1815 – Saxony (Sachsen) becomes a part of Prussia. Prussia is now again a great power.

1816/17 – Crop failures everywhere in Germany (the death rate in Grünewald was not influenced by this event).

1827 – School boards were introduced everywhere in Prussia (in Grünewald already mentioned in 1821).

1830 – Lutheran Church and the Reformed Church were unified by the Prussian king. Those who did not accept the unification kept with their old belief and called themselves Old Lutherans (Altlutheraner). (Other sources say this happened in 1817?)

1830/31 – Poverty and famine caused revolts in many German countries, which forced some of them to accept a written constitution: Sachsen, Hannover, Braunschweig, Hessen-Kassel.

1830s and 1840s – This time is known as a time of crisis all over Germany, crop failures caused famine, which was especially hard for the landless people, whose number had been increasing rapidly during the last 100 years. One of the consequences was the emigration of many people.

1834 – The German Customs Union was founded (Deutscher Zollverein), which meant that Germany gained its economical unity some decades before its political unity.

1835 – The first German railway line was built between Nürnberg and Fürth; in 1839 another between Leipzig and Dresden

1839 – Prussia took first measures against child labour in the industry. This certainly did not touch Grünewald, since Pomerania was a rural country and the work children had to do on the farms usually was not regarded as dangerous for their health.

1840 – Friedrich Wilhelm IV. (1840-61)

1840s – The first houses and farms were built in the fields around Grünewald. They were called Ausbau or Abbau, so if someone is recorded as living in Grünewald-Abbau, this means that he was living on one of the farms that were built in the middle of the fields.

1845/46 – Potato crop failures caused by a potato disease. Everywhere in Europe the poor people were starving. This famine caused another wave of emigration. This potato disease continued for several years. It came to Grünewald in 1846, and in the following winter all kinds of infections caused the death rate to climb higher than ever. In 1847 died 41 persons, while during the last ten years before the average per years had been. 15,2 deaths.

1848 – German revolution, which failed in 1849. The Prussian king was elected as emperor of Germany but refused the office, because he did not want to accept the constitution. So nothing

was changed in the German states. But nevertheless it became obvious that reforms were needed.

1850 – The liberation of the rural people was concluded. A greater mobility of the people was one of the consequences. During the 1850s, many new names appear in the churchbooks of Gramenz.

1861 – Wilhelm I. (1861-88). He had been princeregent since 1858. He enlarged the Prussian army between 1860 and 1866. The conditions for the soldiers were quite hard and so there were many deserters who went to Poland or emigrated to other German countries or America (even before this the draft caused many young men to leave Prussia).

1860s – More than 150 people left Grünewald and emigrated to Wisconsin, USA (esp. Black Wolf); this is about 12-15% of the population, probably even more left the town! Emigration continued during the following decades. This also meant that many new families came to Grünewald who bought the houses and farms of the emigrants.

1864 – German-Danish War (Deutsch-Dänischer Krieg).

1866 – German War (Deutscher Krieg), fought between Prussia and Austria.

1867/68 – Crop failures (grain, potatoes, fodder).

1870/71 – German-French War. The German Empire was founded and the Prussian king was proclaimed to be its emperor.

1873 – Economic crisis in Prussia.

1874 – Civil registration was introduced in Prussia.

1878 – The railway line between Belgard and Neustettin, which led over Gramenz, was finished. A map of 1880 also shows a new street between Gramenz and Bublitz.

1883 – Social security was improved: health insurance (1883), accident insurance (1884), invalid insurance, and pension schemes (both 1889) became compulsory for all citizens.

1888 – Kaiser Friedrich (1888)

1888 – Wilhelm II. (1888-1918)

1896/97 – The railway line between Gramenz and Bublitz was finished. Originally, the line was planned near the village close to the cemetery, but the people feared that the railway would disturb the peace of the dead, and so the track was built farther away. This way they had to walk 5 km to the station. After 1945, this line was dismantled and the material taken to Russia as reparations for the war.

1898/99 – The road from Grünewald to Zechendorf was built (7.2 km). If you know the sandy soil in that region, you know what a relief this must have been for the people with their horse carts.

The 20th century

1903/04 – The road from Grünewald to Schofhütten was built (9.7 km).

1905 – Grünewald-Gut, the estate owned by the v. Glasenapp family, was the first household in Grünewald which owned a telephone

1911 – Grünewald was connected to electricity.

1812 – The new school in Grünewald was built.

1914-1918 – World War I. At least 36 soldiers from Grünewald were killed in this war.

1918 – Universal suffrage was gained in the November Revolution. Many Germans felt that Germany was forced to become a democracy by the winners of WWI, which was one reason why they did not love the new system, the Weimar Republic (1919-1933). Another reason was that the Weimar Republic was in a permanent state of crisis, always close to a civil war, and suffered from the high reparations it had to pay for WWI.

1920 – Augustenhof was founded. The land had formerly been a part of Naseband-Gut. The 12 farms of Augustenhof belonged to the township Grünewald, but they went to church in Naseband.

1922/23 – Inflation. When the German state was bankrupt, the administration started to print money to pay its employees and civil servants. This led to inflation, which grew faster and faster. I do not know what a salted herring cost before the inflation began, but the price raised in 1923 to 800,000 RM and later even to 200,000,000,000 RM within the same year. People went shopping – or rather ran, because the money was losing value every minute - with whole baskets of paper money. Probably the people in Grünewald in that time simply went back to bartering instead of using money, which was easy for farming people, in contrast to those living in the cities. In Nov. 1923, 1,000,000,000,000 RM (Reichsmark) were exchanged for one Rentenmark to stabilize the currency. At this time 1 US-Dollar had the same value as 4,200,000,000,000 RM.

1926 – The road from Grünewald to Gramenz was built.

1928 – The town Glasenapp was founded on the land which before was Grünewald-Gut, owned by the v. Glasenapp family. The new town belonged to the parish and Standesamt Grünewald, but it had a school with one classroom, which was already built in 1907.

1929 – World economic crisis. This crisis caused unemployment, which had already been high before this date, to increase from 1,862,000 jobless people to or than 6,000,000 in 1932 and 1933. This crisis was one reason why Hitler was elected in 1933.

1933 – Beginning of the Nazi dictatorship.

In the later 1920s, Hermann Budwig, a Jew, bought the house which was called Schloß (= castle) because of its size. Hermann Budwig opened a shop for clothes, sewing material and notions, and toys. He soon sold the house again and left Germany before 1934 (the man who had bought the house of Budwig sold it again in 1934). I do not know what happened to the other Jewish families in Grünewald.

1933-35 – The road from Grünewald to Naseband was built.

1939-1945 – World War II

WWII started in Sept. 1939. Grünewald had its first victim on 29 Sept. 1939. Many troop transports went through the town. Food ration-cards were introduced, and ration-cards for clothes and many other goods soon afterwards. As Grünewald was a farming town, there were rules for how much production the farms had to deliver. For example they had to deliver 70 eggs per chicken annually.

Evacuated people from Herne and Berlin came to Grünewald. Some of them stayed for years. In the end of 1944, refugees from East Prussia and West Prussia started to come through Grünewald on their way to the west. The streets were crowded. The refugees with their horse carts had to use the minor roads because the main roads were needed for military purposes. Usually they slept in barns, but when the streets were blocked, the people had to stay on their carts. This winter was very cold and so many small children froze to death.

The school was closed on Christmas 1944. The evacuated people left the town and returned to their homes (if possible). In mid February, there were the first air-raids on Gramenz. On February 27, 1945, there was an air-raid on the street between Grünewald and Glasenapp. The street was full of refugees and soldiers, and there were certainly victims, though nobody from Grünewald was harmed. On the same day or the next, there was an air-raid on Grünewald, which left a dud in the house of the butcher Tech and a bomb hit the house of the Darkow family. Edith Lübke née Darkow, her brother's child and her mother were killed.

The front was now at a distance less than 15 km, and the army took their position along the street, Grünewald-Gramenz-Flackenheide, on Feb. 27, and on the next day also between Althütten-Zechendorf-Gramenz.

There was no official order given for the evacuation of the town. Ernst Mielke suspects that the person responsible had left the town. Some of the inhabitants left the town on March 1;

the rest hid in the woods during the day and returned to their houses for the night. On March 3, the army ordered the people to leave Grünewald and go to Groß Tychow. They planned to attack Bublitz, which was already occupied by the Russian army. Neither of them knew that Groß Tychow was already occupied or in danger of occupation. Like Gramenz it had been already evacuated on Feb. 28. Some of the people had the option to go with the troop transports to the west, the others went in their horse carts.

Grünewald was occupied by Soviet troops on March 4, 1945. Most refugees from Grünewald were overrun by the front and had to return. Some made their way with the troop transports to Belgard and then by train to western Germany; others went to the harbours and over the Baltic Sea. The war was over on May 8, 1945.

69 soldiers from Grünewald were killed or were missing, and there were at least 23 civilian victims.

1945-1948 – The time of occupation and the expulsion of the inhabitants.

The first time after the Russians had occupied the country is said to have been the worst. Many women were raped, the houses were pillaged, and the Russians often destroyed what they could not take with them. Many people were taken prisoners and sent to Russia to work. The conditions there were so bad that a great number of them did not return (at least 8 people of Grünewald died this way). The cattle were confiscated and driven away and all agricultural machinery was transported to Russia.

Things gradually became better when the occupation troops started to get organized; the best thing which could happen to a German family was that the Russians would decide to install the local headquarters in their house. These officers usually were decent people, and at least this family would not have to fear the raping and pillaging.

After some months, the country was handed over to the Polish. More and more Polish people were coming to the towns. They walked through the villages and chose the farms and houses they liked and moved in. They had to buy them from the Polish administration, but to the Germans it looked as if they simply took their property. Some of the new Polish owners sent the German families away, others let them work for their families until they had to leave. This was the hardest time for the Germans – during this time of occupation they were rightless people.

Most of the people of Grünewald had to leave their hometown on Nov. 30, 1945. They were brought to Gramenz, where they were searched and anything of value was taken away (a procedure that was repeated several times during the transport). From Gramenz they were transported by train to Scheune near Stettin. Some people say that they were transported in cattle wagons, others remember wagons with compartments, so the Polish were using whatever they had for these transports. The people who died on these transports were just put down beside the railway tracks when the train stopped – there was no other possibility. This transport ended in the refugee camp of Neustrelitz (East Germany). The conditions in this camp were very bad and many people died of hunger and disease there.

Other transports which included people from Grünewald were in March 1946, April 1946, and August 1947 (to a refugee camp in Köthen/Anhalt, East Germany). One of the transports also went to Schleswig-Holstein (a region north-east of Hamburg).

When the men who had been soldiers were released from captivity, they had no home to return to. Many of them had difficulty finding their families.

How the founding of a village was organized

When a German village in Pomerania was founded, this was the usual way to proceed: The Pomeranian nobleman contracted a man to recruit a certain number of settlers for the planned village. These recruiters were called Lokator (pl. Lokatoren). They travelled through

the country to contract the settlers. When the terrain was difficult and consisted for example of bogs, they would go as far as the Netherlands to find people who would be able to cultivate it. The settlers were given personal freedom and religious freedom, but, in the course of the centuries, they lost their personal freedom again. It is thought likely that some preparations were made by the owner of the land, using the services his Pomeranian bondsmen had to do for him (like cutting down the trees). Usually the Lokator would be the first Schulze (mayor) of the village, which means that he was the local representative of the authority. In most cases (but obviously not in the Neustettin region), the Schulze would get twice as much land as the other farmers. The office of the Schulze usually was handed down from father to son (though there were towns where they were appointed or elected) and could even be sold (usually together with the farm). The villages in the Neustettin region had a size of about 20-30 farms, each farm originally of about 15 ha (1 Hufe or 2 Flemish Hufen) in size.

When the founding of a church or school was planned, a piece of land was reserved for either of them to support the priest and the teacher. So they were farmers in addition to their job, but the farmers of the village had to plough their land, give them firewood, erect their houses and keep them in a good state, and give them several kinds of goods as payment. Often these services led to conflicts between the teacher or the priest and the farmers. When a school or church was later added to a village – like in Grünewald – they would try to arrange everything in the same way, so the school and the church in Grünewald owned some land, which was in later times rented out to different farmers. Many villages also had an inn (Krug).

In later times (after 1500?), many villages were not founded by noblemen but by the Prussian state.

Grünewald was built around a common in the form of a semicircle, through which flowed the river Triebgust, which was dammed to form a pond. Later the school was built on this piece of land.

In Grünewald, the lord of the manor (Grundherr, owner of the land) was the v. Glasenapp family. In 1530 two thirds of the town were owned by the Prussian king (Amt, Ämterbesitz, Amtsdorf). For some time about 1628 the v. Lohden family owned a part of the village. Since 1655/66 the village was again only in the hands of the v. Glasenapps.

Since about 1840 the v. Glasenapp family lived in Grünewald. They built their new estate in the east of the village Grünewald and it was called Grünewald-Gut. About 1923/25 the family sold the estate, probably because of the changing conditions after WWI, and two sons of this family emigrated to Brazil. Their land was sold to farmers in 1929, who built their houses in the middle of the fields, and a new town was founded which was called Glasenapp.

The early history of the Kreis Neustettin

There were two main periods in which the Kreis Neustettin was settled by Germans: the northern part in the 13th to 15th century, while the southern part was settled only in the time about 1540. These towns draw the line between the early and the later settlement: Persanzig (1289), Bärwalde (1286), Neustettin (1310), Koprieben (13th c.), Solnitz (13th c.), and Küdde (13th c.). Raddatz is first mentioned in 1403, Groß Herzberg was founded in 1378 and Vangerow in 1450. Because of its impenetrable woods, marshes and bogs, the south of the Kreis Neustettin was more difficult to cultivate. Also there were fights with the Polish about the borders.

Some foundation dates of towns in the southern part of Kreis Neustettin: Thurow (1543, Lokator: Hans Mandeke), Hasenfier and Jastrow (1563, Klaus Köne), Gellin (1589, Urban Panekoke), Ratzebuhr (1553, Jakob Woyke of Rosenfelde), Zamborst (1576, Martin Klogs of Groß Küdde), Eschenriege (Ewald Krause of Flackenheide), Kölpin (1564), Galow (1537),

Sparsee (1541), Dolgen (1567), Flacksee, Lubow, Rackow, Schwarzsee (all about 1564), Groß Zacharin (1569), Plienitz (1561), Altenwalde (1563), Klein Zacharin (1566), Pinnow (1568), Wallachsee (1568), Pielburg (1560), Lümzow (1563), Hütten (1563), Mossin (1563), Eichenberge (1568), Wuckel (bef. 1568), Klein Küdde (bef. 1570), Dummerfitz (bef. 1569), Linde (1577).

The settlers of the Neustettin region originated from Westphalia/Westfalen, Thuringia/Thüringen and Lower Saxony/Niedersachsen, though many of them were already descendants of earlier settlers in Pomerania.

In the 1580s, there was little land for the settlers left, which meant that they got smaller pieces of land. Some villages even had only Kossäthen, who owned 3-5 ha (about 7.5-12 acres): Pielburg, Eichenberge, Dummerfitz, and Linde. Also, at this time, some noblemen started to send their farmers away. They preferred to farm the land for themselves, because, as noblemen, they did not have to pay taxes, and so they could earn more money. This practice was called Bauernlegen.

Population

1628 – Joachim and Curt v. Glasenapp, the owners of Grünewald, pay taxes for 25 Hakenhufen, 4 Kossäthen, 1 miller, 1 farm worker, 1 shepherd, and 1 inn in Grünewald.

At that time two thirds of Grünewald was owned by the v. Loden family, so the town might have been three times as big, because the v. Glasenapps would certainly not pay taxes for the other owners of the town. But when you compare the amount of land to that of 1780, it seems more likely that the v. Glasenapps owned half the town. Grünewald certainly did not become smaller during the centuries, the land which was farmed by the v. Glasenapps in the 19th and 20th century is shown as still being wood about 1780, so it is clear that they did not send away farmers from Grünewald to found their estate. They obviously started on land that had not been cultivated before.

1717 – The v. Glasenapps pay taxes for 14 Halbbauer families.

1777 – A list of Grünewald's inhabitants shows 144 males and 99 females, who actually lived in town (the list also showed some families that had moved to other towns, on the other hand I added a family which was shown on the Gramenz inhabitants' list for the same year). 12 of the males and 11 of the females lived in Grünewald-Busch. Even if you count a wife for each household with children, you only get 293 inhabitants. This seems to be too few if you compare it with the population given of 1827 (though not impossible).

This list is obviously not complete. Though some of the free people are listed, which are often left out in such documents, the wives and old people are missing. Furthermore, the family of the teacher Dahlke does not appear, though they are known to have lived in Grünewald since 1732. In some cases, persons were listed as being single, but later additions showed that they had already had children.

A comparison with other lists written by the same secretary for the v. Glasenapps shows that this is possibly a list of all bondsmen (as far as they are important) and freemen who owned land (usually leaving out their children). The real population might have been about 10-20% higher.

The list shows 8 Vollbauern, 19 Halbbauern, and 7 Kossäthen. It is possible that some of the craftsmen and soldiers also owned some land, which was not explicitly mentioned.

1780 – 20 farmers, 8 Kossäthen, 1 school. (20 farmers means in this case 'enough land for 20 Vollbauern' => compare to the numbers of farmers and Kossäthen shown in 1777 – they would add up to 19 ¼ Vollbauern.)

1827 – 560 inhabitants (village: 410, Altmühl and Steinburg: 37, Grünewald-Busch: 113)

1867 – 1073 inhabitants (on Dec. 3)

1871 – 1116 inhabitants (on Dec. 1)

1905 – 136 inhabited houses and one other inhabited building, 154 households with at least two persons and 5 single persons, altogether 806 inhabitants (421 male persons)

1924-27 – 1046 (Grünewald-Gemeinde: 829, Grünewald Gut: 227, Burghof and Steinburg not included)

The manorial system

The manorial system developed in the early Middle Ages when foot soldiers were replaced by knights. The lifestyle of a knight was expensive; he needed horses, weapons, and leisure to exercise. The society was reorganized in a way to provide the knights with what they needed. The knights received their land as a fief from the king or from other knights higher up in the hierarchy. Besides their fief, which was originally not inheritable but soon became so, many knights also owned land of their own, which was called an Allod. These gentlemen gave a part of their land to their bondsmen in exchange for rents and services. With the help of these services they farmed the land which remained with their estate.

From this class of knights, which made up about 1-2% of the population, later developed the German gentry and nobility. I do not go into further detail about the feudal system, which describes the relationship between the king, the gentry, and the nobility, but I will concentrate in the following on the manorial system, which describes the relationship between a member of the gentry and his bondsmen.

Originally, the manorial system was intended to work like this: the farmers supported their lord of the manor giving him rents and services and were free of military service, while the lord of the manor had to serve in the army as knight. He also helped his bondsmen in times of hunger or in cases of misfortune. In most parts of Germany it was common that the bondsmen would get free wood to rebuild their houses when they had lost their property in a fire.

During the Middle Ages the manorial system worked quite well. There was still uncultivated land, especially in the eastern regions which were to become Mecklenburg, Brandenburg, Saxony, Silesia, Pomerania, Bohemia (the later Sudetenland), and East Prussia. It was again a change in the military, which caused conflicts between the farmers and the gentry. With the introduction of gunpowder the old knight armies had become obsolete. They were replaced by mercenary armies and, after the 30 Years' War, by standing armies. Of course, the common soldier was now usually a son of a bondsman, while the gentry provided the army with officers. To pay all the soldiers, new taxes were introduced, which had to be paid by the farmers. The common people now almost exclusively carried this burden, which had originally been shared by the gentry and their bondsmen. The Peasant Wars of 1525 in southern Germany were a result of this development; however, the farmers were defeated and had to accept the increased taxes.

The exact details of the manorial system have probably never been the same everywhere in Germany, and they also changed over the centuries. In some regions these changes were to the advantage of the farmers (Westphalia, Lippe) and in others to their disadvantage (Bohemia, Prussia). In western and southern Germany the farms had soon become inheritable and the rents and services had become fixed. This was not the case in Prussia. The Pomeranian farmers had to give only little rents, but they had to serve more than the peasants in more western regions.

All this turned out to be fatal after the 30 Years' War, when Pomerania had become depopulated. At first the gentry had difficulty finding people who were willing to settle as farmers, because the prices for agricultural products had declined together with the population of the cities. This meant that the lords took over the farmland and farmed it together with that of their estates, so their bondsmen had to do the additional work. There had not been a limit to

the services of the bondsmen; consequently, there was nothing to hinder the lords when they wanted to raise the services.

About 1700 the population in the cities started to increase. The rising prices for agricultural products made farming on the big estates quite attractive and profitable. However, the unfree farmers did not profit much from this situation; they worked mainly for their own needs and had hardly any surplus crops to sell. The gentry developed a strong interest to farm their land for themselves, and they used the services of the bondsmen to get the job done. They also had the right to send their bondsmen away, and did so in the following way: They gave the bondsman their freedom. With their freedom, the bondsmen often received the movable property from the farm (farming equipment and working animals). Then the gentry turned them away and the bondsman to leave. The remaining bondsmen farmers had to take over their services, doubling their work load, because there was now more land that had to be farmed with the services of less people. This process was called Bauernlegen. It is not surprising that the farmers started to 'run away' to settle in the cities or as free farmers in Poland.

Since the beginning of the 18th century, the Prussian kings tried to improve the situation of the farmers, but mostly without success.

Following are some rights and duties as they were common in Pomerania:

Rights and duties of the bondsmen towards their lord of the manor:

- In exchange for the land they were allowed to farm, the farmers had to pay rents and perform services for their lord of the manor. Compared to other German regions, the rents were relatively low in Pomerania, but this did not mean that the farmers had an easy life. Their services were not exactly defined, which meant that the lords could raise them if they liked. According to Mielke's book, the farmers in Grünewald had to serve six days per week between Candlemas (2nd February) and Martinmas (Nov. 11th). As a rule, a Vollbauer had to send four horses and the workers needed to work with them. A Halbbauer had to send two horses. A Kossäth had to send only workers. The services were somewhat less in Grünewald; the reason for this will be shown below (under the headline "Rights and duties of the Lord of the manor").
- If a bondsman wanted to marry, he needed the consent of his master. This did not mean that the lord of the manor would interfere with the choice of partners, but he would not give his consent if a couple had no means to support a family. This way the lord hoped to reduce the number of poor and dependent people, an important objective in a time where there was no more land to be settled.
- In addition to the services of the farmers, their grown sons and daughters had to serve for a few years on the estate of their lord. The payment was very low, and there was no definite period for which they had to serve. If a young couple wanted to marry, but their master did not allow them to quit their service, they would often decide to speed things up by becoming parents. The first child of a couple was often born before the wedding, but in most cases there was obviously no doubt about the father (even when he is not mentioned in the birth entry).
- The bondsmen were not free to leave their hometown. If a bondsman wanted to marry a free person or move to a city, he would first have to buy his freedom, which was documented in a letter of manumission (Freibrief, Losbrief). Such a document originally cost about 20 Taler for a man and 10 Taler for a woman, but this price increased up to 100 Taler and more about 1780. The v. Glasenapp family did not charge as much. (By 1777 they owned Grünewald, and also the villages of Gramenz, Flackenheide, Balfanz, Zülkenhagen, Bernsdorf, and Schofhütten). Documents of 1777 show that Johann Jacob Glasenapp of Grünewald had to pay 35 Taler, while

Hans Christoph Abraham, also of Grünewald, had to pay only 13 Taler. Michel Haß of Balfanz bought his freedom and that of his two daughters for only 11 Taler.

- If a bondsman wanted to marry a partner from another manor he would have to ask his master to exchange him or his partner for one of the bondsmen of the other manor. This exchange was documented in a paper called Wechselbrief (letter of exchange). In 1779 Michel Freiberg bought his letter of exchange for 7 Taler and 12 Groschen and married a widow in Goldbeck, a town nearby owned by the v. Wenden family.
- If a bondsman wanted to work in a town not owned by the same lord, he needed a permit, which was usually limited to a certain period of time.

Rights and duties of the lord of the manor:

- The lord of the manor had the right to decide who was farming his land. This meant after the death of a farmer there was no heir, but it was usually a tradition that one of the sons would be the next owner of the farm (quite often one of the younger sons, but there was no certain pattern). Of course the same was the case when a farmer bought his freedom and left, when they secretly left the country, when a farmer was in debt with his rents, or when they were not able to do the services. For many centuries it was even regarded as legal to send the farmers away, and could be because the lords simply wanted to enlarge their own estate.
- The lord also erected the farmhouses, stables and barns, and provided farm equipment and working animals. Though all this was used by the farmers, it was not their property but of their lord of the manor. For an example in 1777, this equipment included for a Vollbauer in Zülkenhagen (another village owned by the same family as Grünewald): two horses (each worth 15 Taler), two oxen (each worth 12 Taler), a cow (worth 6 Taler), a goose, a cart, a plough, an axe, a hatchet, a scythe, a pitch fork, and different sorts of grain, a part of which was already sown. Probably the number of working animals given as equipment was the same as was required when the farmers provided for their lord's services (which means that a Vollbauer in this village had to serve with two horses and two oxen instead of four horses.) While in Zülkenhagen, Balfanz, and Gramenz this equipment was relatively uniform for all farmers, it varied strongly in Grünewald. The most important difference was that the farmers in Grünewald got money, usually about 40 Taler, instead of the working animals, which had a worth of 54 Taler altogether. It is not known whether this was to the advantage or disadvantage of the farmers in Grünewald (in some cases cash could be an advantage).
- The lord of the manor had to pay taxes to the king for each hide (= Hufe, the amount of land a Vollbauer owned) that was farmed by a bondsman. The land he farmed for himself was tax-free.
- The lord of the manor was also the judge of his bondsmen. In Prussia, there was originally no possibility for them to appeal to a different court (which were only for the gentlemen and the free people in the cities). There were even times when a bondsman who tried to appeal to a court had to fear punishment. This probably improved a bit when the Prussian law was codified in 1794.
- In times of need or famine the lord of the manor had the duty to support his bondsmen. They usually reduced the rents in years of crop failures; only the cities had a public system to support the poor. When the Prussian kings tried to abolish bondage, the farmers did not accept the conditions because they feared the loss of this support in times of need.

From all described above it becomes clear that the character of the lord of the manor had an important influence on the living conditions in his villages. It often depended on him whether a town would have a school, or public buildings, and how the poor would be taken care of.

The people living in the cities were usually personally free or could obtain personal freedom within one year. The freemen in the country were either rich or poor, but not typically something in between. The rich freemen could buy land or be tenant of an estate, while the poor freemen lived as day workers (Tagelöhner), craftsmen, or tenants of smallholdings. The expression 'masterless men' ('herrenloses Gesindel') is even used today as an insult, although the people who use it hardly ever know what it means.

In some German regions, the situation of the unfree farmers was usually better than that of most of the freemen. This becomes obvious when you know that a bondsman would readily give up his freedom if he had the possibility to obtain a farm large enough to support a family. This act was called 'sich unterthänig geben' or 'eigengeben'. This was much different in Pomerania. The situation of the farmers was so bad that many left their farms secretly to settle in Poland or somewhere else, even though there were serious sentences for this. The gentlemen often had difficulty finding a person willing to take over the farm left behind. Since their bondsmen were not free to do what they liked, the lords could force one of them to take over the farm with all duties included.

I want to draw your attention to the fact that the lord of the manor was not always a real person. Any kind of institution could be in this position:

- Villages of the gentry (Adelsdörfer): The gentry owned the greatest part of the Pomeranian villages, and their people were those who had to suffer the greatest hardships. The lords earned their money with the services provided for them on his estate, and they tried to get as much out of the land and people as possible. In the villages of the gentry there was usually no right of inheritance. The Schulzen of these villages were usually bondsmen like the other inhabitants.
- Villages of the king (Amtsdörfer): These villages were owned by the king, who had founded them on his land. Life was obviously much easier in these villages, the Schulze was usually a free man. In many cases the farmers had the right to pass on their farms to their sons, which meant that they also had to maintain the buildings. This was generally an advantage and improved their situation and the productivity of their farms. The people of the Amtsdörfer gained their freedom earlier than the other villages, when, in second half of the 18th century, the Prussian king declared them to be free of serfdom.
- Others: Any other kind of institution could own villages. These were often donated to monasteries or important churches to support them (until the Reformation). Cities could own villages, like Köslin, which owned four of them. Universities were among the owners, as well as (in later times) rich citizens of the cities. The Schulze of a village of this category was usually a free man. The right of inheritance was more common in these villages than in those owned by the gentry.

The liberation of the rural people

Throughout the 18th century the Prussian kings tried to liberate the rural people from the bonds of the medieval world order. The main idea behind this was not some kind of idealism but the thought that the agriculture would become more efficient if the farmers were allowed to work for their own profit. So the general welfare would be improved and the population could be increased. Furthermore, the abolition of the forced service of the adult farmers'

children would make it easier to recruit young men for the army. The military played an important role in the upcoming of Prussia, so it is not surprising that this was seen as an important factor.

However, these attempts to reform the Prussian society were not successful. One reason was the strong opposition of the gentry: the lords did not want to give up their old privileges, which their families had enjoyed for hundreds of years. They felt that they would be deprived of their property and, in addition to that, they feared that with the loss of the services from the farmers and the cheap work from their adult children, they would not be able to farm their estates efficiently. The expenses for day labourers would be far too high, they said.

The Prussian kings signed several laws encouraging the liberation of the farmers, but these laws were never carried out – the gentry simply ignored them, and the different kings were not able to put them through.

However, it was not only the opposition of the lords which hindered this process. The farmers themselves were not in favour of these reforms. They thought that any change would be for their worse. One of their fears was to lose the support of their lords in times of need.

This situation changed only during the Napoleonic Wars, when Prussia was occupied by the French. In 1807, Napoleon, who had little respect for the old privileges of the Prussian gentry, proclaimed an edict, which was meant to liberate the rural population of Prussia. But for three years this edict was not published and the farmers heard about it only in rumours. Only in 1810, in a second edict, personal freedom for all citizens of Prussia was declared. This meant that the people could now move wherever and whenever they liked, marry when and whom they liked, start an apprenticeship without the consent of their lord, and the forced services of the adult farmers' children stopped. However, the rents and services the farmers had to give in exchange for the land they farmed still continued. Sept. 14, 1813 was the deadline until which the lord and the farmers could make contracts to end these on a voluntary basis. After this, there would be a fixed legal procedure – this was, at least, the plan. The course of events was different though: Napoleon's luck was changing and soon the Wars of Liberation were in full swing and the laws regulating the liberation of the farmers were never made.

However, this was not the end of the development. This time the farmers had obviously realized that the reforms were for their own advantage, and so the gentry promised them to continue with these reforms to ensure themselves of the support of their people. After the war was won, the gentlemen kept their word, probably because some of them had understood that it would be for their own profit, and others could soon see that this was the case. The conditions under which the farmers bought their freedom of their lords varied strongly, so it is not easy to find out what happened in a certain town. Finally, in 1850, some laws were passed to abolish the last remains of the manorial system.

According to Mielke, the farmers in Grünewald had to give up about one third of their farming land to buy themselves out of the services, but he does not give any details about the process. There is some indication, that the local lords at least thought about making the contracts before the deadline of 1813: On the margins of the inhabitants' list of 1777 were added the names of the later owners of the farms. I was able to date these remarks as being from 1812 or 1813 by comparing them to the information from the churchbooks. Even though these preparations were made, it seems that the contracts were only made much later.

I was able to gather some more clues from the churchbook regarding the time when the farmers of Grünewald finally obtained their farms as free property. I presume that, when a woman married more than once, the children of the husband who bought the farm would finally inherit it. My second assumption is that a farm could only be divided among the sons if it had been bought before.

These examples help us to get an idea of the time frame we have to think about:

- Johann Augustin Nähring (1779-1830) was a Halbbauer. After his death in 1830, his widow did not remarry, but she obviously worked the farm together with her sons Christoph Gottfried (1803-1848) and Johann Friedrich Wilhelm (1806-1862), who married in 1837 and 1838. Both appear for the first time as Kossäth in 1839.
- Christian **Krause** (1762-1829) was a Vollbauer. After his death his farm was divided between his two sons Johann Martin (b. 1801, first mentioned as Halbbauer in 1833) and Michael Heinrich (b. 1808, mentioned as Halbbauer 1838-53). Heinrich obviously could not keep his farm, he appears in 1855 as houseowner (Büdner).
- Christoph **Glasenapp** (b. 1768), a Halbbauer, died in 1832. He left four adult sons, but none of them inherited the farm. It was the son of his wife's second husband got the farm: Carl Ferdinand **Nimmer** (1834-1912). Carl's parents had married in 1832.
- The farm originally owned by Martin Christoph Nimmer (1778/79-1820) first went into the hands of his wife's second spouse Martin Heinrich Christlieb Laude (1801-1830), and then into those of her third husband Otto Casimir **Beduhn** (1809-1885), whose first son was born in 1832 (the marriage entry is missing in the churchbook). It was Otto **Beduhn**'s younger son Friedrich Eduard (1834-1911), who finally took over the property.

There is no reason why the farmers all should have bought their farms at the same time, but it is possible. From the information the churchbook provides seems to indicate that most of the farmers probably bought their farms in the 1830s. With what could they pay for their farms? All sources make quite clear that hardly any farmer had savings of any kind, the poverty of the Pomeranian farmers is generally stressed by all authors. The solution found was that they had to give up about one third to half of their farming land to their lord of the manor. This is the main reason why the Pomeranian estates, who had been becoming larger since the 30 Years' War, now again were enlarged. In Grünewald the old estates Steinburg and Altmühl (usually let out to tenants) became now subordinated to the new estate of Grünewald, which was built on the former common ground now owned by the v. Glasenapp family. Hermann v. Glasenapp came about 1846 with his family to Grünewald and began to build up the new estate. So it is likely that, by this time, the process was mostly completed. The churchbook does use the terms *Eigenhäusler* and *Eigentümer* only since 1849, when a new book was started. This seems to indicate that the Häusler families bought their property later than (some of the) farmers' families. However, as I was able to show above, this does not mean that things had not started to change earlier. The term *Eigentumsbauer*, owner of a farm according to the new laws, does not appear at all in the churchbooks.

Migration

In the earlier times migration was hindered by the unfree status of the vast majority of the population. Still at all times people moved in the hope to find better living conditions. Furthermore, there were professions, like shepherd, which caused the people to move a lot (the Shepherd families Maaß and Barz are examples for this).

After the farmers liberation (about 1850), many people became unsettled. They lived as day laborers (*Tagelöhner*) and went to where the work was. They rented a house or some rooms and lived as *Einlieger*. Some of these families moved quite often, and they are difficult to trace.

In addition to this, you have to think about migration caused by the emigration to the USA and other countries. When the emigrants left the town, they sold their property and those who bought it were not always people from Grünewald.

When the industrialization in Germany gained force after 1880, many people left the country and went to the cities, where they hoped for a better life. While in the earlier times of this development Neustettin and Köslin attracted the people, Stettin and Berlin had this role during the later times. Probably each family in Grünewald had relatives in any one of the cities!

One example for the increasing migration during the latter half of the 19th century is the Henke family. Joachim Henke, a farmer in Klein Streitz (parish Großmöllen near Köslin), had 10 children. Two sons and four daughters left their hometown and settled in Grünewald.

The first to come was his fourth child Friederike. In 1853, she married Bernhard Erich, who was born in parish Schwessin (Kr. Köslin) and had just bought a Halbbauer-farm in Grünewald. All their children were born in Grünewald. After their eldest son Bernhard married, the parents handed over their farm to the young couple and emigrated to the USA with their younger children (between 1883 and 1900). They settled in Lake Elmo, Washington Co., Minnesota.

The next of Joachim's children to come to Grünewald was Louise, who married August Beduhn, a cabinetmaker, in 1858. The couple stayed in Grünewald and had at least 10 children.

Henriette Henke, the sixth child of Joachim, married Friedrich Pommerening of Grünewald some time before 1869 (probably between 1864 and 1867). It was her second marriage, her first husband had been Wilhelm Schwarz of Rogzow.

Carl Henke, who had worked as a blacksmith in Groß Streitz, came to Grünewald some time between 1866 and 1872. He bought a farm on which he lived with his family until 1911. Then they sold their property and it is unknown where they went after this.

The next brother, Wilhelm, came in 1869 to Grünewald-Busch and soon became Schulze. He had been a farmer in Klein Streitz before this (he sold his Halbbauer farm for 5500 Taler, which equalled at that time to 4000\$), and that was what he also was in Grünewald, probably on a bigger farm now. His family left the town with an unknown destination.

The youngest sister Pauline was married in 1873 to August Malbrandt, a baker who was not born in Grünewald.

Emigration

Before the people could go overseas to seek a better life, the emigrants went to Poland and later to Russia. Maybe it is better to say they 'ran away' as it was called by their lords, because they would usually not give the permission to leave (the farmers would have to pay large sums of money for this permission, which hardly anybody could afford). When this kind of emigration increased, the borders were guarded and severe punishments awaited those who were caught.

What made Poland so attractive to the Prussian subjects was the following: they were allowed to settle as free farmers, to build their own schools (the Polish bondsmen had no educational facilities), to keep their religion (the Germans usually were Evangelical, while the Polish were Catholic), and they were able to obtain large farms that allowed them to offer a good future to all of their children. The emigration to Poland was an important factor during the 18th and the first half of the 19th century.

The emigration from Grünewald to the USA started in the 1860s. The first big wave of emigrants went to Wisconsin. First a small group to Outagamie Co., then a group of more than 25 couples and families to Black Wolf, Winnbago Co. Some of them moved later to Chanhassen, Carver Co., Minnesota.

How the emigration started at first is not known, but it is possible that an emigration agency was opened in Grünewald. The destination of the emigrants often depended on which shipline the closest emigration agent worked. It is very likely that the families who left Grünewald in the 1860s were legal emigrants: most of them were house owners, who first had to sell their property, and they had children, so it would not have been easy to leave secretly. It is possible that their applications for emigration can still be found in the archive in Neustettin.

The reasons for emigrating were usually economic, but political and religious pressure also sometimes played a role. What does this mean for our emigrants from Grünewald? The list shows that those who first left the town did not belong to the poorest class. Most of them were Tagelöhner and owned at least a house, which means that they had something to sell before they went. What is more important is that the parents of these families were usually born in farming families, their fathers were Halbbauern or Vollbauern. This reveals one reason why these families left their hometown: obviously they hoped to become farmers themselves, which most of them did in Wisconsin.

As Herman Laude was told by his grandfather Fred (Johann Friedrich Albert **Laude** b. Jan. 30, 1858 Grünewald) religious pressure was another reason for these first emigrants. He said even that they brought over their own Lutheran pastor with them, although it was not yet possible to identify him.

Among those who later followed these first emigrants into the New World are more single and/or poor people. Many of them obviously went to the family of an uncle or an aunt to start a new life. In many cases, those who would return to visit their old home and family took young relatives back with them. It is possible that there are some illegal emigrants among these later single emigrants. Their emigration did not need as many preparations, so it was easier for them to leave without an official consent. Information about them could be found in newspapers, where the officials did often search for them, especially when they had left behind debts. Young male emigrants might be listed on a deserters' report, if such documents have survived WWII.

Do not believe that the people of the 19th century did not know bureaucracy: the procedure for a legal emigration was complicated and included a lot of paperwork. I do not yet know the exact details of the process in Prussia, but it was probably similar everywhere in Germany, because the emigrants had to cross several borders until they reached the emigration ports. Nobody would have let them pass, if they were not able to prove that they were allowed to emigrate, and that they had sufficient money to do so. In the following I give the details of the procedure in Bavaria, just to give you an idea which kind of documents were needed (and might still be found in the archives):

- A birth certificate, which the pastor of the parish would write out.
- A statement of property.
- A character reference to prove that they did not try to escape from their crime or debts, or the responsibility for an illegitimate child.
- The consent of the local caretaker of the poor.
- A document proving that the country of their destination would accept the emigrant.
- Young men had to prove that they had complied their military service or were physically unable to do so.
- They had to prove that they had enough money for the trip to the port, a waiting period there, the passage fare, and the first time in the new country.
- Then they were warned of the dangers and risks of an emigration.
- After all this had been compiled, they got a preliminary receipt, which allowed them to make a contract for the passage.
- Then the planned emigration was made public (newspapers, public posting), to give creditors the possibility to claim their money.

- Only when all this was done they would get their passport that allowed them to travel to the port.

Emigration was a great risk as well as a great opportunity. Many impoverished would-be emigrants would never leave the country. They were stranded at the seaports and were returned to their hometowns. It is not known whether this was the fate of many people from Grünewald, but it seems that at least the early emigrants of the 1860 had planned their emigration well. For the emigrants of the early 20th centuries it is known that some of them returned to Grünewald, probably because of homesickness or because their emigration had not been as successful as they had expected.

To get an idea how much it cost a family to emigrate you can compare the prices to the yearly income of a Tagelöhner family in the district of Köslin in 1873, which was 630-650 Mark (210-218 Taler). This included the income of all family members, food during work time was included.

Now some passage fares:

year	ship line	port	class	adults		children		babies		remarks
1854	Cunard Linie	Havre (France) => New York	1 st class, steamship, 3 person cabins, including food	190 Gulden 30 Kreuzer (10 years and older)	95 Taler	95 Gulden (1-10 years)	47 Taler	24 Gulden (under 1 year)	12 Taler	
1854	Cunard Linie	Havre (France) => New York	2 nd class, steamship, 4 person cabins, including food	148 Gulden (older than 10 years)	74 Taler	71 Gulden 30 Kreuzer (1-10 years)	35 Taler	21 Gulden (under 1 year)	10 Taler	
1852		Havre, Bremen, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Liverpool	steerage, food included	66 Gulden (older than 12 years)	33 Taler	50 Gulden (8-12 years)	25 Taler	45 Gulden (1-8 years)	22,5 Taler	
1852		Havre, Bremen, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Liverpool	steerage, no food included	48 Gulden (older than 12 years)	24 Taler	36 Gulden (up to 12 years)	18 Taler			
1854		Havre, Bremen, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Liverpool	steerage?	69 Gulden 48 Kreuzer	35 Taler	57 Gulden 48 Kreuzer	29 Taler			

About the currencies (simplified):

Since about 1750 until 1857 one Taler equalled two Gulden.

After this there was a new Gulden used in southern Germany and Austria, three of which equalled two Taler.

In 1873 the Mark was introduced in Germany. Three Mark equalled one Taler.

After all preparations were completed, the emigrants set out for their travel. At first they had to go to the emigration port, usually Hamburg or Bremen (= Bremerhaven). They probably started by going in a horse cart either to Belgard to continue by train (which was possible since 1859), or to Köslin to go on a ship. Oral history says that, in 1863, the family of Michael **August Beduhn** took a ship from Köslin, while **Johann Christlieb Laude**'s family entered

their ship in Stettin (= Swinemünde). This was probably not a choice of the emigrants but of the agent who sold them the tickets. There are lists of the police in Swinemünde who checked that every emigrant handed in enough provisions for the trip to America in the archive in Greifswald.

When they finally reached the emigration ports, they often had to wait two or three weeks until the real voyage began, which again took about six to eight weeks by sailing ship (two weeks if by a steam ship). The family of Michael August Beduhn left their home in the middle of February and arrived on May 6, so their journey took almost three months.

To find out more about the families who emigrated to Winnebago County, Wisconsin see the Winnebago website:

<http://www.rootsweb.com/~wiwinneb/index.html>

or

<http://www.jansdigs.com/Winnebago>

There were also other reasons for emigration, and other destinations. Just one example:

“The mother of Heinrich **Velten** in Domingos Martins, Auguste Wilhelmine **Guse**, told that she had served on the estate of Grünewald and that the work there had been very hard: until late at night the girls had to yarn, and at four o’clock in the morning they were already wakened again to feed the cattle and milk the cows. Finally, her brother-in-law **Wruck** could not bear any longer the never ending driving. One day, when the owner of the estate again yelled at him unjustly, the furious farm worker stroke him dead with a wood that was used to carry the water buckets. Young **Wruck** fled and made his way on an emigration ship and finally to Brazil, where the name **Wruck** is now widely spread.”

This is a quote from: Klaus Granzow: Pommeranos unter dem Kreuz des Südens. Deutsche Siedler in Brasilien. Tübingen, Basel: 1975, p 177. Translation by Uta Härtling.

It is difficult to decide how much truth is in this story. It could only refer to Hermann von Glasenapp, who came to Grünewald about 1846 and built up the estate of Grünewald. He died on March 19, 1869 of “Herzlähmung” (paralyse of the heart), according to the churchbook of Gramenz. His son Christoph, who later owned the estate, was then a twelve-year-old boy. He died in 1919. It is possible that it was never discovered that Hermann v. Glasenapp’s death was not natural.

Domingos Martins (Espírito Santo, Brazil) has three Wruck, no Guse, and 21 Velten families according to the telephone listings of 2003.

Public offices in Grünewald during the centuries

Schulzen and Bürgermeister (since 1919, mayor) in Grünewald:

since	until	name (lifetime)	remarks
1777	1777	Casimir Glasenapp (d. bef. 1794)	Halbbauer
1806	1819	<u>Heinrich</u> Christoph Abraham (1741/42-1819)	Vollbauer
1821	1840	<u>Johann</u> Jürgen Abraham (1779/80-1852)	Vollbauer
1855		<u>Carl</u> Ferdinand Abraham (1815-1897)	Halbbauer, he was also responsible for the civil registration between 1876 and 1883.
1856	1857	Johann Martin Haß (1829-)	Eigentümer (It is possible that he was not Schulze but Gerichtsmann.)
1860	1863	<u>Carl</u> Ferdinand Abraham (1815-	Halbbauer, he was also responsible for the civil

		1897)	registration between 1876 and 1883.
1874		Christlieb <u>Albert Abraham</u> (1833-1904)	Krüger and Bauer, brother of his predecessor
1901	1919	Reinhold Abraham	
1919	1923	Friedrich Abraham	
1923	1941	Fritz Haß	
1941	1943	Willi Podewils	temporary mayor
1943	1945	Karl Horn	
March 1945		Walter Raddatz	after the occupation by the Russians
1945	?	Josef	first Polish mayor

Schulzen in Grünewald-Busch:

since	until	name (lifetime)	remarks
1815	1830	Gottfried Kalbus (1761/63-1834)	
1841	1855	Otto Christoph Hinz (about 1783-about 1855-59)	

Schulzen in Grünewald-Abbau:

1873	1875	<u>Wilhelm</u> Christian Ferdinand Henke (1831-after 1875)	Bauer in Grünewald-Abbau, he was born in Klein Streitz near Köslin and came to Grünewald in 1869.
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The church

Pomerania was christianized in the 12th century, at the same time as the first German settlers came into the country. In 1300 there were already 150-270 churches built in Pomerania (different numbers from different sources). As early as in the 14th century, Gramenz has been recorded as being the religious centre of the region, and it is assumed that there was already a church building in this town. About 1530, during the time of the Reformation, Pomerania became Lutheran and stayed Lutheran through the 30 Years' War and later on. Religious tolerance had a long tradition in Prussia, and so many religious refugees were allowed to settle there, like the Mennonites (since 1648), Huguenots (since 1685), Salzburger (in 1732), and many others.

In 1703, the village **Gramenz** burned down including the church and the priest's house, and in 1728, the house of the priest burned down again. If the original churchbooks of Gramenz had survived WWII (which is not very likely), they would certainly not go further back than this.

With the knowledge of the traditional religious tolerance, it is a bit surprising that the Prussian king did not show the same attitude towards the Old Lutherans. He had joined the Reformed and the Lutheran Church in his country to form a uniform Evangelical church in 1830. Many Lutherans did not want to accept the changes in their belief and split from the new belief. To my knowledge, Grünewald was not an Old Lutheran town, but religious discontent could have played a role when the first wave of emigrants left the town in the 1860s. Some of the small towns in Kreis Köslin north of Grünewald were Old Lutheran, and many families from that area emigrated to the USA because of the pressure.

In 1867, the daughter church **Grünewald-Zechendorf** was founded, which became independent on Dec. 22, 1877. The new parish included Grünewald, Steinburg, Altmühl (later called Burghof), Zechendorf, Judenberg, Neuhütten, which before had been a part of the Gramenz parish, and Althütten, which had been a part of Wurchow parish.

Since 1868 or the year before the children were baptized in Grünewald and probably also services were held, though the location where this was done is not known. The vicar of Grünewald was at that time Ernst Hermann Reinhold Piper (1867-71).

The church of Grünewald was built in 1884-85; the church steeple was added about 1900. Zechendorf had a chapel of its own.

Grünewald parish had 1850 members in 1911 and 1940 members in 1939.

The churchbooks in Pomerania usually started about 1650, after the 30 Years's War, but only very few survived WWII and are available for research. But for many of the parishes there are transcriptions, which start in 1794. These transcriptions had to be made for administrative purposes. They were kept in Berlin, which was the capital of Prussia since 1648, and so they were on German soil when WWII ended.

LDS films including Grünewald:

Gramenz churchbook 1193865 1794-1827
-66 1828-48
-67 1849-55
-68 1856-74 (missing: 1861, 1864-67, 1870-72)
Grünewald churchbook 1193869 1872-74
civil registration 1538560 1875 (marriages)
-61 1875-80 (births, deaths)

The school

About 1530, Pomerania had become an Evangelical Lutheran country with the Reformation, which meant that it was now regarded as a religious duty that every person was able to read the Bible, which had been translated to German (about 1534), for himself. Soon schools were founded and reading became more common than it was before, especially in the cities. How far the school system in the Lutheran regions had been advanced before the 30 Years's War started in 1618 is not known, but when the war was over in 1648, Germany and especially Pomerania were poor countries and the education was in a bad state. But in those countries, which stayed Lutheran after this war was over, the schools were rebuilt and new schools were founded, so that it was generally regarded as normal that every parish had a school of its own (there were even states where it was regarded as normal that every town of a certain size had a school).

In these early schools, the sexton (Küster) was the teacher without any special training. His living room was also the class room. The village people had to build the school house and keep it in a good state (which means they had to do the work or pay for the expenses). Later school buildings of this period had an extra school room in addition to the living room, but they did not look much different from other houses in the village. The teachers were required to learn a craft, in which they worked in addition to their teaching, to make sure that they could earn their living. Furthermore, each school owned some land, which the farmers had to plough and to sow. And then there were also some school fees and goods, which each pupil had to hand in.

In 1701 and 1703, the Prussian government had a report about the state of the education in the country, which was regarded as quite bad, because most towns did not have a school. In those towns which had a school, attendance was voluntary, so many children did not attend. In 1717, universal school attendance became compulsory. But at first it proved difficult to enforce the law, because often the people did not want to build a school in their village, because of the expenses. They also needed their children at home to work on their farms or in their workshops. The children were supposed to attend school twice a week in summer and daily in winter. The German vacation system with some weeks of vacation in spring and autumn is a result of the fact that the children were needed to help on the farms at these times.

Even in the 20th century the autumn vacations were known as ‘Kartoffelferien’, which means ‘potato vacations’.

It was recorded that in 1732 the teacher and tailor Johann Gottlieb Dahlke came to Grünewald. He was probably the first teacher in the village, so it seems likely that the old school house was built at the same time. The Dahlke family stayed in Grünewald until 1945 and many members of this family became teachers in Grünewald and maybe also in other towns.

In 1735, new school rules were established, and in 1763 compulsory school attendance was prolonged to eight years.

About 1790, the teachers had a half year training before they were allowed to teach, and in 1798 the teacher training went for one year.

In 1827, school boards were introduced to improve the administration of the school property. In Grünewald the first Schulvorsteher (head of the school board or maybe it was formed by only one person) is already mentioned in 1821: Martin Christoph Pommerening, Vollbauer (1770/74-1833).

A description of the old school house, written by Helene Rabenstein née Dahlke (published in 1971):

“The old, beloved school house, timber-framed, overgrown with wild roses, shadowed by four poplars, and those huge willows, which separated the school yard from the school pond – the oldest among us will remember all this well, and also the climbing frame we naturally had there. Even then three teachers strove for the education of the children of Grünewald, Altmühl, Steinburg and the numerous additions [Abbau]. They were head teacher Dahlke, second teacher Wolff, and, yearly changing, a young teacher preparing for his or her exam.”

In 1911, the old school building was dilapidated and, furthermore, it was too small for the growing number of pupils. The building was torn down in 1911 and the new school was built in the same place. It was finished in 1912. It had three classrooms, two flats for the teachers and some rooms for the assistant teachers. It is still in use today and has recently been renovated. The school pond was filled up after 1945.

Teachers in Grünewald before 1900 (approximate dates):

since	until	name (lifetime)	remarks
1732	1753	Johann Gottlieb Dahlke , taylor and teacher	A huge bible and grand scissors, which he had brought with him, were kept in the old school building as a sign for his two professions.
1753	1780?	Johann Friedrich Gottlieb Dahlke (d. bef. 1794), taylor and teacher	
1780?	1827	<u>Casimir</u> Gottlieb Dahlke (1759-1845), teacher and taylor	The churchbook shows him as retired teacher in 1827.
1820	1823	Friedrich Wilhelm Darkow (1801-1823), assistant teacher	He died in 1823 of consumption leaving a wife aged 19 and a daughter.
1827	1872	<u>Carl</u> Christlieb Joseph Dahlke (1804-90)	He retired in 1872.
1868	1873	Carl Otto <u>Theodor</u> Dahlke (1839-1873)	He was the head teacher 1872-73. He died of a pneumonia at the age of 33.
1873	1818/19?	Carl Heinrich <u>Reinhold</u> Dahlke (1846-1926)	He was head teacher since 1873 and also a homeopath.
1886	1930	Wilhelm Wolff	The older people from Grünewald remembered that he often used the cane.

The teacher family Dahlke continued to live in Grünewald until 1945, and many members worked as teachers there, and some taught in other towns in the vicinity. There is one famous descendant of this family: the well-known actor Paul Victor Ernst **Dahlke** (1904-1984), whose parents were both born in Grünewald. Paul Dahlke himself was born in Groß Streitz near Köslin, Pomerania. He studied mining before he decided to become an actor.

Here you find his biography (in German):

http://www.divingbrothers.at/tonisautogramme/doc/lebenslauf/dt/dahlke_paul.htm

Epidemics and health system

1629 – The plague killed 800 people in Neustettin and about 1/3 of the population in the country.

1709-11 – The last big plague epidemic in this region.

1729 – The influenza came from Russia and killed many people in Germany, Austria, France and Italy.

1832, 1848, 1852, 1866 – Cholera epidemics in the Neustettin region (at least the first three had no effect on Grünewald), esp. the town Fiddichow had many victims.

1918/19 – The Spanish influenza broke out in Spain and killed many people everywhere in Europe, where the people had not yet recovered from WWI. This epidemic also killed people in Grünewald, among them Grünewald's priest Karl Friedrich Wilhelm Kegler.

From the churchbooks (1794-1874):

1802 – An epidemic of German measles (Röteln) killed 10 children in Grünewald.

1824/25 – An epidemic of German measles (Röteln) and scarlet fever (Scharlachfieber) killed 26 children in Grünewald.

1827 – 4 children died of whooping cough (Keuchhusten) in Grünewald.

1845 – 5 children died of German measles (Röteln) 1 of scarlet fever in Grünewald.

1847 – 5 persons died of typhus (Nervenfieber) (+ 1 in 1846); 18 children died of scarlet fever (Scharlachfieber), 2 of German measles (Röteln) and 1 of measles (Masern) in Grünewald. Probably these diseases were caused by a famine following potato crop failures. In 1847, 41 people from Grünewald died, most of them in the beginning of the year. This is more than three times as much as in other years.

1859 – 8 children died of diphtheria (Bräune), 4 children of scarlet fever (Scharlach).

1862 – 6 persons died of smallpox (Pocken).

1873 – 6 children died of measles (Masern), 2 children of German measles (Röteln), 1 of scarlet fever (Scharlach).

Obviously, the people of Grünewald were vaccinated against smallpox in 1837. A baby boy died of the vaccination in this year. The smallpox had killed only four persons from Grünewald since 1794 (1814: 1; 1833: 1; 1835: 2), but there had been epidemics in other towns during the war years.

Obviously the vaccinations were not continued: in 1862 a smallpox epidemic killed 6 people.

Dialect and Names

The people in Grünewald spoke the northern German dialect called Platt or Plattdeutsch (Low German), which is more similar to English than the southern German dialects, which were the basis for modern standard German. You find traces of this dialect in some of the names, but usually the names were changed to the standard German pronunciation around 1800. So you

can find the name Lode or Lohde until about 1830, which later appears only as Laude, or the name Jürgen or Gürg, which later appears only as Georg. But not all names would go with this development.

In this dialect there also was a tendency to use diminutives linke Körnke from Korn, Hörnke from Horn, Manzke from Manz.... Another name which was often changed was Kölpin/Kempin, which is derived from the town Kölpin.

Dialect forms of first names:

Gürg => Georg

Jürgen => Georg

Justine => Auguste

Michel => Michael

There are some first names, which are often confused in the early registers, probably because they were shortened, their pet forms were similar, or they looked similar when written down (think of the fact that we use a transcription of the original churchbook):

Louise ⇔ Elisabeth (probably through Liese)

Gottfried ⇔ Friedrich (probably through Friedel or Fritz)

Siegfried ⇔ Friedrich (probably through Friedel or Fritz)

Christian ⇔ Christlieb

Ernstine ⇔ Christine

Caroline ⇔ Charlotte

Gottlieb ⇔ Christlieb

In Germany, family names gradually came into use since the year 1000, but it took about 500 years until they were in regular use. In many regions it was more common to use only the first name even in documents, although the family names already were established. In different regions there were different rules on how the names were passed on. In Westphalia, for example, they went with the property for those who owned land, but for the free people they usually went from the father to his children. In Pomerania, the family names were handed down from the father to his children. The spelling of the names varied, and they were even translated into Latin or from one dialect into another. Step by step the different small German kingdoms and counties tried to establish clear rules for the family names, and also for the way in which the churchbooks should be written. Only in 1874, when the civil registration started, the spelling of the names became fixed.

Illegitimate children would usually bear the name of their father, if he was known. I have found several families, where the parents married some time after the birth of their first child. These premarital children were known under their father's name although he was often not shown in the birth entry. The illegitimate child of a widow would usually get the maiden name of its mother. Only after 1874, illegitimate children always got their mother's name.

When the early settlers came to Pomerania in the 12th to 14th century, they brought their family names with them. These names and also their dialects helped to identify the regions where the original settlers came from.

The meaning of some of the family names of Grünewald and other towns of the area:

Abraham – from the Jewish first name Abraham, which means ‘father of the people’. A musketeer called Abraham, obviously one of the people who had made profit during the war, bought the farm which included the office as Schulze for 400-500 Gulden.

Bärwald – two possibilities: 1- from the town Bärwalde (Kreis Neustettin, but there were more towns of this name) 2- from the first name Berwold

Beduhn – from the name of a town (but I was not able to find it anywhere)

Böse – the bad man (böse = bad, angry)

Darkow – from the town Darkow, Kr. Belgard, Pomerania

Dorn – thorn

Eikstaedt – derived from Eiche = oak and Stadt = city

Erich – from the first name Erich, which means “the only powerful man”

Färber – dyer

Freiberg – man from the town Freiberg (there are several towns of similar names: Freiberg in Saxonia/Sachsen, Freiberg Kr. Biberach, and also several Freiburgs)

Glasenapp – German name which means ‘person who owns/uses a bowl made of glass’ (Glasenapp = bowl made of glass; from: glas = Glas = glass; napp = Napf = bowl)

Gumz – slavic place name

Haberberg – person living near/on a hill planted with oats

Haß – from the first name Hasso

Henke – dialect form of Heinrich, for the meaning => Hinz

Hinz – dialect form of Heinz, which is a diminutive of Heinrich, which means ‘ruler over the village protected by hedges’ (from hagan = Hagen = place protected by hedges; rik = Herrscher = ruler). Sources say that the Hinz family came during the 17th century from the Pomeranian coast to Grünewald (sorry, I don’t have further details).

Jahnke => Janke

Janke – diminutive of Jan, which is a dialect form of Johannes, which means ‘god is merciful’

Kalbus – three meanings are possible: 1 – Latin calvus = bald person, 2 – man of the town Calbe (there is more than one town of this and similar names), 3 – derived from Kalb = calf.

Kempin – dialect form of => Kölpin

Kieper – hawker, peddler (Kiepe = pannier, dosser)

Knoop or **Knop** – from Knopf = button, meaning producer of buttons or plump person (because of the shape of a button)

Kohls – cabbage farmer (Kohl = cabbage)

Kölpin – from the town Kölpin, Kr. Neustettin, Pomerania

Kopelk - ?

Krause – ‘person with curly hair’ (kraus = curly)

Kruse – dialect form of => Krause

Laffin or **Lavin** or **Lawin** – variant of Jewish name Lewin or Germanic Liebwin/Leben

Laude – from the slavic word ‘ljud’ = Leute = people, variants of this name: Laudan, Laudon, Laudien, Lauder, Laudi.

Lode – dialect form of => Laude

Lohde – dialect form of => Laude

Lübke – there are two possible meanings: 1 – man from the town Lübben (southeast of Berlin on the river Spree) or other towns with similar names like Lübbecke in Westphalia; 2 – diminutive of the first name Lübbert, which is the dialect form of Lutbert, which means ‘shining/famous among the people’ (from liut = Leute = people; bert = glänzend = shining).

Maaß (Maass) – short form of the first name Thomas, which means ‘twin’

Mews or **Mewes** – short form of Bartelmewes, which is a dialect form of Bartholomäus, meaning: son of Tolmai

Mielke – diminutive of the slavic first names Miloslav and Milobrat (milu = amiable, beloved)

Müller – miller

Nachtigall – nightingale

Nähring – derived from German (er-) nähren = to feed, meaning: person who is able to feed his family

Nimmer – man from the town Nimmer on the river Nimmer (which flows into the river Nahmer), today a part of Hagen in Nordrhein-Westfalen.

Pitann - ?

Pommerening – Pomeranian man. Sources say that the Pommerening family came during the 17th century from the Pomeranian coast to Grünewald (sorry, I don't have any details).

Raddatz - from the town Raddatz, Kr. Neustettin, Pomerania

Ramelow/Rahmlow – from the town Rahmlow near Kolberg, Pomerania

Reinke – diminutive of the first name Reinhard, which means 'person, who gives good counsel' or maybe 'strong and wise person' (from ragina = Rat = counsel; harti = hart = solid, strong)

Schubring – shoemaker

Ulrich – from the first name Ulrich, which means 'ruler over the inherited land' (from uodal = Erbgut = inherited land; rik = Herrscher = ruler)

Wruck – from the dialect word 'wruken, wroken' = to quarrel. Meaning: quarrelsome person.

Zarth – delicate person (zart = soft, tender, delicate, gentle)

Zemke – diminutive of the slavic first name Zemislav

Zickuhr – derived from the town Zicker (Rügen or Pomerania)

Occupations as they appear in the churchbooks

social status:

Unterthan – subject, bondsman

Freimann – freeman (some of them were rich, but most of the quite poor since they usually did not own any land)

status according to the size of the property:

Vollbauer – farmer who owns a piece of land of about 10-15 hectares = 25-37 acres (= 2 Flemish hides/Hufen, the size of a hide depends on the quality of the soil and on what was customary in the region)

Halbbauer – farmer who owns about 7,5 hectares = 18-19 acres (1 Flemish hide)

Kossäth/Kleinwirth/Viertelbauer – farmer who owns about 3-4 hectares = 7,5-10 acres (½ Flemish hide), he usually would need an additional job to support a family

Häusler/Büdner/Eigentümer – owner of a house

Einwohner/Einlieger – tenant who lives in rented rooms or in a rented house

Bauer/Wirth – farmer, usually either a Vollbauer or a Halbbauer (in modern German a Wirt – same pronunciation – is the owner of a restaurant or pub)

Pächter – tenant

Buschpächter – tenant of one of the cottages in the wood near Grünewald

Eigen-/Eigentums- somebody who has bought his farm or house after this became possible after 1811

Altsitzer – retired person (usually a retired farmer)

public offices:

Schulze – mayor

Gerichtsmann – assistant of the Schulze (?)

Schulvorsteher – person who administers the school property

craftsmen:

Rademacher/Stellmacher – cartwright, wheelwright

Schmied – blacksmith

Tischler – joiner, cabinet maker

Weberkammacher/Kammacher – producer of combs for handlooms

Zimmermann – carpenter

Maurer – bricklayer

Schneider – tailor

Schuhmacher – shoemaker

Meister, -meister – master of a craft, this title allowed him to work independently and employ apprentices

military occupations (in peacetimes many soldiers had to attend their service only in winter):

Wehrmann/Soldat - soldier

Inquiline – seems to be an ordinary soldier

Grenadier – grenadier

Musketier – musketeer

Füsilier – fusilier

Gardewehrmann – soldier of the guard

Invalide – invalid

Verabschiedeter/Entlassener (Soldat) – discharged soldier

other occupations:

Schulhalter/Schullehrer/Lehrer – teacher

Krüger – innkeeper

Handelsmann – tradesman

Holzwärter – forest warden/ranger

Förster – forest warden/ ranger (seems to be of a higher rank than the Holzwärter)

Tagelöhner – day labourer (did not have a contract for regular work)

Arbeitsmann – labourer

Dienstknecht – labourer

Schäfer – shepherd

Hirte/Viehhirte – herdsman (usually for cattle)

Pferdehirte – herdsman (for horses – never heard that before)

Knecht – farm labourer (usually with a contract for 1 year)

Hofmeister – caretaker at the manor

Kutscher – coachman

Gärtner – gardener

Inspektor – inspector, superintendent

Gutsherr – lord of the manor, owner of a big estate

female occupations:

Magd – female farm labourer (usually with a contract for 1 year)

Hebamme – midwife

Vocabulary for family relations and marital status

Jungeselle (Jggs.) – bachelor

Jungfrau (Jgfr.) – virgin, maiden

Bräutigam (Brtg.) – bridegroom

Braut – bride

Ehemann – husband

Mann – man, husband

Ehefrau – wife

Frau – woman, wife

Witwer – widower
Witwe – widow

Kind/Kinder – child/children
Sohn – son
Tochter – daughter
Stiefsohn/Stieftochter – stepson/stepdaughter
minorenn (min.) – minor
majorenn (maj.) – major
unehelich – illegitimate
Pflegekind – foster child

Vater – father
Mutter – mother
Stiefvater/Stiefmutter – stepfather/stepmother
Pflegevater/Pflegemutter – foster father/foster mother

Wars which had an effect on Pomerania

1618-48 The Thirty Years' War (Dreißigjähriger Krieg)

To understand this war you would have to read a whole book. It started as a religious war between the Catholic German emperor of the Habsburg line on one side and the protestant allies on the other side. But soon half Europe fought in this war and often changed sides. Most of the time, the different armies went through German regions where they “lived of the land”, which meant that the local population had to support them. If they did not cooperate their villages were pillaged and afterwards often burned down.

The most important long-term effect of the 30 Years' War was the destruction of the old German empire. As a result, Germany consisted for more than 200 years of almost 300 small kingdoms and counties until the German Empire was founded in 1871.

Another consequence was that everywhere in Germany the people had to take on the same religion as their ruler. Because of this many religious refugees had to find a new home after the 30 Years' War ended.

Pomerania in vain tried to stay neutral in this war, which had no direct effects on the country until 1627. In this year the Swedish (Protestant) passed through Kreis Neustettin and forcibly recruited among the farmers. There were fights in and around Neustettin. In 1629, the troops of the German emperor were in the Neustettin region (Catholic). The plague broke out in 1630 and killed almost all inhabitants of Persanzig, Sparssee, and Küdde, and a great part of many other towns as well. In Neustettin only 1/3 of the houses remained inhabited. The Swedish returned. But all troops looted and took the cattle and harvest from the farms so that many families had to leave their homes. The years 1637 and 1638 were the worst for Pomerania, because after the death of the Pomeranian duke Bogislaw XIV his family was extinct, so Georg Wilhelm, the duke of Brandenburg-Preußen tried to claim the power for himself and the fighting was brought to the country. In 1648, Pomerania was one of the most devastated regions, it had lost between ½ and 2/3 of its population (Germany overall lost about 1/3 of its population).

Effects of this war on Pomerania: Some parts became Swedish: Vorpommern (including Stettin), the islands Usedom, Wollin, and, Rügen, and a strip of land east of the river Oder. These were gained back step by step (1658, 1720, 1815).

1740-42 and 1744/45 Silesian Wars (Schlesische Kriege)

These wars were fought between Austria and Prussia about Silesia. Prussia won Lower Silesia, parts of Upper Silesia and Glatz in the first Silesian war. In the second Silesian war, Prussia successfully defended its claim on Silesia.

1756-1763 The Seven Years' War or Third Silesian War (Siebenjähriger Krieg)

Austria, which was allied with France and Russia, tried to win back Silesia from the Prussians, who were allied with Hannover and Great Britain. In 1757 Sweden also declared war on Prussia. In 1760, things looked quite bad for Prussia, but they won in the end, assisted by the death of the Russian empress Elisabeth. The borders of Prussia were not changed by the Seven Years' War.

During this war, looting and pillaging Russian troops were stationed in the Kreis Neustettin. Pomerania all in all had a loss of 59,000 people.

1792-1795 French Revolutionary Wars (Französische Revolutionskriege)

The French Revolutionary Wars broke out in 1792 after the French revolution. From 1792 until 1802, Napoleon (France) was at war against different European coalitions. France declared war on Austria (including the Netherlands which were a part of the Austrian empire at that time) on 20 April 1792. Prussia immediately took part on the Austrian side; Great Britain, Spain, and an alliance of other small German states joined the Austrian-German coalition in 1793. Prussia made peace with France on April 5, 1795, but it lost its possessions on the left side of the river Rhine (Rhein), while the other countries continued to fight against France.

Grünewald lost 6 men in 1794 and 1795 in this war (and probably some more before the transcriptions of the churchbook start in 1794). The men from Grünewald were killed in South Prussia (region of Posen/Poznan and that part of Poland that was Prussian at the time). In the town itself the people felt the influence of the war as well: in 1794 the death rate exceeded the birthrate, a fact which occurred only in four years between 1794 and 1848.

1803-1812 Napoleonic Wars (Napoleonische Kriege)

The French Revolutionary Wars found their continuation in the Napoleonic wars. The following European countries joined at different times the fight against France (which was this time assisted by Spain): Great Britain (including Hannover) in 1803, Sweden, Russia, and Austria in 1805, Prussia and Kursachsen 1806; they made peace in 1807, but 1808-1814 France was at war against Portugal and Spain; and in 1809 Austria declared war against France but was defeated within a few months; in 1812 France again made war against Russia and lost.

Effects on Pomerania:

In 1805, 20,000 Russian troops went through Pomerania and back in the same year again (and of course the opposing French as well), this meant looting and pillaging.

Prussia suffered a harsh defeat from the French near Jena and Auerstedt on 14 Oct. 1806, as a consequence Prussia made peace with France on 7/9 July 1807.

From 1806 to 1812, Napoleon tried to isolate the British economy from the continent with his Continental System (Kontinentalsperre). This had serious effects on the economy everywhere in Europe, usually of the negative kind.

At least one soldier from Grünewald lost his life in this war: Martin Christoph Dahlke (probably a member of the teacher's family).

In 1811 and 1814, the death rate was significantly higher than usually, and while during the thirty years between 1794 and 1823 there was less than one illegitimate child per year (average), there were ten illegitimate children born between 1810-13, and 6 stillborn babies in 1811-12 (average: 0,7 from 1794-1823). Furthermore the Gramenz churchbooks records some entries of fugitives and non-local beggars during these years.

1813-1815 Wars of Liberation (Befreiungskriege)

The Wars of Liberation were the continuation of the Napoleonic Wars. Germany (Prussia and others German states), Italy and Spain (and Russia, Sweden and Great Britain) fought to liberate themselves from French rule. In 1815, Europe finally was liberated from Napoleon.

Effects on Pomerania:

10,000 Pomeranian soldiers fought in this war, it has been recorded that they were recruiting in Grünewald in 1813.

1864 German-Danish War (Deutsch-Dänischer Krieg)

This war was fought between Denmark and on the other side Prussia and Austria, because the Danish tried to occupy the region of Schleswig (German region on the border to Denmark with a Danish minority). Prussia won this war, the borders of the country did not change.

1866 German War (Deutscher Krieg)

This war was fought between Prussia and Austria, two German countries.

Austria was allied with Saxony (Sachsen), Bavaria (Bayern), Württemberg, Baden, Hannover, Hessen-Darmstadt, Kurhessen, and Nassau. Prussia was allied with most of the northern German states and Italy. Though the war was ended soon to avoid an intervention of Napoleon III, it was obvious that Prussia had won.

Prussia annexed Schleswig-Holstein, Hannover, Kurhessen, Nassau, and the city Frankfurt/Main.

1870/71 German-French War (Deutsch-Französischer Krieg)

France, under Napoleon III, declared war on Prussia, because it feared that Prussia would become too powerful after its victory in 1866. The southern German states were allied with Prussia. France lost this war and with it the region of Alsace-Lorraine (Elsaß-Lothringen). The unification of Germany under Prussia and the founding of the German empire were a consequence of this war.

Grünewald lost at least one man in this war: Friedrich Laude, musketeer.

1914-18 World War I (1. Weltkrieg)

Reasons for this war were the competition between Great Britain and Germany (esp. in the field of the navy) and the wish of the French for revenge after the war of 1870/71. And in Eastern Europe, the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Russia both tried to gain influence.

The allies on Germany's side were: Germany, the Austro-Hungarian Empire (Austria), and later also Ottoman Empire (Turkey), and Bulgaria.

The opponents were: France, Great Britain, Russia, and later Japan, Italy, and the USA.

Germany lost West Prussia, Posen, Alsace-Lorraine, and a small part of Silesia.

At least 36 soldiers from Grünewald were killed in this war.

1939-45 World War II (2. Weltkrieg)

Germany's allies: Italy, Austria, Japan.

Germany's opponents: France, Great Britain, Russia, USA (plus several other countries that were occupied by Germany like the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, Poland)

The poor handling of international politics after WWI was an important cause for this war. The results of which were between 1918 and 1933, Germany was almost constantly on the brink of civil war. High reparations, the inflation of 1923, and the world economic crisis of 1929/30 caused poverty and dissatisfaction among the people. In addition to this, the region

west of the river Rhine was still under French occupation, and many Germans lived now outside the borders of Germany or Austria.

This situation was an opportunity for Hitler and his Nazi party (NSDAP), who won the election in 1933. Hitler was able to stabilize the German economy with his huge infrastructure and arming projects, but in the end he needed (and wanted) the war to escape from the debts he made with this.

In 1936 Hitler gained back the Rhine region, which made him very popular among the Germans. In March 1938, Austria was annexed. People were cheering in the streets, but in reality nobody had ever asked if this was really what the majority wanted. In September of the same year, Hitler forced the Czechoslovakian Republic to give up the Sudetenland, a part of the country that was settled by Germans (prior to WWI the Czechoslovakian Republic had been a part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire). Half a year later the Czech part of the republic was annexed, while the Slovakian part became an ally of Germany. Until then Hitler had avoided the outbreak of a war with his cunning political intrigues, but when he attacked Poland under a pretext in September 1939, England and France declared war on Germany.

Germany and its allies occupied one after the other all the following countries: Poland, Denmark, Norway, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, the northern part of France, parts of northern Africa, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Greece, and great parts of the Soviet Union.

In the shade of the war the destruction of the Jews was going on. It had already started in 1933 with a strong propaganda against the Jews, and all kinds of repressive laws. When the attendance in public school was prohibited for Jewish children, many Jewish families had to move to give their children the opportunity of a good education. After the war had started, the deportation to the concentration camps began, and soon afterwards the mass murders. All in all, more than 6.000.000 Jews were killed, most of them from east European countries. And the Germans? They did not know the details of the mass murder, but they obviously did not care much about the deportations. They probably thought more about their husbands, brothers, and fathers, who were fighting in the war.

The turning point of the War came in the end of 1942, when the battle of Stalingrad was lost. The Germans lost more and more ground. On July 10, 1943, the allies against Germany landed on Sicily, and on June 6, 1944 in Normandy. On Oct. 16, 1944, the first Soviet soldiers entered German ground, and on May 7/8, 1945 the German army capitulated.

After WWII Germany lost these regions: Silesia, Pomerania, East Prussia, all Germans had to leave these regions west of the Oder River (about 16.500.000 people, about 2.300.000 died).

Other consequences were the division of Germany into West Germany (Federal Republic of Germany) and East Germany (German Democratic Republic = GDR) between 1945 and 1990, and the Cold War, in which the two German countries were made to be political opponents, though their people did not wish this.

69 soldiers from Grünewald were killed or went missing in this war.

Here you might find more documents about Grünewald:

Kreis/county Neustettin (Polish Szczezinek)

In Neustettin there is a branch of the state archive in Köslin. I have no idea what kind of documents you might find in this archive, since I have never been there and I don't know anybody who has been there. But there should be documents about Grünewald, because it is the nearest archive.

Archiwum Panstwowe w Szczecinku
ul. Parkowa 4

PI-78-400 Szczecinek
Poland

Regierungsbezirk Köslin (Polish: Koszalin)

In the state archive in Köslin you find the documents of the civil registration of Grünewald beginning in 1875 up to what is older than 100 years, partly these documents have been microfilmed by the Mormons. Younger documents are still in the civil registration offices of the towns.

Archiwum Panstwowe w Koszalinie
ul. Zwyciestwa 117
PI-75-601 Koszalin
Poland

Pommern/Pomerania (capital: Greifswald, now in Mecklemburg-Vorpommern, Germany)

Usually, this archive won't be the one where you start your genealogical research. It is situated in the former capital of Pomerania and has documents from everywhere in Pomerania. But the kind of documents you need for a genealogical research are in other archives (there are some churchbooks, but as far as I know they have all been microfilmed by the Mormons).

Vorpommersches Landesarchiv Greifswald
Martin-Andersen-Nexö-Platz 1
17489 Greifswald
Germany
Fax 03834/5953-63

Preußen/Prussia since 1871 Deutsches Reich/German Empire (capital: Berlin)

To this civil registration office were sent transcriptions of the civil registration from all over Pomerania (but still their collection is not complete). Usually the documents start in 1875 and end about 1940. This is what they have about Grünewald: births 1875-1892, 1894-June 1938 (for the year 1893 write to the archive in Köslin); marriages Oct. 1874-1890, 1892-1927, 1929-June 1939; deaths 1876-1938.

Important: Here **you will get only information about your direct ancestors**, and they will expect you to send some copies of family documents to prove this. Also they need accurate information in which year they have to search. You won't get any information about the brothers and sisters of your direct ancestors! If you are interested in this write to the archive in Köslin (if the documents you need are older than 100 years).

Standesamt I
Rückerstraße 9
10 119 Berlin
Germany

Sources

Internet:

Pommerscher Greif, Association for history and genealogy in Pomerania:

<http://www.pommerscher-greif.de/englisch/index.htm>

German-English website with bookmarks for Pomerania:

<http://pommerninfo.de>

List of websites about Pomerania:

<http://www.uwm.edu/People/mitch/genlinks.html#150>

Genealogy in historical Eastern Germany (by Hauke Fehlberg):
<http://mitglied.lycos.de/Pomerania2>

Pommerscher Verein Freistadt, Wisconsin (in English):
<http://my.execpc.com/~pommern>

Gunthard Stübs' Hinterpommern website. It is well organised in German, but it does not have an English version – try the translation services given below. There are some English notes included, but they are not connected to each other, so it is difficult to find them.

<http://www.hinterpommern.de>

Here you find a list of the townships (see “Gemeindeanzahl”), hamlets (see “Anzahl der Wohnplätze”), and parishes (see “evangel. Kirchspiele”) in Kreis Neustettin:

<http://www.hinterpommern.de/Verwaltung/Kreise/Neustettin>

Database of people researching their Pomeranian ancestors. There is an English version to this website – klick on the flag in the upper right.

<http://www.pommernkontakte.de>

Another important database:

<http://www.pommerndatenbank.de>

Here you find some German-English mailing lists (go down to the lower part of the page).

Website giving information about the possibilities for the research of German ancestors in Germany, the former German regions (Silesia, Pomerania, East and West Prussia) and other regions where German people settled.

<http://www.hinterpommern.de/Genealogie/Foren>

On this website you find general information on Old Lutherans who emigrated to the USA (in English).

<http://feefhs.org/dpl/dpl-hist.html>

General German genealogy website, the best source for German family history on the Internet I know:

<http://www.genealogy.net>

Their website for locality searches:

<http://gov.genealogy.net>

The Grünewald site: <http://gov.genealogy.net/ort.jsp?id=213756>

Maps:

Here is an historical map of Eastern Pomerania, it seems to be made between 1878 and 1896 (the railway line Belgard-Neustettin is shown, while the railway line Gramenz-Bublitz was not yet built). You find Neustettin on the right of this map.

<http://www.dcn.davis.ca.us/go/feefhs/maps/gere/ge-pomer.html>

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Historical Maps from an 1883 atlas can be downloaded here (map number for Gramenz: IIIa AB5, Grünewald is not shown, but you find Zechendorf, Naseband, and Gramenz in the upper left):

<http://www.library.wisc.edu/etext/ravenstein>

These are the last official maps published by the German state. These maps were very accurate, but in some regions the land has changed a lot. Houses have vanished, old streets are overgrown..... These maps are still in print.

Historische Kartenwerke:

about 1939: Kreiskarte Neustettin, 1:100,000

On this map you can see all of Kreis Neustttin. All the small towns are on it. 1 cm = 1 km. There are also maps of this kind for the other Kreise (Kreiskarte Köslin)

about 1939: Karte d. Deutschen Reiches 1: 100,000 No. 25 (1cm = 1km)

about 1939: Topographische Karte 1:25,000 (No. 2164) Gramenz

On this map you can see all the single houses, the small tracks, even orchards, cemeteries, windmills, and similar things can be found. I was able to locate the farm of my husband's grandparents just by comparing the old photos to this map (but it took me some hours until I had looked on every single farm).

These are the maps of the surrounding areas:

North: Gr. Voldekow

North east: Bublitz

East: Wurchow

South east: Persanzig

South: Bärwalde

South west: Kollatz

West: Gr. Krössin

North West: Gr. Tychow

orders (they will ask you to pay in advance):

Fa. Jürgen Schrieb

Schwieberdinger Straße 10/2

71 706 Markgröningen

phone/fax: 07145/26078

karten.schrieb@t-online.de

you can also order here (but the English version of this website is not yet finished):

<http://www.ifag.de/GI/Shop/index.html>

Websites about other towns and regions near Grünewald:

Website about the Unke family of Storkow, Kr. Neustettin (by Robert Haberstroh):

<http://www.unke-genealogy.de>

Website about Bublitz (by Jürgen Krupatz, in German):

<http://www.pommern-bublitz.de>

Website including indexes for births and marriages from Bublitz (by Brian Bauman):

<http://www.baumanor.com>

Website about the village Hölkewiese, east of Bublitz (by Bodo Koglin, in German):

<http://www.hoelkewiese.de>

Website about Flederborn, Kr. Neustettin (by C. Luetke):

<http://www.flederborn.de>

Websites about emigration:

Emigration from Pomerania (by Heinz Dieter Donicht):

<http://www.donicht.de/index2.htm>

Old Lutheran emigrants between 1837-1853 (no families from Grünewald on that list, but some others of the same region):

<http://hinterpommern.de/Genealogie/Quellen/Spezial/Auswandererlisten1837/namensliste.html>

International:

Immigrant Ships Transcribers Guild:

<http://immigrantships.org>

Arrivals in New York:

<http://www.ellisland.org>

German Websites (with English versions):

Research Center German Emigrants in the USA:

<http://www.uni-oldenburg.de/nausa/nausae.htm>

German Emigrants Database (only information, not the database):

<http://www.deutsche-auswanderer-datenbank.de/enframeset.htm>
(1850-91, 1904, 1907)

Emigration via Hamburg:

http://www.hamburg.de/fhh/behoerden/staatsarchiv/link_to_your_roots/english/index.htm

(Hamburg 1890-1902)

Historic Emigration Office, Hamburg:

http://www.heo-online.de/pages/e_heo.html

(Hamburg 1850-1934)

Bremen Passenger Lists 1920-1939:

http://db.genealogy.net/maus/gate/index_en.html

(Bremen 1920-26 (-29))

Shiplists which included people from Grünewald were these:

Name des Schiffes	Kapitän	Abfahrtshafen	Abfahrtsdatum	Ankunftshafen	Ankunftsdatum	Bemerkungen	Familiennamen aus Grünewald
name of the ship	captain	port of departure	date of departure	port of arrival	date of arrival	remarks	family names of Grünewald
Hammonia		Hamburg			2 Jul. 1861		Carlow
Teutonia	H. Taube	Marceilles?			6 Mai 1863	Manifest #00010083	Beduhn, Krause, Lübke, Wruck
Christel		Bremerhaven		Baltimore	7 Juni 1864		Kalbus, Raddatz
http://immigrantships.org							
Hoffnung		Hamburg	15 Mai 1864	Quebec	15 Sept. 1864	LDS Microfilm #0472895	Abraham, Beduhn, Freiberg, Laude, Lübke, Nimmer
				New York	25 Mai 1866		Johann Abraham & Charlotte Beduhn
Atalanta		Bremen		New York	8 Juni 1866		Lübke, Pommerening
Charlotte		Bremen		New York	7 Juni 1867		Abraham, Beduhn, Darkow, Glasenapp, Hinz, Ulrich
Ariel		Bremen		New York	31 Juli 1868		Abraham
Kr. Friedrich Wilhelm				Baltimore	16 April 1881		Kieper
H.H. Meier		Bremen		New York	29 Juni 1897		Beduhn

	http://www.ellislandrecords.org						
SS Pretoria		Hamburg => Boulogne => Plymouth		New York	31 Mai 1902		Lawin (Lewin)
	http://www.ellislandrecords.org http://www.hamburg.de/fhh/behoerden/staatsarchiv/link_to_your_roots/english/index.htm						
Kaiserin Auguste Victoria		Hamburg		New York	31 Aug. 1907		Erich
	http://www.ellislandrecords.org						
Arosa Kulm		Bremen	16 Jan. 1954				Beduhn

Wisconsin:

The Winnebago County Website:

<http://www.rootsweb.com/~wiwinneb/index.html>

Another website about Winnebago County:

<http://www.jansdigs.com/Winnebago>

A very good source! Here you find cemeteries (Black Wolf: St. John's, Zion, New Elm, Wilhelmine/Pollack), the church registers of St. John's Evangelical Lutheran Church, mailing lists, maps, and much more.

Translation services and dictionaries on the Internet:

Translation services:

<http://babel.altavista.com/tr> (text/websites)

http://www.worldlingo.com/products_services/worldlingo_translator.html (text/websites)

<http://translation.langenberg.com> (text/websites)

<http://uk.altavista.com/babelfish> (text/websites)

Polish-English dictionary:

<http://www.poltran.com>

An online German- English dictionary provided by the university of Munich, Germany (more than 300000 entries):

<http://dict.leo.org>

Books (sorry, they are all in German):

Books on the history of Grünewald and Kreis Neustettin:

Mielke, Ernst: Grünewald und Burghof bis 1945. Ratingen: 1995.

This is a book on the history of Grünewald, which was written by Ernst Mielke after he had asked many of the former inhabitants of Grünewald about their memories and after he had read a great number of books about the Neustettin region. There was not as much information available on the early times as we would wish, but it has an abundance of details for the time after 1880. For example: details from historical maps showing Grünewald and the surrounding towns, maps combined with lists of the house owners about 1940, 32 pages with photos (plus several photos in the different chapters and four pages with coloured photos of the church), several copies of documents owned by persons from Grünewald, a list of the soldiers which were killed during WW II ...

About 250 pages.

Mielke, Ernst: (I have to ask for the title of this book first)

This is a book on the things which happened to the inhabitants of Grünewald during World War II, the time of occupation, their experiences when they were driven out of their homes, and how they found new homes. Includes a list of the families from Grünewald, which shows what happened to them after in 1945/46, a list with the civil victims of WWII from Grünewald, a list of the houses of Grünewald, which shows whether the buildings are preserved or not (only the houses directly in town, to be used in combination with the maps from Ernst Mielke's first book).

You can order these two books by writing to:

Ernst Mielke
Marggrafstr. 17
40878 Ratingen
Germany
Ernst.Mielke at gmx.de

Grünewalder Friedhof. Was ist noch vorhanden. Eine Bestandsaufnahme im Frühjahr 1998.

This is a list of the graves which still could be seen on the cemetery of Grünewald in 1998. The earliest graves are of the year 1897 the latest of 1939 (in Grünewald they used to put iron crosses on the graves, but after 1939 the iron was needed for the war so they put up wooden crosses after that. This is the reason why there are no younger graves visible.)

You can order this booklet (for a few Euro + postage) by writing to

Jürgen Abraham
Ascherfeld 26
28757 Bremen
Germany

Mr. Abraham also took photos of many of the graves.

Stelter, D. Franz: Der Kreis Neustettin. Ein pommersches Heimatbuch. Würzburg 1972.

This is a history book of the Kreis Neustettin. It is not available anymore except in libraries.

Books about the situation of the rural population in Pomerania:

Goltz, Freiherr von der Theodor: Die ländliche Arbeiterklasse und der preußische Staat. Jena 1893.

Eggert, Oskar: Die Maßnahmen der preußischen Regierung zur Bauernbefreiung in Pommern. Köln/Graz: 1965.

Books about family names:

Bahlow, Hans: Deutsches Namenslexikon. Familien- u. Vornamen nach Ursprung und Sinn erklärt. München: Keyserische Verlagsbuchhandlung 1967.

This is a book which explains the meaning of most of the family names in Germany. It also gives reference for the places where they were first mentioned.

Bahlow, Hans: Pommersche Familiennamen. Ihr Geschichts- und Heimatwert. Neustadt/Aisch: Degener & Co. 1982.

This is a book which explains the meaning of most of the family names which were common in Pomerania.

This text was written by Uta Härtling. It may be freely distributed to anyone as long as it is not changed and no profit is intended. You may quote it according to the generally accepted rules.

Thanks to John Nimmer and Ron Boda, who helped me to correct my language mistakes! You will probably still find some language mistakes, because I keep adding and changing this document when I find new information. The inspiring discussions with Ron also helped very much to concentrate on those topics which are of interest for the descendants of the emigrants.

Last additions were made on Oct. 14, 2003.

Please send additions and suggestions to this address:
haertlin at student.uni-kassel.de