

The population has long been steadily increasing. In 1750 it amounted to 1,763,368, in 1800 to 2,347,303, and in 1850 to 3,482,541. The census of December 31, 1880, returned the number as 4,565,668 (2,215,243 males, 2,350,425 females), and at the end of 1885 the population was estimated at 4,682,769 (2,273,861 males, 2,408,908 females).

It will be seen that Sweden is sparsely peopled (the average for the whole country being only 28 inhabitants to the square mile), and that the population is very unevenly distributed.—Malmöhus län, which lies farthest south, counting 193 persons to the square mile, whereas Norrbotten, farthest to the north, and by far the largest county, has only 2.4.

The urban population as late as 1884 amounted to only 777,857 (the rural amounting to 3,866,591). The towns are in general small. Except Stockholm (215,688 inhabitants in 1885), only five towns—Gothenburg (91,033), Malmö (44,532), Norrköping (28,503), Gefle (20,753), and Upsala (20,202)—had in 1885 more than 20,000 inhabitants.

The average number of marriages per 1000 inhabitants was for each of the years 1751-60 9.09; this proportion has gradually diminished since, having been 7.60 in 1851-60 and 6.81 in 1871-80. The yearly average of living children born from 1871-80 was 133,730, and the yearly average of deaths 80,140. The yearly average of deaths to 100 inhabitants for 1751-1815 was 2.71; this number has since been almost constantly decreasing, the average for 1851-60 being 2.17, and for 1871-80 1.82. Immigration and emigration till comparatively recent times had little influence on the numbers of population, but the latter years of the decennial period 1860-70 caused a change in this respect. The number of emigrants, which as late as 1867 amounted to little more than 9000, increased during 1868 to 27,000 and during 1869 to 39,000. During the years that followed there was a considerable decrease, but towards 1880 the number of emigrants again rapidly increased, and in 1882 this amounted to upwards of 50,000. The figure for 1884 was 23,560. Immigration, on the contrary, continues to be insignificant. The annual average of immigrants for 1875-84 was 3333.

The inhabitants of Sweden belong almost exclusively to the Scandinavian race. The principal exceptions are the Finns (in 1880 about 17,000), who chiefly inhabit the north-eastern part of the county of Norrbotten, the Lapps (in 1880 about 6400), spread over an area of about 44,000 square miles in Lapland and Jemtland, and the Jews (in 1880 about 8000).

Agriculture.—Agriculture is the principal industry in Sweden. The number of persons gaining their livelihood by this occupation and those immediately depending on it was 2,342,000 in 1880, and the value of the harvest in 1884 was estimated at about £25,500,000 sterling, of which the grain-harvest made £14,800,000. From 1840 to 1880 the export of grain (including meal, &c.) exceeded the import; but this has not been the case since 1881, while, on the other hand, the export of dairy produce has meanwhile increased.

Mines.—Sweden is rich in minerals, especially iron-ores, and the Swedish iron is celebrated for its good quality. In 1884 526 iron-mines were worked, the joint produce of which amounted to 922,310 tons. The manufacture of cast-iron amounted to 416,958 tons, that of bar-iron to 267,534 tons, of steel to 66,329 tons, and of hardware to 43,226 tons. The copper during the same year amounted to 650 tons, and the silver to rather more than 4000 lb. Pit-coal has been found only in Malmöhus län, and even there in small quantity compared to the consumption of the country. The produce of the coal-mines was in 1884 not more than 7,277,000 cubic feet, whereas the import of coal amounted to 52,650,000 cubic feet.

Forests.—A great part of Sweden is, as was above mentioned, covered with forests. Most of these are the property of private persons or joint-stock companies, but the Government also possesses large forests, the value of which was in 1884 estimated at about £2,400,000. The forest produce ranks among the principal articles of export from Sweden.

Manufactures.—It was not till 1854 that Sweden completely broke with the pre-existing protectionist system and adopted the principles of free trade. Since 1860 there has been no prohibition, and import duty is in general low. The value of the manufactures, which as late as 1850 was estimated at only £2,000,000, was for 1883 computed at more than £10,600,000.

Commerce.—The united value of the exports and imports of Sweden was estimated for 1850 at little more than £4,000,000, whereas in 1884 it was something over £31,000,000 (imports about £18,000,000, exports about £13,000,000). The principal articles of export were—timber and wooden wares, £5,747,000; metals and hardware goods, £2,667,000; grain (including meal, &c.), £1,307,000; animal food, £1,081,000; live animals, £652,000; paper and stationery, £584,000. The principal articles of import during the same year were—cotton and woollen manufactured goods, £3,012,000; colonial products (coffee, sugar, &c.), £2,309,000; grain and meal, £2,259,000; minerals (principally coal), £1,479,000;

metals and hardware goods, £1,308,000; cotton, wool, &c., £1,125,000; animal food, £1,036,000; ships, carriages, machines, instruments, &c., £807,000; hair, hides, bones, horns, and other animal substances, £784,000; tallow, oils, tar, gums, and similar substances, £782,000. The aggregate burden of vessels entering from and clearing to foreign ports was 858,827 tons in 1850, 5,388,085 tons in 1884. The estimated value of the exports to the United Kingdom during 1884 was £6,229,000, to Denmark £1,848,000, to France £1,073,000, to Germany £1,008,000, and to Norway £604,000; while the imports from Great Britain and Ireland reached £4,952,000, from Germany £4,947,000, from Denmark £2,932,000, from Russia and Finland £1,881,000, and from Norway £1,225,000.

Railways, Posts, and Telegraphs.—The length of the railways in Sweden is very great in proportion to the population. In 1884 the total length was 4194 miles, of which 1437 miles belonged to the Government and 2657 to 76 private companies. The postal system is remarkably well organized. In 1884 the number of post-offices was 1965, through which 46,533,627 inland letters, post-cards, post-office orders, newspaper and book packets, &c., were forwarded, and 5,507,770 to and 6,511,248 from foreign countries. The telegraph system is also in a very flourishing condition. The total length of the telegraph wires in 1884 was 12,969 miles, and the number of messages forwarded was 1,178,959.

Education.—With regard to education Sweden occupies a very prominent place. Primary education is compulsory for all the children of the country, and this principle is so strictly applied that in 1884 out of 733,329 children of school-age only 15,143 were not under tuition. To supply this primary instruction there are 9925 national schools of different kinds, with 5216 male teachers and 6832 female teachers (1884). For higher educational purposes there are 96 public schools (1885), of three grades, with 14,617 pupils, and two universities (Upsala with 1821 and Lund with 827 students). In Stockholm there is, besides, a medical faculty, the Royal Carolina Medico-Chirurgical Institution. A free university is in course of formation, for which large sums have been given by private persons. There are a large number of Government schools for the military and naval services, for the technical sciences, for metallurgy, agriculture, nautical science, and for the blind and the deaf and dumb. All instruction at the national schools, the public schools, and the universities is free.

Religion.—Christianity was introduced into Sweden about the ninth century, and was generally professed by the twelfth. The country adopted the doctrines of the Reformation during the reign of Gustavus Vasa. The national church, established by the resolution passed at Upsala in 1593 (*Upsala möte*), is Lutheran. The country is divided into 12 bishoprics (*stift*). The bishop of Upsala is archbishop of Sweden. In 1880 the number of dissenters was 21,234, of whom 14,627 were Baptists, 2993 Jews, 1591 Methodists, and 810 Roman Catholics.

Army and Navy.—The land defences consist partly of a standing army, partly of a militia. The former is for the most part founded on the so-called "indelningsverk," an institution dating from the time of Sweden's greatness, which makes the soldier a settled farmer. This force comprises about 40,000 men. The militia comprises (since 1885) all males between twenty-one and thirty-two years of age. The time of drill for the militia is only forty-two days, extending over two years.

The navy, with a permanent personnel (also for the most part founded on the "indelningsverk") of rather more than 7000 men, consists principally of coasting vessels, both ironclad and unarmoured.

Constitution.—Sweden is a limited monarchy. Its constitution, like that of England, rests on an historical development of several centuries. From the earliest times the people governed themselves through elected trustees, made laws and levied taxes, while the king was little more than their leader in war. By and by the power of the king was extended, and alongside of it there arose a class of great men, who certainly lessened the legal rights of the lower orders, but who never succeeded in completely subduing them. Through Engelbrecht the burghers and yeomen regained their influence on the development of the state, and their deputies were summoned to the riksdag (1435). Gustavus Vasa and his son Charles IX. stripped the nobility of the high authority they had exercised during the latter part of the mediæval period, and which had been dangerous both to the power of the king and to the people, and so saved the work of Engelbrecht. The right of the lower classes to be members of the riksdag was confirmed by the first "Riksdagsordning" ("law for regulating the riksdag or parliament") of Sweden (1617),

which for the first time legally regulated the system of four houses formerly adopted. In the 16th century the nobility, having been endowed with extensive domains by the crown, again won an ascendancy that was very dangerous to the lower classes, but it was crushed when Charles XI., by the diminution of their property (1680), for ever put an end to the supremacy of the nobility and the council in the state. By this act the power of the king was greatly strengthened, so much so as to endanger even the most essential rights of the riksdag,—those of giving laws and levying taxes. But after the death of Charles XII. the despotic system was abolished, and all power was lodged in the hands of the riksdag by the constitutions of 1719 and 1720. During the following period, which is called "the time of liberty," it was the riksdag that had the function of appointing and dismissing the councillors of state, and by this means was able to dominate the administration so completely as to make the power of the king of little more significance than an empty word. Different political parties defeated each other, and sold their services to foreign states without any regard to the interests of their own country. This state of affairs, which might eventually have proved exceedingly disastrous, was altered by a revolution effected by Gustavus III. (1772), which restored to the king his former power. In the new constitution, however, neither the authority of the king nor that of the people was clearly limited, and this soon led to collisions by which the king succeeded in considerably increasing his ascendancy (1789), though he cannot be said to have gained despotic power. Gustavus IV., however, abused his great authority, so that he was dethroned by a revolution. New constitutional laws were now made, in which, guided by the experience of former times, an effort was made clearly to define the respective powers of the king and the representatives of the people, to prevent encroachment from either side. The effort was crowned with success, and the new constitution of June 6, 1809, is still in great measure in force. The old division, however, into four houses has been abolished, and the influence of the representatives of the people has been increased by the new Riksdagsordning of 1866. The other constitutional laws are the "Successionsordning" ("law of succession") of 1810 and the "Tryckfrihetsordning" ("law regulating the liberty of the press") of 1812.

The executive power is vested in the king alone. The legislative power he shares with the riksdag, both parties having the rights of initiative and veto. The king has, besides, a legislative power, not precisely defined, in certain economic matters. The right of levying taxes belongs to the riksdag alone; but the king may in certain cases (as, for example, through his right of lowering the custom duties) exercise a certain influence. He can declare war and make peace, and has the supreme command of the army.

The king is irresponsible, but all his resolutions must be taken in the presence of responsible councillors ("statsråd"). These, who form the council of state, are ten in number, of whom seven are also the heads of departments of the administration (justice, foreign affairs, army, navy, internal affairs, finance, and ecclesiastical affairs, including both church and schools). For the advice they give the councillors of state are responsible to the riksdag, which revises the record of their proceedings through an annually appointed board, which has power also to indict the councillors before a special tribunal, the "riksrätt," formed for the occasion, of which certain high functionaries have to be members. One of the councillors of state is, as prime minister, the head of the administration.

The riksdag meets every year on January 15, and consists of two houses. The members of the first house,

one for every 30,000 inhabitants (143 in 1887), are elected by the "landsting" in the counties, or by the municipal councils of the larger towns, for a period of nine years. They receive no payment. Any Swede is eligible who is at least thirty-five years of age, who possesses, and for three years before the election has possessed, real property to the value of 80,000 crowns, or who, during the same period, has paid taxes on an annual income of 4000 crowns. The members of the second house (one or two for every district of judicature in the country, according as the population exceeds or falls short of 40,000, and one for every 10,000 inhabitants in the towns) receive a salary of 1200 crowns, and are elected for a period of three years by electors, or directly, according to the resolution of the electoral district. If a member retires during that period, his successor is elected for the remainder of the three years, and thus the house is wholly renewed at regular intervals, which is not the case with the first house. The franchise is possessed by every one who owns landed property to the value of 1000 crowns, or who has farmed for at least five years lands worth 6000 crowns, or pays taxes on an annual income of 800 crowns. All electors are eligible. The number of electors is about 6.5 per cent. of the population. The towns elect their representatives separately. Both houses have in theory equal power. Before bills are discussed they are prepared by boards, whose members are elected by half of each house. When the houses differ on budget questions, the matter is settled by a common vote of both houses, which arrangement gives the second house a certain advantage from the greater number of its members. By revisers elected annually the riksdag controls the finances of the kingdom, and by an official ("justitieombudsman") elected in the same way the administration of justice is controlled; he can indict any functionary of the state who has abused his power. The bank of the kingdom is superintended by trustees elected by the riksdag, and in the same way the public debt is administered through an office ("Riksgäldskontoret"), the leader of which is appointed by the riksdag.

Administration, Law, and Justice.—The administration consists partly of a centralized civil service, arranged under different departments, partly of local authorities. Each of the twenty-four counties has a governor ("landshövding") who presides over the local offices (the "landskansli," the "landskontor"), and is assisted by subordinate local officers ("kronofogdar," "häradsskrifvare," "länsmän"). There is, moreover, in each county a representation (the "landsting"), elected by the people, that deliberates on the affairs of the county and has a right to levy taxes. Each county is divided into parishes, which, like the towns, have a very strong communal self-government. The law of Sweden dates from 1736, but it has of course undergone a great many alterations and additions, the most important being the new penal law of 1864. Justice is administered by tribunals of three instances:—(1) the "häradsrätter" in the country, consisting of a judge and seven to twelve assessors elected by the people, who, if they are unanimously of an opinion different from that of the judge, can outvote him, and the "rådhusrätter" (boards of magistrates) in the towns; (2) three "hofrätter" (higher courts) in Stockholm, Jönköping, and Christianstad; and (3) the royal supreme court, which passes sentence in the name of the king, and two members of which are present in the council of state when law questions are to be settled; this tribunal has, moreover, to give its opinion upon all proposed changes of the law. A jury is never summoned in Sweden except in cases affecting the liberty of the press.

Union with Norway.—Sweden has been united to Norway since 1814. The union is regulated by the "Rikssakt

of 1315, according to which each country is free and independent, though both are governed by the same king. The connexions of both countries with foreign states are regulated by the Swedish minister for foreign affairs, but when the king has to settle matters concerning foreign states which also are of importance to Norway a Norwegian councillor of state has to be present. Both countries have the same ambassadors and consuls abroad, and share the expenses of their support, Sweden bearing the larger part of this outlay. In war the two countries are bound to assist each other. Thus the union is what is called a "unio realis." (J. F. N.)

PART II.—HISTORY.

From the earliest times of which we have any authentic information there were in Sweden two more or less distinct peoples,—the Göta or Goths in the south, and the Svea or Swedes in the north. They spoke similar languages, were of the same Teutonic stock, and had like customs, institutions, and religious beliefs; but these facts did not prevent them from regarding one another with jealousy and dislike. The most powerful king among these peoples was the king at Upsala. There were other chiefs or kings, called in later times *smaa-kongar*, but they recognized the superiority of the Upsala king, whose peculiar position was due to the fact that there was at Upsala a great temple of Wodan, which was held in equal reverence by the Swedes and the Goths. Upsala was in the territory of the Swedes, and we can account for the feeling of the Goths with regard to it only by supposing that they were an offshoot from the Swedes, and that the worship of Wodan was in some special way associated with Upsala before the separation took place. Of the two peoples, the Goths seem to have been most active and open to new ideas. They spread along the southern coasts of Sweden and among the islands of the Baltic, and there can be little doubt that the Goths in Germany and Russia, who played so great a part in the disruption of the Roman empire, sprang from the Swedish Goths.

Slavery was not unknown in ancient Sweden, but it did not form an important element in social life. The vast majority of the people were free. They were divided into two classes, *jarls* and *bondar*, corresponding to the Anglo-Saxon *eorls* and *eorls*. The *bondar* were the landed freemen, while the *jarls* were of noble blood. In some remote age the land may have been held in common by village communities, but in historic times there has always been in Sweden private property in land as well as in movables,—the *jarls* having wider lands than the *bondar*, and some *bondar* being better off than other members of their class. The kings were treated with much respect, for they belonged to families which were believed to be descended from the gods; but their power was far from being absolute. When a king died, his authority did not necessarily pass to one of his sons; the freemen chose as his successor the member of the royal family who seemed to them best fitted for the duties of the office. The king's power was limited not only by the fact that he was elected but by the rights of the freemen in all matters concerning life and land. At regular times moots were held for legal, legislative, and political purposes; and without the sanction of the Great Thing, as the tribal assembly was called, no law was valid and no judgment good.

Besides the Great Thing, of which all freemen were members, there were local things, each attended by the freemen of the district to which it belonged. The chief function of these local assemblies was to settle disputes between freemen, their decisions being given in accord-

ance with rules based on ancient customs. Very often their judgments could not be enforced; and here, as in other Teutonic lands, the impotence of the local popular courts was one of the causes which led to the growth of the king's authority. He was bound to go round his land in regular progress, doing and enforcing justice among his subjects; and in course of time men felt more and more strongly that the best way of obtaining redress for serious grievances was to appeal directly to him.

As far back as we can go in Swedish history we find that the principal aim of the Upsala kings was to get rid of the *smaa-kongar*, and to put royal officers in their place. These officers ruled in the king's name in association with the local things, but their tendency, especially in times of great civil commotion, was to make themselves as independent as possible. The king himself was always attended by some of the leading magnates, who formed a sort of council of state, and with their aid he prepared the plans which were afterwards submitted to the Great Thing. Although the Great Thing never ceased to be in theory an assembly of the nation, it gradually lost its primitive character, the political rigats of the common freemen being usurped by the nobles, who sought also to hamper the exercise of the royal authority.

According to the *Ynglinga Saga*, in which bits of old Swedish legends are preserved, the first Upsala kings were Ynglingar, sprung from Yngve Frey, the grandson of Wodan. We are told that the last representative of this dynasty was Ingjald Illrede, that he slew six of the *smaa-kongar*, and that he afterwards killed himself when he heard that the son of one of the murdered chiefs was advancing against him. It is said that the Ynglingar were succeeded by the Skioldungar, who claimed to be descended from Skiold, Wodan's son; and the traditional account is that this line began with Ivar Widfadme, and that he not only became king at Upsala but conquered Denmark, a part of Saxony, and the fifth part of England. Another of the Skioldungar, Eric Edmundsson, is said to have been an even greater king than the founder of the dynasty. During this legendary period, kings in Sweden were often at war with kings in Norway and Denmark, and Swedish adventurers undertook many warlike enterprises against the Finns and the Wends. While Danes and Norwegians were founding states in the British Islands and France, the Swedes were accomplishing like results on the eastern shores of the Baltic.

At this early period Sweden did not take in all the territory which now belongs to it. Scania, one of the most fruitful and prosperous districts of modern Sweden, had been from time immemorial an independent and comparatively powerful Gothic state. In the 9th century it was annexed to Denmark by King Guthrun; and, although in later times it was often a subject of bitter dispute between Denmark and Sweden, its connexion with the former country was not finally severed until the 17th century. Lund, the principal town in Scania, was for many generations the see of the primate of the Danish church.

The scattered notices of Adam of Bremen, Saxo, and certain saints' lives, with a few allusions elsewhere, are our direct written sources for this early period. They may be eked out by study of the laws and of local nomenclature. Later the rich runic remains of Sweden give us some fuller help. After the end of the 10th century the evidence gradually becomes clearer and more trustworthy. There was then at Upsala a powerful king called Eric the Victory-Blest. He defeated a band of vikings in a great battle at Fyrisval, and, according to Adam of Bremen, had for some time complete control over Denmark. He was succeeded in 993 by his son Olaf

(993-1024), who was called the Lap-King because he was a child when his reign began. Olaf was baptized about the year 1000, and was the first Christian king of the Swedes. In the 9th century St Ansgar had laboured for some time as a missionary in Sweden, but without much success. Even Olaf, who was supported in his efforts by Siegfred, the devoted English missionary from whom he had received instruction in Christian doctrine, found that it was impossible to convert the majority of his subjects. He was allowed to build churches in West Gothland, but in the rest of his dominions the people clung obstinately to paganism. During his reign there was war between Sweden and Norway, and Olaf seems to have been in favour of carrying on the struggle with vigour. His people, however, desired peace, and it is related that at the Great Thing at Upsala they threatened to take his life if he did not give Olaf, the Norwegian king, his daughter in marriage. He consented to do as they wished, but broke his promise; and he would probably have been set aside had it not been for the mutual jealousy of the Swedes and the Goths.

The Lap-King was succeeded, one after the other, by his sons Anund and Edmund the Elder; and under their rule the church lost much of the ground which it had gained through the efforts of Olaf. After Edmund the Elder's death the Goths resolved that Stenkil, the Christian jarl of West Gothland, should be made king. This decision was resisted by the Swedes, but the result of the civil war which broke out was that Stenkil was able to maintain his claim. He reigned from 1056 to 1066, and effectually protected the church without attempting to do violence to the convictions of the pagan population. His reign was followed by a period of much confusion, during which the Goths and the Swedes treated each other as enemies,—the latter upholding paganism, the former contending for Christianity. Under Inge the Elder, who reigned from 1080 to 1112, the temple at Upsala was burned, and from this time there could be no doubt as to the ultimate triumph of the church, which was served with heroic courage by many zealous foreign missionaries. So much progress was made that Swerker Karlsson, who reigned from about 1135 to 1155, begged the pope to give the Swedish people bishops and a primate. Nicholas Breakspear, the English cardinal who was afterwards raised to the papacy as Adrian IV., was sent to make the necessary arrangements. He found that the Swedes and the Goths could not agree as to a place for the see of a primate; but at a synod which met at Linköping in 1152 it was decided that the Swedish clergy should accept the law of celibacy, and that Sweden should pay a yearly tax to the pope. For a long time many pagan ideas and customs survived, but Sweden was now, at least nominally, a Christian country.

When Swerker was murdered in 1155 the Goths wished to make his son king, but the Swedes chose Eric Edwards-son, and he reigned until 1160. Eric was so good a king that after his death he was canonized by the popular voice, as was then the way in the North. Upsala was made by him a primate's see, and he began the series of efforts which led to the annexation of Finland to Sweden. Finnish pirates had often desolated the Swedish coasts, and it had become absolutely necessary that their country should be subdued. Eric not only overcame the Finns, but did what he could to compel them to accept Christianity.

For about a century after Eric's death the Goths and the Swedes were almost constantly at war with one another, each people choosing its own king. The Goths preferred the descendants of Swerker, while the Swedes were loyal to the descendants of Eric, who were known as

the yeomen-kings, because Eric had originally belonged to the class of *bondar* or yeomen. The Danish kings often aided one or other of the contending parties, and as a rule they seem to have done far more harm than good by their interference. To some extent the church maintained among the people a sense of national unity, but it was not powerful enough to give much protection to the poorer members of the community against the despotism of local magnates. In the end, when the church itself became rich, the higher clergy were quite as tyrannical as the secular nobles.

John Swerker, the last king of the Swerker dynasty, died in 1222; Eric the Halt, the last of the yeomen-kings, in 1250. In the latter year the crown was given to Waldemar, whose mother was a sister of King Eric the Halt. Waldemar belonged to the Folkungar family, which had acquired great estates and risen to a position of high importance in the state. Under this dynasty the Goths and the Swedes gradually ceased to be jealous of one another, and became a thoroughly united people. From this time civil troubles in Sweden sprang, not from the antagonism of rival peoples, but chiefly from the increasing power of the great landowners, who strove incessantly to limit the rights of the free peasantry, and were often strong enough to defy the crown.

At the time of the death of Eric the Halt, Birger Brosa, Waldemar's father, was in Finland, where he conquered Tavastland and strengthened the hold of the Swedish crown over those tribes which had been already subdued. On his return to Sweden he was indignant to find that he had not himself been elected to the throne. He accepted what had been done, however, and devoted his energies to the promotion of his son's interests. Until his death Birger was the real ruler of Sweden, and the nation had never been governed by a man of stronger will or more upright character. If he did not actually found Stockholm, it was he who made it the strongest fortress in the country,—a service for which the Swedish people had good reason to be grateful to him, for it enabled them to put an end to the depredations of Finnish pirates. After the death of Birger great evils were brought upon the country by the folly and incompetence of Waldemar, who was at last driven from the throne and imprisoned by his brother Magnus, who succeeded him. Magnus (1279-1290) was a lover of pomp and splendour, and formed a more brilliant court than the Swedes had ever seen. He granted immunity from taxation to those landowners who should give the crown *ross-dienst* or horse-service, that is, serve the king in war at the head of a body of horsemen. His intention in adopting this plan was to secure for the crown a powerful body of loyal and attached supporters, but, as the measure added to the wealth, dignity, and influence of the nobles, its ultimate effect was to weaken the royal authority. Although he increased the importance of the aristocracy, Magnus was not unmindful of the interests of the common freemen. He is known as *Ladu-laas* or *Barn-Lock*, because he issued a law requiring persons of noble birth to pay for the straw and corn with which, when travelling, they might be supplied by peasants. Magnus was also a munificent benefactor of the clergy. He endowed a large number of churches and built five monasteries.

Magnus was succeeded by his son Birger (1290-1319). Birger was only nine years old when his father died, and for a long time the power of the crown was wielded by his guardian, Torkel Knutsson, a wise and vigorous statesman. Knutsson drew up a code of laws which was accepted by the Great Thing in 1295; and in Finland he not only put down rebellion but annexed Savolax and Carelia. In 1306, misled by his brothers Eric and Waldemar, Birger

caused this faithful and able counsellor to be beheaded, and the result was civil war, in which the weak king found it hard to make way against his restless and ambitious brothers. At last he got them into his power by treachery, and threw them into a dungeon of the castle of Nyköping, where they died of starvation. Soon afterwards Birger himself died, despised and hated by his subjects. He was succeeded by his nephew Magnus, his brother Eric's son, a child of about three years of age. Magnus's guardian, Mats Ketilmundsson, was a man of strong and noble character, and as long as his supremacy lasted the Swedish people were more prosperous than they had ever been before. Taking advantage of the troubled condition of Denmark, he joined Scania and the neighbouring districts of Halland and Blekinge to the Swedish kingdom; and had his prudent system of government been maintained these provinces might have been kept, for the inhabitants seem to have preferred Swedish to Danish rule. But, when he died in 1336, the king fell under the influence of unworthy favourites. Scania, Halland, and Blekinge were restored to Denmark, and Sweden was soon in a state of the greatest confusion. In 1363 a number of nobles who had given Magnus much trouble, and whom he had expelled from the country, went to his sister's son Albert, count of Mecklenburg, and offered him the crown. The offer was accepted, and afterwards Albert was formally elected by the Great Thing. Magnus resisted, but was defeated and made prisoner in a battle at Enköping in 1365. In 1371 he was released, and the rest of his days he spent in Norway, where he was not unpopular. From his mother he had inherited the Norwegian crown, but before the misfortunes of his later years it had been transferred to his son Haco.

Albert.

The nobles and the hierarchy of Sweden were now so powerful that only a king of the highest political genius could have hoped to control them. Albert of Mecklenburg proved to be utterly unfit for the task he had undertaken. He tried to protect himself by giving many of the great offices of state to Germans, but he was warned that he would be dethroned if he continued to show so much favour to foreigners. In 1371 he accepted as his chief counsellor a great Swedish noble called Bo Jonsson, to whom about a third of the kingdom is said to have belonged. Bo Jonsson gave much more heed to his own interests than to those of his country, and did hardly anything to mitigate the hardships inflicted on the common people at this time by the turbulence of the well-to-do classes. After Bo Jonsson's death Albert attempted to regain some of the authority which he had been forced to delegate to his powerful minister; but the nobles refused to obey him, and invited Margaret of Denmark and Norway to take his place.

Margaret, one of the most remarkable figures in Scandinavian history, was the daughter of Waldemar IV. of Denmark, and at an early age she had become the wife of Haco of Norway, son of the Swedish king whom Albert had supplanted. The offspring of this marriage was an only son, Olaf, who succeeded his grandfather in Denmark in 1375 and his father in Norway in 1380. Both countries were ruled firmly and wisely by Margaret in her son's name; and after his death in 1387 the Danes and the Norwegians begged her to retain supreme power. To this request she assented; and, when the Swedish nobles asked her to undertake the government of Sweden also, she at once expressed her willingness to attack Albert, who had irritated her by claiming the Danish crown. An army was soon despatched to Sweden, and in 1389 Albert was defeated and taken prisoner at Falköping. Stockholm, which was held by German mercenaries, refused to admit the conqueror, and for several years it was besieged

without success by Danish troops. At last the difficulty had to be settled by negotiation. In 1395 it was arranged that Albert should be set at liberty on condition that within three years he should pay a ransom of 60,000 marks. If at the end of that period the money was not paid, he was either to give up Stockholm or to return to captivity. The result was that in 1398 Stockholm was surrendered by the Hanseatic League, which had become security for the fulfilment of Albert's engagement.

Meanwhile Margaret had persuaded the Danes, the Norwegians, and the Swedes to accept her grandnephew Eric of Pomerania as her successor, and in 1397 he was crowned at Calmar. Margaret was eager that the union of the Scandinavian countries under a single sovereign should be made permanent, and delegates from the councils of state of the three kingdoms met at Calmar to discuss her proposals. On the 20th of July 1397 these delegates concluded what was called the union of Calmar. Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, while retaining their local laws and customs, were in all future time to be ruled by one king. When a king died he was to be succeeded by his eldest son; but if he were childless his successor was to be freely elected. In foreign affairs Scandinavia was always to act as a united country. Margaret had excellent intentions in devising this bold scheme, but the time was not ripe for so vast a change. It was inevitable that when popular movements were no longer held in check by her strong will, formidable difficulties should spring from the jealousies of the three nationalities.

Even after Eric's coronation Margaret remained the real Eric XII. sovereign, and she was powerful enough to make the union something more than a mere name. But even during her lifetime the Swedish people showed that they resented the idea of being taxed for objects in which they were only indirectly interested, and when she died (in 1412) it soon became evident that Eric would be unable to retain their allegiance. In 1386 Margaret had formally recognized the claim of Gerhard VI., count of Holstein, to be feudal lord of the duchy of Schleswig. Gerhard died in 1404, leaving three young sons. Margaret and Eric then tried to recover the rights of the Danish crown in the duchy; and in 1413, soon after Margaret's death, Eric caused Schleswig to be declared a forfeited fief. The result was a war which lasted about twenty years. The Swedes had to bear heavy burdens to enable Eric to carry on the conflict, and he made no attempt to allay their discontent. He seldom visited their country, and his officers often treated them with reckless cruelty. In the province of Dalecarlia the royal bailiff acted so tyrannically that in 1434 the people rebelled. They were led by a brave and patriotic miner, Engelbrecht Engelbrechtsson, and under his influence the movement spread rapidly among the peasantry of other districts. The Swedish council of state, alarmed by the enthusiasm he had excited, agreed in 1436 to declare the king deposed. The nobles were more afraid of the peasants than of Eric, and soon placed him on the throne again; but he never fully recovered his authority. He was obliged to make Charles Knutsson his viceroy in Sweden; and Knutsson was as anxious as Engelbrechtsson that Swedish independence should be restored. The two patriotic leaders became jealous of one another, and Engelbrechtsson was murdered by a member of Knutsson's party. But the popular agitation lost none of its original force, and in 1439 Eric was dethroned by all his kingdoms. He fled to the island of Gotland, where he lived for some years by piracy; and afterwards he was compelled to seek for refuge in Pomerania.

Christopher of Bavaria, Eric's nephew, was elected to the Danish throne, and he was soon acknowledged also in

Norway and Sweden. He was a man of good intentions, but was not strong enough to overcome the prejudice created against him by the fact of his being a foreigner. When he died in 1448 the Danes chose Christian, count of Oldenburg, as his successor, and the Norwegians by and by followed their example. Had the decision in Sweden rested only with the nobles and the clergy, Christian would at once have received the Swedish crown, for under the nominal rule of a foreign king these classes were able to tyrannize as they pleased over their poorer neighbours. But the Swedish people generally so strongly disliked the union, and stood so urgently in need of the protection of a native sovereign, that Charles Knutsson was made king. He mounted the throne as Charles VIII. The aristocracy, both spiritual and temporal, detested him; and in 1457 he found in Archbishop Jöns Bengtsson so formidable an enemy that he had to make his escape to Dantzic. Christian I. of Denmark and Norway then became king of Sweden, but he was unable to assert supremacy over the country as a whole, and in 1464 Charles VIII. again secured the throne. In the following year Charles was displaced a second time, but soon afterwards he was recalled, and he retained the crown until his death in 1470.

Sten Sture regent.

Charles was succeeded, not as king but as regent, by his nephew Sten Sture, under whose firm rule Sweden became prosperous and contented. Sten Sture was a far-seeing statesman, and sided resolutely with the peasants against the nobles. He took great pains also to promote the intellectual culture of the people. The university of Upsala was founded by him, and he introduced into Sweden the art of printing, and invited to the country many foreign scholars. He was not able wholly to destroy the union, for in 1496 he was defeated by King Hans of Denmark and Norway, who afterwards received the Swedish crown. Nevertheless Sten Sture remained the real master of Sweden, and after the defeat of the Danes by the Ditmarshers in 1500 his power was almost absolute. He died in 1503, when his authority passed to his nephew Svante Nilsson Sture, whom King Hans and the Swedish clergy and nobles in vain attempted to put down. Svante Nilsson Sture was succeeded by his son, Sten Sture the younger, in 1512, and for some time this brave and patriotic regent vigorously held his own both against his enemies at home and against Christian II., king of Denmark and Norway. In 1520, however, he was mortally wounded in a battle with the Danes at Bogesund, after which Christian II. became king of Sweden. This sovereign had some enlightened ideas, but he was a man of ferocious passions, and he had no sooner restored the union than he made the maintenance of it impossible by an act of almost unparalleled cruelty. Under the pretence of upholding the honour of the church he ordered at Stockholm the execution of ninety persons accused of having taken part in the deposition of his friend and supporter Archbishop Gustavus Trolle, who had been the late regent's bitterest enemy. Most of the condemned men were nobles, and Christian hoped that by killing them he would secure the allegiance of the peasantry. The whole Swedish nation, however, was shocked by so horrible a massacre, and resolved to shake off for ever the hated Danish yoke.

The movement for national independence was headed by Gustavus Ericsson, known afterwards as Gustavus Vasa. This young noble had been one of a group of Swedish hostages whom Christian II. had sent to Denmark, treating them as if they had been prisoners of war. In 1519 he escaped from prison, and after a short stay in Lübeck found his way to Dalecarlia, where he went about in disguise among the peasantry, urging them to combine

against the common enemy. At first they were afraid to act with him, but their hesitation vanished when they heard of the blood-bath in Stockholm,—a crime by which Gustavus himself was more than ever embittered against the Danes, for his father was one of Christian II.'s victims. A force raised by Archbishop Trolle having been defeated, Gustavus led his troops beyond the limits of Dalecarlia and took Vesterås and Upsala, and laid siege to Stockholm and Calmar. These fortresses were bravely defended, but in 1523, with the help of a fleet sent to him by Lübeck, he succeeded in capturing them. In 1521 he had been declared regent, and in 1523, before the conquest of Stockholm and Calmar, he summoned at Strengnäs a diet which elected him to the throne. Soon afterwards he made himself master of Finland, and he annexed Scania, Halland, and Blekinge. The union had now been brought to an end, and from this time Sweden was always ruled by her own kings. Denmark and Norway, however, remained subject to one crown until the beginning of the 19th century.

Gustavus Vasa was by far the greatest sovereign who had up to this time ruled the Swedish people. Before he was made king the doctrines of Luther had been proclaimed in Sweden by the brothers Olaus and Laurentius Petri; and Gustavus, who listened attentively to their teaching, became one of the most enthusiastic adherents of the Reformation. He acted cautiously, however, and resolutely opposed violent agitators. The majority of the Swedes cordially accepted the new doctrines, and at a diet held at Westerås in 1527 Gustavus received authority to reorganize the church. This he did thoroughly, making it clear from the beginning that Protestant pastors would never be permitted to wield the power which the Roman priesthood had so often abused. The greater part of the vast estates which had belonged to the Roman clergy he confiscated and applied to the uses of the state. In his secular policy he was as bold and successful as in his dealings with the church. For centuries the independence and arrogance of the great nobles had been the curse of the Swedish people. Gustavus missed no opportunity of limiting their influence. He compelled them to bear their fair share of the public burdens, and secured for himself faithful allies by obtaining for burghers and the peasantry, who had lost almost all their political influence, a recognized place in the diet, which was now summoned more frequently and regularly than it had been for several generations. Gustavus did everything he could to encourage industry. For six years he fought with Lübeck in order to break the supremacy of the Hanseatic League, and he concluded treaties of commerce with England and the Netherlands. So many changes were effected in Sweden in his time that several conspiracies were formed against him, but he had little difficulty in overcoming his enemies, for he had the confidence and affection of the great mass of his subjects. In 1544 it was decided by the diet that the Swedish throne should cease to be elective, and that it should be hereditary in the family of Gustavus.

When Gustavus died in 1560, his eldest son Eric became king. Eric was foolish enough to go to war with Frederick II. of Denmark for no better reason than that the latter, like Eric himself, claimed the right to put three crowns in his coat-of-arms. This war, which lasted seven years, caused much suffering to both nations. The Danes were generally beaten at sea, but under the leadership of the stout soldier Daniel Rantzau they gained important victories on land. Intellectually Eric was one of the most cultivated of Swedish kings, but in action he was so headstrong and wayward that most people believed him to be insane. He wasted the treasure amassed by