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CRONHOLM'S
HISTORY OF SWEDEN.
A HISTORY

OF

SWEDEN

From the Earliest Times to the Present Day.

BY

NEANDER N. CRONHOLM,
M.A., PH.D., LL.B.

WITH MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

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CHAPTER XXIV.

CHARLES X. GUSTAVUS.

1654—1660.


Charles X. Gustavus was the first of the new line of Kings to ascend the throne of Sweden. This house of Palatine was by no means foreign to Sweden, for the King’s mother was a sister of Gustavus Adolphus. Charles X. Gustavus himself was brought up and educated in the country and was alike in manner, education, and spirit a Swede. After a thorough course
of instruction at the universities and a good deal of foreign travel he had studied the arts of war under the guidance of the great Swedish general, Torstenson, and had also taken parts in several of this general's hardest battles.

For a long time prior to ascending the throne he had sought to win the hand of Queen Christina. She, while declining to marry him, yet, in order to satisfy his ambition, made him commander-in-chief of the Swedish army in Germany, and shortly afterwards the Riksdag elected him successor to the throne. When at thirty-two years of age he ascended the throne, he had already gathered rich experience in the arts of war and peace.

He was endowed with a clear, penetrating understanding and a powerful will. He was also gifted with unusually quick perceptions in grasping any subject and he was rapid in decision and action. Of a somewhat violent temperament, he was inclined to be changeable and restless. He was well informed on many different subjects, political, social, and military; but above all he was a soldier. The character of a general he possessed in a marked degree. In appearance he was below the medium height, being rather stout, and having light blue eyes, a dark complexion, and straight black hair.

At the time when he ascended the throne of Sweden the country was rent by internal strife among the political parties, and the peace of Europe was threatened. The parties in Sweden were preparing for a great struggle to gain influence with the government. The bondes and small landholders were demanding a reduction of taxes and the restoration to the crown
of the property dispensed with so lavish a hand by Queen Christina to her favorites. The enormous debt incurred by the government in the Thirty Years' War was still felt by all classes as a burden too heavy to be borne. The country's relations with her neighbors, Poland and Denmark, were already closely bordering on war. Then the King of Poland, John Casimir, the second son of Sigismund, refused to acknowledge Charles X. Gustavus as King of Sweden. Accordingly preparations were made for war against Poland. The Estates of the Riksdag which met in 1655 gave their consent to the war against Poland and voted subsidies. The most important question at this Riksdag was the question concerning the reduction of taxes and the return to the crown of crown property in the hands of the nobility. It was now the King himself who had, with the consent of the Council, proposed favorable terms on which the crown property in possession of the nobility should be returned to the crown. This proposition was also after long debate and contention finally approved by the Riksdag. According to this enactment all inalienable property of the crown which was considered necessary for the support of the court and other institutions of the land was forthwith to be restored to the crown, and one-fourth part of all other properties belonging to the crown and held by the nobility was in like manner to be restored. This enactment has since been known by the name of the "Fourth Part Requisition." It was determined, however, that this requisition should not be retroactive further back than the death of Gustavus Adolphus. A board of commissioners, of which the energetic Herman Fleming be-
came president, was appointed to enforce the law.

The foreign relations between Sweden and the other European powers soon occupied the entire attention of the King. The position of Sweden in Europe was no longer the same as during the Thirty Years' War. She had risen to great power in her alliance with France, but after the Peace of Westphalia had withdrawn from France; and Holland, fearing her power on the seas, had after the Peace of Bromsebro made approaches to her enemies, Denmark and Poland. Charles X. Gustavus, therefore, sought new alliances, namely, England, a rival of Holland as mistress of the seas and at this time governed by Oliver Cromwell, and Brandenburg over which Frederic William, the great Elector, was ruling.

The King's desires and plans were not based upon expectation of assistance from other powers. He endeavored to create an independent Swedish policy and he also wanted to take advantage of the weakness and internal disorder of Poland, and for that purpose established his power east of the Baltic sea. A warlike spirit prevailed among the nobility and the army, and from every direction experienced and tried warriors of the Thirty Years' War were flocking to the victorious standard of Sweden. The fiery and warlike King determined not to neglect this favorable opportunity.

The Polish and Russian Wars.—The plan of the King was to invade Poland simultaneously from Pomerania and Livonia. Poland was already rent by internal strife and by the invasions of Russians and Cossacks. In the summer of 1655, the first division of the Swedish army under command of Arvid Wit-
tenberg marched through Pomerania into greater Poland, where a Polish army composed mainly of the nobility deserted the standard of Poland and enrolled themselves in the Swedish army, claiming the protection of Charles X., and took the oath of allegiance to him as their King. Wittenberg without encountering resistance penetrated the country along the river Warta and here waited for the King, who with the second division of his army had marched from Pomerania. The united armies marched directly on Warsaw, the capital of Poland, which capitulated immediately and unconditionally. The King marched from Warsaw with part of his army into little Poland, where John Casimir had assembled his supporters. The Poles were defeated in several battles. The King took the city of Cracow, the old capital of Poland, by assault. John Casimir, abandoned by the nobility, and his army defeated, fled to Silesia. His nobles and his army swore allegiance to the conqueror. Charles X. Gustavus after these important victories led his army against the Elector of Brandenburg, who had during this war been assuming a suspicious attitude. He took the strong castle of Thorn by storm and united with the army of De la Gardie, which was coming from Livonia. The Elector did not venture to meet the Swedes in open battle, but retreated, followed by the King, who surrounded the city of Konigsberg and compelled the Elector to form an alliance whereby he placed East Prussia under the protection of Sweden and promised to assist the King with his army.

Charles X. had thus far been attended by prosperity and success. He laid plans for further achievements. His ambition was to extend his kingdom. He
had no intention of ascending the throne of Poland but rather of partitioning the country and keeping the larger share for himself and incorporating it with Sweden, whereby the trans-Baltic provinces would be enlarged. But other European nations evinced an interest in the partition of Poland. Austria and Holland particularly objected, fearing an alteration in the balance of power in Northern Europe. Russia and Denmark were then, as always, the enemies of Sweden.

Then the patriotic feeling among the Poles began to assert itself. The Swedes during the occupation of Poland had levied heavy war contributions. The catholic clergy denounced the invaders as heretics and advised the peasants to kill them wherever they found them. The Polish people rose everywhere against the Swedes. John Casimir returned and raised a considerable army in southern Poland. The King of Sweden on being informed of the movement, marched southward to quell the insurrection. The Swedes for the space of six weeks and during the most intense cold of winter were marching over the snow-covered fields of Poland surrounded by enemies who inflicted on them severe losses, reducing the army greatly. His Polish supporters gradually deserted the King. When he arrived in Galicia he stopped his march, and after a short rest returned Northward for fear that he might be cut off from the remainder of his army. With 8,000 Swedes he came near to being surrounded at the junction of the rivers Vistula and San; but by skillful and bold manoeuvres he succeeded in crossing the latter under the enemies' eyes. After a number of engagements with them he effected his return
to Greater Poland and Prussia. The Swedes were usually victorious in the open field but were constantly weakened by skirmishes and sudden attacks. The enemy were always lying in ambush. The Swedish garrison, whom the King had left at Warsaw under command of Wittenberg, after a long and heroic defense at last surrendered. The Russians broke the peace and invaded Ingermanland.

Dangers and misfortunes were gathering from every side, but Charles was not the man to lose heart. He made a new treaty with the Elector of Brandenburg who thereby became the firmest supporter of the King. The Swedish troops and the troops of the Elector of Brandenburg marched together against Warsaw. The Polish army strengthened by Tartars and Lithuanians numbered at least 50,000 men against whom the Swedish King and the Elector could not place in the field more than 18,000 men. Nevertheless Charles X. determined to attack the enemy in his entrenchments on the other side of the Vistula river. The assault was made step by step during the space of three days, and succeeded owing to the masterly moves of Charles X., the Elector's firmness, and the bravery and military discipline of the troops. The Polish army was beaten and broken up in July, 1656. The brilliant victory at Warsaw was barren of great results, because the King was too weak to follow up his victory and the Elector declined to go further South. The fortunes of the Swedish armies were, however, maintained without a check by the Swedish generals, Vrangel, Stenbock and Ascheberg.
LUND CATHEDRAL.
During the operations of the Swedish army in Poland under the command of the King, the Russians had invaded Ingermanland and Livonia, wasting the country with fire and sword, but they were not successful in getting possession of the fortifications, and the Swedish army in possession was enabled to resist the enemy. The Czar Alexis with an enormous army besieged Riga. The city defended itself successfully under the command of Helmfeld and the Czar was compelled at last to break his camp. Despite these many reverses, King Charles now endeavored to recover his former prestige by negotiating with his enemies and other neutral nations. The Chancellor Eric Oxenstjerna closed a commercial alliance with Holland through which danger from that quarter was avoided; and in order to retain the friendly assistance of the Elector, the King made a treaty with him whereby he was granted the sovereignty of East Prussia in 1656. By this treaty, concluded at Labiom, was laid the foundation of the independent kingdom of Prussia; the King also gained a new friend by making an alliance with the Prince of Siebenburgen, Rakoczy II., who with a numerous army of Hungarians and Cossacks broke into South Poland; but these undisciplined hordes were more of a hindrance than a help and retarded the movements of the Swedish army, and so the King soon separated himself from them. Suddenly, like a bolt from a clear sky, Denmark declared war on May 2, 1657, and an Austrian army invaded Poland for the purpose of annihilating the Swedish army.

Charles X. hesitated at first which of the two he would fight, but finally determined to march against
Denmark. He therefore abandoned Poland leaving a garrison in the most important Polish cities. These Polish wars of Charles were of great consequence to Poland and to the whole of Europe. Unfortunate Poland was so divided and split up by internal strife on account of this war that she became too weak to defend herself against her hostile neighbors. From that time on Russia began to enrich herself at Poland’s expense.

The Danish War.—Charles X. had determined to conquer Denmark. According to the plan formerly adopted by general Torstenson, he hastened with a small army of 8,000 men, all selected veterans, by forced marches from Poland across Pomerania to Holstein and was now standing within the borders of Denmark in the Fall of 1657. This was a complete surprise to the Danes. Frederic III. was at this time the ruler of Denmark. He had declared war without making preparations in the hope that Charles X. would be forced to remain in Poland with the Swedish army. The Danish army was under the command of marshal Andrew Bille. They were far superior in number to the Swedes but they consisted mostly of undisciplined troops, while the Swedes were hardy veterans. Surprised by the appearance of the Swedish army Bille retreated northward. The Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, father-in-law of Charles X, remained neutral and the whole peninsula of Jutland was overrun by the Swedes. The Danish marshal with 6,000 Danes shut himself up in the fortress Fredericia near the Little Belt and was there besieged by the Swedish general, Carl Gustav Vrangell. These
sudden and successful attacks by the Swedish armies saved Sweden from invasion by the Danes.

Although Charles X. had thus far been brilliantly successful, his position was extremely dangerous. He could easily have been shut up with his little army in the Danish peninsula. A Polish army was already in Pomerania and an Austrian army in Prussia, and the Elector of Brandenburg had been gained over by the enemies of Sweden. England had promised to assist the Swedish King with a fleet, but it did not materialize. In this critical situation he was saved by an almost miraculous combination of nature, fortune, and daring.

General Vrangel succeeded by a night attack on the fortress of Fredericia in taking the Danish marshal and all his army prisoners and thereby securing a large amount of arms and provisions. During the winter of 1658 occurred the severest cold weather within the memory of man. The sea separating the Danish islands was frozen over and a natural bridge was thus made between them. The King determined at once to cross to the island of Fyen. It was a daring undertaking to traverse the frozen sea when the ice was swaying under the marching hosts and in several places actually breaking. All was successful however. The enemy waiting on the other shore was beaten and the whole island of Fyen was taken possession of by the Swedes. But the most brilliant undertaking was to cross the broader arm of the sea called the Great Belt, about twelve English miles in width. The Swedish quartermaster general, Erik Dahlberg, examined the ice and told the King that
he would answer with his life for the ice being strong enough to bear the Swedish army to the other shore. The King beside himself with delight clapped his hands and exclaimed, "Now Brother Frederic, we will converse with each other in good Swedish." Dahlberg rode at the head of the column showing the way across the extensive ice field. Under his guidance the whole army marched over the frozen sea to Zealand. The great venture had been successful. Without opposition the Swedes approached Copenhagen, whose fortifications were in a bad condition, and Charles X. was now able to dictate terms to Frederic III. and the Danes. These were also quite severe for Denmark. By the peace of Roskilde which was concluded on the 26th of February, 1658, Denmark ceded to Sweden the provinces of Scania, Halland, Bleking, Bohuslan, Trondhjem and Bornholm. The fleets of those powers who were at war with Sweden and Denmark were excluded from the Baltic by the provisions of a later treaty. The Duke of Holstein-Gottorp was released from and became independent of the overlordship of Denmark.

Through this peace Sweden had now risen to the height of external greatness. The provinces now incorporated with Sweden were not distant provinces in foreign lands, but were really an integral part of Sweden and were one in nationality, custom and laws, and they were enclosed by their natural boundary—the sea. But on account of the turbulent times these newly acquired provinces, which contained about one-quarter of the Swedish population, did not become thoroughly Swedish in sentiment and sympathy until the following reign.
After a visit to Scania, Charles X. with his retinue went to the city of Gothenburg, whither he had called the Estates to meet him in Riksdag. The victorious King was welcomed with great jubilation and many festivities. Here he consulted with the Council and Estates concerning the plans for prosecuting the wars in which he was engaged, and it was decided that the first advances should be made against Brandenburg; but in order to continue the prosecution of the war in Germany it was necessary for Sweden to be secure against danger from Denmark. Charles X. endeavored to draw her over to the Swedish side and to make a treaty with that power which should close the Baltic to the fleets of Holland, which threatened the coasts of the Baltic. Denmark refused to enter into this alliance. So Charles X. took the dangerous step of breaking the peace and thereby attempting to destroy the independence of Denmark. He embarked his troops at Kiel and suddenly landed on the coast of Zealand.

The Swedish King had by this invasion of Denmark broken the solemn treaty of peace, and the violation of his plighted word did not remain unpunished. He had now made an open enemy of Holland, and the patriotism of the Danish people being aroused, they seized their arms and fought with the bravery of despair. The King of Sweden with his small army did not make an immediate assault on Copenhagen, and it was this delay which saved the capital of Denmark. Her inhabitants with the courage of desperation, determined to defend themselves to the last gasp. King Frederic III. declared that he was willing to die in his capital like a bird in its nest. Patriot-
ism inspired the people; burghers, students, and peasants armed themselves. One even saw delicately bred men and women at work with axes and spades on the neglected walls to repair the fortifications. The Danes made several successful sallies against the besieging army. In the meantime the Swedes had made an assault upon and taken the castle of Kronberg, which commanded the Sound. Famine now began to be felt in Copenhagen. The outer works were seized by the beleaguerers. At this juncture a fleet sent out by Holland approached from Cattegat and came to the deliverance of Copenhagen. The Swedish fleet commanded by Admiral Vrangel advanced to meet it, and now there was fought in the Sound one of the bloodiest of battles with a power up to this time mistress of the sea. It lasted for six hours. The Hollanders aided by favorable winds succeeded in passing through the Sound and came to the rescue of Copenhagen. The threatened city was saved. The Swedes raised the siege and threw up fortifications ten miles from the city. Fortune seemed to have forsaken Charles X. From the south a strong army of Poles, Austrians and Brandenburgers was penetrating into Holstein. The Elector commanded in person. The Swedes now found it necessary to evacuate the Peninsula of Jutland. The population of the newly-acquired provinces of Sweden threatened to revolt. Part of the Norwegian provinces were taken by Denmark, and the inhabitants of the island of Bornholm rebelled and in the night killed every man of the Swedish garrison stationed there.

At the approach of winter, when the fleets would be no longer able to assist Copenhagen, Charles X.
prepared a plan to make a final assault on the city. In the month of February, 1659, a night attack was delivered. The principal assault was made from the west side and a wondrous struggle took place on the walls and the frozen ditches. The night was illuminated by fire from the mouths of several hundred cannon. The Danes were well prepared and superior in number and met the attacking Swedes with a shower of bullets and stones. Even the women took part in the defense and poured boiling water over the attacking army. Finally the Swedes retreated after losing a large number in killed and wounded. Charles X. endeavored to make an alliance with England and was building hopes on her assistance, but in this he was disappointed. Internal strife precluded aid from that source. England on the other hand endeavored to interest France and Holland and by their intervention to induce the Northern Kings to conclude a peace on the basis of the Peace of Roskilde, with some alterations to the advantage of Denmark. But Charles X. proudly rejected the proposed intervention of any foreign powers. In addition to all the misfortunes of the King the allied armies, coming to the aid of Denmark, took possession of the Peninsula of Fyen. The Swedish troops stationed near Nyberg were attacked by superior numbers, defeated, and taken prisoners, and their commander Gustav Stenbock alone succeeded in saving himself in a small boat. Surrounded by danger on every hand, Charles X. issued a call to the Estates of the realm to meet in Riksdag at the city of Gothenburg. He was at the same time preparing to invade Norway. When the King arrived at Gothenburg he was taken sick. The fever increased
and he saw that his days were numbered. Thereupon he drew up his last will and testament and prepared for his death, which took place on the 13th of February, 1660, when he was only 38 years of age.

After ascending the throne Charles X. Gustavus had spent most of his time on the field of battle. However, he was not indifferent to the internal welfare and improvements of his kingdom. Many were effected during his short reign and still more would have been made if the many wars had not monopolized his energies. The heavy war taxes and the drafting of new armies impoverished the country and created a strong opposition among the poorer classes. The nobility rebelled against the demand made upon them for the return of the crown property; and although this reduction of the crown property had proceeded apace under the superintendence of Count Fleming, yet during the long wars it was discontinued. More than three thousand of the crown estates, however, had been returned to the crown. Another blow that Sweden sustained during this time was the loss of the Swedish colony in America, New Sweden on the Delaware river, which was seized by the Hollanders in 1655.

Two institutions which have since proved to be of great benefit to the country were at this time established. In the midst of these many wars the National Bank was chartered. This was the first and most important foundation. The second institution was an iron and steel manufacturing plant at Eskiltuna. Charles X., by his foresight, in more than one way gave an impulse to the development of the country. It was through him and his energy that the boundaries
of Sweden were extended until they reached its natural bulwarks, the seas, thereby preventing the constant invasions from the side of Denmark which had occurred previously for centuries. Sweden was thus relieved of the heavy expense of keeping up a long line of fortifications to guard against Danish invasions. He also by his demand on the nobility compelled them to surrender crown property, and thereby laid the foundation of many of the internal improvements and of a more equal distribution of land among the inhabitants.

Charles X. Gustavus was the founder of a new Swedish royal dynasty. He was married to Hedvig Eleonora, princess of Holstein-Gottorp. They had one child who became Charles XI, and who was four years of age at the time of the King's death.
CHARLES XI.
CHAPTER XXV.

CHARLES XI.

1660—1697.


The Regency.—The kingdom of Sweden was surrounded by enemies. Her King was a child. The Estates accordingly met in Riksdag to provide for the conduct of the government. Count Per Brahe was made president of the Council. The government first essayed to make an honorable peace with the six powerful enemies of Sweden. First of all a peace was concluded with Poland in 1660, known as the Peace of Oliva, in which the Elector of Brandenburg as well as the Emperor of Austria were included. John
Casimir, King of Poland, renounced all claims to the throne of Sweden, thus putting an end to the many mutually injurious wars. Livonia was formally ceded to Sweden. Thereupon peace was made with Holland by giving her certain commercial privileges. Sweden also terminated hostilities with Denmark by a treaty signed at Copenhagen, in accordance with which a part of the lately conquered provinces Trondhjem and Bornholm was again made over to Denmark. Russia was the last to come to terms with Sweden, when, in 1661, she evacuated certain provinces taken possession of during the late wars.

Charles X. Gustavus had appointed the Queen dowager and the five ministers of state to be the King's guardians during his minority, and the Estates meeting in Riksdag in 1660 approved of this appointment. He had also appointed his brother, Adolphus, to be lord high constable of the realm. This appointment, however, was not approved by the Council and the Estates. The constitution of 1634 was adopted as a guide for the guardians of the King during the regency, a few amendments only being passed whereby the guardians were made dependent on the Council and the Riksdag. This constitution with its amendments is usually known as the Constitution of 1660. It was the first in which definite times were fixed for the Estates to meet in Riksdag, the period determined being once in every three years. The well-meaning Queen dowager had little influence with the government of the regency. The most prominent of the King's guardians were Per Brahe, minister of justice, Magnus De la Gardie, chancellor, and G. Bonde, minister of finance. Per Brahe was an old man, yet full of vigor.
De la Gardie was a man in the prime of life, endowed with many brilliant accomplishments, but lacking firmness of character and decision. He was also vain and dispensed the wealth of the nation with a lavish hand. Count Bonde, the Minister of Finance, was an energetic, prudent and conservative man with large experience of his office. Carl Gustav Vrangell became Commander-in-Chief of the armies and Gustav Otto Stenbock, Admiral of all the naval forces. Both of them bore a high reputation as commanders. Only one thing was wanting during this regency, namely, such harmony among the ministers and guardians as existed during the minority of Queen Christina. The spirit and personality of Axel Oxenstjerna were sadly missed. The members composing the government were men of very different opinions. Count Bonde endeavored to help the impoverished country by economy and the reduction or return of all property belonging to the crown. At the outset he was successful in bringing about the needed reform, but the nobility in possession of large amounts of the crown property displayed such violent opposition that this plan of economy soon caused his overthrow. There was a general increase in the salaries and a new distribution of the crown lands, large portions of which found their way to the members of the regency and the Council. There being a large deficit, loans were resorted to; funds were raised by questionable means and other powers were applied to for subsidies. The government endeavored to obtain as large subsidies as possible from other powers without being involved in actual war. But this had also the effect of making the foreign politics of Sweden uncertain and vacillat-
To this may be added that several members of the regency and other men of power and influence were receiving presents from foreign powers for the purpose of advancing their interests.

In the year 1664 the Estates met in Riksdag at Stockholm. Party spirit and indifference to the welfare of the country got the upper hand of the government and the Estates. The nobility and the other three Estates, composed of the clergy, burghers and bondes, were in direct opposition to one another. The House of Nobles was divided within itself. The lower nobility were jealous of the higher nobility on account of their privileges, grants and freedom from taxation and the burden of the government.

The executive part of the government was constantly harassed and annoyed by an opposition party in the Council, the most prominent members of which were M. Bjorn, Sten Bjelke, K. Kolamb and Johan Gyllenstjerna.

The council chamber became a place of contention and strife where the different parties struggled for mastery. The dissensions were not confined to the internal administration alone, but extended to the political relations between Sweden and foreign powers as well. The city of Bremen had refused to recognize the protectorate of Sweden. The Chancellor M. G. De la Gardie succeeded in driving a proposition through the Council whereby war was declared upon Bremen. War was commenced but was conducted without energy, and so nothing was accomplished. Peace was finally concluded without credit to Sweden. The Chancellor endeavored to form an alliance with France. His party enemies opposed him in the Coun-
cil and finally succeeded in bringing about an alliance with the enemies of France, Holland and England, thus creating the Triple Alliance. On account of Louis XIV., France was compelled to close a peace with these powers in 1668 which is known as the Peace of Aachen. It was not long, however, before Louis succeeded in dissolving the Triple Alliance. He first formed an alliance with England and by large promises and subsidies drew the Swedish government to his side. This new treaty between France, England and Sweden was negotiated about the same time that Louis XIV. was invading Holland, and its result was a general European war which broke out in 1672.

During these foreign complications the financial crisis became more and more severe. Money was scarce and disorder prevailed in all the departments of the government. Commerce and manufactures were stagnant. The defenses of the country by land and sea were neglected. Fortifications were left without cannon and ammunition. The soldiers were starving, and many deserted. The officers in the different departments of the government did not receive their salaries, and consequently neglected their duties. The regency must, however, be credited with accomplishing some internal improvements, more especially in connection with the administration of justice. They encouraged home industries, mining, manufacturing, and spiritual and moral culture. A law regulating the currency was passed. Banks were established and the National Bank was assisted by the government. A new marine law was passed. Steps were taken to nationalize the recently acquired provinces and representatives from them were given seats in
the Riksdag. At the request of the Southern Provinces of Sweden, Charles X. Gustavus' plan of founding a university at the city of Lund, was carried into effect. A charter was granted and the university was established in 1668 and became a great power for good in the nationalizing of the recently acquired provinces—Scania, Halland and Bleking.

A new impetus was given to scientific developments in the country. Great credit must be given to Magnus De la Gardie for his munificent gifts in encouragement of literature, science and art and his assistance in establishing many of the literary institutions and schools of Sweden. Under his protection many of the Swedish literary men and scientists were able to continue their researches and histories. It is due to his foresight that many of the archaeological antiquities have been saved to posterity. The ancient monuments of the North and the old literature became subjects of study, research, protection and preservation.

The First Year of the Reign of Charles XI.—The young King had now reached his majority. His education had been much neglected, partly through the leniency of his mother, the Queen Dowager, and partly through the indifference of his guardians and instructors. He showed little interest in the affairs of the State, but took much delight in riding, hunting and military manoeuvres. From childhood he had exhibited a selfish disposition and an unbending will, but he was pious and pure in morals. Of his counsellors and guardians he had from early childhood been suspicious, and this feeling was encouraged and stimulated by his young friends among the nobil-
ity. The young King attained his seventeenth year while the Estates were assembled in Riksdag at Stockholm, and by a special enabling act he was declared of age and able to assume the reins of government in 1672. At the Riksdag it was also determined that the reduction of the landed property belonging to the crown and still in the hands of the nobility should be proceeded with as rapidly as possible. The chancellor Magnus De la Gardie had at first the greatest influence over the young King.

The foreign relations between Sweden and the other powers began to become embarrassing. The effects of an alliance with France began to show themselves. Louis XIV, surrounded by enemies, worked with all his might to entice Sweden into taking part in his wars. He succeeded in inducing the Swedish government to embark troops for Germany, and when means were wanting for their support induced them to invade Brandenburg. The Elector Frederic William was then stationed with his army on the Rhine, ready to attack the French. He hastened back to his country by forced marches and surprised the Swedish army in the neighborhood of Havel. The Swedish general, C. G. Vrangel, an old man, was sick and on leave. The generals in command were negligent, out of harmony, and jealous of each other.

The result was that the Elector completely routed the returning Swedes at Fehrbellin in 1675. Their loss was not considerable and the larger portion of the army retreated in good order to Pomerania but their reputation of being unconquerable had received a severe shock and the secret enemies of Sweden now took courage to come forward openly against her. Hol-
land declared war. The Danish Chancellor Griffenfeld succeeded for a long time in keeping Denmark at peace with Sweden. He endeavored to maintain harmony between the northern powers and to bring about a marriage alliance between the young King Charles XI. and the Danish princess, Ulrika Eleonora, but at last the enemies of Sweden induced the Danish King, Christian V., to declare war against Sweden. He had hoped to recover the provinces lately conquered without much trouble and to reunite them to Denmark. Information of the new danger arrived during the meeting of the Swedish Riksdag at Upsala, shortly after the coronation of the King. A most bitter feeling broke out against the Council which had involved Sweden in war and had done nothing for the defense of the country. The Estates of the Riksdag demanded an examination into the conditions and management of the government during the minority of the King. The King gave his consent. The guardians and the Council became terrified. It was only now that the King was made aware of the greatness of the danger to which his country was exposed, and he beheld with surprise the indifference of his counsellors. He determined to take the reins of the government into his own hands, and at once entered with great earnestness upon the conduct of affairs. In his endeavor he was ably assisted by one of his private secretaries, the brilliant and accomplished Eric Lindskold, who was now the King's great favorite. Henceforward he paid little attention to the advice of the Council and even the Chancellor lost his former influence.

Dangers were piling high around the inexperienced King. The troops of Brandenburg and Austria invad-
ed Pomerania. The Duke of Luneburg and the bishop of Munster began hostilities. The King left his Capital in the fall of the year 1675, and proceeded to the southern part of Sweden to take command of the army stationed in Scania, intending with the aid of the fleets to cross over to Denmark; but all his plans came to naught because the fleet commanded by the Admiral was compelled on account of sickness among the sailors as well as for want of sufficient armament and other preparations to return to Stockholm. In the following spring of 1676, the Swedish fleet left Stockholm commanded by Lorans Creutz and proceeded to sea. The commander was without experience as a sailor. At the outset he gained a few advantages over the Danish fleet, commanded by Nils Juel, but the latter united with a fleet from Holland and attacked the Swedish squadron near the island Oland. In the beginning of the engagement the Swedish Admiral's flagship was disabled. Fire broke out and reached the powder magazine with the result that the great vessel was blown into the air along with the Admiral and 1,000 men. The Swedish fleet was scattered; but the heroic Klas Uggla defended himself nobly against a superior force and did not surrender. He only abandoned his ship when it was in flames and then he threw himself into the ocean and disappeared. Denmark was now mistress of the seas.

Under the command of King Christian in person, the Danes invaded Scania and also Norway and Central Sweden. All these misfortunes made a deep impression on the mind of the young King; he became disheartened and almost gave way to despair. In silence and chagrin he paid no attention to the advice
of his generals but retreated before the superior Danish army, from the province of Scania to Bleking. The whole province, except the City of Malmo, fell into the possession of the Danes. The inhabitants welcomed the Danes as their deliverers, and the warlike bondes in the northern part of the province armed themselves and under the name of Snapphanar began a guerilla warfare with the Swedes, which has become notorious in the Swedish annals. A Danish army advanced from Scania into the Province of Halland for the purpose of making an attack on the city of Halmstad. This was an hour full of danger for Sweden, and the boy King fancied that he stood alone, abandoned by foreign powers, without confidence in his generals and neglected by his political councillors. Suddenly he awoke from his indifference, lethargy, and despair; marched with his army from the province of Bleking and hastened by forced marches to the assistance of Halmstad. His army numbered about 7,000 men commanded by the ablest generals—Ascheberg, Dahlberg, Fersen and Bjelke. The enemy was surprised near the city of Halmstad and after a short but decisive battle was completely routed. Those of the Danish army that were not killed were taken prisoners. This was the first gleam of light that penetrated the darkness surrounding the young King and his country. The King recovered hope and self-possession. He was ably supported by the determined, prudent and powerful Johan Gyllenstjerna, who from this time exerted great influence upon his actions.

After this battle the King waited and collected reinforcements from the central part of Sweden, whereupon he marched southward into the Province
of Scania. The Danish army had retreated and taken up their position a short distance from the City of Lund. The two armies approached each other and formed in battle array on either side of the river Lydde. During these forced marches the Swedish army had been much reduced in number for want of supplies, and by the intense cold and sickness; nevertheless Charles XI. determined to offer battle to the Danes, resolved to conquer or to die. On December 3, 1676, the Swedish army encamped near Benstorp. The cold was intense. The river was frozen, and on December 4, the Swedes crossed on it and advanced against the city of Lund. The enemy perceiving that the Swedes had left camp, marched in the same direction. Both armies endeavored by swift marches to reach the heights near the city. The right wing of the Swedish army was under the command of the King and the left wing of the Danish army was commanded by their King. Both of them reached the heights before the arrival of the other divisions of the army and the battle began early in the morning as soon as the sun rose. Charles XI. advanced with his army brigade-and made three separate attacks on the enemy, himself fighting in the hottest part of the battle, and finally drove the Danish left from the field whence it fled in disorder followed by the right wing of the Swedish army. During the same time the center and left wing of the Swedish army were attacked by the Danes and were near to being overpowered, when the King returned with his troops from the pursuit, reformed his line, and attacked the Danes on the flank. As they were on the point of being surrounded they were at last compelled to leave the field. The
King was ably supported by his generals, particularly by Nils Bjelke and the cavalry whom the King thanked in the presence of the army.

The battle near Lund was one of the bloodiest in Swedish history. Nearly half of the combatants remained on the field; 8,357 dead covered the ground, about 3,000 being Swedes. 2,000 Danes were made prisoners; their camp and artillery and baggage fell in the hands of the Swedes. But this battle was also crowned by great results. For through it the province of Scania was preserved and has since become an integral part of Sweden. The King's reputation and
1600—1697. CHARLES XI.

BATTLE OF LUND.

EXPLANATION OF THE DIAGRAM.

2. The Danish encampment, Dec. 3, 1676.
3. The march of the Swedish army Dec. 4, to Nobbelof and Helgonabacken.
4. Danish army’s march to Nobbelof and Helgonabacken.
5. Swedish right wing, Charles XI. commanding, in possession of the heights.
6. Danish left wing, Christian V. commanding.
7. Danish left wing routed and pursued by the Swedish right.
8. The place in the Lydde river where many Danes were drowned.
9. The Swedish centre and left wing, where the first battle began.
10. The Danish centre and right wing where the first battle began.
11. The Swedish centre and left wing where the second battle took place.
12. Danish centre and right wing. The third attack. (The battle between these troops took place on about the same spot as their first battle.)
13. The Swedish centre and left after being reinforced by the right wing, and the fourth battle.
14. Danish troops under Bibars and Lewenzan.
authority was established; his generalship undisputed, and all opposition and dissatisfaction was silenced. This was the pivot on which the internal as well as the external affairs of Sweden turned. Charles XI. always observed the anniversary of that battle, not by great festivities and outward show, but by quiet prayer in his room and thanksgiving to God for his signal victory.

The fortunes of the war fluctuated. Even in the campaign of the year 1677, Charles XI. was greatly disappointed in the expectations he had built on his fleet. Early in the spring a small fleet left Gothenburg and a large fleet departed from Stockholm with orders to meet in the Sound. The Gothenburg squadron was attacked by a Danish fleet in the Cattegat and nearly destroyed. The cause of these reverses to the Swedish fleet was the want of trained officers and sailors, whereas the Danish vessels were commanded by the old sea hero, Nils Juel, and manned by experienced men. On land, however, in the province of Scania, the fortunes of war were continually on the side of Sweden. Malmo was in vain attacked by the Danes. Several efforts were made to storm the fortifications but the citizens repulsed each attempt. The main armies of both belligerents met near the city of Landskrona and after a fierce battle the Danes retreated with heavy loss. The commander-in-chief of the Swedish army, Helmfeld, was mortally wounded, and Ascheberg succeeded to the command. In the northern part of Sweden the chancellor commanded an army composed of volunteers. They were suddenly attacked by the Norwegians, surprised, and fled.
During the year of 1678 the war in the Southern part of Sweden was centered mainly around Christianstad, which after a long and heroic defense at last surrendered to the Swedes. In Germany the war was continued with great vigor. General Otto Von Konigsmark, who commanded the Swedish armies in Pomerania, was besieged in Stettin and compelled after a long defense to capitulate, but marched out with honors of war. However, shortly afterwards he won a brilliant victory over the united armies of the Danes and Brandenburgers at Rugen. The enemy, however, was reinforced and soon returned in far greater numbers, invaded and took possession of the last of the Swedish provinces in Germany. Negotiations for a general peace had been opened at the Congress of Nimwegen. Peace was agreed upon between France and Sweden and the Empire of Austria and the German States in 1679. Louis XIV. took special pride in obtaining for Sweden an honorable peace. He endeavored to exercise some kind of guardianship over Charles XI. to which the latter would not submit. In behalf of Sweden, Louis made peace with Luneberg and Munster, and, advancing with his army, threatened the Elector of Brandenburg with war, thereby bringing about the peace of St. Germain, whereby Sweden surrendered to the Elector certain provinces east of the river Oder, excepting the cities of Dam and Gollnow. Charles XI. now hastened to negotiate a peace with Denmark in person. Preliminaries of peace were signed at Lund the same year.

Charles XI. married the Danish Princess, Ulrika Eleonora, a mild and noble woman, who thus became a peace-maker between her father and husband.

Sweden was at peace with all her neighbors. She had lost very few of her possessions, but she had sustained more damage in material interests. Her population was impoverished. She had contracted an enormous debt. The border provinces had suffered from the invading armies. The navy was destroyed, the army reduced. There was no revenue to support the government. Her wants were many and great and there were no means at hand to supply the urgent needs. If Sweden was to exist as an independent state, some changes in the government were absolutely necessary. Reforms must be accomplished in the
several departments and changes had even to be introduced in the social relations between the different classes of the community and the relations of the nobility towards the government. Charles XI. had already been considering plans for many and extensive reforms and in this he was assisted by his all-powerful favorite, Gyllenstjerna, who had himself drawn up a scheme to the same end. This extraordinary man had determined to make Sweden politically independent of the other nations. His desire was to prevent other powers from exerting any political influence over his country, and in order to protect her in the future he endeavored to establish a close alliance with Denmark and Norway, to create a strong army, and to establish economy in all the branches of the government. This, however, could not be done, so long as the crown was impoverished and without revenue and a large portion of the land free from taxes and much of the crown property in the hands of a privileged class, the nobility, who refused to assist the government in its dire necessities. Therefore the first requisite was to again bring under the crown the land and crown property which had been alienated by former extravagant rulers and was now in the possession of the nobility. This could not be accomplished without breaking down the old power of the Council and concentrating more power in the hands of the King. Such a concentration of power in the hands of the sovereign had already been accomplished in Denmark. The spirit of the age was in favor of making the monarch absolute and independent of the people. Already during the wars the King had made himself independent of the Council and in this respect he was aided by his favor-
ite advisers. His efforts were now directed toward strengthening this centralization of power by the aid of the non-privileged classes and the lower nobility who were devoted to the monarch, but exceedingly bitter towards the Council and higher nobility who had heretofore been in fact, though not in name, the rulers of the kingdom.

An effort was made to bring about these great reforms at the Riksdag which met at Stockholm in the fall of 1680. Johan Gyllenstjerna, the originator of these plans, died shortly before the assembling of the Riksdag, at the age of 45 years, but his plans did not die with him. They were stubbornly pressed by the King and his supporters, most prominent among whom were Fleming, and the Wachtmeisters. The King at first proposed to the Estates that they should provide means for the protection of the realm. When this proposition was made in the House of Nobles, Hans Wachtmeister demanded that the guardians of the King during his minority should render an account of their stewardship. This proposition was presented to and agreed to by the other Estates. The King hastened to give his consent and requested the Riksdag to appoint a commission to examine into the manner in which the guardians had conducted the government during the regency. This commission was given authority to cite the guardians before them to examine into their manner of conducting the government, and to pass judgment on the same.

The three Estates of the Riksdag composing the non-privileged classes now did what they had done in the year 1650, namely, they united in a written memorial to the King in which they insisted that a more
urgent requisition should be made upon the nobility for the return of the crown property. The members of the Council did not dare to resist this demand made upon them. In the House of Nobles, in spite of the greatest disorder and confusion, the proposition was carried by the supporters of the King. It was further enacted that all grants given to counts and barons should be restored to the crown. As the Riksdag was about to dissolve, the King requested an opinion from them as to whether he was bound by the old constitution and whether the Council should be considered as a separate Estate within the realm, independent of the four Estates. The Estates answered by a separate resolution, that the King was bound only by the laws of Sweden, and that the members of the Council were nothing more than servants with whom he might consult if he so desired. This was the fall of the power of the Council and the foundation of the absolutism of the King. The laws enacted at this Riksdag were enforced with the most determined energy and without mercy. The great commission appointed began to do its work immediately and cited before it the guardians of the King during his minority, compelling them to a strict accounting for all their actions during the time they had conducted the government. A heavy hand was laid on all the members of the Council. The Commission proceeded unreasonably, in some instances harshly, and was not particular as to the manner in which the judgments were enforced. The members of the Council or their heirs were adjudged to pay enormous sums which the King was estimated to have lost through their mismanagement. Although the King reduced the penalties, over 8,000,000 crowns
were paid into the royal treasury by the councillors or their heirs. Many of these who had previously been living in wealth and affluence were reduced to poverty. By royal grants, crown lands, castles with the surrounding domains and right to collect taxes and revenues of shires and provinces had been given to favorites, and to political and military officials, as presents or rewards for services rendered to the government. The general laws of the land did not provide for nor even sanction these alienations; the Riksdag had not enacted alienating statutes, nor confirmed these grants; on the contrary it was ordered that all property so granted should revert to the crown. The first reductions affected the dukedoms and baronies—the revenues of shires and provinces, castles and their domains. Next in order of the property to which reductions applied, were manors and lands which had come into possession of the nobility and were held without payment of taxes or rent. At this time the Council was further humiliated by being called instead of the Council of the realm, "The advisers of the King." No further appointments were made to the highest offices. Several of the old councillors were requested to hand in their resignations. These changes in the government occurred during the year 1682. The sole jurisdiction over the people in the dukedoms, baronies, etc., was also brought under the crown.

After the fall of the Council the absolutism began to be directed against the Estates. At the Riksdag held in Stockholm in 1682, the question of a further reduction was again raised.
The King demanded means for the payment of the government debts and proposed to the three lower or non-privileged Estates, that they should pass a resolution for the further reversion to the crown of all government property in the hands of the nobility. This aroused great opposition in the House of Nobles, who strenuously objected, and the result was that the Estates could not agree. The whole question as to the crown property was then submitted to the King. He thereupon requested the Estates to determine the limits of the royal prerogative. The answer was couched in such submissive and doubtful phraseology that the King assumed that the whole legislative power had been placed in his hands. Accordingly it may be considered that the absolute authority of the King was now established. The powers and privileges of the Estates were at an end. They were, indeed, called to meet occasionally, not as free and independent Estates, but as the Estates of his Royal Majesty and only that they might in humble subserviency approve the royal propositions, and consent to the imposition upon them of further taxes. They could hardly find words suitable to express the exalted position and power of the King. They called him the absolute, all-commanding, sovereign King, who had power to rule his kingdom according to his own will. The old Swedish spirit of freedom was suppressed. The divine right of the King to absolute power was everywhere preached to the people by priests, teachers, and officials, so that submission and blind obedience prevailed, and a number of spies were employed to report anyone who taught or expressed himself differently. But the absolutism of the King, it must
be admitted, also brought changes for good to the Swedish people. It was a severe school through which they had to pass that obedience to law might prevail, and economy be established. By the fall of the upper class of the nobility, the great distance between the upper and lower classes was lessened and the equality before the law enforced. The Swedish people must acknowledge that the absolutism of the King was the means of introducing great improvements in the economy of the government, of strengthening the defenses of the country, and of encouraging the development of its resources. The energetic King was the soul of this great work and personally took an active part in everything, great and small. He had not the penetrating intellect which characterizes a great statesman, but he had a clear understanding and an unbending will, and he was tireless in his industry. Sometimes he was rather harsh and treated his subordinates with incivility and at times his economy was carried to great extremes.

His manner of living was exceedingly simple. He avoided all show and ostentation and preferred to spend the most of his time at castle Kungsor where he was surrounded by a few of his most intimate favorites, such as Claus Fleming, Eric Lindskold, Rutger von Ascheberg and others. Frequently he took hasty journeys through the country, without any previous notice to the officials whom he expected to visit, and often took them by surprise for the purpose of discovering how they were conducting themselves.

So far as national economy is concerned the finances were placed in a flourishing condition during the reign of Charles XI. through the return to the crown
of the alienated crown property and its payment of taxes. This reduction of crown property was in the beginning a necessary and just procedure; but after the power had been placed in the hands of the King, he often made unreasonable and unjust use of it. The smaller royal grants to members of the nobility which had been passed by in the reduction of 1680 were now subjected to the same treatment. Similar proceedings were extended even to mortgaged goods which had been pledged for loans made to the crown, and even certain of the crown property, which had been actually sold for its full value, was now seized by the royal power without repayment of the money advanced or the consideration paid for the same. The fact that no limit was placed upon this power of bringing property again under the crown, made this proceeding the more hated, as no person felt secure in possession or could know whether his property would be confiscated or not, and on account of this great uncertainty there was no security in the title of property. Added to this was the unreasonableness by which the Commission always took the part of the crown, so that there was really no fair trial of the rights of property owners. Upon the whole, this reduction brought great suffering and poverty to many individuals, although it may have been of general benefit to the country. The distribution of property became more equitable. Prior to the time of Charles XI. whole villages, counties, and even provinces had been seized by or granted to certain individuals of the higher nobility, making them almost absolute sovereigns within their districts. Large tracts of territory were held by these individuals, while a great portion of the common
people owned no property at all. The nobility during their possession of these tracts had been entirely independent of the royal power. They collected taxes for themselves within their provinces and had power of life and death over their subjects and administered justice without appeal. The bondes and farmers were dependent on these aristocrats and were refused in many instances an appeal to the royal power, or the right of access to the ordinary courts of law. It was through this reduction and the return of the crown property that Charles XI. was able to bring about the necessary reforms and come to the assistance of the middle classes; and it also enabled him to pay the debts of the kingdom and create a large revenue which he used for general improvements and for the defenses of the country. The yearly rent from the property which thus came into the possession of the government amounted to twelve million crowns. This reduction affected the Swedish nobility in many ways. It destroyed the foundation upon which the power of the oligarchy, or higher nobility as they were called, rested. It annulled their claim to exclusive dominion over several of the Swedish provinces as well as the claim to exclusive possession of the crown lands. It broke down the barriers which separated them from the other people. It put an end to the oligarchy which had dominated and ruled Sweden.

The increased revenues were used in the first instance for the strengthening of the army and navy. Charles XI. improved upon and completed the law enacted by Charles IX. and Gustavus Adolphus whereby the country was divided into two districts for the support of the army. The greatest burden was the
army, and in order to support the same, certain crown lands were assigned to the officers, and other parts were assigned for the support of a certain number of soldiers and mounted men. The soldiers received each certain portions of land and were aided with grants of money for building a home; by this means the army became directly interested in the improvements of the land and during times of peace occupied their own homes. This peculiar and extraordinary arrangement for the support of the Swedish army has been called “the military tenure.” In this way the kingdom supported a standing army of about 38,000 men to which were added the volunteers, about 25,000 men, who were usually stationed in the outlying provinces. In order to keep up communication between the mother country and her trans-Baltic provinces it was necessary to equip a powerful fleet. Sweden was therefore in need of another base for the fleet than Stockholm, whose harbor was too far away and closed by ice for a great part of the year. Johan Gyllenstjerna had selected a more suitable place for the fleet in the province of Bleking and his plan was pushed with energy and skill by Hans Wachtmeister. The new naval station received the name of Carlskrona. Wharfs, docks and harbors were built and grew rapidly under the energetic and skillful superintendence of Wachtmeister, and the Swedish fleet which was destroyed during the war was soon replaced. At the death of Charles XI, the fleet consisted of thirty-eight ships of the line and many other smaller battle ships, manned by sailors to the number of 11,000, all skillful seamen and organized on the same principle as the army.
The reforms instituted in the internal administration during the reign of Charls XI. were made for the purpose of bestowing greater independence on the King and thus enabling his orders and resolutions to be carried into effect with energy and dispatch. The Royal Council was really no longer a council of the King. Sometimes he consulted with the whole body, and sometimes with only certain of its members. He listened to their propositions and advice, but did not always follow the same. The different departments of the government lost their independence. Some of them were divided into smaller departments. Charles XI. infused a new spirit into the administration. Order, promptness and perseverance succeeded the former carelessness and indifference. The King demanded much of his officers as well as from himself. He also saw to it that they received their salaries regularly, which they had seldom done in former times. A definite arrangement was made for the support of the officials of the realm, who received their compensation either in money or by tenure of certain land, or in the form of a certain number of bushels of grain.

The administration of justice received particular attention at the hands of the King, who made reforms in the judicial procedure. He was exceedingly anxious and insisted upon it, that justice should be administered with swiftness and impartiality. He watched with special care over the causes of the weak and poor. There was great necessity for the revision of the old statute laws. A commission to revise the laws had been appointed about forty years previously and nevertheless the statutes had not yet been revised in such a way as to make them acceptable. The King
appointed a new law commission under the presidency of Erik Lindskold which prepared and revised several chapters of the intended new code. A great many special statutes were promulgated. A military code was adopted as well as new tactics for the army. The King's special concern was, that the newly acquired provinces should become an integral part of Sweden. These provinces began from this time onward to be thoroughly Swedish in language, laws and customs. The Swedish language soon became the church and school language in the diocese of Lund. The war had destroyed the University of Lund, but at the request of the inhabitants it was re-established.

At the request of the inhabitants of the newly acquired territories, the Swedish civil code of justice was adapted to and became the law of these provinces. In this way the inhabitants of the younger provinces of Sweden have, by their own assistance, been merged into the population of Sweden without any outside influence being brought to bear upon them, and thus they became one state and one people. Within a short time they were thoroughly Swedish. The provinces on the other side of the Baltic became more closely related to Sweden through the efforts of the King. He labored to ameliorate the condition of the peasants and to improve upon the administration of justice. But the severity with which the reduction of crown property was pushed in Livonia exasperated the nobility against the Swedish government. The Livonian nobility complained several times to the King and when no attention was paid to their complaints, they made threats of rebellion. Several of their leaders were arrested and condemned to death.
and were imprisoned for some time, but at last pardoned. The ringleader J. R. Patkul succeeded in escaping and became the most bitter enemy of Sweden, trying in every way to stir up strife and to arouse the Livonian nobility to rebellion.

The currency was improved and made redeemable in specie. Prosperity prevailed. Good order became general and the people led a happy and contented existence. The mining districts were prosperous. Manufactures flourished. Internal improvements were made, good roads were built, communication between distant parts of the country was facilitated. The merchant navy increased and the Swedish colors were seen flying in every port. All industries were placed under the guardianship of the state. This was not always to the general welfare, and, during the last years of the reign of Charles XI. commerce began to exhibit apprehension of a disturbance from the royal prerogatives. Commerce became further embarrassed on account of the European wars. During the last year of this Prince's rule the failure of the crops caused a great deal of suffering. This was the longest and most severe period of want recorded in the history of Sweden. Scarcity at first and later famine prevailed in the years 1696 and 1697, during which large numbers of people and animals died from hunger in the northern part of Sweden, in Finland, and in the provinces beyond the Baltic.

The established church was reformed in many particulars during this reign. A commission had been appointed, and for some time had been working on a new ecclesiastical law, but had not completed it. Charles XI. ordered the commission to pro-
ceed and complete the same, and it was finally adopted and promulgated in 1686. According to this law the Sovereign was the head of the church and became as nearly absolute within the church as he was within the state. The clergy became subordinate to the civil power. The King ordered the preparation of a new catechism, a new liturgy, and a new hymn book. He was heartily supported by several prominent ecclesiastics, such as the Archbishop Olof Svebilius, and the hymn composers, H. Spigel and J. Svedberg. Although it cannot be said that the King possessed high intellectual development or much education, he knew nevertheless how to appreciate men of intellectual abilities. The universities, colleges, academies, and common schools he supported by donations, taxes and other endowments and placed suitable men in charge. He appointed to the university of Upsala many eminent scientific men, among whom may be mentioned Olof Rudbeck, a man of exceptional attainments and a great author, the world renowned physician and natural scientist Urban Hjarne, and the engineer and artist, Erik Dahlberg. Charles XI. was particularly anxious that the common people should receive a good education. He urged the clergy to look to the spiritual welfare of their communities and insisted that they should aid in the establishment of new schools where they were needed, that everybody might have an opportunity of learning to read and write and of acquiring a knowledge of Christianity. There was great need of this at the time, as is evident from the fact that, in many of the distant parts of the country away from the centre of civilization, grave superstitions prevailed. It was during this time that a num-
ber of old women were arrested and tried for witchcraft and many persons in their ignorance confessed that they were in communication with the spirits of the infernal regions and were on their own confession condemned to death, although they were afterwards pardoned by the King.

In order to carry out the many reforms and internal improvements it was necessary that the relations of Charles XI. with foreign powers should continue peaceful.

His foreign politics were consequently decidedly pacific after the year 1679. Not a skillful diplomat himself he followed the guidance of his prime minister, Bengt Oxenstjerna. They were both of the opinion that peace was of the greatest advantage to Sweden, and they adhered strictly to pacific measures with foreign powers. This statesman carried out the policy of his eminent predecessor Johan Gyllenstjerna which became a decidedly Northern policy. He terminated the treaty of alliance with France, the old friend of Sweden, on account of the overbearing spirit of Louis XIV. The French King was at this time extending the dominion of France, and in 1686 the other European powers entered into an alliance to check his aggressive policy. Charles XI. took no further part in this European war than to send 6,000 men to aid the allied powers. Besides this army, Sweden sent troops to William of Orange to assist him when he undertook his historic invasion of England in the year 1688.

Sweden was on the point of being involved in war with Denmark on account of the Duke of Holstein. The differences between the King of Denmark and the Duke were, however, amicably arranged and the clouds of war dispersed.
Sweden and Denmark concluded a treaty whereby they agreed to protect the commerce of the Baltic against the ravages of the belligerent European powers. Sweden was honored by the powers at war with the request that she should act as arbitrator and adjust their differences at the Congress of Rijswijk; this congress did not, however, convene until after the death of Charles XI.

The last years of the reign of Charles XI. were saddened by many misfortunes. The failure of crops and the famine which followed drew upon the entire resources of the government before the sufferings of the people were mitigated.

The Queen’s sudden death made a profound impression upon the King, who had treated her with coldness and indifference. Now first were his eyes opened to the many excellent qualities, great accomplishments, and amiable character of his consort.

Charles had for a long time been suffering from an incurable internal disease which brought him to an early grave. After intense sufferings he died on the 5th day of April, 1697, when forty-two years of age. It was while Charles XI. was lying in state in the palace of Stockholm that the great conflagration broke out which laid nearly the whole of the structure in ashes.

There were born to Charles XI., in marriage with Ulrika Eleonora, several children, three of whom survived him;—namely Charles, who became his successor, and two daughters, Hedvig Sophia, who married Frederick IV. of Holstein-Gottorp, and Ulrika Eleonora, who after the death of Charles XII., became the Queen of Sweden.
CHARLES XII.
CHAPTER XXVII.

CHARLES XII.

1697—1718.

Charles XII.—His Birth—His Character—His Youth—Sweden in a Happy Condition at Home and Abroad—Size of the Swedish Empire—Charles Chafes under a Woman's Rule—Coronation and Incidents—Piper All Powerful—Frederic IV. of Denmark—Augustus of Saxony—Peter of Russia—Their Combination against Sweden—Wars—Charles' Attitude—His Preparations for War—Combination of the Powers—Charles Invades Denmark—His Energy—Denmark Conquered—Treaty of Peace—Departs from Denmark—Charles XII. Crosses the Baltic—Advance of the Swedes on Narva—The Army of Peter of Russia—Army of Sweden—Battle of Narva—Victory of Charles—His Fame Spreads over Europe—Sweden Safe.

Of the marriage between Charles XI. and Ulrika Eleonora, daughter of Frederik III., King of Denmark, was born on June 27th, 1662, Charles XII., the most extraordinary man, perhaps, that ever ruled mankind in this world. In him were united all the great qualities of his ancestors; nor had he any other fault or failing, but that he possessed all these virtues in too high a degree.

At seven years of age he could manage a horse; and the violent exercises in which he delighted, and which discovered his martial disposition, soon secured him a vigorous constitution, capable of supporting the incredible fatigues which his natural inclination always prompted him to undergo. Though gentle in infancy, he betrayed an inflexible obstinacy. He
was but eleven years of age when he lost his mother, who expired on the fifth of August, 1693.

Charles XI. died four years after his Queen, in the forty-second year of his age, at a time when the Empire of Spain and Holland on the one side, and France on the other, had referred the decision of their quarrels to his arbitration, and when he had already concerted the terms of accommodation between these different powers.

Charles XI. left to his son, who was then fifteen years of age, a throne well established and respected abroad; subjects poor, but valiant and loyal; together with a treasury in good order, and managed by able ministers. He had appointed his mother, Dowager of Charles X. Gustavus, guardian and regent of the kingdom in conjunction with a council of five nobles.

Charles XII., at his accession to the throne, found himself the absolute and undisturbed master, not only of Sweden and Finland, but also of Livonia, Carelia, Ingria, Wismar, Viborg, the Islands of Rugen and Casel, and the finest part of Pomerania, together with the duchy of Bremen and Verden,—all of them the conquests of his ancestors, secured to the crown by long possession and by the solemn treaties of Munster and Oliva, and supported by the terror of the Swedish arms. When the peace of Rijswijk, which was begun under the auspices of the father, was fully concluded under those of the son, he found himself the mediator of Europe from the first moment of his reign.

One day in the month of November, and in the same year in which his father died, when he had been
holding a review of several regiments, and Charles Piper, one of the councillors, was standing by him, Charles seemed to be absorbed in a profound reverie. "May I take the liberty," said Piper to him, "of asking your Majesty what you are thinking about so seriously?" "I am thinking," said the Prince, "that I am capable of commanding those brave fellows; and I don't choose that either they or I shall receive orders from a woman," referring to his grandmother, the regent.

The King was crowned on the 24th of December following. He made his entry into Stockholm on a sorrel horse shod with silver, having a sceptre in his hand and a crown upon his head, amid the acclamations of a whole people, passionately fond of every novelty, and always conceiving great hopes from the reign of a young prince.

The ceremony of the consecration and coronation belong to the Archbishop of Upsala. This is almost the only privilege that remains to him of the great number that were claimed by his predecessors. After having anointed the Prince, according to custom, he held the crown in his hand, in order to put it upon his head; but Charles took it from him and crowned himself, regarding the poor prelate all the while with a stern look. The people, who are always dazzled by everything that has an air of grandeur and magnificence, applauded this action of the King. Even those who had groaned most severely under the tyranny of the father were foolish enough to commend the son for this instance of arrogance, which was a sure pledge of their future slavery. The first years of his reign were taken up by military manoeuvres, hunting and other athletic and even violent sports.
As soon as Charles was master of the kingdom he made Charles Piper his chief confidant, entrusting him at the same time with the management of public affairs, and giving him all the power of a prime minister, without the odium of the name.

In 1699 three powerful Princes, taking advantage of his youth, conspired to effect his ruin, almost at the same time. The first two were his cousins, Frederik IV., King of Denmark, and Augustus, Elector of Saxony and King of Poland; Peter the Great was the third and most dangerous.

Peter, Czar of Russia, was a man of much energy and astuteness and of a semi-barbarian nature which would stoop to any device to accomplish a desired end. Secretly these three rulers formed an alliance to make a sudden attack on Sweden without declaration of war, and while they were still professing the most sincere friendship for Charles XII. His oldest sister, Hedvig Sophia, was married to Frederick, Duke of Holstein, whom the King of Denmark oppressed and whose dominions he invaded. Charles XII. took his brother-in-law's part and this was sufficient pretext for Denmark to form an alliance with Poland and Russia and to begin the attack on Sweden.

Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony, had been elected King of Poland by questionable means, and, confederating with some of the trans-Baltic nobility, he invaded Swedish Livonia.

Russia was at this time shut off from the Baltic by Swedish territory, and the Czar Peter, wishing to introduce western civilization into his dominions, thought that he saw an opportunity of securing a foothold on the Baltic by attacking Sweden and conquer-
ing Finland. Russia was then a vast country inhabited by a few arrogant nobles and great hordes of peasant serfs.

The Great Northern Wars.—The sudden commencement of war by these great powers struck the Swedes with consternation. In a council of state in the presence of the King, someone proposed to avert the storm by negotiations. Charles XII., a mere boy, who up to this time had shown little of the metal that was in him, arose grave and serene and said, "Gentlemen, I am resolved never to begin an unjust war, nor ever to finish a just one but by the destruction of my enemies. My resolution is fixed. I will attack the first that shall declare war against me, and, having conquered him, I hope I shall be able to strike terror into the rest." The old councillors were surprised at the young King's determination and still more so when they saw him at once bid farewell to the innocent amusements of youth. The boy was transformed into a man. He applied himself with energy to the preparations for the war which was now upon his country. Inspired by the careers of Alexander and Caesar, he proposed to imitate those two conquerors in everything but their vices.

He began by assuring the Duke of Holstein, his brother-in-law, of his speedy assistance. Eight thousand men were immediately sent into Pomerania to enable the duke to make head against the Danes. This was the spark that set the Empire in a blaze. Central Germany sent bodies of troops to join the Danes. England and Holland with their fleets joined the King of Sweden in order to maintain the balance of power between the princes of the North.
Charles set out for his first campaign on the eighth day of May, 1700 from Stockholm, whither he never returned alive. He had previously established a council of defense there, composed of several councillors, to look after the welfare of the country. Charles the King devoted himself entirely to war. His fleet con-

sisted of forty-three vessels. With Count Piper, General Rehnskold, and the French Ambassador, Charles embarked with his army for Denmark, intending to lay siege to Copenhagen. Five thousand men prepar-
ed to land on the Danish shore under the protection of the guns of the navy. The King quitted his large ship, and boarded a pinnace. He ordered three thousand grenadiers to be landed in smaller boats. Impatient to land he plunged into the sea, sword in hand, the water reaching above his waist. His ministers, the French Ambassador, the officers and soldiers, immediately followed his example, and marched up to the shore amid a shower of musket shot from the enemy. The King, who had never in his life before been met by a discharge of muskets loaded with ball, asked Major Stuart, who stood next to him, what the whistling was which he heard. "It is the noise of the musket balls which they are firing at your Majesty," replied the Major. "Very well," said the King, "henceforward that shall be my music." At that instant the Major received a shot in his shoulder, and a lieutenant on the other side of him fell dead at his feet.

The Danish horse and foot took to their heels after a feeble resistance. The King, having become master of their intrenchments, fell upon his knees to return thanks to God for the first success of his arms. He forthwith caused redoubts to be thrown up towards the town, and himself marked out the place for the encampment. Meanwhile he sent his vessels back to Sweden just across from Copenhagen, for a reinforcement of nine thousand men. The nine thousand men were upon the shore ready to embark, and next day a favorable wind brought them safe to the place of their destination.

These movements passed within sight of the Danish fleet, which did not venture to advance. Copenhagen, struck with terror, immediately sent deputies
to the Swedish King, beseeching him not to bombard the city. He received them on horseback, at the head of his regiment of guards, and the deputies fell upon their knees before him. He exacted from the citizens four hundred thousand rix dollars, commanding them at the same time to supply his camp with all kinds of provisions, for which he assured them they should be honestly paid. They brought the provisions, because they durst not disobey; but they little expected that the conqueror would condescend to pay for them; which he did, honestly and generously.

Charles sent word to the King of Denmark that his only intention in making war was to oblige him to agree to a peace; and that he must either resolve to do justice to the Duke of Holstein, or see Copenhagen levelled with the ground, and his dominions laid waste with fire and sword.

The Dane, heretofore overconfident, was only too happy at having to do with a conqueror who valued himself on his regard for justice. A congress was held in the town of Travendahl, which lies on the frontiers of Holstein. The King of Sweden would not allow the negotiations to be protracted by the arts of ministers, but determined to have the treaty finished with the same rapidity with which he had made his descent upon Zealand. In effect, a peace was concluded on the fifth of August to the advantage of the Duke of Holstein, who was indemnified for all the expenses of war, and delivered from oppression. The King of Sweden, fully satisfied with having succored his ally and humbled his enemy, would accept nothing for himself. Thus Charles XII, at eighteen years of
age, began and finished this war in less than six weeks.

As soon as this treaty of peace was settled between Charles XII. the Danish King, and the Prince of Holstein-Gottorp, the Swedish King crossed the Baltic to the relief of Riga which was being invaded by a combined army of Poles, Russians and Saxons, and having driven off the assailants and relieved the garrison, which under the command of the great Swedish general, Dahlberg, had made a gallant and nearly desperate defence, he advanced towards Narva in Ingermanland. This place, which belonged to Sweden, was being besieged by 60,000 (some historians say 80,000) Russians under the supreme command of the Czar, the Duc de Croy being second in command. Narva was almost without fortifications; Baron Horn who commanded it had not one thousand regular troops, and yet this immense Russian army could not manage to reduce it in six weeks. In the middle of November 1700, the Czar learned that the King of Sweden had crossed the sea with two hundred transports and was advancing to the relief of Narva. The Swedes were not above thirty-two thousand strong. The Czar not content with eighty thousand, resolved to oppose Charles by another army of thirty thousand men which was hurried forward to meet the Swedes. He resolved to shut up Charles between his two armies. And so the second army was sent forward to intercept the Swedish King.

The King of Sweden had landed at Pernau, in the Gulf of Riga, with about sixteen thousand foot, and little more than fourteen thousand horse. From Pernau he made a flying march to Reval, followed by all
his cavalry, and by only four thousand foot. He always marched in the van of his army, without waiting for the rear. He soon found himself with only eight thousand men before the outposts of the enemy, and immediately resolved, without the least hesitation, to attack them, one after another before they could possibly learn by what small numbers they were being assailed. The Muscovites, seeing the Swedes rushing upon them, imagined they had to encounter the whole army. The Russian advance guard of five thousand men, posted among rocks in a position where one hundred resolute men might have stopped the march of a large army, fled at their approach. The twenty thousand men that lay behind them, perceiving the flight of their fellow soldiers, caught the alarm, and carried their terror and confusion with them into the camp. All the posts were carried by Charles XII. in two days; and what upon other occasions would have been reckoned three distinct victories, did not retard the King's march for the space of an hour. He arrived at last before Narva with his eight thousand men, exhausted by the fatigues of so long a march, in front of a camp of eighty thousand Muscovites, defended by a hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, and scarcely allowing his troops any time for rest, instantly gave his orders for the attack.

The signal was two musket shots, and the watchword in German, "With the aid of God." A general officer having represented to the King the greatness of the danger, "What," said he, "do you not think that with my eight thousand brave Swedes I may easily beat eighty thousand Russians?" The officer did not dare to differ with him and thus they marched against
the Muscovites about midday, on the 20th of November, 1700.

As soon as their cannon had made a breach in the Russian entrenchments, the Swedes advanced with fixed bayonets, having a furious shower of snow at their backs which drove full in the face of the enemy. After an engagement of three hours duration, the en-

EXPLANATION OF DIAGRAM.

1. Narva; 2, Ivanogorod; 3, Russian trenches and batteries; 4, Russian counter-vallation—line against Narva; 5, Russian circumvallation—line for protection against attack; between these two lines of fortifications was the Russian army’s encampment; 6, Wepsekyle and bridge; 7, Joala; 8, The Russian cavalry’s flight when the battle began; 9, Swedish right wing, commanded by Vellingkand Posse; 10, Swedish left wing commanded by Rehnskold and Maidel; 11, A division under Charles, Horn and Stenbock; 12, Swedish artillery; 13, Flight of the Russians,
trenchments were stormed on all sides. The King pursued the right of the enemy as far as the river Narva with his left wing, if we may be allowed to call by that name the scant four thousand men who were in pursuit of nearly forty thousand. The bridge broke under the fugitives, and the river was immediately filled with dead, eighteen thousand Russians being drowned there. The Russian left, confronted by the Swedish generals, fled in confusion, while so many were taken prisoners that the Swedes, after disarming them, were forced to let them disperse in whichever direction they pleased. This victory, which was unique of its kind in history, spread the fame of the young King all over Europe; but it may be said to have been attended by evil rather than good to himself; for while his vanity and self-will increased with the adulation everywhere paid to his military skill, he was led on to pursue a course of wild and aimless invasion of neighboring lands which led to his own later misfortunes and nearly ruined his kingdom.

All the artillery, munitions of war, and the silver, baggage and provisions of the Russians fell into the hands of the Swedes, who were by this time tired out by their forced marches with only the scantiest rations. On the third day Charles XII. surrounded by his generals, Rehnskold, Vellingk, Horn, and Stenbock, entered Narva at the head of his victorious army and a Te Deum was chanted and solemn thanksgiving was held at the Cathedral. This victory caused a great sensation all over Europe as Charles had been given up for lost. The Swedish possessions were saved, and the other European states sought an alliance with the celebrated boy King.
CHAPTER XXVIII.

CHARLES XII. (Continued.)

1697—1718.


The Polish War, 1701-1703.—Charles XII. having thus been victorious over Denmark and Russia, went into winter quarters, but made every preparation for an active campaign in the spring of 1701 against his third enemy, Augustus, King of Poland. Having obtained reinforcements from Sweden, Charles at the head of fifteen thousand men marched southward in
the month of June to seek his foe. The enemy, consisting of ten thousand Saxons and nineteen thousand Russians, was concentrated on the opposite bank of the river Dyna, facing the city of Riga. The great Swedish general, Dahlberg, defended the city in the face of fearful odds. He had also drawn up the plans and made the preparations for his young master to cross the river Dyna and to attack the combined forces of the Saxons and Russians. The crossing of the river by the Swedes in the face of such overwhelming numbers, was deemed impossible, but the young King and the old general who had led his grandfather Charles X. over the ice of the Belts brought the army over in large flat boats and pontoons, protected by wet hay which was set on fire and enveloped the enemy in smoke while the Swedes were landing.

Johan Reinhold Patkul, a Livonian, and a traitor to the Swedish crown, under which he was born, was one of the commanders of the Saxon army, and he urged the Saxons and Russians to attack the Swedes as they were crossing the river, but he was feebly supported. Charles XII. was one of the first to land and with his few grenadiers defended himself until the balance of his army could join him. They now stormed the enemy's defenses and after three separate attacks routed the Saxons and Russians. The Swedes lost five hundred killed and wounded; the Saxons lost over two thousand, and fourteen hundred Russians were killed or made prisoners. This victory was more fruitful to Charles XII. than that of Narva, as the Swedes at once overran the country and thereafter held it as a Swedish province.
Charles XII. then gave his army a short rest which he employed in planning his Polish campaign against Augustus. This was the turning point in the life of the Swedish King. He had in less than one year been victorious over the three combined enemies, Frédérik of Denmark, Peter of Russia, and Augustus of Saxony and Poland. He was now in a position to conclude an advantageous peace with all his enemies and to strengthen his dominions. He was urged to do so by all his friends, advisers, and generals. The friendly powers also begged him to conclude peace, as they desired his alliance and assistance in the war which had begun in Southern Europe concerning the Spanish succession. Augustus had commenced the war with Saxon troops, and the Poles accordingly claimed that they were not to blame for the war against Sweden and that therefore their country ought not to be liable to invasion by the conqueror. His friends made the same representations to Charles, but nothing could persuade him. The attack made by Augustus was unprovoked and so unjust that Charles was determined to drive him from the throne of Poland.

While Charles was resting his army in Saxony, making preparations for future campaigns against Poland, this unfortunate country was rent by party strife among the wealthy aristocracy and the prelates, who would not agree upon concerted action for the protection of the country.

In the beginning of 1702 Charles marched into Poland with his main army, and being inside her borders, he could now dictate his own terms, and
these were hard indeed. Augustus sent several embassies asking for peace, offering to submit to any conditions and accept any terms of peace that Charles XII. might name. No answer was given them. He sent another ambassador with a large amount of money and presents for the generals of Charles to secure their help in influencing their master. The money was confiscated and the ambassador thrown into prison. Augustus now sent his Mistress, the Countess of Konigsmark, to captivate Charles XII. by her blandishments. She was celebrated as the most beautiful and accomplished woman in Europe, but she was refused an audience and returned covered with confusion.

Nothing but the dethronement of King Augustus would satisfy Charles XII, and such was the answer he made to the ambassadors of the Polish government. For a foreign potentate to impose such terms upon a free people, was a proposition to which the Polish nation would not give its consent. Charles XII. now put his Swedes, hardened in many battles, in motion. On May 14, 1702, he encamped near Prague. Without opposition he then marched on Warsaw, the capital of Poland, which opened its gates to the victorious monarch. Augustus was at this time in Southern Poland at the head of an army of Poles and Saxons, twenty-five thousand strong, more than double that of the Swedish army. Charles advanced to seek his foe and the two armies met at Klissow. Augustus had selected the ground. He marshalled his ranks in front of the camp which was located in the woods on the high ground, in a line which extended a mile and a half and was twice the length of the Swedish
line. Charles saw at a glance that a frontal attack was unsafe, ordered a sharp turn to the left and attacked the Saxon right wing in the flank, thereby depriving Augustus of the advantage of his position. With his Swedes he now charged the enemy with such impetuosity that they were thrown in disorder upon the center and left wing. The Saxon artillery was seized by the Swedes, who turned its fire on the broken ranks of the fleeing army. Augustus rallied his troops and renewed the attack but in vain. The Swedes held the ground, and the cavalry coming up pursued the fleeing army until they drove them from the field. The enemy had lost two thousand killed and wounded and seventeen hundred prisoners. The loss of the Swedes was two thousand. Charles XII. made the plan for the battle and the honor of carrying it out belongs to him. His ability as a general was undisputed. In the midst of his victory, sorrow filled his heart, for his brother-in-law, the Duke of Holstein, was mortally wounded. The Swedes had never shown themselves to better advantage. They advanced like a solid wall and the forces opposing them which did not flee or yield were annihilated.

The victorious Swedes now marched upon Cracow, driving Augustus before them. On July 31, 1702, Charles XII. and Magnus Stenbock with a few hundred men rode up to the gate and demanded that the city surrender, which was done and a Swedish garrison placed there.

Charles XII. remained in the south of Poland for some time resting his army. With imperturbable spirit he stood and looked placidly on the confusion and
desolation around him. Party spirit was raging among the Poles, and a torrent of mad elements was rushing over the land. The country to all appearances was in a state of dissolution. In 1703, Charles XII. marched toward the spot where the Saxons had gathered and at the battle of Pultusk gained a signal victory over them, and after a long siege took the powerful fortress of Thorn. Still he wasted much precious time here while the Czar was devastating Finland.

A confederation had been formed in Poland under the leadership of Cardinal Radziejowski. Charles appeared as its protector and persuaded it to take steps to depose Augustus from the throne and to elect Stanislaus Leczinski King, which was done in 1704. Stanislaus was of noble birth and was a good man, but had neither the ability nor the influence to fill the responsible position to which he was elevated, and to support himself against his antagonists. He had been raised to the throne by the power of Charles XII., and the same power had to support him there. There was yet a great part of the Polish people which was true to Augustus and persisted in its allegiance to him.

Charles XII. remained for two years in Poland, inactive. In 1705 he concluded peace with her without retaining for himself or for Sweden any special advantages. The Polish crown, which he could have placed on his own head, making Poland a Swedish province, he gave away to Stanislaus, who could not retain the present bestowed upon him except by the aid of the sword of his benefactor.
Augustus declined to recognize the peace concluded between Charles XII. and the Polish Diet and refused further to renounce his right to the Polish crown. Charles determined therefore to invade Saxony, of which Augustus was Elector, and compel him to conclude a peace.

Accordingly at the head of his well-disciplined army he suddenly marched into Saxony. The country was dismayed and the diplomats of Europe trembled when this invincible Swedish hero took his course westward. Augustus, who had been the cause of the war, was without allies or friends and saw ruin staring him in the face. He hastened to petition Charles XII. to grant peace on any terms.

A treaty of peace was concluded by which Augustus abdicated the crown of Poland, acknowledged Stanislaus King of Poland, cancelled his treaty of alliance with the Czar and surrendered unconditionally. All deserters were executed; in particular, Johan Reinhold Patkul, who had proven a traitor to Sweden, was broken on the wheel.

Much sympathy has been expressed for this unfortunate person, and Charles has been criticized for the punishment inflicted upon him, especially since it is claimed that he was the Ambassador of the Czar, and ought therefore to have had protection extended to him. Whatever may be said for or against Charles XII. concerning the severity of his condemnation of the man, the following facts are undisputed; Patkul was a Swedish subject though of Livonian ancestry. Livonia was a Swedish province. He had stirred up the Livonian nobility against the Swedish govern-
ment, had been arrested, tried at Stockholm, and condemned; he managed to escape from prison and fled to Saxony. He commenced systematic plottings at several courts of Europe against the Swedish government and was the main cause of Augustus' declaring war against Charles. Patkul plotted with the Czar and urged him to invade the Swedish provinces, after which he became the Czar's Ambassador and represented him at the courts of the various European governments who were at war with Sweden, constantly throwing fuel on the burning flame.

Upon what principle a man, who has once been legally condemned, and after managing to escape is recaptured after engaging in plot after plot to destroy the government or the judge who passed sentence on him, should be exempt from punishment, even if he had entered the service of his country's enemies, it is difficult to comprehend.

Historians who have criticized Charles XII. and wasted sympathy on Patkul must have overlooked the legal principles involved, or it must be conceded that their prejudice against Charles had made them unfair critics. The intelligence of the world would revolt if a criminal, fleeing to a friendly power, should by the same be sent as its accredited representative to the government against which he had offended, and he should then be permitted protection under the laws of nations. How much more absurd would his claim to protection appear were he caught levying war against his own government.

From Saxony to Pultava.—Charles XII. had spent six years in Poland and during this period Peter, Czar
of Russia, had been actively pressing toward the shores of the Baltic. The Swedish troops stationed in Finland, Carelia, and Narva were not sufficient to defend them against the overwhelming number of Russians pouring over these unhappy countries. The Russian system of warfare was barbaric in the extreme. They burned and destroyed all property which they could not seize and carry away and murdered all the inhabitants, leaving a wilderness behind them.

Count Adam Ludwig Levenhaupt, who was in command of the Swedish troops in Carelia, retarded the Russian advance for some time by a succession of victories over the invaders. On July 16, 1705, the Czar was in Carelia with an army of twenty thousand men, Sjeremetuf commanding. Levenhaupt met him with seven thousand Swedes and the battle of Gumurthof was fought in which the Swedish general was victorious. The victory was dearly bought, as Sweden lost fifteen hundred of her best soldiers. The Russians left more than six thousand on the field when they retired in confusion. The reputation of Levenhaupt was that of one of the first generals of the age. Had he been properly supported by Charles XII and his government, the foundation of St. Petersburg would not have been laid at that time.

During 1707 and 1708 the reputation of Charles XII as a general was at its height. He had an army of forty thousand invincible Swedes. He had won every battle in which he had been engaged. He had crushed his opponents—his word was law. Augustus of Saxony and the Emperor of Austria had yielded to his extravagant demands. All the European pow-
ers sought his alliance. Would that his political insight and diplomatic astuteness had been on a level with his daring in battle. He could then have concluded a most advantageous peace with all his enemies and he would have accomplished more for his country than the passing glory he now enjoyed. But the King would listen to no one’s advice. He saw only one enemy, the Czar of Russia, and the offer of peace coming from him could not be accepted unless St. Petersburg was abandoned.

Voltaire observes that Charles XII. carried all his virtues to such an extent that they became as dangerous as the opposite vices. His dominant virtue was a passion for glory. Glory and glory alone was to him the end of war. He does not appear to have taken into consideration that it was possible to acquire it by practicing the arts of peace. His conduct appeared to be regulated not by the political principles current in the eighteenth century, but by some strange and archaic point of honor. He took Alexander the Great for his model. He was nourished on the old Scandinavian sagas; the soul and spirit of the old Vikings revived in him; he had their wonderful deeds forever before his eyes and their maxims in his memory. Charles XII. was a hero of the Edda, set down by mistake in a matter of fact century. A Russian says, he was “The last of the Varangians,” the last of those adventurers who had formerly become rulers of their country. Pitiless to others as to himself, he underwent uncalled-for dangers and unnecessary fatigue; made war and won crowns only to give them away, and distributed his treasures with a lavish
hand, himself living like a common soldier the while. When Charles XII. started on his Russian campaign his objective point was Moscow—then the capital of Russia. His plan was to draw Peter from the Baltic. The King's plans were well prepared and if his ally Mazeppa had fulfilled his engagements the result would have been different.

In breaking up his camp Charles XII. sent some of his best generals such as Stenbock, Arvid Horn, and others home, fortunately for Sweden, as they proved their worth in her hour of need. Rehnskold, Creutz, Gyllenkrook, Levenhaupt and others accompanied the King on his march. After proceeding some distance into the enemy's country a large Russian army met him and disputed his passage at the river Berizum. The battle of Holovzin was fought there and the Swedes gained a signal victory over the Russian troops.

Charles XII. now continued his march through Russia crossing the river Dnieper on his route toward Moscow. The Russians hovered around him everywhere destroying provisions as they retired so that Charles found nothing but a desolate and fire-swept country. The vanguard of the Swedes was continually beset and many were cut off. Charles determined to turn southeast into the Ukraine and there unite with Mazeppa, a chief of the Cossacks, who were in arms against the Czar. Mazeppa was a noted character. He was a Polish gentleman, born in the Palatinate of Poland. He had been brought up as a page in the household of John Casimir, and had received a tincture of learning in his court. But a youthful intrigue of his with the lady of a Polish gentleman was discovered
and the indignant husband caused him to be bound stark-naked upon a wild horse, and let him go in that condition. The horse which had been brought out of the Ukraine, returned to its own country carrying Mazeppa along with it, half dead with hunger and fatigue. Some of the country people gave him assistance, and he lived among them for a long time, distinguishing himself in several excursions against the Tartars. The superiority of his knowledge gained him great respect from the Cossacks and his daily increasing reputation compelled the Czar to make him prince of the Ukraine.

On the occasion of a banquet at Moscow, the Czar, when overheated with wine, called Mazeppa a traitor and threatened to have him impaled. Mazeppa returned to the Ukraine to rouse the Cossacks for revolt. Brave, enterprising, and indefatigable, though advanced in years, he entered into a secret league with Charles XII. to hasten the downfall of the Czar, and to govern his province for his own advantage. He agreed to join Charles with thirty thousand Cossacks. The Czar had in the meantime reduced Mazeppa in rank and taken over the province. He and his few followers were then obliged to seek the protection of Charles XII. instead of supporting him with a powerful army. This was another misfortune which befell Charles in the midst of his enemy's country and helped to upset all his calculations. It is probable that the King would not have undertaken the risk of the invasion if Mazeppa had not encouraged him and promised him aid in money, provisions, and troops. However, he marched on Pultava where Russia had strong fortifications and large military supplies and laid siege to it.
The Czar arrived on June 15, 1709, with sixty thousand men and one hundred and thirty cannons, which he covered with an entrenchment raised during a single night. The Swedes were only eighteen thousand in number, and suffering from the want of everything, even food and amunition. The heat was intense and the army suffered from it as much as they had suffered from cold in the winter. Charles had only four field pieces with which to oppose the Russians.

During one of his nightly sallies the Swedish King had been wounded in the heel and had to be carried in a litter. The chief command was given to Rehnskold with whom the other commanders were not in harmony.

Peter seems to have had such respect for the reputation of the Swedes that with all his superior force and knowledge of their privations, he still dared not attack them, but remained in his trenches.

The Swedes took the offensive. Voltaire says, "All those who had served in the Swedish army know that it was impossible to resist the first shock."

They were now reduced to such extremity that in victory alone they saw an end to their sufferings, and remembering their many battles from Narva to the present time, they fought the cavalry on the Russian right, wounded General Renne and took two redoubts. But unluckily for Charles XII., the corps of General Creutz which had been ordered to make a detour and to attack the Russians in the flank, did not come up in time. The Russians reformed and completely surrounded Creutz's Corps and took them prisoners. The superior artillery of the Russians awaited the charge of the Swedes and threw them into disorder. While the battle was raging, Menchikoff with an army corps
marched on the rear of the Swedes and separated them from their camp under Pultava. The Russian fire in front was so well directed that the horses harnessed to the litter of Charles were killed. He was then carried by his guards, several of whom were also killed. When the Russian infantry attacked them in front and Menchikoff charged upon their rear, the Swedish army was thrown into confusion and fled. Charles XII. was placed on horseback and carried along with the retreating army. He had a close escape from being made prisoner. Accompanied by Mazeppa and Poniatowski, he arrived after two day's flight at the banks of the celebrated Barysthenes which in the tenth century so many of the Swedish Varangians had crossed in their boats. The King crossed the Dnieper and continued his route to Olehakof. "The last of the Varangians entered the land of the Sultan as fugitives."

Charles XII. lost his whole army. Only about five hundred men succeeded in crossing the river and accompanied him to Bender in Turkey where he was well received by the Sultan. The loss which they sustained in the battle was terrific. The balance of the army had separated into several divisions and were surrounded by the Russians. About fourteen thousand reached the Dnieper, but being without boats, bridges or transports and without subsistence in a barbarous and desolate country they were compelled to surrender; they were made prisoners of war and very few of these brave soldiers ever saw their fatherland again. Of the magnificent army which Charles XII. had inspected at Leipzig not long before, and which had made all Europe tremble, scarcely a bat-
talion escaped, and those who did escape perished later through hunger, thirst, cold or other misfortunes.

The Swedish generals, renowned for their many victories, were now prisoners. They were treated courteously by the Czar who drank to the health of his masters in war. The Swedish prisoners were distributed among the Russian provinces. Many were made teachers and some rose to certain positions in the state. They were always favored by the Czar.
EXPLANATION OF DIAGRAM.

1, Pultawa; 2, Swedish trenches; 3, Swedish strandbatteries; 4, Russian strandbatteries; 5, The place where Charles was wounded; 6, Position of the Russian army before crossing the river; 7, Russians crossed the river; 8, Entrenched themselves, June 17; 9, Russian trenches to which they retired, June 24; 10, Russian trenches made June 25; 11, Russian trenches, June 27; 12, Russian cavalry behind the trenches; 13, The Swedes advance, first battle; 14, Russian cavalry driven back; 15, Position of the Swedes, second battle; 16, Position of the Russians; 17, Russians surround the Swedes, who afterwards flee past Pultawa, Southward.
CHAPTER XXIX.

CHARLES XII. (Continued.)

1697—1718.


From Pultava to Fredrikshald.—The battle of Pultava changed the map of Europe. Sweden was no longer the dominant power of the North. The founding of Petersburg brought Russia to the shores of the Baltic, and from being a half-civilized Asiatic power, she became one of the great powers of Europe, and Sweden lost her influence in continental affairs. This battle of itself might not have been so ruinous if Charles had as soon as possible returned to his king-
dom, in place of plotting with the Turk to renew hostilities against Russia. With this battle Charles XII. lost all that he had gained by his many victories during nine years of continuous war. He lost even more, for his many secret and open enemies turned his misfortune to their advantage. The internal condition of Sweden did not correspond to her political position as arbiter of Europe. The many years of war had robbed her of her best men and consumed her resources.

Sweden was at this time governed by a regency composed of certain councillors appointed by the King when he was attacked by Denmark, Poland and Russia. Mutual rivalries between the members of the regency prevented the government from acting promptly in time of danger. When the news of the unfortunate battle of Pultava reached Stockholm, and the Danes invaded Scania, and word was brought that Charles was among the Turks, and the very existence of the Fatherland was in danger, then all petty jealousies disappeared and one and all bent their energies to a sole object, the salvation of the country. It became necessary to raise new armies against the Danes, against Poland, and against Russia.

Sweden for its size was not a populous country. More than two hundred and fifty thousand men had entered the army during the nine years of war. Many small detachments were stationed at different places in the trans-Baltic provinces, besides the large number of men killed in battle or disabled. Of the veterans there were still about eight thousand men left as a nucleus around which new recruits were
The Swedish nation is naturally warlike and every people becomes insensibly imbued with the spirit of its ruler. The prodigious valor of Charles XII., his religious and moral character, his simplicity of life and the invincible officers and soldiers under his command, called "Caroline," were a constant topic of conversation among the people, and they looked up to Charles as a sort of superior being. The battles of Narva, Dyna, Clissow, Pultusk and Holovzin were the constant themes of songs and stories. Hence the Swedes of all classes were so saturated with a martial spirit that from boyhood to old age they were prepared at any time to leave their homes and avocations and march under the Swedish flag wherever it would lead them to victory and glory—defeat they had heretofore not known. Their affection for their King was great, and their hatred for the Danes was bitter. The Swedes are a free people—having no serfs among them; poor or rich, they are all equal before the law. The love of the fatherland is instilled and imbied with the mother's milk.

Magnus Stenbock, experienced and tried in many battles, was ordered by the regency to lead the regular army stationed in Sweden and the newly enlisted militia, the latter poorly equipped and in their civilian dress, making altogether an army of twelve thousand men, against the Danes who were ravaging the country around Helsingborg. Stenbock, when he came in sight of the enemy, addressed his newly recruited soldiers, advised them to behave bravely and so fired their zeal that they charged upon the Danes at a pace and with a determination that drove the enemy in
confusion to take shelter behind the walls of Helsingborg, whence the survivors departed on boats for Denmark. The Danish army was sixteen thousand strong, all well-equipped men. They lost more than four thousand on the field of battle as well as three thousand prisoners.

Stenbock reported that the newly raised militia in their first assault equalled the intrepidity of veteran soldiers. Two regiments of this new levy of poorly-equipped soldiers who had but shortly before left their farms, came into touch with the gaudily dressed regiment of the King of Denmark’s guards and cut it up so completely that only ten men of it were left alive. Stenbock was duly recognized as a worthy disciple of his master and King, and his praises were sung as be-fitted a national hero.

The provinces East of the Baltic were not so successfully defended. One after another they were invaded by the enemies and became conquered territory, lost to Sweden. The city of Riga defended itself with the most determined courage during a siege of eight months’ duration, but as no assistance came from Sweden, the city had to surrender unconditionally to the Russians. The city of Reval was the next to yield. Viborg, the strongest fortress in Finland, which had for ages withstood all the Russian attacks, was taken by the Czar. Kexholm was overrun by the Russians. Peter had now secured a firm foothold on the Baltic.

Charles XII. in Turkey.—Charles XII. was royally entertained by the Turks and was brought to Bender in splendid fashion. He was given a magnificent tent
with provisions, baggage, wagons and all conveniences for his comfort. Many of the Swedes and Poles escaped from the Russians at Pultava and came by different routes to Charles so that his train on reaching Bender consisted of about eighteen hundred men. He preferred to encamp near to, rather than in the town.

The several years residence of Charles XII. in Turkey were spent in continuous negotiations for a declaration of war against the Czar, and he finally succeeded in bringing about a war between the two governments. Charles XII. hoped that he might be placed in command of the Turks and bring the army to Poland, thence to attack the Czar. The Turks had a great admiration for the Swedish King and delighted to fight under his standard.

In 1711 the Sultan declared war against the Czar and sent the Grand Vizier at the head of an army of two hundred thousand men to invade Russia. Upon the first news of the Turkish preparations for war Peter assembled an army of eighty thousand men, left Moscow for the Turkish frontiers, marching through Moldavia and Wallachia, and arrived on June 11, 1711, on the Northern banks of the river Pruth. The Turkish army hearing of the approach of the Czar hastened to meet him and succeeded in taking him by surprise and surrounding him and his army. Many of the Russian allies abandoned him and his forces were reduced to less than thirty thousand men. He was in the enemy's country without provisions. The Turks discovering his desperate position prepared to attack him. Poniatowski, who was in the Turkish army, sent for Charles XII. who with several officers hastened to
the scene. The Turks and Russians were engaged at different times without definite result, so the Turks determined to starve the Russians into surrender. Negotiations were pending for peace. The demands of the Turks were enormous, including the unconditional surrender of the Russians.

Catherine I.—There was, at this time, after the battle of Pultava, in the Russian camp, a woman as extraordinary, perhaps, as the Czar himself. As yet she was known by the name of Catherine. Her mother was a poor countrywoman, called Erb-Magden, of the village of Ringen in Esthonia, a province where the people were serfs, and which was then subject to Sweden. She never knew her father, but was baptized by the name of Martha. The vicar of the parish, out of pure charity, brought her up till she was fourteen, after which she went to service at Marienburg, and hired herself to a Lutheran minister of that country, called Gluk.

In 1702, being then eighteen years of age, she married a Swedish dragoon. The day immediately succeeding her marriage, a party of the Swedish troops having been defeated by the Muscovites, the dragoon, who was in the action, disappeared, and was never heard of any more; but whether or not he was taken prisoner, his wife could never learn, nor indeed from that time could she ever procure the least intelligence about him.

A few days after, being made a prisoner herself by General Bauer, she entered into his service, and afterwards into that of Marshal Sheremetef, by whom she was given to Menchikoff, a man who experienced the
greatest vicissitudes of fortune, having from a pastry-cook's boy been raised to the rank of a general and a prince, and being at last stripped of everything and banished into Siberia, where he ended his days in misery and despair.

The Czar saw her first one evening while he was at supper with Prince Menchikoff and he instantly fell in love with her. He married her privately in 1707; not seduced into this step by the artifices of the woman, but because he found her possessed of a strength and firmness of mind capable of seconding his schemes, and even of continuing them after his death. He had long before divorced his wife Ottokeft, the daughter of a Boyar, who was accused of opposing the alterations which he was introducing into his dominions. This was in the eyes of the Czar the most heinous of offences. He would have nobody in his family whose thoughts did not exactly correspond with his own. He imagined that he could discern in this foreign slave Catherine the qualities of a sovereign, though she had none of the virtues of her sex. For her sake he disdained and broke through the prejudices that would have fettered a man of ordinary capacity. He caused her to be crowned Empress. The same talents which made her the wife of Peter Alexiovitch secured her the empire after the death of her husband; and Europe saw with surprise a woman who could neither read nor write, compensating for the want of education, and the weakness of her sex, by her invincible courage and resolution, and filling with glory the throne of a mighty legislator.
When she married the Czar, she renounced the Lutheran religion, in which she had been born, and embraced that of Muscovy. She was re-baptized, according to the rules of the Russian church, and instead of Martha, she took the name of Catherine, by which she was ever after known. This woman, being in the camp at Pruth, held a council with the general officers and the vice-chancellor, Schrassirof, while the Czar was in his tent.

They agreed that in their predicament the Russians must sue for peace. Catherine collected all her jewels, cash and most valuable effects, together with what money she could borrow from the generals, and sent it to the Turkish Commander who took the bribe and agreed to a treaty of peace which did not even mention Charles XII., King of Sweden. This woman proved to be a greater diplomat than any of the Russians and Swedes. The Czar escaped scathless owing to the ready wit of a woman. Just as Charles arrived in the Turkish camp, Peter at the head of his Russians marched off with flying colors. One can imagine the feeling of Charles at such a sight as the escape of his enemy.

The continuous residence of Charles XII. at Bender gave him further opportunity to declare war against the Czar, which was also done and the war was begun without resulting in advantage to anyone.

At last the Sultan and other high officers began to tire of the constant intrigues of Charles XII., and he was ordered to leave Turkey and return to his own country. There was now a small colony of Swedes
who had settled around Bender and who supported this Monarch in his diplomatic struggles. Several of the Turkoman officials were in league with the Czar and tried to force Charles XII. to depart, with a view to surrendering him to the Russians, but the King discovered the plot and refused to leave Bender. An army of 10,000 Turks and Tartars then besieged Charles XII., who, though only backed by a few followers, made preparations for defense. The Turks attacked his camp, whereupon he with fifty of his guards took refuge in the King's building and there they defended themselves. He was surprised to see his 300 followers in the camp surrounded by the Turkish army of 10,000 men, letting themselves be taken prisoners without fight or resistance and addressed Generals Horn, Dehldorf and Sparre as follows:—"Come let us go and defend the house. We will fight pro aris et focis—for our altars and our firesides."

When Charles XII. and his companions had rushed through the crowd and gained the door of the King's house, the Swedes who were inside opened it and let him in. There were now shut up in this hall about sixty men, officers, attendants, and domestics. Another part of the building—the King's chamber—was being taken possession of by the Turks. "Come," said Charles, "let us drive out these barbarians," and with sword in hand, at the head of his officers, he opened the door and attacked the intruders, driving them out of the house and firing right and left. The house was cleared of the Turks. The windows were closed and barricaded. The Swedes had abundance of arms and munitions. They began to fire through the win-
dows upon the Turks, killing over two hundred. The Turks now trained several guns on the house. The Khan and the Pasha, not willing to kill the King of Sweden, and amazed at the resistance offered by about sixty persons to an army of 10,000 men, of which a large number had already been killed, gave orders to fire the house, which was done, but Charles XII. and his few Swedes continued to defend themselves although surrounded by flames. The roof began to fall on their heads. The King and his officers armed with pistols and drawn swords, opened the door, fired upon the Turks and started for the Chancery, a stone building. They had already cleared the road for some distance when Charles XII. was tripped up by the spurs of his long cavalry boots, and fell. Numerous Turks threw themselves upon him. He threw his sword up into the air to save himself the mortification of having it taken from him. The Turks took him and carried him to the tent of the Pasha. As soon as he had been taken, Charles XII. became as composed and passive as if nothing had occurred. All his officers were taken prisoners as well. This extraordinary event occurred Feb. 12, 1713, and is called by the Turks, Kalabalik. Charles XII. was treated with the greatest consideration and was thereupon brought to a palace at Temirtask near Adrianople. He remained here part of the time and part of the time at Demotika.

The government of Sweden was now in a very difficult situation. The correspondence between Charles XII. and the regency was often interrupted. No peace or alliance could be made between Sweden and the
foreign powers by the regency, and Charles XII. would not consent to peace on any other terms than the surrender to Sweden of all the places taken by the enemy.

Magnus Stenbock, crowned with his victories won over the Danes, was placed in command of the Swedish forces in Germany and Pomerania, about 17,000 men. The enemy marched upon him from Russia, Saxony, and Denmark and nearly surrounded him. He at once prepared for battle and attacked the Danes and Saxons near Gadebush. King Frederik IV. of Denmark was in command. The Swedish artillery was in fine order under command of Cronstedt who posted it so that when the Swedes advanced the artillery played on the center of the enemy's line and mowed his ranks down like grain before a sickle, until they broke. The full weight of the Swedish attack came fairly upon the enemy and the battle only lasted for three hours, at the end of which time the Danes and Saxons fled in disorder. The battle was fought on December 20, 1712. Voltaire quotes an officer in the Swedish army as saying, "All the Swedes kept their ranks, and even after the victory was gained and the first line of these brave troops saw their enemies lying dead at their feet, not a single Swede durst stoop to strip them till prayers were said on the field of battle, so inflexibly did they adhere to their military discipline."

Stenbock marched into Holstein for winter quarters, but as all the enemies followed him, and he was without provisions for his troops, he was surrounded, attacked, and starved until finally he surrendered to the Danes and yielded himself a prisoner.
Charles XII. after receiving many pleading messages from the Council of State, to the effect that the country would be ruined and lost and that he might lose his crown unless he at once returned, started on his journey accompanied by two cavalry officers. The journey was continued night and day until on November 11, 1714, at midnight they arrived at Stralsund on the Baltic. This place was under siege and Charles XII. crossed in a small boat and so reached Sweden which he had not seen for fifteen years. Great was the joy there on the return of their King. His people, however impoverished, were ready to lay down their lives for him. Charles XII. took up his headquarters at Lund and from there conducted the government and the preparations for the defense of the country, and drilled new armies. The most unfortunate thing for Sweden was the want of funds and provisions for the army. Charles XII. at this time took no counsel of Swedish officers but only of foreigners. A Hollander, George Henrik Gortz, had become his favorite and prime minister. It is claimed by most Swedish writers that this unscrupulous man was the cause of Charles XII. plunging Sweden into more disasters by fawning on him and supporting him in his determination not to accept reasonable terms of peace.

The war with the foreign powers went on. Charles XII. determined to attack and separate Norway from Denmark. With an army of 30,000 Swedes he invaded Norway at Frederikshald. The Norwegians disputed his march and the Swedes threw up breastworks in front of the fortifications.
While Charles XII. at evening was watching the progress of the work and exposing himself to the enemy's fire, he was shot through the head, supposedly from the walls of the citadel, on Sunday, Nov. 30, 1718. He died as he had lived, a soldier and a hero, and with him Sweden fell from her proud position as one of the great powers of Europe.

Charles XII. had not neglected to improve the internal conditions of the country. He was particularly anxious for the welfare of the common people and for their protection during the wars, that they might be saved from extortion. A commission was appointed to revise the old Land laws, though this was not accomplished until several years after his death.

As a soldier Charles was not only conspicuous by his personal courage, daring, and fearlessness of danger and death, but he was also a skillful general and strategist. As a cavalry officer he was notorious for his dash, his rapid movements, and his sudden attack. No commander ever inspired his soldiers with greater confidence and more devotion to his person, for they were always ready to follow him into the gates of death.

The death of Charles XII. marks an epoch in the history of Sweden. Many great changes were made after his death not only in the constitution of Sweden but also in the relations existing between the different classes of the community. The deceased monarch had left no friends or sympathizers who were able to continue his plans, nor had he made provision for his successor on the throne. There were two pretenders to the crown, his nephew, Charles Fredric of Holstein-Gottorp, and his younger sister, Ulrika Eleonora, now 30 years of age and married to Prince Fredric of Hesse. Neither of the two could claim the throne by inheritance since both the sisters of Charles XII. had married without the consent of the Estates, and ac-
cording to the order of succession, had thereby forfeited their right to the throne. Charles Fredric had always been a great favorite of the late King, being the child of his most beloved sister. The Prince was young and inexperienced, weak and vacillating, and had few supporters. Prince Fredric, the husband of Ulrika Eleonora, on the other hand was crafty and politic, secured a large following among the generals, and cleverly succeeded in influencing the civil and military officers to come over to the side of his wife.

After the death of the King, the generals assembled in a council of war, when it was decided to raise the siege of Fredrikshald. Baron Gortz, the former minister of the late King, was on his way to headquarters. Prince Fredric ordered his arrest and placed him under guard. The Prince there distributed the money appropriated for the prosecution of the war among the general officers. Charles Fredric, although he was with the army, lost all self-possession at the announcement of the King’s death and took no steps for the recognition of his claim as successor to the throne.

Ulrika Eleonora, who was in Stockholm, on hearing that her brother was dead, immediately called the Council together and succeeded in inducing them to recognize her as Queen. The army marching towards Stockholm on receiving the news of her success agreed to her elevation, on the condition, however, that she should renounce the principle of autocracy and that the Estates should immediately be called to Riksdag to adopt a new constitution and provide for the de-
fense of the country. The Queen hastened to summon the Estates to Riksdag and at the same time renounced the right to rule without the advice of the Council.

The Estates met in Riksdag in January, 1719. Ulrika Eleonora delivered a signed declaration to the Riksdag, that neither she nor any other person could claim a right to ascend the throne of Sweden by inheritance. This declaration was accepted by the Riksdag and Ulrika Eleonora was elected Queen of Sweden. Prince Charles Fredric left the kingdom and went to Germany. One of the first acts of the new government was to take legal proceedings against the imprisoned minister, Baron George Von Gortz. A special commission was appointed for his trial. He was accused of having embezzled and squandered the revenue of the state, and of having advised the late King to undertake unnecessary wars to the ruin of the kingdom. His fate was decided upon beforehand. Not even the usual legal forms were adhered to in his trial. The accused carried himself with calmness and dignity both at the trial and on the scaffold. He was condemned to death and his execution was hurried forward with unnecessary haste. It cannot be denied that Gortz fell an innocent victim to the many errors of the royal absolutism and the opposition aroused by it.

The most important undertaking for the Estates now meeting in Riksdag was the adoption of a new constitution. During the lifetime of Charles XII, Baron Per Ribbing and many others had occupied themselves with the preparation of a draft for a new
This was intended to be strictly aristocratic and to restore the old oligarchy and government by the Council, but was so amended that the greatest power was turned over from the Council to the Estates. Another very important subject before the Riksdag was the finances and the currency. At the death of Charles XII, the indebtedness of the government amounted to over 80,000,000 crowns. One half of this consisted of what were called "Coins of necessity." To redeem this enormous debt was an impossibility under present conditions of the country, so a large portion of it was repudiated and the coins of necessity were reduced to half their nominal value. It amounted to a kind of State-bankruptcy. Per Ribbing and Arvid Horn were the leading men of Sweden after the death of Charles XII. Ribbing died during the first Riksdag. The latter fell into disgrace with Queen Ulrika Eleonora and was discharged, but later returned to his position as President of the Council. The Queen experienced great difficulty in complying with the new conditions of affairs according to the limitations of the constitution. She tried to rule with the same absolutism as her brother and was capricious in conduct. The Council secretly aided her in the plans to have the crown transferred from her to her husband. Fredric of Hesse was the actual ruler during the reign of Ulrika Eleonora, because she was in everything blindly devoted to him; took his advice and followed his counsel against the decision of the councillors. The Prince had made himself popular with the Swedes by his open honorable conduct, his happy looks, and sociable manners. He
had also the reputation of being a brave and fearless man. His many and great faults had not yet come to the notice of the people though they became evident later.

The object of the new government's great solicitude was to obtain peace for the impoverished country, and Baron Gortz's plan was chosen. The intention of those in power was to keep up negotiations with the Czar of Russia until peace could be concluded with Hanover and an alliance made with England. But when the Czar perceived this intention, he prepared for new attacks as also did Denmark. It was now a question how to defend the Fatherland which was threatened with attacks from two quarters; for the last army of Charles XII. which was under his direct command at his death had been dissolved, and a large portion of the army under the command of General Armfelt, which had penetrated into Norway, had been killed by frost and hunger on its return over the mountains. The fleet was in a miserable condition and the general resources for prosecuting a war were wanting. Added to this was the misfortune that the defenses were not conducted by skillful generals. How great the confusion and the terror among the formerly heroic Swedes were, may be inferred from the fact that when an idle rumor that the enemy was approaching reached the commander of the fortifications at Uddevalla, he proceeded to throw the cannon into the sea and to blow up the fortifications. The Danish admiral attacked the fortifications at Carlstad and frightened the commandant into surrendering the place without resistance. On the other hand the for-
tress of New Elfsborg was defended with heroic bravery and the night attack which the Danish Admiral had directed against Gothenburg miscarried. Simultaneously a Russian force was landed on the eastern coast of Sweden and commenced ravaging and burning the country. Several of the cities in the northern part of Sweden were burned. All property which the Russians could lay their hands on was removed. In several of the places the bondes were organized and made a heroic defense, but skilled leaders were wanting and no army came to their assistance. Finally the Russians landed at Staket for the purpose of attacking Stockholm, but a regiment from Sodermanland met them and completely routed them. This victory saved the capital of Sweden. During these tumultuous times the negotiations were continued with Hanover and England. By the glittering hopes of assistance from an English fleet which had arrived in the Sound the Swedish government was induced to cede Bremen and Verden to Hanover for the consideration of 1,000,000 rix dollars. Articles of peace were afterwards signed in Stockholm in 1719. Sweden entered into an alliance with England, and now for the first time after the Swedish coast had been devasted the English fleet joined the Swedes, and the Russians were driven back beyond the Baltic. Peace was made with Prussia by which Sweden ceded Pomerania south of Peene and Stettin, Gollnow and the islands Usedom and Wollin for 2,000,000 rix dollars. This peace was concluded in 1720.

The Estates had at the last Riksdag adjourned to meet again at Stockholm in January, 1720, when the
question of the succession to the throne came before them. The Queen had, by the creation of numerous peers and a lavish bestowal of favors upon numerous individuals, gained supporters for the plan of placing her husband Fredric on the throne in furtherance of the secret wishes of the Council. Several foreign powers came to her assistance and Arvid Horn, President of the Council, had promised his support. The Queen abdicated the crown in favor of Fredric and he was elected King of Sweden. He signed a declaration of rights which still further limited the power of the King. He was shortly thereafter crowned and took the oath to support the constitution. The Queen Ulrika Eleonora who now stepped down from the throne was a woman of limited intelligence, who was unable to comprehend the needs of Sweden at this critical period. She was selfish and changeful, though honest and patriotic. She died without issue in 1741.
CHAPTER XXXI.

FREDRIC I.

1720—1751.

The Prince Elected and Crowned King—Arvid Horn, Chancellor—His Abilities—Peace with Denmark—Terms of Peace—Peace with Russia—Sweden in Straights—Her New Course—The King from Dictator to a Figure-head—Riksdag Legislator—Council the Ruler—The Four Estates—The "Period of Liberty"—Secret Commission the Sole Ruler—The Holstein Party—Catherine I. of Russia—Horn Seeks Other Alliance—Horn in Full Power—His Wise Administration—Polish War of Succession—France's Intrigues—Sweden Prosperous under Horn's Government—Manufactures and Commerce—Import and Export—New Code of Law 1736.

On the third day of May, 1720, Fredric, prince consort of Ulrika Eleonora, having been duly elected Ruler of Sweden was crowned King in the presence of the Riksdag.

In accordance with their request, Arvid Horn became a member of the Council and acted as presiding Chancellor. He took charge of the foreign relations, but not even Horn's statesmanship could save Sweden from the great loss which she was to sustain. In order to turn all the Swedish resources against Russia, it was necessary to conclude a hasty peace with Denmark. Horn was successful in making the Danish government reduce its demands. Denmark expressed herself satisfied if Sweden would make the Sound free from duty and pay a war indemnity of
6,000,000 rix dollars. Sweden promised not to assist the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, and on these conditions peace was agreed upon at Fredriksburg in 1720. She now endeavored to secure aid from other European powers against Russia, but these were neither willing nor able to do anything for Sweden. England did send a fleet to the Baltic in 1720 but avoided open hostilities with a Russian fleet which continued without interruption to destroy the commerce in the Baltic. Sweden, abandoned by all the powers and on the verge of despair, determined to accept the offer made by the Czar to arrange preliminaries of peace. Commissioners were appointed to meet the representatives of Russia at Nystad. However, before this peace was closed a Russian fleet had visited the coasts of the northern part of Sweden, ravaged the country, and burned several towns. In order to avoid further visits of the savage hordes of the Czar the Swedish commissioners hastened to sign the preliminaries of peace at Nystad in 1720. Sweden made over to Russia, Ingermanland, Esthonia, Livonia, Viborg and the isle of Osel and southeast Carelia, receiving back Finland which Russia had conquered. The Czar paid 2,000,000 rix dollars and promised not to interfere with her domestic affairs. A formal peace was closed with Poland eleven years after. Sweden had at last gained the long sought peace. But it was a dearly bought peace. The fruits of struggles and wars carried on for centuries were lost at one stroke. Sweden, lately one of the first powers of Europe and mistress of the Baltic had sunk into extreme poverty and weakness and could hardly defend her own coasts. The times of victory
and conquest were past. It was not through military triumph that Sweden regained her prestige after this fall but through industry, internal improvements, intellectual developments, and economy. Sweden had now to break a new path not only for the future conduct of her relations with foreign powers, but also for that of her domestic administration. The royal power had by being abused become odious in the sight of the people and could no longer be trusted. The power of the King had been very much limited by the constitution of the years 1719-1720. From an extreme absolutism the government was now changed to a democracy-oligarchy. The King was compelled to promise by his declaration on taking oath of office, that he would in everything yield to the Council and rule according to the resolutions and dictates of the Estates of the Riksdag; and even went so far as to agree to release the Estates from their allegiance to him, in case he should break his oath of office. While the King previously had alone made, proposed, and passed the laws, he was now divested of all power in legislative matters.

Henceforth this belonged to the Estates assembled in Riksdag exclusively. The King was at the head of the executive power, but in the more important affairs of the realm he was dependent upon the majority vote of the Council where he himself had only two votes. Even the Council was compelled to surrender its former power. An executive committee appointed by the Estates at the Riksdag became henceforward the supreme power and the King as well as the Council were responsible for their acts to this com-
mittee, and could not rule except by its consent. The Estates were to assemble in Riksdag in the future every third year. The Riksdag was composed of four Estates namely, The House of the Nobility, The House of the Clergy, The House of the Burghers, representing the cities, and The House of the Bondes, which represented the country landowners or farmers. The line between each of the Estates thus assembled was sharply drawn by their different interests. The most powerful of all the Estates was the House of the Nobility. Within this Estate the former distinction between the higher and lower nobility no longer existed, thanks to the constitution of 1719. Through this constitution the power had passed from the higher nobility into the hands of the more numerous lower class of nobility, most of whom were in poor circumstances and dependent on official appointments. The priests or House of Clergy and the Burghers divided the political influence with the nobility, but their interests were divergent and therefore they could not harmonize. The fourth Estate was composed of the bondes, who had little to say; and they were therefore dissatisfied and, fearing the rule of the nobility, desired that more power should be placed in the hands of the King. By such a government it was thought that the old Swedish liberty had again been restored, and this period in Swedish history is accordingly called "The Period of Political Liberty." But this political liberty which had thus been obtained was not the right kind of political liberty, for it was not liberty for all, but only for that party which was for the time being in power at the Riksdag. The royal power was never-
theless not so limited, but that in the hands of a powerful and aggressive King it could have made itself respected. But Fredric lost all influence in public affairs, and the royal prerogative was nullified by his vacillating conduct and his loose manner of life. The Riksdag again assembled in 1723. The King was met with suspicion, and disliked by the three upper Estates. The bondes alone supported his plans for more extended power over the affairs of the government. They presented to the other Estates a proposition for the extension of the royal prerogative, but this proposition was voted down, and the most active leaders in this movement were punished. So it happened that the King lost all influence at the Riksdag. The power of the Estates was now firmly established. By a new revised order or regulation for the Riksdag which very particularly describes its composition, its manner of procedure and voting, the authority of the committee of the Riksdag as the supreme power was definitely laid down. The most prominent of the committees appointed at the Riksdag, was the secret commission consisting of 50 nobles, 25 priests and 25 burghers, omitting all representatives of the Estate of the bondes. This commission immediately assumed the direction of the government and took control of the Riksdag. This is the political liberty which Swedish writers and historians have praised so much.

In proportion as the King sank in the estimation of the people, the power and influence of the party called the "Holstein party" increased. This party was now in the majority and decided all questions in the Riksdag, and forced through and concluded an alliance
with Russia. This had the result of making Sweden dangerously dependent on the Czar. The daughter of the Czar married the Duke of Holstein, and Russia consequently, by every kind of intrigue, endeavored to make the Duke heir to the Swedish throne. The death of Peter the Great, which occurred in 1725, was a severe blow to the party of Holstein, but it soon became apparent that his widow and successor, Catherine I., was not inferior to the late Czar and was a most sanguine supporter of the interests of the House of Holstein.

The Russian alliance soon inspired Horn and other patriotic friends of Sweden with fear that she would lose her independence and they endeavored therefore to obtain the support of other powers which would counterbalance the pressure from Russia. The European powers were at this time divided into two great alliances, the Alliance of Vienna to which belonged Austria and Russia; and the Hanoverian alliance which was composed of England and France. Both these alliances made endeavors to gain Sweden over to their respective sides. After long negotiations and many intrigues, it was decided in the Swedish Council that the Swedish government should approach the Hanoverian alliance for the sake of safety. Horn desired that this policy should be referred to the Estates, which for this purpose were called to an extra session in 1727. After violent contention and intrigues, the secret commission decided to join the Hanoverian alliance, into which alliance Sweden entered in 1727 under promise of subsidies. The leading men of the Holstein party were Vellingk and Cederhjelm, members of the
Council, whom the Riksdag dismissed. The power of the Holstein party was therefore broken and shortly afterwards entirely dissolved. Horn was furthermore wise enough by his kindness and official appointments to bring his opponents over to his side.

Arvid Horn at the Head of the Government.—His Internal Administration.—The Riksdag of the year 1727 was followed by a few years of internal peace and quiet, and it looked as if Sweden was advancing towards a happy future. Arvid Horn was now at the helm of state. The King took little interest in the affairs of the government. He spent his time mostly in hunting and other amusements and seldom was present in the Council Chamber. Horn endeavored to pursue a patriotic and independent policy in foreign affairs. His internal administration was devoted to harmonizing and conciliating the opposing factions. This policy appeared to be successful. At the Riksdag in 1730, Horn was for the third time elected Lord President of the house of nobility, Land Marshal as he was called. Harmony prevailed at this Riksdag and in most instances it assented to the propositions that were made by the Council. But it was at this Riksdag that a new party originated which in the future became more dangerous than the old one. The founders and leading spirits of this party were a few persons who had been members of the old Holstein party, among whom were the state councillor, Carl Gyllenborg and the president, Daniel Von Hopken. They ingratiated themselves with the King and countenanced his intimate relations with the court lady, Hedvig Taube. Arvid Horn on the other hand criticised the
King for his conduct and on account of so doing drew upon himself his majesty’s displeasure. The antagonists of Horn endeavored to use Sweden’s relations with foreign powers as conducted by him to overthrow his influence and power. When the Hanoverian alliance into which Holstein had brought Sweden came to an end, the relations between her and European powers became strained. After this a war broke out in 1733 concerning the succession to the Polish throne; France endeavored with all her might to entangle Sweden in this war, in order to occupy Russia. Horn was altogether adverse to war and required a guarantee that France was in earnest with her promises, and thus he kept up negotiations until the Estates met in Riksdag in 1734.

A warlike feeling prevailed among the Estates and particularly among the nobility and the army officers, which however, soon cooled off, when it appeared that France only intended to use Sweden as a tool for her aggressive plans. Gyllenborg and Hopken had done all in their power to disturb the peaceful policy of Horn and to bring him into disgrace at the Riksdag. They also placed themselves in close communication with the French Minister at Stockholm and by his counsel and advice formed a new party against Holstein. This party was not, however, at the present time strong enough to attack its antagonists, and carefully avoided open hostilities. After the termination of the Riksdag, the government negotiated an alliance with France for subsidies, nevertheless the Swedish government was not on that account to be debarred from renewing the alliance with Russia, but
it brought about this result, that the French government did not confirm the treaty with Sweden; on the contrary the relations between the two governments became cold and strained. This misunderstanding was taken advantage of by the enemies of the Holstein party, and made use of in order to overthrow it.

During the time that Arvid Horn was at the head of the Swedish government, the Swedish people enjoyed a season of happiness and prosperity of which they had been deprived for a long time past. As soon as peace had been concluded with the enemies, the country began to prosper, and Finland, which had been ravaged and burned during the many long wars, began to rise from the ashes like a phoenix. The Swedish people advanced in prosperity, the country developed, and the exports and imports increased greatly. Vigor and activity prevailed everywhere. Supplies were plentiful and good prices were obtained. The government and the Estates paid special attention to internal improvements, factories and the natural resources of the country. Many absurd principles were applied to trade which at that time were considered and called commercial. It was supposed that the prosperity, riches, and welfare of the country consisted of money and precious metals, and that these could only be acquired by selling and exporting more of every article than was purchased and imported. An effort was therefore made to prevent as far as possible the importing of all foreign goods, but exporting was encouraged and protection extended to home-made goods. In order to protect the merchant navigation a
law was passed which much resembled the English "Act of Navigation" whereby foreign nations were prohibited from bringing to Sweden any other than the goods of the country to which the vessel belonged. Every one who devoted himself to any industry or founded any factory could always count upon the encouragement and assistance of the government.

One of the most remarkable of the men who built up the industries of Sweden was Jonas Alstromer. He had for some time been a merchant doing business in London, when the thought struck him that he might make Sweden partaker of the prosperous industries which had created the wealth of England. He made this the object of his life. First he sent to Sweden artisans and machinery for the erection of woolen and cotton mills and then moved thither himself and built several factories at Alingsas, his native place. He imported machinery for manufacturing all kinds of cloth and goods. By his energy and perseverance large numbers of factories and mills, sugar refineries, iron mills, etc., were put up in the country as well as numerous plants for dyeing; tobacco and potatoes were also imported and their cultivation encouraged.

The general prosperity of Sweden increased so rapidly at this period that the value of the exports was greater than the value of the imports. "The East India Commercial Company" was organized and its ships returned to Sweden laden with the luxuries of the East Indies and China. The currency was regulated, banks were established, and privileges were also granted to issue bills of exchange which passed as currency.

The new revision of the laws of the land which had
been so long under way was now complete, mainly owing to the energy and learning of Gustavus Cronhjelm. This civil code was approved by the Estates at the Riksdag of 1734 and it was thereupon declared by the government to be in force from and after the year 1736. This code of laws was distinguished from the code of King Christopher among other things by this:—that it included all the laws pertaining to the farming population as well as to the cities, but it did not contain any political code. This was considered superfluous, since a special law regulating the conduct of the government and the succession to the throne had previously been adopted.
CHAPTER XXXII.

FREDRIC I. (Continued.)

1720—1751.


The Supremacy of the Hats and Their Policy.—Party spirit and the political energy of the country increased the year following the Riksdag of 1734. A political party favoring a closer relation with France developed unusual activity. They reviled Arvid Horn and his supporters and succeeded to a great extent in making the people believe that the government with Horn at its head was friendly towards Russia.
Great preparations were made prior to the assembling of the Riksdag of 1738, and each faction strained every effort to gain votes by the distribution of money and bribes. The foreign governments also tried to gain the friendship of Sweden, squandering funds among the electors for this purpose and resorting to all sorts of political tricks. Political clubs were organized under different party names. Men of warlike temperament desired to attack Russia, and to restore Sweden to its former power and prestige. They reviled and ridiculed their more conservative opponents and gave them the nickname of "Night Caps." For their own part they assumed the name of "Hats." Thus came into existence the two party names of "Hats" and "Caps," which were retained until the end of the time of this "Political Liberty." The Hats were the more numerous, more particularly among the nobility, and at this time controlled the Riksdag. They elected Carl Gustaf Tessin Lord President of the House of Nobles, a man of brilliant talents, eloquent and witty, but wanting in firmness of character, courage, and sincerity, necessary qualities for a great statesman. Among the Estates of the Bondes arose Olaf Hakanson, a strong partisan, eloquent, shrewd, and intelligent, who became the speaker of their house. He hailed from the province of Bleking and continued to be Speaker of the house for eight successive Riksdags. He well understood how to guide the chamber according to his will.

Politicians of the party of the Hats were appointed on the "Secret Commission" which soon took the entire control of the department of foreign relations.
It involved Sweden in a dispute with England and afterwards sent Major Malcolm Sinclair on an embassy to Turkey, which was then at war with Russia; it also made an alliance for subsidy with France which placed Sweden in a position of dependence upon that government. All these actions of the new party were in direct contrast to the statesmanlike course which Horn had so long pursued. He decided to withdraw voluntarily and accordingly handed in his resignation, which was accepted, with many assurances of indebtedness for his valuable services, in the year 1738. Later on six of the other councillors were accused of taking part in foreign politics to the detriment of the government, and were therefore deprived of their offices, and their places were bestowed upon members of the "Hat" party. Carl Gyllenborg was elected chancellor and president of the Council. He was a politic and shrewd man, without having the character of a statesman, an intriguer without any real ability. By the victories of the "Hats" a new political situation became predominant in Sweden, both in her internal and external relations. Party spirit among the members of the Estates of the Riksdag displayed itself openly and undisguisedly. The government was entirely dependent upon the ruling party of the Estates at the Riksdag, and the power of the Estates was concentrated in the secret commission which assumed the control of foreign relations as well as the regulation of the currency and the financial question. The conservative policy and the safe conduct of state affairs pursued during the administration of Arvid Horn were abandoned. By pursuing a blindly radical policy
the new party imagined that Sweden could become at one stroke rich, great and powerful. This goal they assumed could be reached, partly in a peaceful way through a new impulse given to the manufactures of the country, and partly through the power of arms, by going to war with Russia, after making an alliance with Turkey and France. The enmity towards Russia and the warlike spirit were augmented later when information came that Major Sinclair, special ambassa-
dor to Turkey, had been murdered by Russian emissaries in Silesia on his return from this embassy to Turkey. This outrageous conduct on the part of the Russians aroused a most bitter feeling all over Sweden. A song was composed which was sung by the people all over the country and fired their warlike spirit. The government made every preparation for war, and troops were embarked and landed in Finland. Turkey and Russia made a treaty of peace and the Swedish government was without means for the support of the troops in Finland. The Swedish government was compelled to call the Estates to Riksdag, and a violent storm gathered over the heads of the Hats, when the death of two prominent individuals saved Sweden from her embarrassments.

In the fall of 1740 the German Emperor, Charles VI., and the Russian Empress Anna died nearly simultaneously. This was a favorable opportunity for France to attack Austria and for Sweden to invade Russia. A fair wind seemed to fill the sails of the warlike party in Sweden. At the Riksdag of 1740-1741 the “Hats” triumphed and one of the leaders of that party, Field-marshal Count Charles Emil Lev-
enhaupt, became president of the House of Nobles. In order to preserve the secrets of the foreign relations, these were referred to an extraordinary secret commission. This commission built its plan of the war upon secret negotiations, which the Swedish minister in Petersburg was conducting with the Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great, who desired the support of the Swedes that she might win the throne of Russia. The ruling party was figuring on her gratitude. France, who now desired that Russia might be interested in the civil war which was raging in Austria, in connection with the succession to the Austrian throne, urged the Swedish government to pursue its warlike policy and promised large subsidies. In this manner the secret commission was induced by its leaders to concentrate the armies in Finland and then take the decisive step of making an open attack on Russia. The Swedish government declared war. It was generally believed that the war would be successful and in their vanity they had even prepared the terms of peace which were to be submitted to Russia. The least with which this warlike party would be satisfied was Carelia and St. Petersburg. The old King himself offered to take command of the army, but Count Levenhaupt had long ago been appointed by the Riksdag as commander-in-chief of the armies.

The War Against Russia and its Consequences.—Before General Levenhaupt, who was appointed commander of the army in Finland, had reached the field, the war had begun. Buddenbrock, who was in temporary command in Finland, had advanced to within a short distance of the Russian boundaries and did not
expect to meet the enemy, when suddenly a Russian army advanced, invaded Finland and marched against Willamstrand. A division of the Swedish army under Major-General Vrangel hastened to the support of the city, but in an engagement with the far more numerous enemy was totally defeated. This occurred in 1741. The battle, however, was not followed by any definite results, for the Russians were still too weak to take the offensive against the Swedish forces. When Levenhaupt arrived and took command he advanced across the line into Russia, according to the secret understanding with the Princess Elizabeth. The consternation caused in St. Petersburg by the advance of the Swedish army was the means whereby Elizabeth was enabled to accomplish a revolution in Russia and elevate herself to the throne. She therefore told Levenhaupt to end the war, as it was now entirely unnecessary; and the general who felt that he was not strong enough to advance further into Russia, retreated within the Swedish boundary, when an armistice was agreed upon. During the following winter the Swedish army began to diminish in numbers. A spirit of dissatisfaction and disagreement prevailed among the officers, who began to devote themselves more to politics than to their military duties; and Levenhaupt showed himself incapable of maintaining military discipline. Finally the Russians announced that the armistice was at an end and they began to advance to the attack. They encountered little resistance as the Swedish fleet arrived too late to assist in the engagement, and the Swedish army which was gathered at Fredrikshamn set fire to
the city and destroyed all the provisions, and retreated from one defensive position to another without offering battle until they arrived at Helsingfors. The Swedish army could have easily defended itself here against a numerically superior enemy, but order and discipline had now altogether disappeared. The officers went home to Sweden to attend the Riksdag and the soldiers deserted. No other course was left but to sign the disgraceful capitulation of Helsingfors, whereby the Swedish army which still numbered 11,000 well equipped men evacuated Fredrikshamn without giving battle and left all its stores and provisions to the enemy. This discreditable occurrence took place in August, 1742. On the return of the Swedish army to Sweden, a large number of the soldiers perished from want and sickness, as no proper subsistence had been prepared for them.

Such was the disgraceful end of a war, entered upon with so much bombast and so overbearing a spirit. An intense hatred was aroused among the Swedish people against those who had brought such disgrace and misfortune on the country, and this feeling was given vent at the Riksdag in 1741-1742. It would doubtless have been the death blow to the Hat party if they had not thrown the blame on the unfortunate generals in command, and turned the attention from themselves to the question of the succession to the Swedish throne. This question had previously been raised on account of the death of the Queen, and the Hat party proposed to elect as successor to the throne, the Duke of Holstein, Charles Peter Ulric, the son of Charles Fredric and nephew of the Empress of
Russia. Soon, however, it became known that the Duke had been declared heir apparent to the throne of Russia and had become a member of the Greek church, and that the Empress of Russia desired that his relative, Adolph Fredric, Prince Bishop of Lubeck, should be elected to the throne of Sweden. The latter finally became the candidate of the Hats, but he had a dangerous competitor in Frederik, Crown Prince of Denmark, who by intrigues and distribution of money had gained the support of a large party, particularly among the bondes. Russia did everything to prevent this election, whereby the three northern crowns would be united on one head. In the meantime negotiations for peace between Sweden and Russia were begun at Abo. The Russians from the beginning showed themselves reasonable in their demands and finally conceded that the larger part of Finland now occupied by Russian troops should be restored to Sweden in the event of Adolph Fredric being elected to the Swedish throne. The dissatisfaction among the farmers and common people increased and they were on the point of insurrection. Delegates were sent from different parts of the country to the Riksdag demanding that the Danish Crown Prince should be elected successor to the throne and that the generals who had conducted the war in such a disgraceful manner should be punished.

The Estates at the Riksdag appointed a special commission to examine into and report upon the errors committed in conducting the war, but as the commission proceeded slowly and put off making a definite report the election of a successor to the
1720—1751.

FREDRIC I. (Continued.)

throne was delayed. So the dissatisfaction all over the country went on increasing and was encouraged by Denmark. In the province of Dalarne the people rose in rebellion. In 1743 a regiment of infantry, being the Dale regiment which was stationed there, was taken prisoners by the bondes. The community refused to obey the government and assembled fully armed at the city of Falun. They had provided themselves with ammunition and marched fully equipped against Stockholm, taking their soldiers and officers with them and ordering the people as they marched along to join them in their advance on the capital. In vain did the messengers, sent out to meet them by the Estates at the Riksdag, endeavor to persuade them to return. They kept on advancing. Even the King himself met them outside the gates of Stockholm and tried to persuade them to adopt pacific measures. Paying attention neither to interdictions nor threats, they marched into the city and encamped at the park of Gustavus Adolphus. After long negotiations the peasants fired a salute, at which one of the councillors of state and several others fell. The army corps stationed at Stockholm now opened fire on the bondes killing large numbers and scattering the others in wild flight. Many of the bondes perished and the leaders of the rebellion were arrested and punished. The day after this insurrection was crushed, Adolph Fredric of Holstein Gottorp was unanimously elected and declared successor to the throne of Sweden. The commission appointed to try the accused generals, Buddenbrock and Levenhaupt, hastened its work, and they were condemned to death and executed. They
were sacrificed for the sins and wrongs committed by the Hat party. Peace with Russia was concluded at Abo in 1743, when Sweden ceded that part of Finland which lies east of the Kymmene river and the castle Nyslott. Sweden had scarcely made peace with Russia before another war was threatened by Denmark which was in a high degree exasperated at the result of the election of successor to the throne. Sweden was now so weak and disgraced that she had to call for the assistance of Russia to aid and protect her against Denmark and was put to the humiliation of receiving the aid of 12,000 Russian troops who took up their winter quarters in East Gothland and Sodermanland. Denmark now hastened to seek reconciliation with Sweden; and the Empress of Russia, after every pretext for keeping the Russians in Sweden had disappeared, withdrew her troops in 1747.

Adolph Fredric was thirty-three years of age when he became Crown Prince of Sweden. He was a gentle and well-meaning man but easy going and not endowed with much determination of character. His genial disposition with his lack of genius for government and his inclination to a life of ease kept him from the council chamber. For affairs of state he had neither interest nor head. He took more delight in wood turning and cabinet making than in ruling. Louisa Ulrika of Prussia, sister of Frederik the Great, was selected for his wife, a clever and brilliant woman, but at the same time, proud and commanding. Her intriguing and passionate disposition immediately acquired an unlimited ascendancy over her husband and led him
to comply in all things with her will. On their first arrival in Sweden, Count Tessin became the most intimate friend of the royal couple, and the leading spirit in the amusements and pleasures of the young court. Although Adolph Fredric had come to Sweden and been elected successor to the throne as the hireling of the Russian Empress, he was soon brought over to the side of France by Tessin and other leaders of the Hat party. This was "a feather in the cap" of the "Hats." In vain the Russian minister at Stockholm endeavored to break the relations between the Crown Prince and the Hat party. This intrigue aroused the patriotism of the people and strengthened the Hats, who were soon able to establish their power in the Council. Tessin was elected chancellor in succession to Gyllenborg, who had died during the Riksdag. The friendly relations between the young royal couple and the government of the Hats did not continue long. So long as the Hats needed the support of the royal couple, they gave them encouragement in seeking an extension of the royal power; but when the party again found themselves firmly established they withdrew their countenance and were not willing to support the plans of the Crown Prince. The latter considered himself deceived, and afterwards many circumstances occurred which gave him cause for dissatisfaction, until finally there was an open breach between him and the Council composed of the Hats. Considerable difficulty could not but be anticipated as soon as the Crown Prince should become King. This occurred before very long. After a long illness Fredric I. died in 1751 at the age of seventy-five years.
During the last twenty-two years of his life, he had also been ruling Duke of Hesse Cassel.

The internal administration of the Hat party had been marked by patriotic ambition, yet at the same time their general attitude was haughty, careless and indifferent. In foreign politics, in the encouragement of industries, and in matters concerning the general welfare of the country, they followed the same principles as the Caps had done before them, meaning to do well by the country; but they went to such extremes that they often failed and were a detriment instead of a benefit to it. The Hats encouraged manufacturing in every possible way. They granted privileges and subsidies, directing the State Bank to make loans to those engaged in various industries. A special commission was appointed to look after the budget voted for the support of the manufacturing interests; and another commission was appointed to encourage the mining and iron industries: By means of these subsidies the various industries suddenly grew and flourished, but it was not a natural development, inasmuch as it involved the sacrifice of other not subsidized industries. Large numbers of workmen were taken from the farms, so that Sweden instead of being able to support its population as formerly with the produce of the country was compelled to import a large amount of provisions from abroad. Commerce and navigation suffered from the prohibition of imports and the high tariff, and finally manufactures began to fall off. The manufactured articles and goods could not be disposed of.

To this was added a financial crisis. The Royal
State Bank was relieved from redeeming its paper money and began afterwards to be generous with its loans to the Crown and to individuals to such an extent that it lost its credit and the paper fell in value. The country was flooded with paper money and the abundant supply of this artificial currency inspired vanity, luxury and speculation. Some good, however, was accomplished by the zeal of the Hats, for the scientific, literary and intellectual development of the Swedish people during this period is quite marked. Among those in power, Tessin and Von Hopken were the greatest supporters and encouragers of learning and fine arts. Tessin laid the foundation of the Academy of Painting and Sculpture. In 1739 Von Hopken in connection with several scientific men organized the Swedish Academy of Sciences, which since that time has exercised a great influence over the scientific life of Sweden. The sciences had begun to flourish and had been greatly encouraged under the Horn administration. This interest in them continued and increased. Sweden has neither before nor since, reaped such fruits as it did in this field during the time of her political liberty.

Polhem and Swedenborg continued their work in the fields of mechanism and the natural sciences. The latter devoted himself during his later years more to philosophical studies and finally laid the foundation of a new religion. Carl Linne after returning from his travels and scientific researches abroad resumed his chair as professor at Upsala, and carried on his researches in the different spheres of natural science, but more particularly in that of botany, and it was
through his investigations that scientific order was first established in botany and medicine. A large circle of students gathered around him and afterwards gave great impulse to the study of the natural sciences all over the world. The science of medicine had made long strides forward. That eminent physician Rosenstein, the astronomer Celsius, and the mineralogist Cronstedt stood in the first rank of scientific men. Ihre became an authority on comparative philology, Olof von Dalin and Swen Lagerbring were noted historians. Swedish poetry and belles-letters received an impetus from the pens of Dalin and Hedvig Nordenflycht. During the administration of the Hats, a statistical bureau was organized, making it possible to enumerate the Swedish population more correctly. The government showed its patriotism during this time by sending Augustus Ehrensvard to Finland for the purpose of laying the foundation of the citadel Sveaborg as a defense against Russia. Large appropriations were also granted towards building a new Swedish navy.

It was at this time that several Royal Orders of Knights were instituted in Sweden, such as the “Order of the Seraphim,” “The Sword” and “The Polar Star,” the object of which was to decorate persons of eminence in the various fields of industry, science, and literature, as well as signal military and naval achievements.
CHAPTER XXXIII.

ADOLPH FREDRIC.

1751—1771.


When Adolph Fredric ascended the throne of Sweden in 1751 he was greeted by the nation with demonstrations of the mostly lively sympathy and joy. Many from the parties of both Hats and Caps attached themselves to the new King, forming a coalition called the Court party, which worked
to extend the power of the Sovereign. Relying on their support and spurred on by the Queen, the King entered upon a series of disputes and contentions with the Council. Count Tessin endeavored in vain to mediate and bring about harmony, but as he was unsuccessful he resigned his office at the Riksdag of 1751 and 1752, and the learned and eloquent Andrew Von Hopken was appointed chancellor in his place. The Estates endeavored to bring about a reconciliation between the King and the Council, although they did not neglect to remind him of his oath of office, which was binding on him as it had been on Fredric I. Moreover, they were not in the least inclined to favor the plans of the Court.

At this Riksdag the Gregorian calendar was adopted, and it came into use in Sweden in the year 1753. Ten days were omitted from the calendar month of October, so that the 4th of October was followed by the 15th, making the equinox fall on March 21, the succeeding year. This calendar has been adopted by all protestant and Roman catholic countries. Russia still adheres to the old calendar computation.

The relations between the King and Council became more strained from year to year. Frequently the meetings of the Council were very violent. Adolph Fredric was unwilling to yield to the will of the majority of the members. As the time was approaching for the new Riksdag to meet in 1755, both parties made strenuous preparations to gain the upper hand at the coming election. The Queen became the leading spirit of the Court party, and now began the fight against the Hats. Counts Brahe and Hard and the
Jurist Vrangel assisted her. It soon, however, became apparent that the Hats had a majority among the Estates at the Riksdag. Count Axel Von Fersen, a young nobleman of brilliant talents and political insight, was elected president of the House of Nobles. He became the real leader of the Hats from this time onward, and was ably seconded by the speaker of the Estate of the Bondes, Olaf Hakanson. The dispute between the King and the Council was now brought to the notice of the Riksdag, which settled the question by declaring that the King was positively bound by the resolution of the majority of that body. The Riksdag further decreed that in case the King should refuse to sign any enactment passed by the Council, the latter should in that event have authority to adopt a stamp containing the signature of the Sovereign which they should then affix to the bill. As the adherents of the Court party among the Bondes had created a disturbance in the House of the Bondes while in session, the Riksdag appointed a commission to investigate the matter and punish all those who had been guilty of plotting against the established order of government. It was well known that the Queen was the moving spirit in all these conspiracies. The Riksdag therefore determined to adopt such measures as should prove its authority to her in an unmistakable manner, and a committee waited upon her with a reprimand. The question of the manner in which the royal children should be educated was taken up by the Riksdag in this connection, and the control over them withdrawn from the royal parents. According to the constitution it was the duty of the Riksdag to keep
a watchful eye over them and their education. The Riksdag, therefore, discharged such governors and other instructors as had been selected by the royal couple to educate the Priuces, and appointed other tutors in their place. This exasperated the Queen. She determined to crush her antagonists by force, and did not hesitate to apply to Russia for assistance. In order to accomplish her design and to raise money for such purpose, she pawned a portion of the jewels belonging to the Swedish government.

The plans of the Court party were ripening and preparations were made to bring them to a head. Numerous ways of bringing about a revolution were suggested, and it was finally determined that it should be commenced in the capital. A large number of the citizens of Stockholm had been gained over to the Court party, as well as some regiments of the guards stationed at Stockholm. It was agreed that at a given signal all the supporters of the revolution should assemble at night time and that by their assistance the Court party should make itself master of the capital by arresting the members of the Council and the leaders of the Hat party, and that the King should thereupon convene a new Riksdag. But before the hour came when this revolution was to be carried into effect, the whole conspiracy was revealed by a corporal of the guard. The Hat party, under the guidance of Count Fersen, immediately made hasty and extensive preparations, ordered out the trustworthy regiments, and took possession of different parts of the city, arresting several of the conspirators. The Riksdag appointed a commission to investigate the conspiracy,
and the whole plot was soon revealed. Many of the accused were compelled to confess under torture, and the result was that Count Brahe and Baron Horn and six other persons were tried, condemned to death, and executed. A large number of other persons of lower rank, were tried and suffered lesser punishment. Vrangel and Horn succeeded in escaping by flight. Even the Queen was on the point of being accused and tried by the exasperated Hats. At last it was decided that a committee of the priests should administer a grave rebuke to her. The King was compelled to sign a written declaration to the Riksdag to the effect that he had been misled by evil advisers into countenancing the revolution. On August 23rd, 1756, the Riksdag passed an act, which he was compelled to sign, containing the proviso that if he should take any further steps to subvert the present constitution the Riksdag would proceed to have him deposed. Thus ended this attempt at a revolution. The Court was humiliated, the royal power further circumscribed, and the King placed in a position below that of his poorest subject, inasmuch as he was compelled to sign his own doom, and was openly disgraced in the eyes of the world.

The Seven Years' War.—While the Riksdag was still in session in 1756, the great Seven Years' War broke out, involving all Europe. In the beginning Sweden was neutral, and in concert with Denmark built and equipped a fleet for the purpose of protecting the navigation of both kingdoms. But France endeavored to induce Sweden to take part in this war by the promise of large subsidies and the return of Pome-
rania to the Swedish crown. The constitution declared that offensive war could not be declared except with the consent of the Riksdag. Nevertheless the Council decided, on their own responsibility and against the wishes of the King, to declare war against Prussia. Sweden formed an alliance with the many enemies of Frederik the Great from which she reaped neither honor nor glory. During a period of five years Sweden took part in the war on the continent with an army of about 15,000 men. Several generals tried their fortunes, and among them particularly Augustine Ehrensvard, under whose command the Swedish army gained several victories. But on the whole, little profit accrued to Sweden from them, her resources not being sufficient to gain a decided advantage. The army was inadequate, money was scarce, and the contentions between the political parties presented great obstacles to the prosecution of the war. The Swedes were in possession of the city of Stralsund, which was held as a base for supplies for the army. They invaded the country of the enemy when he was occupied in other quarters, but usually retreated when the Prussians advanced against them in superior numbers.

This Pomeranian war, unlawfully entered upon by the Council without leave of the Riksdag, and conducted without honor or credit, was the means of weakening the party in power and undermining their influence among the people. The Hats, after they had become all-powerful, could not preserve harmony in their ranks. Personal envy was prevailing; and individual disputes broke out among themselves, both in the Council and at the Riksdag.
When the latter assembled in 1760, the Hats had lost all influence and forfeited popular sympathy. The Court party on the other hand had become more powerful. In order to avoid the threatening storm which the Hats feared would overwhelm them, they approached the Court, and a reconciliation was brought about between them, and by its influence harmony was restored temporarily between the Hats and the Caps. As the fruit of this general reconciliation, a separate peace was made with Prussia at the special intercession of Queen Ulrika. Peace was concluded in Hamburg in 1762 without any gain or loss of territory.

The reconciliation between the opposing parties could not be considered honest, at least on the part of the Caps, who now had obtained a majority on their side and were longing to avenge themselves on their opponents. The part of the Caps was supported by the most powerful of the foreign neighbors, England, and more particularly Russia, which was now governed by Catherine II. They were soon joined by Prussia and Denmark, and this foreign alliance terminated the rule of the Hats. At the Riksdag, which met in 1765 and 1766, the Hats were called to account for their many political errors and the ruin which they had brought upon the country. They had commenced two unnecessary and unfortunate wars. They had squandered the government's treasure, and a large portion of it had been absorbed by members of the ruling party. They had increased the indebtedness of the country by over 60,000,000 crowns. The finances were in such a demoralized condition that the paper money had sunk below half its nominal value. Bribery and corruption prevailed, and the officials of
the party in power had enriched themselves at the expense of the government. These misappropriations and embezzlements could not have continued for so long a time except through concealment and general corruption among the officials. The party of the Caps were in the majority at this Riksdag, and they revealed without mercy the corruption practised by the government officials; and severe measures were adopted to restore the credit of the country and to bring the guilty parties to justice. Seven of the Hats who had seats in the Council were removed and were replaced by members belonging to the Caps. The power of the Secret Commission was limited. Free speech and a free press, which had previously been abused, was henceforth regulated by "an act for the protection of free speech and a free press" which was promulgated at the close of the Riksdag in 1766, and was the first act of its kind in the history of Sweden. The manner of conducting the government was left unchanged. It was further confirmed by new guarantees.

The Caps who came to power in 1765 were in many essentials different from the Caps who, as the supporters of the policy of Arvid Horn, had been overthrown in 1738. The party had undergone great changes both in its composition and its principles. It was mainly supported by non-privileged classes, whereas the great strength of the Hats lay in the House of Nobles. The Caps, who had formerly endeavored to establish an independent and patriotic foreign policy, were at this time dependent upon the foreign powers, particularly Russia, and obeyed their hints. Sweden now entered upon most intimate and friendly relations with Russia, England, and Den-
mark. In order to please Russia, the fortifications for the defense of Finland begun by Ehrensvard were discontinued. Crown Prince Gustavus was persuaded to marry the Danish Princess, Sophia Magdalena, against his own and his parents' wishes. The old friendship and alliance with France was terminated. She accordingly discontinued her subsidies and determined to change her policy towards Sweden. The efforts of France were henceforward directed toward increasing the royal power as the only means of making Sweden united and strong, and the Hat party promised its aid towards the attainment of this end. No great efforts were necessary to overthrow the power of the Caps. They overthrew themselves by mistakes in their domestic policy. Their party policy was sound in many particulars. They insisted on economy and payment of public debts. They demanded an accounting of the embezzled government funds. Their aim was to give greater freedom to the industries, agriculture, and commerce, but in order to regulate the finances they ordered the bank to withhold loans and began to force the government creditors to pay their obligations, thereby intending to diminish the large amount of floating paper money and to bring the same down to the basis of the precious metal. The result, however, was that all who held the paper money hoarded it, waiting for a time when it should have reached a higher value. This caused a contraction of the currency, and when no loans could be obtained from the bank a scarcity of money ensued and all branches of industry and commerce were paralyzed. The evil was only increased when an attempt was made to place a definite value on the paper money
issued by the bank without conversion into precious metal. All commercial dealings came to a standstill. No one would buy, and property fell to less than half its value. Many persons were ruined and general confidence was lost. Those who suffered in the first instance were merchants and manufacturers. Previous to this time many of the factories, and among them more particularly the great manufacturing establishment of Alingsas, had suffered greatly from inability to dispose of manufactured articles. Many of them were closed and expensive machinery was sacrificed at ruinous prices. Mechanics and laborers were going idle and many emigrated. The suffering and want became so great, especially in the mining districts, that a general rebellion was feared. The people as a whole showed their dissatisfaction, and laid the blame on those in power, and the present system of government.

This was a favorable opportunity for the Hats to strike a blow against the party in power. Their leaders, Fersen, Ekeblad, Scheffer, and others, the French Minister at Stockholm, and the Court represented by Crown Prince Gustavus who now appeared as a leading spirit, made plans to overthrow the present government of the Caps. The first idea was, to ask the assistance of France in bringing about a forcible overthrow of the government, but eventually it was decided to compel the Council to convene the Riksdag in extra session. The King thereupon requested the Council to order the Estates to convene. The Council declined. So in December, 1768, Adolph Fredric accompanied by the Crown Prince Gustavus appeared in the Council and declared that for the purpose of relieving
the general sufferings and discontent among the people, he demanded that an extra session of the Riksdag should be called, and that if the Council refused to consent to its being held he would resign the Crown. On the same day the King placed his resignation in their hands. It was the Crown Prince who had persuaded his father to take this step. He supported him in his adherence to this determination and finally proceeded personally to all the different government departments and officials in the capital and advised them that the King had resigned, and that the country was without a legally constituted government. General confusion was precipitated in all the departments of the government. The officials declared that for want of a regular government they were unable to pursue their official work. The people of the lower classes, greatly excited, massed themselves on the streets, and a general outbreak was feared. The members of the Council were afraid for their personal safety. Finally when the country had been without a ruler for six days the Council was compelled to yield and the Estates were summoned in extra session at the City of Norrkoping, and the King resumed the Crown he had laid aside. The allied foreign powers made every effort to support the party of the Caps at this Riksdag, and enormous sums of money were spent among the electors to carry the election, but the Hats proved victorious. The councillors of the Cap party were called to account for their conduct and many were removed. This having been accomplished, the Riksdag was moved to Stockholm. A plan was prepared for the improvement of the internal administration, for
strengthening the power of the Crown, and for amending the constitution and making it similar to that of 1720. This proposition did not please all of the Hats and was rejected. The court was again deceived in its expectations. It derived no benefit or extension of power from the overthrow of the Caps except in so far that the Riksdag undertook to pay the debts of the royal couple and voted a certain amount to cover the expense of a foreign journey, which the Crown Prince Gustavus was preparing to make. The policy of the Caps was entirely overthrown. The bank was opened again for loans and the act regulating the value of the paper money was repealed.

The Crown Prince Gustavus now undertook his contemplated journey to the continent, whose special goal was France, whither he, accompanied by his younger brother and a large retinue, went in the latter part of the year 1770. He had not been long in the capital of France when he was suddenly informed of the death of his father the King in February, 1771, as the result of a paralytic stroke. Adolph Fredric was survived by the Queen Dowager and four children, the Crown Prince Gustavus, Charles, Fredric Adolph and one daughter, Sophia Albertina.
GUSTAVUS III.
CHAPTER XXXIV.

GUSTAVUS III.

1771—1792.


The Swedish people had saluted with joy the day of the birth of Prince Gustavus, January 13, 1746. They rejoiced in the hope of again seeing a King on the throne who had been born on Swedish soil. Count Tessin became his first governor and the learned Dalin was selected as his tutor, both of whom, however, soon resigned their positions. The education of the Prince did not proceed quietly and under such circum-
stances as could exercise a good influence over a young mind. It was interfered with by his thoughtless and capricious mother, as well as by the Estates at the Riksdag of 1756, which discharged his former governor and instructors and appointed new ones. Councillor Charles Scheffer was by them appointed his governor. The young Prince possessed unusually brilliant talents and learned any subject with ease when once he could be specially interested in it. His mind was open and frank and endowed with vast powers of imagination and feeling for what was noble and great, and he evidenced particular interest in the beautiful in art, literature and nature. His religious instruction, however, was neglected, contempt for religious subjects being the prevalent spirit of the age. During the youth of Gustavus III., party spirit, intrigues and general corruption prevailed. He was surrounded by the enemies of his parents. He was therefore from childhood taught to be careful, both in word and action, and dissimulation became an early trait in his character. The fatherland, its heroes and great achievements, he learned to love and admire from early childhood and he was filled with a burning desire to restore the kingdom of Sweden to all its former prestige and glory. He greatly distrusted the Council and the Estates, whose actions he carefully watched, and whose corruption, selfishness, and unpatriotic conduct he regarded with scorn.

The Last Struggles Between the Political Parties. —Sweden has seldom found herself in a more dangerous situation than at the time when Gustavus III. ascended the throne, although peace prevailed on
every side. Sweden's neighbors, Russia and Denmark, had bound themselves together by secret treaties to destroy, if possible, the Swedish nation, or to keep her in her present demoralized condition. To uphold the existing form of government, and even, if necessary, to declare war against her, in case there should be any change from the constitution of 1769, was a fixed determination of Sweden's enemies. They had therefore prepared for her the same fate that had befallen the unfortunate Poland, which had been oppressed by her neighbors and in 1772 had been subjected to the first partition. Gustavus III. saw the threatened danger, and resolved to risk everything to save his kingdom from destruction.

He had, while Crown Prince, gathered around him a circle of intelligent and patriotic friends from the Court party as well as the Hats, and, during his visit to Paris, he had also received assurances of the powerful support of France both in counsel and money. He returned to Sweden shortly before the Estates met in that memorable Riksdag of 1771 and 1772.

A fierce struggle began between the two political parties for control of the government. The young King in vain endeavored to bring about harmony and reconciliation between the leaders of the Caps and Hats, and advised the Estates in eloquent language to promote concord and peace, and, as patriotic fellow citizens, to consider only the welfare of the country. But party hatred and difference of opinion, intrigue and contention became worse than ever. To begin with, the House of Nobles entered into a very bitter dispute with the non-privileged Estates concerning
the royal warrant, which was a declaration of rights as between the Sovereign and his subjects, and the privileges of the nobility. The King signed the warrant or declaration of rights as presented to him by the Riksdag without reading it, and thereupon his coronation followed. The Caps had a majority in the Riksdag, and in the Spring of 1772 succeeded in removing all the members of the Council, which was composed of Hats, and appointing Caps to their places. Yet the political contentions increased more and more. The old party bands began to loosen and the parties to dissolve. The non-privileged Estates found themselves masters of the situation. However, they were not able to agree among themselves, and from fear of the power of the nobility, many of them approached the court. In consequence of these party contentions and disputes both Council and Estates became objects of the peoples' contempt. The Cap councillors appeared to have sold themselves to Russia and obeyed the instructions of her minister at Stockholm. The several Estates were controlled by unscrupulous party politicians, who thought of nothing but prosecuting their enemies and plundering the treasury. The confusion had now reached a climax; the young King and all the patriots were in despair; but the measure of troubles was full, and deliverance was at hand.

The Revolution of August 19, 1772, and Its Results. —Gustavus III. had for some time been contemplating a revolution which should check party spirit and place greater power in his hands as the ruler. He had hesitated for some time over this dangerous undertaking,
when one day a new plan was laid before him by the daring and courageous Colonel Jacob Magnus Sprengtporten, and the shrewd, versatile Colonel Christopher Toll. According to this plan a general insurrection was to be encouraged and set on foot by certain trusted regiments both in Finland and in the Province of Scania. The supporters of the King were to come to his assistance from both directions. Gustavus III. gave his consent to this plan. Sprengtporten proceeded to Finland and, as commandant, made himself master of the citadel of Sveaborg, and, having brought a large number of the people under his influence, proceeded with a few regiments and a squadron of the navy to Stockholm. He was, however, detained by contrary winds and did not arrive in Sweden until after the revolution had been accomplished. The revolution broke out first in the city of Christianstad, where Colonel Toll had succeeded with the assistance of Hellielims, the captain of the garrison, in starting what at first appeared to be a mutiny. Prince Charles, in accordance with the plans of the King, was then in the southern part of Sweden, and, when informed of the mutiny of the garrison, ordered the troops stationed there and under his command to march against Christianstad on pretence of quelling the rebellion. The Council and the Estates began to take stringent measures to suppress the revolution. They suspected the King had a part in it, and prepared to arrest and detain him. Gustavus, foreseeing his danger, resolved with the assistance of his friends to bring about the revolution in the capital without delay. On August 19, 1772, in the afternoon, he proceeded on horseback
and accompanied by his staff to the arsenal, where he reviewed the troops. He returned, dismounted, and walked to the palace attended by his life guards and a large number of officers. Arriving at the palace he summoned the officers around him at headquarters and delivered a touching and eloquent speech closing with the words: "If you will follow me as your forefathers followed Gustavus Vasa and Gustavus Adolphus, I will venture my life for you and the salvation of the Fatherland." Most of those present promised their assistance and took a new oath of allegiance. The same was done by the soldiers in the barracks adjoining the castle. The gates to the palace and the castle were closed, and the members of the Council who were assembled in session were arrested. Gustavus III. thereupon rode through the gates of the city with his followers, all wearing white handkerchiefs on their arms. The King addressed the populace, who greeted him with joyous acclamation and huzzas, and followed him through the city, and the troops located at Stockholm and the magistracy of the city took a new oath of allegiance. All entrances to the city and to places of importance were guarded, and several of the most influential and dangerous members of the Riksdag were arrested. The revolution was completed within a few hours after its commencement and without a drop of blood being spilled. On the 21st of August the Estates were called to meet the King in the throne room of the palace. Attired in his royal robes he ascended the throne and delivered a message to them full of patriotism and eloquence, wherein he presented the degradation and dangers of
the fatherland, and promised to restore the old constitution of Sweden. A new constitution had already been prepared under instructions from the King which was read, and the Estates were asked if they sanctioned it. It was adopted by them without hesitation, and at the same time they took a new oath of allegiance. The King signed a new Royal Warrant, and declared that he considered it the greatest honor to be the first citizen among a free people. He discharged the old Council and appointed a new one in sympathy with him. He urged upon the Estates to proceed with the business of the Riksdag and after passing certain formal acts, he dissolved it. Those of his antagonists who had been arrested and imprisoned were set at liberty. No persecution and no punishment followed. The old political party names of Hats and Caps were prohibited. The past was to be forgotten. Reconciliation and harmony was the watchword of the King.

Seldom has a revolution been conceived and carried out with so few resources and so little preparation, and yet with such complete success. It is evident that the kind of government which had existed during this period of political liberty no longer commanded the support and confidence of the country, and that the great majority of the people acquiesced in the revolution and the events that had taken place. The change was hailed with joy all over Sweden. Gustavus III. was considered the hero of the nation, the object of her love and admiration, and his genius and courage were praised everywhere. His kindness, generosity and forbearance were everywhere commended, and his success was hailed all over Europe with the most
favorable comments. Honor and credit must be given to Gustavus III. for the manner in which he saved the fatherland from past degradation and political slavery. Sweden, which had sunk so low in the estimation of her neighbors, at once rose to a prominent position, regaining respect and dignity when she came forward, united and independent as in former days, under the government of a patriotic King. But this regained independence from foreign influence was at first threatened by great danger. Sweden’s neighbors regarded with envious eyes the escape of the prey which they considered already in their grasp, and prepared to destroy the newly established government by force if necessary. Frederik II. of Prussia wrote his nephew threatening letters. The empress of Russia mobilized her troops on the borders of Finland, and Denmark made preparations for an invasion from Norway. Gustavus III. was not terrified. He rose like a man to the occasion, and fortified by the countenance of France, without any delay made adequate preparations to meet his powerful enemies in hostile array. The storm slowly subsided in consequence of the courage of the King and favoring circumstances from without. The danger had passed for the present, and Sweden was safe under her newly adopted government.

The Prosperous Time During the Government of Gustavus III.—The King, Gustavus III, in outward appearance was a handsome man of medium height and finely built. His well-cut, although somewhat feminine face, high forehead, and large flashing blue eyes, added to an unusual gift of pleasing and attract-
ing people by his friendliness and attention, caused him to be called "King Charmer." An admirer of the French civilization he introduced its polished and refined manners at his court, and the ready repartee which was a distinguished characteristic of the higher classes in France at this time also found a genial atmosphere there. The court became a home for literature and fine arts where pleasant enjoyment was found in happy sociability. At the same time there was much extravagance and rather loose morals. The members of the royal family were not on as good terms as they might have been. The King did not get on very well with his mother, who frequently caused him a great deal of trouble and annoyance, nor did the royal brothers and sisters live upon friendly terms. Between the King and Queen there was a coldness that finally ended in a separation. After living apart for some years a reconciliation was brought about between the royal couple and their marriage was eventually blessed by the birth of a son, the Crown Prince, Gustavus Adolphus.

The time during which Gustavus III. lived and ruled was a troublesome time for both the higher and lower classes. An upheaval was threatened in several places in Europe, and the people were suffering under the burden of the aristocracy's domineering spirit. Many able thinkers and authors were attacking the abuses of power by the ruling classes and insisting upon reformation and improvement, both in the state and the church.

This demand found sympathy all over Europe, and even Princes were carried away and hastened to apply
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this new doctrine for the amelioration of society. Gustavus III. sympathized with the ideas of the times and, desiring to figure as a philosopher occupying a throne, kept urging reform and education upon his people.

One of the first abuses which King Gustavus corrected and removed was the use of torture on accused or imprisoned persons. Bribery and corruption which had prevailed during the previous reigns and which had been so common among judges and officers, was punished severely whenever exposed. A new court of appeals was established for the northern part of Finland in the city of Vasa. The right of free speech and the press was controlled by a new act concerning the freedom of the press. The stringent regulations which had acted as a restraint on commerce and manufactures were relaxed in accordance with the new ideas concerning wealth which at this time began to spread in Europe. The duty or tariff was removed. A new law was passed dealing with the finances, a reform due mainly to John Liljencrantz, minister of finance. By a new loan which the King negotiated abroad, the Royal State Bank of Sweden was relieved and was able to redeem its old paper money, which, however, owing to the condition of the money market and former regulation was reduced to one-half its nominal value. From the beginning of 1777, the money market was easy, and the finances were on a solid basis. Dating from the year 1777 the precious metals began to circulate, and commerce, manufactures, and other industries began to prosper. The King, according to the new constitution adopted at
the revolution of 1772, was almost absolute in the matter of the internal administration. The restrictions of the royal power were in many particulars uncertain and there was much room left for the personal determination of the King. The Council, which was henceforward responsible to the Sovereign alone, had no further or definite influence on home affairs which he usually decided for himself in consultation with his secretary and a few friends. His most intimate friends during this time were the two brothers, Charles and Ulric Scheffer, the last of whom was chancellor, and Liljencrantz, his finance minister. The power of the Estates, according to this new constitution, was exceedingly limited. They could, indeed, take part in legislation, but their right to vote supplies was uncertain when no definite time was appointed for the Riksdag to meet, nor had they any control over the finances. In other respects the hands of the King were tied so far as foreign relations were concerned, and he had no right to begin offensive war without the consent of the Riksdag. When the Riksdag was dissolved in 1772, Gustavus III. had in his speech from the throne stated that he would see the Estates after six years, and accordingly they were called to the Riksdag in Stockholm in 1778. At this time the Crown Prince was baptized and the Estates attended as God-fathers. They were in the best of humor and vied with each other in showing the King their gratitude and devotion. A large portion of the laws recommended by the King were intended to soften the harshness of penal servitude and to further limit
capital punishment. At his request there was passed an act of religious liberty for foreigners who had settled in the country; and Jews were also permitted to become citizens.

A friendly feeling existed between Sweden and its neighbors, to outward appearance at least. Russia and Denmark continued to show an unpleasant spirit, so in order to pacify and win the Empress, Catherine of Russia, Gustavus III. paid a personal visit to St. Petersburg. In the great conflict between England and her North American colonies, Gustavus III. succeeded in keeping Sweden neutral. A large fleet was organized and kept at sea for the purpose of protecting the Swedish naval interests against the belligerents, particularly against the privateers of England, and for this purpose, Sweden, Russia, and Denmark formed in 1780 an armed neutrality, which was mainly of service for the protection of Swedish navigation. Gustavus by his skillful dealing with foreign powers acquired the respect of Europe, and Sweden was again restored to a position of greater influence. Swedish commerce began to flourish, money was plentiful, and the finances were in excellent shape.

Treaty of Friendship and Commerce Between Sweden and the United States.—Gustavus III. was awake to the progress of the world. In fact he was one of the foremost in the advancing ranks. When the American Colonies in 1776 declared their independence, Sweden commenced friendly relations with the newborn power beyond the sea. American history keeps sacred many names of the sons of Sweden who
fought in the ranks of the Americans for independence. Among them were sons of the most aristocratic families who were either on the staff of George Washington or held separate commands in his army. One of the most prominent was Axel von Fersen—at one time Ambassador to France—a favorite of Mary Antoinette and afterward Grand Marshal of Sweden.

Sweden, as well as France and the Netherlands, concluded a treaty with the United States which was signed on April 3, 1783, by Benjamin Franklin representing the United States and Count Gustavus Philip Creutz representing Sweden. By this compact the high contracting parties agree that:

There shall be a firm, inviolable, and universal peace, and a true and sincere friendship between the King of Sweden, his heirs and successors, and the United States of America, and the subjects of His Majesty, and those of the said States, and between the countries, islands, cities, and towns situated under the jurisdiction of the King and of the said United States, without any exception of persons or places; and the conditions agreed to in this present treaty shall be perpetual between the King, his heirs and successors, and the said United States.

The King and the United States engage mutually not to grant hereafter any particular favor to other nations in respect to commerce and navigation which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy the same favor freely, if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation, if the concession was conditional.

The subjects of the respective and high contract-
ing parties shall pay no higher duties or imposts than the most favored nations and shall enjoy all the privileges and advantages in the respective countries.

There shall be granted a full, perfect and entire liberty of conscience to the inhabitants and subjects of each party. They shall have all their rights and privileges and protection of the laws of the citizens of the respective countries.

ART. VI.

Les sujets des parties contractantes pourront, dans les États respectifs, disposer librement de leurs fonds et biens, soit par testament, donation ou autrement, en faveur de telles personnes que bon leur semblera; et leurs héritiers dans quelques en droits où ils demeureront, pourront recevoir ces successions, même ab intestato, soit en personne, soit par un procureur, sans qu’ils aient besoin d’obtenir des lettres denaturalisation. Ces héritages, aussi bien que les capitaux et fonds que les sujets des deux parties en changeant de demeure, voudront faire sortir de l’endroit de leur domicile, seront exempts de tout droit de détraction, de la part du Gouvernement des deux États respectifs. Mais il est convenu en même temps que le contenu de cet article ne dérogera en aucune manière aux ordonnances promulguées en Suède contre les émigrations, ou qui pourront, par la suite, être promulguées, lesquelles demeureront dans toute leur force et vigueur. Les États-Unis, de leur côté, ou aucun d’entre eux seront libres de statuer sur cette matière telle loi qu’ils jugeront à propos.

This treaty was drawn up in the French language, was signed in duplicate by the plenipotentiaries, and was ratified by the two governments; and the document is accordingly to be understood and interpreted in accordance with the meaning and acceptance of that language.

It has also been translated into English, and that translation is embodied in the treaties of the United
States, and by the constitution, is the supreme law of the land.

The government of the United States of America however, adopted a version made by an ignorant and incompetent translator, and great injustice has consequently been done to Swedish subjects by depriving them of rights properly guaranteed them by this treaty. And it seems strange that the Swedish government for close upon a century and a quarter has been either indifferent to its rights and privileges or has not had courage to call the attention of the United States government to this infringement of the rights of her subjects.

Article VI. provides that "the subjects of the contracting parties in the respective states may freely dispose of their "fonds et biens," either by testament, donation or otherwise in favor of such person as they think proper; and their heirs in whatever place they shall reside shall receive the succession even ab intestato...without naturalization, etc."

The words "fonds et biens" have by the translator been rendered "goods and effects," thereby excluding all real estate. In several of the States of the Union there has been enacted what is called "the Alien law," which prohibits aliens from taking, holding, disposing of or inheriting real estate. The effect of such legislation is to prevent a citizen of a foreign country from inheriting the estate of his deceased relative in such state, unless a treaty intervenes and annuls the law. The decisions of the United States courts as well as opinions by Attorney Generals of the United States have been adverse to the claims of Swedish
citizens to inherit real estate, but they are based upon the erroneous translation of this solemn compact. Let us examine the treaty closer as to the meaning of "fonds et biens." This treaty is peculiar among the several treaties of the United States inasmuch as "biens-fonds" is the word used in other treaties to describe real estate. But we must take the language as it was used and understood in France as well as by the high contracting parties in 1783, when this treaty was executed.

In the code Napoleon, which was adopted shortly afterwards during the first French Republic, and which has remained the law of France during all the subsequent changes of her government, we find in Book II., Title I., Chapter I., that the word "fonds" is used ten times, and is applied in each of the several paragraphs (518 to 525) to real estate—soil of the earth—the home—landed property—farm—house and lot—immovable property—estate, etc.

Le Dictionnaire de l'Academie Francaise explains the word "fonds" as signifying—le sol d'une terre—the soil of the earth—to be rich in "fonds de terre," landed property; to cultivate "son fonds," one's farm or land, etc.

While the word is sometimes used to denote funds, yet its primary meaning is land, or landed property.

That the intention of the two governments was that real estate should be freely held, inherited and disposed of, must be plain to every logical mind when the following facts are taken into consideration. The United States in 1783 had land in untold quantities, and it was then of little account; the population was small—not as large as that of Sweden—and the young
Republic was anxious to encourage immigration. Gustavus III. and the Swedes were then of some consequence in the Councils of the Nations. The United States was desirous of having the good will of the nation which was one of the first to make a friendly treaty with her. There seems to be no reason why real estate should be excluded from the property rights which Swedish subjects could inherit, hold or dispose of under provisions so plain as those embodied in this treaty.

Sweden appears to have so understood it, for inheritances of realty are constantly disposed of there and the proceeds are forwarded to citizens of the United States.

And if this great error can be rectified by the attention of the two governments being hereby called to it, then this history has not been written in vain.

On August 12, 1782, while negotiating the treaty, Dr. Franklin wrote to his government about the Swedes, "All ranks of this nation appear to be in good humor with us, and our reputation rises throughout Europe. I understand from the Swedish Ambassador that their treaty with us will go on as soon as ours with Holland is finished; our treaty with France, with such improvements as that with Holland may suggest, being intended as the basis." These negotiations were progressing at the same time between the three European powers and the United States. This treaty has remained unbroken and is still in force, while sincere sympathy as well as cordial good will have characterized the relations of the two peoples ever since it was signed.
CHAPTER XXXV.

GUSTAVUS III. (Continued.)

1771—1792.

Riksdag of 1778—The People Dissatisfied with the Government—The Liquor Question—The Nobility Hostile to Gustavus—The Government’s Debts—Army and Navy Reorganized—The Brilliant Court of Gustavus III.—The King’s Foreign Journey in 1783-1784—His Reception in France and Italy—Secret Treaty with Louis XVI.—His Advisers—The Riksdag of 1786—Attempt to Restore the Old Regime—Russia at War with Turkey—Gustavus Prepares for War with Russia—Beginning of the War with Russia—Plan of Attack—Naval Battle—The King Invades Russian Territory—Mutiny of the Superior Officers—The Anjala Conspiracy—Denmark Prepares for War against Sweden—The King Returns to Sweden—Raises an Army in Dalarne—Protects the Frontier against Denmark—The Riksdag of 1789—The King Asks that the Anjala Conspirators be Punished—The Nobility show Dilatory Tactics—The King’s Speech to the Riksdag—Constitution Amended—Act of Unity and Security—The King Favors the Bondes—Their Support—A Supreme Court Established—Prosecution of Russian War—Naval Battle—Renewal of War in 1790—Battle of Viborg and Svensksund—Peace with Russia—The Anjala Conspirators Punished—Alliance with Turkey, Prussia, and England Abandoned—The French Revolution—Gustavus’ Sympathy for the French King and His Family—Plans to Restore Him to Power—The Revenues of Sweden—The War Debts—Hatred of Nobility to Gustavus—Conspiracy to Kill the King—The Masquerade Ball—The Personality of the King—The Murder of the King—His Death—Captain Jacob John Anckarstrom.

At the Riksdag of 1778 there were already signs of dissatisfaction with the government of Gustavus III. This dissatisfaction increased during the follow-
1771—1792. GUSTAVUS III. (Continued.)

ing year owing to various causes. The formerly worshipped King became an object of much fault-finding. A regular opposition party, consisting of both Caps and Hats, was organized, numbering among its members many of his former friends as well as antagonists.

The liquor question was the primary cause of popular discontent. Before the reign of Gustavus III, the farmers were allowed to distill whiskey promiscuously, a custom which was the cause of a large amount of intoxication. Immediately after the revolution the King had, in order to relieve the want of provisions and the scarcity of grain, prohibited all distilling of whiskey. The year following the revolution the crops were abundant. The King therefore determined to establish a crown distillery, and to use the liquor traffic for the benefit of the crown and for the support of the government. He took this course mainly for the purpose of adding to the revenue of the State; but he had made a miscalculation, for instead of increasing the revenue, this distillery business was carried on at a great loss, and drunkenness seemed to be on the increase. The farmers became exasperated because they were not permitted, as formerly, to distill whiskey for their own use and tried to start riots at different places in the country. The burghers in the city were dissatisfied with the free trade policy, which had been introduced by Gustavus III. The priests complained because many of the parishes were filled by appointees of the government who had paid a specified amount of money, and the non-privileged classes became discontented because the nobility re-
ceived appointments in preference to themselves. The nobility could not forget that Gustavus III. had deprived them of their former power and influence; and finally complaints of the absolutism of the King began to be heard among all classes, who were offended by his expensive foreign travels, his reckless war plans, and by the extravagance, vain shows, and constant amusements of the Court. Gustavus at the time of the revolution discovered a large amount of government indebtedness, the bulk of which was a debt to the bank which was afterwards repudiated by the Riksdag. Soon afterwards the debts began to increase and several foreign loans were negotiated, although the revenue had increased considerably and a subsidy of several million dollars had been obtained from France. The French subsidies were granted for the purpose of strengthening the defences of the country, and the larger portion of them was also devoted to that end. The army and fortifications were remodelled to some degree. Most interest, however, was bestowed upon the fleet. Admiral Trolle and the ship builder Chapman succeeded in constructing a respectable fleet and a large number of smaller war vessels. The King gave special attention to and felt much interest in the fine arts upon which considerable sums of money were spent and which also involved a heavy drain on the treasury. Large amounts were devoted to buildings, statuary, paintings, and the restoration of several castles. The revenue was not always spent economically. A large amount of it was wasted on theatrical performances and other court luxuries. Theatrical masquerades, balls, and
other amusements of all kinds were constantly held at the brilliant court of Gustavus III., and this extravagant mode of life, accompanied as it was by loose morals, could not escape the notice of the public, and had an unpleasant influence over the whole country. The foreign politics of Gustavus III. were aggressive. He was restless and ambitious and desired to extend his country at the expense of Denmark. It was his pet scheme to separate Norway and Denmark, and he had planned a sudden attack on Copenhagen which would compel Denmark to cede Norway to Sweden. When the Empress of Russia by her threatening attitude frustrated his intentions, the relations with Russia became strained.

Gustavus III. Foreign Travels and Plans for War.—During the years 1783 and 1784, the King undertook an extended foreign journey which removed him for a considerable time from his own country. After he had stopped in Italy for some time and admired her beautiful arts, and enjoyed the hospitality of the Pope, the cardinals, and their subordinates, he returned by way of France, where he was received with the greatest honor and distinction. Gustavus III. concluded a secret treaty with Louis XVI. which guaranteed increased subsidies to Sweden, after which France ceded to the former the Island of St. Bartholomew in the West Indies. The Italian journey brought about a still more extended power of the royal absolutism. During the absence of the King, the Council had very little to say. The larger part of the governing power was placed in the hands of a secret war commission, which was directed by the shrewd and
energetic Toll. The foreign relations were no longer conducted by the prudent Ulric Scheffer. He had just resigned and Liljencrantz soon followed his example. The King was surrounded by young advisers, among whom were the witty and polished Elias Schroderheim, the bold, ambitious G. M. Armfelt, the learned Nordin, and the intelligent and prudent Bishop Vallquist. The two latter were priests and successively held the portfolio of ecclesiastical affairs. The dissatisfaction, which owing to several causes had spread among the people, was still further increased by the failure of the crops, a calamity which re-occurred during several years. It was therefore at an exceedingly unfavorable juncture for the King that in the year 1786 he called the Estates together to the Riksdag. The party of opposition had now greatly increased and succeeded in securing a majority at the Riksdag to support it. The Estates showed a great deal of suspicion as to the plans of the King and rejected several of his propositions. They voted appropriations for four years only, and made formal complaints against the way in which the government was conducted, particularly the regulation of the liquor traffic and the restraint on the freedom of speech and upon the press. The nobility placed itself at the head of this opposition, guided by the old party chief, Ferrsen. Dissatisfaction and opposition continued to be manifested during the sitting of Riksdag, which the King finally dissolved with the intimation that he did not need its assistance for some time to come.

Gustavus III. was sensitive about his power. Accustomed to the plaudits of the people he felt greatly
wounded that the Estates should have ventured to oppose his conduct of the government, and he considered it ingratitude on their part when new parties began to appear. He knew full well that several of those who were dissatisfied with the government would attempt to restore the old regime, and therefore desired the assistance of Russia. Finland particularly was the theatre of many dangerous plots which were led by the daring old trickster, G. Sprengtporten, who had left Sweden and gone into the service of Russia, where he and his friends were working hard to separate Finland from Sweden. When Russia began to support these plans, it was evident that sooner or later a new struggle would begin between Sweden and Russia. Gustavus III. had long ago prepared himself for this conflict and only awaited a fitting opportunity. This soon arose when, in 1787, Russia became involved in war with Turkey. Gustavus determined not to lose the chance. His fanciful eye beheld new and brilliant victories, which should restore him again to the favor of his people, strengthen his power, and augment his decreasing revenues. He endeavored first to separate Denmark from her Russian ally, but in vain. He also negotiated with Turkey and England and Prussia, but in his anxiety to attack Russia, he did not wait for the conclusion of these negotiations. Nor did he even delay until he had all preparations fully completed, but decided to suddenly attack the enemy. He crossed over to Finland with an army in 1788 hoping to find Russia unprepared.
The Russian War and the Second Revolution of Gustavus III.—There was no authority vested in the sovereign under the constitution to begin offensive war without the consent of the Riksdag. Gustavus III. was therefore particularly anxious to bring about circumstances by which he might not appear to be the aggressor. The military posts stationed on the border exchanged shots with the Russians and some skirmishes occurred. This gave the King the pretext for an attack on Russia, which was the commencement of the war. His plan was that the Swedish fleet under command of Prince Charles should attack the Russian fleet and land the Swedish troops south of Cronstadt, so that St. Petersburg would be attacked from two sides. General consternation seized the Russian capital, which was without proper fortifications. The Swedish fleet proceeded from Sveaborg and met the Russian fleet at the island of Hogland in the Bay of Finland. A naval battle was fought in which the Swedes and Prince Charles showed determination and valor and came out victorious, but it was not decisive and so the original plan of the war could not be carried out. The King decided to make an attack on Fredrikshamn with the army. He invaded the Russian territories and was on the point of receiving the surrender of the fortress when a mutiny broke out in his army and he was compelled to return. The Swedish officers had during previous reigns lost all self-respect and discipline and had been accustomed to do as they pleased, refusing to obey their superior officers. They pretended to have various reasons for feeling exasperated with the King and considered that
they were under no obligations to obey him since he had commenced the war without the sanction of the Estates. The leaders in the mutiny were a few officers from Finland, among whom Colonel Hastesko and the Majors Jagerhorn and Klick were especially active. They succeeded in inducing a few of the officers to write to the Empress of Russia asking for peace, and shortly afterwards when the retiring army had arrived at Anjala a large number of officers met in consultation and signed an open declaration that they would do everything to bring about peace and the summoning of the Riksdag, and be obedient to the constitution. Several of them were contemplating still more extended plans, such as a return to the constitution of 1720. Some of the officers even endeavored to induce Finland to separate from Sweden. This conspiracy became known in history as the "Anjala Conspiracy." Placed in such a dangerous position, and threatened with loss of life or liberty, the King was for the moment on the verge of despair. He soon regained his courage but was undecided what to do until he received information that Denmark was preparing for war against Sweden, when he exclaimed, "I am safe," and hastened home to Sweden.

The conduct of the army of Finland had aroused a most bitter feeling in Sweden, and this was particularly directed against the nobility who were considered to be on the side of the mutinous officers. The King therefore determined to appeal to the patriotism of the people. He went to Dalarne, where he addressed the inhabitants as his great ancestor, Gustavus Vasa, formerly had done, and spoke to the communities in
the churches. He was everywhere received with enthusiasm and wherever he appeared multitudes of volunteers armed themselves all over the country for the protection of the Fatherland. In the meantime the Danes had invaded Sweden from Norway. They advanced as far as Gota river and threatened the city of Gothenburg. The King hastened thither and adopted stringent measures and made hasty preparations for the protection of the country. The ministers of England and Prussia took the part of Sweden with such determination that the Danish commander, the Prince of Hesse, was compelled to enter into an armistice which afterwards was extended, and in the following year, 1789, a formal treaty of peace was signed. Through the mutiny of the army in Finland, the patriotism of the King, and his sudden success against the Danes, a strong impression in his favor was created all over the country and he regained his former popularity among the people, particularly among the non-privileged classes. He felt that he was now restored to their love and devotion and considered it a favorable occasion for calling the Estates to Riksdag, and at the same time for ordering the arrest of the most prominent of the officers who had taken part in the "Anjala Conspiracy." At the Riksdag, which met in the beginning of the year 1789, the King proposed that the Estates should assume the government debts, and should grant him such further power as he considered necessary to suppress the spirit of mutiny and rebellion within the army. Gustavus III. took advantage of the disputes and differences which existed between the privileged and non-privileged
classes to extend his royal power in the same way as Charles XI. had formerly done. He proposed in the first instance that a special committee should be appointed, composed of members from the four Estates, with which he could consult about means to prosecute the war.

When this proposition came up for hearing in the House of Nobles, the opposition party, led by Fersen and others, insisted that this committee should be bound by certain instructions, and when the President, Count Levenhaupt, refused to put the motion as being contrary to the constitution, he was insulted, and the nobility in a great many ways took up a threatening attitude toward the King and showed a loss of confidence in him. This was brought to his majesty's attention; he thereupon called the Estates together in the throne-room and delivered a fiery speech to the nobility and advised them to make an apology to the President of the House of Nobles for their conduct.

According to the brilliant Swedish writer, Bernard von Beskow, Gustavus III. spoke as follows:

"Fourteen days have now elapsed since I informed you from the throne of the weighty reasons which made your convention necessary. I told you without reserve of all that had taken place during the last four months. I demanded a committee which might take all important matters into consideration. I said that time was pressing, that the enemy was arming, and that prompt measures could alone defend the realm. No more than three days were necessary for appointing such a committee, and the Reverend Estate of
Clergy, the Worshipful Estate of Burgesses, and the Honorable Estate of Bondes have obeyed the law with the same devotion to myself and their country, which has animated their brethren in the provinces. But ye, my good lords and gentlemen, so far from setting an example to your colleagues of the other Estates, have persisted in unnecessary debates on subjects which do not fall within your scope, subjects, moreover, which the times, our circumstances, and the condition of the country should have made you pass over in silence, as only tending to excite uneasiness, cause delay, and thereby promote the intrigues and interests of our enemies.

"Who is there that does not here recognize once more that old spirit of license which has so long been lurking among us; which has sought so diligently to turn from me the hearts of my people; which has misrepresented all my doings, yes, even the most innocent, as dangerous; which under the name of liberty would reinstate the old aristocratic tyranny? Who does not recognize once more those self-same persons who, during their dominion, ruled the land with an iron sceptre; who cannot bear to look back upon the sixteen years of my indulgent sway; who force me to speak a language so alien to my nature; and who, finally, when they find it impossible, ye good and worthy men of the three lower Estates, to shake your devotion to me, try to terrify you with the word Absolutism—that odious word which I so freely abjured—and would fain brand as a tyrant him who, after being for three days the most absolute monarch in Europe, freely renounced his power, content only to put
an end to anarchy and license. I therefore declare to you from my throne, for the second time (and I am surprised that I should have to make such a declaration at all), that I never will accept absolute power, and that if the progress of disorder should place it again in my hands, I never will retain it. I declare that I hold it the highest honor to be the champion of true freedom; but that I consider it the first of my duties, as the head of the State, to quell and crush license, and not for an instant to suffer that they who laid presumptuous hands upon my father's crown should wrest from me the sceptre. I must not permit a mere fraction of the nation to forward the interests of our enemies by a calculated obstruction.

"For, I declare before you all, that if I am not enabled, and that right speedily, to pay and clothe my army and get my fleet afloat; I declare that if, in consequence thereof, our coasts are ravaged, Finland is devastated, and this capital is threatened, it will be no fault of mine; no, it will be their fault who would rather welcome the Russians in Stockholm, and see a Russian ambassador dictate peace to me here, than forego their vindictive ambition, and who hope by means of these long delays to force upon me a dishonorable peace—a peace which you, ye good men of the three Estates, would one day reproach my memory with as an infamy, as a crime against the State, and a stigma upon the great name which I have the honor to bear. But rather let this right hand dry up and wither than sign anything which would bring dishonor upon my country; rather let this crown, the crown of Gustavus Adolphus, be torn from my brow.
and broken to pieces, than that I should give it back, if not as glorious, at least as unblemished, as he left it. And let me tell you, my good lords and gentlemen, that you will be responsible for it to your country, if, by reason of your dissensions and your usurpations, you waste such precious time, or mislead your fellow subjects by the terrors you would spread abroad. I have not deserved such treatment at your hands, my good lords, nor could I have imagined such treatment possible from those whom I have hitherto in so many ways preferred before their fellow Estates—those faithful servants who did not forsake me in the hour of need, who left their homes to a man to defend their country and their King, while ye did naught but blame and mock their zeal. All these things I have endured with patience so long as your unruliness did not presume too far; but now you compel me to speak out and declare to you my will, which is that you give due satisfaction to your Marshal, that you apologize to him for what you have done, and that you strike from your protocols all record of these illegal and disloyal debates. You will therefore forthwith depart from hence to the Riddarhus, there you will form a deputation, headed by the premier peer of Sweden, and of this deputation, you Count Axel von Fersen, you Baron Carl de Geer, and all the rest of you whose names appear in the Marshal’s complaint, will form part. You will then apologize to him, as in duty bound, for what has happened, and respectfully conduct him back to his presidential chair, where he will cause to be erased from your protocols all record of these irregular proceedings.”
Finally when confusion and objections began to be heard, he rapped with his sceptre on the table and ordered the nobles to leave the throne-room, a command which they after some hesitation obeyed. Gustavus III. now addressed the non-privileged Estates and offered them advantages and privileges and requested them to appoint a committee with which he could consult. The committee was appointed and the King presented certain amendments to the constitution called, "The Act of Unity and Security," by which he gave the non-privileged classes new advantages. The new constitution made the sovereign almost absolute and independent. In order to force the Riksdag to adopt this constitution, the King proceeded to extremes by arresting the opposition leaders of the nobility. He thereupon called the Estates to meet him in the throne-room and requested them to adopt this "Act of Unity and Security." The nobility answered, "No." On the other hand were heard strong shouts of approval and cries of "Yes" from the non-privileged Estates, more particularly from the Bondes. The non-privileged Estates ordered their speakers to sign the act, the President of the House of Nobles signed it also, but many of the nobles protested. The questions concerning the government debts and the new appropriations were next in order. Olaf Vallquist proposed that the Estates should assume the government debts, which now amounted to twenty-one million riks dollars and that a committee should be appointed to examine the same. The appropriations which were passed by the non-privileged Estates were in compliance with the wishes of the King
and were to continue for an indefinite period, since the constitution did not provide when the next Riksdag should assemble. The nobility on the contrary refused to submit peacefully until Gustavus III. appeared in their House and, addressing them in a conciliatory manner succeeded in obtaining a kind of assent.

Gustavus III. had thus forced his plans through, but only by a long series of illegal acts and in a way by violent measures. The new revolution brought with it many unfortunate consequences both for its originator and for the country. This much good however followed in its train, that the condition of the bondes was much improved and the barriers between the privileged or upper classes and the masses were removed. A law was passed permitting members of the non-privileged classes to hold crown property. The "Act of Unity and Security" gave the Sovereign authority to make war and peace, and endowed him as well with absolute power in governing generally. A Supreme Court of Appeals was established to execute the decrees of the Monarch in place of the Council. The King had authority to appoint as his councillors any persons he chose. The former Council was dissolved and a new body was appointed. The Estates were deprived by this "Act of Unity and Security" of the right to propose new laws, and the right to vote appropriations was alluded to in very indefinite phraseology.

The King was now in the possession of power which he considered necessary for a vigorous prosecution of the war. In the summer of 1789, the war was recommenced both on land and on sea. The land
forces were victorious in several minor battles, partly under command of Gustavus III. in person, and partly under command of General Stedingk, but the principal engagements occurred at sea. The great fleet commanded by Prince Charles found the Russian fleet near Oland and attacked it, but the battle proved indecisive. A fleet of coasting war vessels, under command of Carl August Ehrensvard, alone protected the coasts of Finland. He was suddenly attacked from two sides by a superior Russian force and after a most stubborn resistance was compelled to yield. The heroic commander Ehrensvard was treated by his Master as if he had won a brilliant victory, and he deserved it, for against great odds he saved his squadron.

Gustavus III. made every preparation for continuing the war in the Spring of 1790 and especially for ensuring the success of his navy. He intended that the Swedish fleet should advance into the Baltic earlier than the Russian and if possible strike a decisive blow before the Russian fleet had been collected. In the Spring the Swedish navy, commanded by Prince Charles, proceeded first to Reval and there attacked the Russian fleet, but was unsuccessful on account of a violent storm. The King, however, who commanded the coasting vessels in person was more successful and gained a victory over the Russian fleet at Fredrikshamn, but he now made the great mistake of allowing the whole Swedish fleet to go into the Bay of Viborg. This gave the Russian fleet, which was scattered, an opportunity of re-uniting, which it did, and then lay in wait outside for the Swedish fleet
which thus became practically prisoners. The Swedish fleet was shut up for about four weeks without a possibility of escape. The Russians thought they had it in a trap. At length a heavy east wind arose and the King decided with its assistance to break through the enemy's line. This undertaking has been called "running the gauntlet at Viborg", and was successful although attended with heavy loss, and the fleet made its way to Sveaborg. The coasting squadron on the other hand which had suffered less, remained at Svensksund and there waited for the more powerful Russian coast-defence-ships. The King commanded in person and, under him, Cronstedt. The battle was most desperate, lasting for two days, and resulted in the Russian fleet being completely destroyed. This brilliant victory saved the war reputation of Gustavus III. and probably his crown, preserved Finland to Sweden, and brought about an early peace. Gustavus saw that he could not rely upon assistance from Prussia and England. He therefore opened negotiations with the Empress of Russia, and peace was finally agreed upon at the village of Varala in 1790. Everything was restored to the same position as before the war. Sweden had made great sacrifices and lost heavily both in soldiers and money, but she had also raised her reputation and asserted her independence by freeing herself from the further interference of Russia in her internal affairs. After the war was over the conspirators of the Anjala mutiny were punished. The King was lenient, however, and mercy prevailed, so only one of the guilty, Colonel Henric Hastesko, suffered capital punishment.
The last years of Gustavus III.—By this treaty of peace with Russia, Gustavus III. had estranged himself from his former allies—Turkey, Prussia, and England; and so far as France was concerned, she had for some time been unable to give Sweden any aid. The same year that Gustavus III. carried through his last revolution and became an absolute monarch, the French revolution broke out, which shook the social fabric of France to its foundation and overthrew her monarchy entirely. In order not to stand alone in such troublous times, Gustavus approached his former enemy the Empress of Russia and made a treaty with her which secured to Sweden certain considerable subsidies. Gustavus had other objects in view as well. He desired Catherine of Russia to join him in a great undertaking which he was now planning, namely to aid the French monarch and put down the French revolution. He considered this to be his duty, as he was under many obligations to Louis XVI. To come in closer touch with the King of France, Gustavus made a journey to Aix under the pretense of taking the baths for his health. There he gathered around himself many of the French emigrants and drew up a plan according to which he was to place himself at the head of a Swedish and Russian army, in Flanders or Normandy, and thence march direct on Paris.

The revenue was one of the most important subjects occupying the attention of the Swedish government at this time. The country had contracted an enormous debt by the war, amounting now to about thirty-three million riks dollars. The King found
himself in an embarrassing condition and was obliged to call a new Riksdag in 1792. This Riksdag passed off quietly, the nobility putting curb on their hostility, and the Estates assumed the debt incurred during the late war.

During the Riksdag of 1789, Gustavus III. had become an object of the most bitter hatred of the nobles. The cooler heads and more sensible among them decided to await better times, but there existed a large class of persons who had imbibed the ideas of the French revolution, were restless and unreasonable, and ready for any extreme measures. Some of these did not hesitate at laying plans to kill the ruler and through his death prepare the way for a new revolution. A widespread conspiracy was formed whose leaders were General Pechlin, an old intriguer and an unscrupulous demagogue, besides the Counts Ribbing and Horn, and other less conspicuous persons. They found a willing tool in Capt. Jacob Johan Anckarstrom, a visionary, and an enemy to the King.

On the 16th of March, 1792, a great masquerade ball took place at the royal theatre in Stockholm. Gustavus III., who delighted in such amusements, appeared in the garb of a monk. He had previously been warned not to be present at the ball, but paid no heed to the warning. Attired in his fancy costume he mixed with the dancers, but had not proceeded far down the ball-room before he was surrounded by a number of people wearing black masks. Suddenly the report of a pistol was heard. The King exclaimed, "I am wounded, seize him!" The conspirators rushed towards the doors crying "Fire!" But the doors were
instantly closed and locked and no one escaped until each had given his name. The King, wounded and bleeding, was assisted from the ball-room into an adjoining room and finally removed to the palace. The following day the murderer was discovered by the identification of his pistol which he had thrown away in the ball-room. It was at first supposed that the wound of the King was not mortal, but blood poisoning set in suddenly and after great suffering he died on the 29th of March, when only 46 years of age. Thus sadly ended the brilliant and unstable rule of Gustavus III. People vary in their estimate of the benefits conferred by this ruler upon mankind. By his friends he was almost worshipped. His enemies could find no language strong enough wherewith to blacken his memory. But he deserves praise rather than reproach from the Swedish people.

Gustavus III. was one of the most gifted rulers that ever sat on the throne of Sweden. The fatherland is indebted to him for her national independence. Her spiritual, intellectual and moral development owes more to him than to any other monarch, while to his peculiar education, his vivid imagination, and the influence of the times, are due the many errors and mistakes which he made. His character was a wonderful combination of conflicting attributes. He possessed superior abilities and genius, a gentle and lofty character and a burning love for his fatherland, but he was also changeable and restless, vain and fond of pleasures and enjoyments, and absolutely lacking in respect for the law in its established forms.
When he ascended the throne of Sweden a new era began in the Swedish literature and fine arts, an era when many literary men won undying fame. Gustavus himself was richly gifted, and he appreciated and encouraged all who possessed similar talents. His taste was cultivated, and his mind was open to everything beautiful. He was one of the most eloquent speakers and orators in his kingdom. In general he paid homage to the French taste which at that time seemed to rule and pervade intellectual circles, but at the same time he was a Swede in spirit, and he was enthusiastic for the development of his own country. He loved the historical monuments of Sweden, her language and literature. In 1786 he established the Swedish Academy, the Academy of Letters, History and Antiquity, and the Swedish Theatre.

The Swedish Academy, which consisted of 18 members, was founded in order to preserve Swedish literature and the purity of the language. The duties of the Academy of Antiquity were to care for the historical and archeological monuments of Sweden. The Swedish Theatre was the object of the King's greatest interest. He erected a beautiful opera house in the capital, and he glorified the great events in Swedish history by encouraging their representation in dramas and tragedies, of several of which he was himself the author. The royal author gathered around him a brilliant circle of men of genius and talent; poets, historians and literary men were encouraged by him. Many of these had been trained after the model of the French school. Such were Counts G. P. Creutz and J. G. Oxenstjerna and Kellgren and Leo-
pold. These were quick and witty as poets and as critics able and severe. Other poets pursued their own path independent of the taste governing the literary world. Such were Bellman, Lidner, Thorild, Lenn- gren and others.

The fine arts had by this time taken deep root in the Swedish soil. Gustavus III. made great sacrifices for architecture, and many beautiful buildings and palaces were erected during his rule. The art of painting and kindred subjects made long strides. Music was encouraged by the establishment of the Academy of Music. Highest among all, however, rose the art of sculpture, which was then represented by Sergel, a man of brilliant genius, who was during that time considered Europe's greatest sculptor. Several eminent scientific men adorned this reign, among them T. Bergman and Scheele the renowned chemists, and Bargentine, a most prominent astronomer and statistician. Hallenberg made a name for himself through his historical researches.
A history of Sweden would not be complete without some account of Emanuel Swedenborg, one of the most peculiar characters of the age. A Swede by birth, he was in sympathy with his countrymen all his life, although he spent a great deal of his time abroad. He is also the only Swede who has laid the foundation of a religious belief, separate and distinct from others, and possessing individual characteristics. Further, no other Swedish author has written so voluminously as he, though it would be strange if among such a vast flood of thoughts committed to writing, seeming contradictions and obscure passages could not be found.
Emanuel Swedenborg was born at Stockholm on January 29, 1688. His father, Jasper Svedberg, bishop of Skara, was a pious, learned, and a brave man, who did not escape the charge of heterodoxy, and believed himself to be in constant intercourse with angels. Emanuel as a child shared his father's piety, and his parents thought that "angels spoke through him." His education embraced the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, and, above all, mathematics with the natural sciences, but seems to have been curiously defective in theology. Endowed with unusual intellectual powers and an iron constitution, he acquired vast stores of learning in all these branches. Having completed his university course at Upsala, in 1710 he commenced the customary European tour which was considered a necessary part of a liberal education, visiting England, Holland, France and Germany, and devoting himself particularly to the study of natural philosophy, and to the perfecting of his already great proficiency in Latin composition. In 1715 he returned to Upsala, and devoted himself to natural science and various engineering works. From 1716 to 1718 he published a scientific periodical which contained a record of mechanical inventions and mathematical discoveries. About this time he was introduced to Charles XII, who appointed him assessor in the Swedish college of mines. Two years later he distinguished himself at the King's siege of Frederikshald by the invention of machines for the transportation of boats and galleys overland from Stromstad to Iddefjord, a distance of fourteen English miles. The same year he published
various mathematical and mechanical works. At the death of Charles XII. Queen Ulrika elevated him and his family to the rank of nobility, by which his name was changed from Svedberg to Swedenborg. The next years were devoted to the duties and studies connected with his office, which involved visits to the Swedish, Saxon, Bohemian, and Austrian mines. In 1724 he was offered the chair of mathematics in the university of Upsala, which he declined. Gradually his inquiring and philosophical mind led him to wider studies than those of his profession. As early as 1721 he was seeking to lay the foundation of a scientific explanation of the universe, when he published several important treatises, all in Latin, which contained his view of the first principles of the universe. The same year other philosophical works followed which treat of the relation of the finite to the infinite and of the soul to the body, seeking to establish a connection in each case as a means of overcoming the difficulty of their relation. From this time forth he applied himself to the problem of discovering the nature of the soul and spirit by means of anatomical studies. He sought the most eminent teachers on the Continent, and consulted the best books dealing with the human frame, and published, as the result of his inquiries, among other works, his Economia Regni Animalis and Regnum Animale. But a profound change was coming over him, which was to transform the scientific inquirer into the supernaturalist prophet. Neither by geometrical, nor physical, nor metaphysical principles had he succeeded in reaching and grasping the infinite and the spiritual, or in elucidating their relation to
man and man's organism, though he had caught glimpses of facts and methods which he thought only required confirmation and development. Late in life he wrote that "he was introduced by the Lord first into natural sciences, and after being thus prepared, had the heavens opened to him." This latter great event is variously described by him as "the opening of his spiritual sight," "the manifestation of the Lord to him in person," "his introduction into the spiritual world." Before his illumination he had been instructed by dreams, and enjoyed extraordinary visions, and heard mysterious conversations. According to his own account, the Lord filled him with His own spirit in order that he might teach the doctrines of the New Church as a revelation from Himself. He commissioned him to do this work, opened the sight of his spirit, and so admitted him into the spiritual world, permitting him to see the heavens and the hells, and to converse with angels and spirits for years; but he himself never received anything relating to the doctrines of the church from any angel but from the Lord alone while he was reading the word. He elsewhere speaks of his office as principally an opening of the spiritual sense of the word. The Lord appeared to him and said, "I am God, the Lord, the Creator and Redeemer of the world. I have chosen thee to unfold the spiritual sense of the Holy Scriptures. I will Myself dictate to thee what thou shalt write," (The Divine Love and Divine Wisdom.) From that time he gave up all worldly learning, and laboured solely to expound spiritual things. But it was some time before he became quite at home in the spiritual world. In the year 1747 he resigned his post
as assessor of the college of mines that he might devote himself to his higher vocation, requesting only to be allowed to receive as a pension the half of his salary. He took up his studies of Hebrew afresh and began his voluminous works on the interpretation of the Scriptures. The principal of these is the Arcana Coelestia which profess to have been derived entirely by direct illumination from Jehovah Himself, and not from any spirit or angel. In 1763 appeared his Divine Love and Divine Wisdom containing the most philosophical brief account of the principles of the New Church.

Swedenborg won the respect, confidence and love of all who came in contact with him. Though people might disbelieve his visions, they feared to ridicule them in his presence. His manner of life was simple in the extreme; his diet consisted chiefly of bread, coffee and milk. He paid no attention to the distinction of day and night, and sometimes lay for days together in a trance, while his servants were often disturbed at night by hearing what he called his conflicts with the evil spirits. But his intercourse with spirits was often perfectly calm, taking place in broad daylight and with all his faculties awake.

Several instances are related by him, how he was admitted into the unseen world where he beheld God face to face, and was, as it were, spiritually admitted into communion with spiritual objects, angels, and departed spirits. To thoughtful men this may not appear so unreasonable. The prophets and apostles relate their visions and dreams, and their admission into the spiritual world where they beheld wondrous things spiritual which they describe as corresponding to
things and persons temporal, as spiritual things can only be described by a similarity to, or correspondence with things and objects temporal and mortal.

The Theosophy of Swedenborg.—The Theosophic system of Swedenborg as contained in his writings, but more particularly in his Divine Love and Divine Wisdom, is briefly as follows:

Divine Love and Divine Wisdom.—Love is the life of man. Consequently God alone, the Lord, is love itself because He is life itself, and the angels and the men who enjoy His presence are the recipients of life. The Divine fills all space and gives life unto every living being. God is in every man, and his existence is distinctly one; from Him all things are, and He reveals Himself by love and wisdom. The Divine love is of the Divine wisdom, and the Divine wisdom of the Divine love. They are substance and forms, consequently they are self-existing and sole-substituting beings. This Divine love and Divine wisdom cannot but be and exist in other beings or existences created from Itself. All things in the universe were created from the Divine love and the Divine wisdom of God-man. All things in the created universe are recipients of the Divine love and the Divine wisdom of God-man. The uses of all created things ascend by degrees from ultimates to man and through man to God the Creator from whom they had their origin.

The Divine Attributes.—In the Lord there are three things, which constitute the Lord—the Divine of love, the Divine of wisdom, and the Divine of use—and these three are represented in appearance out of the sun of the spiritual world, the Divine of love by heat,
the Divine of wisdom by light, and the Divine of use by the atmosphere, which is the continent of heat and light, which produce love and wisdom.

The Spiritual Sun.—The Divine love and the Divine wisdom appear in the spiritual world as a sun, the heat and light proceeding from the sun, which exists from the Divine love and the Divine wisdom. The sun is not God, but it is the proceeding from the Divine love and the Divine wisdom of God-man. In like manner the heat and light from the sun, the spiritual heat and spiritual light, in proceeding from the Lord as a sun, make one, as His Divine love and Divine wisdom make one. The sun of the spiritual world appears in a middle altitude, distant from the angels as the sun of the natural world is from the men. The distance between the sun and the angels in the spiritual world is in appearance according to the reception of the Divine love and the Divine wisdom of them.

The existence of another sun than that of the natural world has hitherto been unknown, because the spiritual principle of man has sunk so far into his natural, that he did not know what the spiritual is, nor, consequently, that there is a spiritual world. “But,” continues Swedenborg, “it has pleased the Lord to open the sight of my spirit, that I might see the things which are in that world, as I see the things which are in this, and afterwards describe the same to mankind.”

The Angels.—The angels are in the Lord and the Lord in them; and as the angels are recipients, the Lord alone is heaven. In the spiritual world the east is where the Lord appears as a sun, and the other quar-
ters are determined thereby. The quarters in the spiritual world do not originate from the Lord as the sun, but from the angels according to reception. All the angels constantly turn their faces to the Lord as a sun. All the interiors both of the minds and of the bodies of angels are turned to the Lord as a sun and every spirit, whatever be his quality, turns in like manner to his ruling love. The Divine love and the Divine wisdom, which proceed from the Lord as a sun, and cause heat and light in heaven, constitute the Proceeding Divine, which is the Holy Spirit. The Lord created the universe and all things in it by means of the sun, which is the first proceeding of the Divine love and the Divine wisdom. The sun of the natural world is pure fire and therefore has no spiritual life, and since nature derives its origin from the sun, it also can have no spiritual life, and without two suns, one spiritually living and the other spiritually dead, there can be no creation. The end and object of creation is, that all things may return to the Creator.

The Spiritual World.—In the spiritual world there are atmospheres, waters and earths, as in the natural world; but the former are spiritual whereas the latter are natural. There are degrees of love and wisdom, and thence degrees of heat and light, and degrees of atmospheres, with degrees of two kinds, degrees of altitude and degrees of latitude. The degrees of altitude are homogeneous, one derived from another in a series, alike in end, cause and effect. The first degree is all in all. All perfections increase and ascend by degrees and according to degrees. Proceeding in successive order, the first degree constitutes the highest,
and the third the lowest; but in simultaneous order the first degree constitutes the inmost, the third the outermost. The ultimate degree is the complex, continent, and basis of the prior degrees, and the degrees of altitude in their ultimate are in their fullness and their power. There are degrees of both kinds in the greatest and least of all created things. There are three infinite and uncreated degrees of altitude in the Lord, and three finite or created degrees in man. These three degrees are in every man from his birth and may be opened successively, and as they are opened a man is in the Lord and the Lord in him. The spiritual light flows into a man by three degrees, but not spiritual heat, except so far as he avoids evils as sins and looks to the Lord. If the superior or spiritual degree is not opened in a man, he becomes natural and sensual.

The Creation.—The Lord from eternity, who is Jehovah, created the universe and all things from Himself and not from nothing. The Lord from all eternity, or Jehovah, could not have created the universe and all things therein if He were not a personality. The Lord from all eternity, or Jehovah, produced from Himself the sun of the spiritual world and from it created the universe and all things therein.

All things in the universe were created from the Divine love and the Divine wisdom, and we shall now show that it was by means of the sun which is the first proceeding of the Divine love and the Divine wisdom. No one who can see effects by virtue of causes, and afterwards, effects derived from causes in their order and series, can deny that the sun is the first beginning of creation, for all things in the under world subsist
from it, and since they subsist from it, they also exist from it. The one implies and testifies the other; for they are all under its view, because it has determined and disposed them for existence, and therefore subsistence is a perpetual existence. Now since the subsistence of the universe, and of all things in it, depends on the sun, it is evident that the sun is the first of creation and that all other things proceed from it. The expression, from the sun, means from the Lord through the sun, for the sun also was created from the Lord.

There are two suns by which all things were created from the Lord, the sun of the spiritual world, and the sun of the natural world; all things were created from the Lord by the sun of the spiritual world, and not by the sun of the natural world; for the latter is far below the former, and in a mean distance; the spiritual world is above it; and the natural world is beneath it; and the sun of the natural world was created to act as a medium or substitute.

The Universe, and all things therein, were created because the sun is a proximate proceeding of the Divine love and the Divine wisdom, and from the Divine love and the Divine wisdom all things exist. There are three attributes in every created thing, as well in the greatest as in the lowest, namely, end, cause, and effect. There is no created thing in which these three do not exist. In the universe these three exist in the following order: The end of all things is in the sun, which is a proximate proceeding of the Divine love and the Divine wisdom; the causes of all things are in the spiritual world; and the effects of all things are in the natural world.
thing in which these three do not exist, it follows that the universe, and everything in it, was created from the Lord by the sun, which is in it, the end of all things.

The Creation of Man.—We read that man was created in the image of God, according to his likeness; the image of God there means the Divine wisdom, and the likeness of God, the Divine love; wisdom being no other than the image of love, for love makes itself to be seen and known in wisdom; consequently, wisdom is its image. Love is the esse of life, and wisdom is the existere of life therefrom. The likeness and image of God appears plainly in the angels; love shines forth from within in their faces, and wisdom in their beauty; and beauty is the form of their love; "this," says Swedenborg, "I have seen and known."

The Human Mind.—The natural degree of the human mind, considered in itself, is continuous, but by correspondence with the two superior degrees, while it is elevated, it appears as if it were discrete. The natural mind, being of the tegument and continent of the higher degrees of the human mind, is a re-agent, and if the superior degrees are not opened, it acts against them, but if they are opened, it acts with them. The abuse of the faculties which are proper to man, called rationality and liberty, is the origin of evil. A bad man enjoys these two faculties as well as a good man, but a bad man uses these faculties to confirm evils and falses, and a good man uses them to confirm goods and truths. Evils and falses when confirmed remain and become part of a man’s love and life. The things which become part of a man’s love, and thence
of his life, are communicated hereditarily to his offspring. All evils and consequent falses, both hereditary and acquired, reside in the natural mind. These evils and falses are entirely opposed to goods and truths, because evils and falses are diabolical and infernal, and goods and truths are divine and heavenly. The natural mind which is in evils and consequent falses is a form and image of hell. The natural mind which is a form or image of hell descends by three degrees. These three degrees of the natural mind which is a form and image of hell are opposed to the degrees of the spiritual mind which is a form and image of heaven. The natural mind which is a hell, is in complete opposition to the spiritual mind, which is a heaven. All things of the three degrees of the natural mind are included in works which are performed by acts of the body.

Swedenborg, all through his writings, lays special stress upon the formation of man's character in this life. Character abides. A man's spiritual character begins to form its tendencies in this life, and such as its formations and developments are here in this life, as such it will continue to develop in the world of the spirits hereafter. The spirit departs from the body with all the accumulations of tendencies and habits and qualities which the years have given during life. When the soul stands on the threshold of the world of spirits, it is not a question of how illustrious it has been, or what fame or achievements were secured, but what were its tendencies? Were they towards the good, noble and true, toward the good Lord grounded in love and wisdom, or the reverse? A spirit with
character made divine here, will ascend by degrees in the world hereafter. Love and wisdom correspond to the will and understanding which constitute man's very life. Such as the love is, such is the wisdom, and hence such is the man.

God's Gifts to Man.—All good gifts in man are from the Lord, and there are none in man except from the Lord. A man cannot do good from himself, but from the Lord. The essence of spiritual love is to do good to others, not for the sake of self, but for the sake of others; infinitely more so is the essence of Divine love. This is like the love of parents toward children, unselfish and self-denying. The Lord loves worship, not for self, but for man, because the latter thereby comes into such a state that he becomes the recipient of the Divine love and Divine wisdom.

It appears as if the Divine were not the same in one man as in another. Not so. Man is different, but the Divine in him is identical. Man is a recipient, and recipients or receptacles are various; a wise man is more adequately, and therefore more fully, a recipient of the Divine love and Divine wisdom than a simple man, and an old man, who is wise, more so than an infant and a boy; but nevertheless the Divine is the same in the one that it is in the other.

The Intermediate State.—Swedenborg makes an intermediate state to exist for man between death and his final enjoyment of heavenly bliss. Every man after death first enters the world of spirits, which is situated in the midst between Heaven and Hades, and there goes through his times or states, and according to his life is prepared either for Heaven or for Hades.
So long as he abides in that world he is called a spirit; he who is taken up from that world into Heaven is called an angel; but he who is cast down into Hades is called a satan or a devil. So long as the same are in the world of spirits, he who is preparing for Heaven is called an angelic spirit, and he who is preparing for Hades, an infernal spirit. The angelic spirit in the meantime is in conjunction with Heaven, and the infernal spirit with Hades. All the spirits of the world of spirits are adjoined to men, because men, as to the interiors of their minds, are in like manner between Heaven and Hades, and there these spirits communicate with Heaven or with Hades, according to their life. It is to be observed that the world of spirits is one thing, and the spiritual world another; a world of spirits is what is now spoken of; but the spiritual world in the complex is both that world, the Heaven and the Hades and Hell.

The Trinity.—In the doctrine of the New Jerusalem concerning the Lord, it has been shown that God is one in person, and in essence; that there is a Trinity in Him, and that God is the Lord: also that His Trinity is called Father, Son and Holy Spirit, and that the Divine, from whom all things are, is called the Father, the Divine Human the Son, and the Divine Proceeding the Holy Spirit. Although the latter is called the Divine Proceeding, yet no one knows why it is called Proceeding: this is unknown, because it is also unknown that the Lord appears before the angels as a sun, and that heat, which in its essence is divine love, and light, which in its essence is divine wisdom, proceed from that sun. These truths being unknown, it was im-
possible to know that the Divine Proceeding was not Divine by itself, and thus the Athanasian doctrine of the Trinity declares, that there is one person of the Spirit; but when it is known that the Lord appears as a sun, a just idea may be had of the Divine Proceeding, or the Holy Spirit, as being one with the Lord, yet Proceeding from Him, as heat and light from the sun, which is the reason why the angels are in divine heat and divine light, in the same proportion as they are in love and wisdom. No one who is ignorant that the Lord appears in the spiritual world as a sun, and that His Divine Spirit proceeds from Him in this manner, could have known what is meant by Proceeding, whether it only means, communicating those things which are of the Father and the Son, or illuminating and teaching. Still, even in this case, there is no ground for enlightened reason to acknowledge the Divine Proceeding as separately Divine, and to call it God, and to make distinction when it is known that God is one, and that He is omnipresent.

That the Holy Spirit is identical with the Lord, and that it is the essential truth which enlightens man, is evident from the following passages of the word in the Bible: "Jesus said, when the Spirit of truth is come, He will guide you into all truth; He shall not speak of Himself; but whatsoever He shall hear that shall He speak." "He shall glorify me; for He shall receive of mine, and shall show it unto you." John xvi., 13, 14, 15. "That He shall be with the disciples, and in them." John xvii., 26. "Jesus said, the words that I speak unto you, they are spirit, and they are life," John vi., 63. From these passages it is evi-
dent, that the truth which proceeds from the Lord is called the Holy Spirit; which enlightens because it is in the light.

The enlightenment, which is attributed to the Holy Spirit, is indeed from the Lord in man,—the Lord Human—but still it is effected through the medium of spirits or angels. The nature of this mediation cannot yet be described, only that angels and spirits are by no means able to enlighten man from themselves, because they like man are enlightened by the Lord, and as this is the case, hence the enlightenment comes from the Lord alone. It is communicated through the medium of angels or spirits, because a man who is in enlightenment is then placed in the midst of such angels and spirits who receive more enlightenment than others from the Lord alone.

God's Omnipresence.—It appears that God is omnipresent; also that the Divine is the same everywhere, but that the apparent variety thereof is in angels and men by reason of their various reception. Now, since the Divine, which proceeds from the Lord as a sun, is in light and heat, and heat and light flow first into universal recipients, which in the world are the atmospheres, and as these are the recipients of clouds, it may appear that according as the interiors which belong to the understanding in a man or an angel are overshadowed with such clouds, so he is a receptacle of the Divine Proceeding. By clouds are meant spiritual clouds, which are thoughts, and which, if they are grounded in truths, accord with Divine wisdom, but if in false, disagree therewith; wherefore also thoughts grounded in truths, when presented to the
sight in the spiritual world, appear as white clouds, and those grounded in false principles, as black clouds. Hence it may appear that the Divine Proceeding is indeed in every man, but that it is variously veiled by each.

Since the Divine itself is present in angels and men by spiritual heat and light, therefore it is said of those who are in the truths of Divine wisdom, and in the good of Divinelove, when they are affected thereby, and under the influence thereof think of them from that affection, that they grow warm with God, which also happens sometimes to perception and sensation, as when a preacher speaks from zeal; because the Lord by His Divine Proceeding, both enkindles the will with spiritual heat, and enlightens the understanding with spiritual light.

Two subjects of special interest, pertaining to Swedenborg's claims as a seer may here be referred to.

I. His Doctrine of Correspondence.—Swedenborg, like many great students and thinkers before him, after studying the Bible and the natural sciences reached the conclusion that the biblical account of the creation of the world is apparently not in harmony with scientific discoveries. They have, therefore, attempted to give some plausible explanation thereof, and to harmonize the apparent conflicts between the two. Swedenborg, of an intensely religious character, and also one of the greatest scientific men, in order to harmonize the Bible with science, concluded that the words of the Bible had both a literal meaning and an inner or spiritual meaning, which is the principal, and real one. Having reached this conclusion
he worked out his doctrine of correspondence, and thus explained the Holy Scriptures. While the prophets and apostles had some insight into this divine light, Swedenborg claimed that he was the first to whom the Lord revealed this great mystery, and he was directed to write and communicate this knowledge to men. He was to lay the foundation for the new church of the New Jerusalem.

II. Swedenborg's power of Spiritual vision. These were of several kinds.

1. One of Swedenborg's claims was, that his spirit was permitted to visit the spirits of another world, the blessed as well as the damned, and from what he heard and saw in that world he acquired knowledge of natural and supernatural things.

2. At other times, the spirits of the departed visited Swedenborg, sometimes in the day time, when he appeared to his personal surroundings to be conversing with his spirit visitors, though nothing was visible; these spirit visitations were made by his departed personal friends, as well as by the ancient philosophers, poets, and other formerly eminent personages.

3. At other times he says he had communications with God directly, spirit to spirit, and that God opened his spiritual vision to behold spiritual things. Whilst he does not appear to have been acting as a spiritual medium, it is related of him that on certain occasions he told his surrounding friends what was going on in other parts of the world. It is related that after the death of the great genius and inventor, Christopher Polhem, Swedenborg attended the funeral,
and in the procession to the grave, Polhem's spirit appeared by the side of Swedenborg, and engaged him in conversation concerning the past and present. Ehrenpreus, a State Councillor, is said to have visited Swedenborg shortly after his death, and to have informed him of the conditions in the world of spirits, and what he was doing there, and how he there obtained a full insight into justice and equity.

During the Swedish Riksdag of 1756, of which Swedenborg was a member, he and a few friends were in the former's garden, when an unknown youth rushed in, and insultingly asked Swedenborg to give him information of the status and doings of his late departed father. Swedenborg, replied "Sad to say, your father, as it seems, was of a class few of whom are of the blessed in the other world. Was not your father a preacher?" The youth flew into a passion, and attempted to draw his sword, but was disarmed and thrown out of the place.

On one occasion Swedenborg is said to have assured a sea captain of their speedy and safe voyage, when they were in despair, and in danger of being lost at sea.

Swedenborg often maintained that the spirits did not give any information of the things to come. The future is in the hand of the Lord God, who alone is omniscient, and none but He can reveal it to mortals.

It is related that on one occasion Swedenborg appeared among the guests at the court of Queen Louisa Ulrika, whose brother, August Wilhelm, had died suddenly in 1758. When the Queen saw Swedenborg she
asked him jokingly: "Have you seen my brother?" When he gave a negative reply, she said, "If you meet him, greet him for me," and thereupon she turned away to other guests. About a week afterwards, Swedenborg appeared at a reception earlier than usual, and addressing the Queen, said he had an important message for her. She replied it could be delivered in the presence of her attendants. He said that it was directed to her Majesty alone, and could only be delivered to her. Swedenborg then said, "Your Majesty has commanded me to greet your brother. This has been done, and as an evidence that your mission has been faithfully executed, he has confided to me the following: When your Majesty departed from Charlottenberg for Stockholm," giving date and hour, "you bade your brother farewell, but passing through the long gallery of the palace you again met your brother who took your hand, and you both went alone to the window apart from your suite, and where no one could hear your conversation, then the Prince whispered in your ear, and said: '——.'" Swedenborg then whispered in the Queen's ear what the Prince had on that occasion said. The Queen became very much excited, although no one heard what was said. She admitted that her conversation with the Prince was correctly told her by Swedenborg, and that he could not possibly have received the message from any living person except from the departed Prince.

On another occasion Swedenborg told the widow of the former Minister of Holland, who had suddenly died, all about the secret affairs of her husband, of
which he could not have had any previous knowledge.

On one occasion he had returned from England to Gothenburg, where he met several of his friends. While at the dinner table all were very happy; suddenly Swedenborg became much troubled and sad. When the host, Director Sahlgren, enquired for the cause, Swedenborg said that a great fire was just then raging in Stockholm, in the district where his own house was located. After a while, he said, “My house seems to be untouched by the flames.” After several days it was learned by post and newspapers that a great conflagration had raged in Stockholm at the time and place as described by Swedenborg, and had burned the district, leaving his house untouched, according to his account, although he was then several days’ journey away from the place of the catastrophe.

The foregoing, and many other incidents in the life of the great seer are vouched for by men who were known for their integrity and veracity.

Swedenborg was in good financial circumstances,—was never known to use his power for filthy lucre, like our modern spiritualists. His conduct was most exemplary, and he lived a quiet, Christian life.

His writings are very voluminous. In the “Biographical Lexicon of Illustrious Swedes,” Vol.16, pages 290-330 is found a good biography of Swedenborg, where a list of his works is also given, covering five pages, quarto, 275 lines. Large editions of his works have been published. After his death his unpublished writings were arranged in fifty-five large bundles and presented to the Swedish Academy of Science.
Swedenborg spent much of his latter life in London, where he died, March 29th, 1772. He was buried in the Swedish Church in that city.

He did not attempt to organize or establish a new church in his lifetime. This was done by his admirers afterwards. His followers have not been numerous in Sweden. He has both admirers and opponents in his native land, his opponents being more numerous, and they have been often unfair and exceedingly prejudiced in presentation of his teachings.

The Church of New Jerusalem, or Swedenborgianism, has been more successful in England and America, where many organizations exist.
GUSTAVUS IV. ADOLPHUS.
CHAPTER XXXVII.

GUSTAVUS IV. ADOLPHUS.

1792—1809.


The Regency During the Minority of Gustavus IV. Adolphus.—Prince Charles, brother of the deceased monarch, was by the testament of Gustavus III. appointed sole guardian of Gustavus IV. Adolphus, who was thirteen years of age at the time of his father’s
death. One of the first duties of the government after the death of the King was to punish the regicides. Although there were many concerned in the conspiracy, Jacob Johan Anckarstrom was the only one executed. The other conspirators were reprieved according to the last request of the dying King, but were punished some by exile and others by imprisonment.

Prince Charles was a patriotic and well meaning man, but possessed of little firmness of character; he was furthermore superstitious, a dreamer, and devoted much of his time to masonic and other secret society rituals. Many of his intimate friends exercised a great influence over him as he did not possess character enough to resist their ideas and domination. One of his special confidants was Baron Reuterholm who soon became his all powerful favorite and the real leader of the government of Sweden during the minority of the King. Reuterholm was an economical and industrious man, but no real statesman, and he was despotic, proud and selfish into the bargain. He had been one of the antagonists of Gustavus III. and thereafter broke away early from the system of government of the previous reign. Most of the advisers and friends of Gustavus III. were removed and had no further share in the government. The extravagant plans of the late King in connection with the French Revolution were entirely abandoned. The regency could not be persuaded to take part in the great coalition, which after the execution of Louis XVI. was organized against France. Denmark took the same neutral position as Sweden. Bernstorff, the prominent statesman, was at this time at the head of the Danish government.
The Empress of Russia vainly threatened to attack Sweden to bring her into the coalition, while the English government preyed upon and destroyed the merchant marine of the Northern kingdoms without any success in forcing them to take part against France. Threatened by mutual dangers the Northern monarchies approached each other and finally agreed to form what was called "the armed neutrality" for the protection of their commerce. The following year, 1794, the Swedish and Danish navies united to protect the northern waters against the naval forces of the coalition.

A party had been organized during the regency, who called themselves "The Gustavians." They were waiting with great impatience for the time when the young King should become of age and assume control of the government. One of them, the restless, intriguing Armfelt, who had been sent as Swedish Ambassador to Naples, had conceived a plan for overthrowing the present government with the assistance of a Russian fleet which was to appear in Swedish waters, and by force cause the friends of the old regime to be placed in office. The Empress of Russia hesitated to mix herself up in this undertaking and the Swedish government soon detected the conspiracy. The conspirators in Sweden were punished and Armfelt fled to Russia. In order to be protected against Russia, Sweden entered into an alliance with France, recognized the French Republic, and was in turn aided by subsidies. This brought about strained relations with Russia. In 1795 Russia had conquered Poland and put an end to her independence. The Empress of Russia now
threatened Sweden. Prince Charles, the regent, and Reuterholm felt themselves to be in a difficulty, and fearing that Sweden would be attacked, listened to the Empress' proposal that her granddaughter, Alexandra, should be married to the King of Sweden. It was arranged that the young King should make a personal visit to St. Petersburg. The young princess appeared to have made a favorable impression upon him, as he asked her hand in marriage. This proposal was exceedingly welcome to the Empress. The preliminaries were arranged and great preparations were made to have the betrothal announced on the occasion of a great court ball. During the preparations the Empress offended Gustavus IV. Adolphus by requesting a written guarantee from him that the future Queen should be permitted to worship unmolested according to the rites of the Greek church. The King positively refused to sign this guarantee. The whole court assembled and waited for several hours for him, but he did not appear and finally the festivities were broken up. No persuasion could induce Gustavus IV. Adolphus to change his mind. He returned to Sweden and the engagement was broken off. Shortly afterwards on the first of November, 1796, having come of age, he assumed the reins of government. The Empress Catharine II. of Russia died a few weeks later and was succeeded by her son, Paul.

The internal administration of the regency had in many respects been of great benefit to the country. The finances and the monetary system of the nation had been greatly improved by strict economy. Commerce was flourishing in consequence of the neutral
position which Sweden adopted during the great European wars. The fisheries on the western coast had been unusually prosperous. A corporation was organized to make the river Gota navigable by building a canal near Trollhattan. This canal was completed and opened in 1800. Military science was encouraged by the establishment of a military academy at the citadel of Carlberg. The established church of Sweden celebrated its jubilee commemorating the Synod of Upsala held two hundred years before, when Lutheranism became the established religion of the Swedish church.

The First Years of the Reign of Gustavus IV. Adolphus.—The young King ascended the throne at the age of eighteen and was received with general confidence by a rejoicing people. He had already made himself known as a young man of firmness of character, of regular habits, of economical tastes and of pure morals, but his many and great faults were as yet unknown. It is reported that Gustavus III. said concerning his son, "His end will be unfortunate, for he is narrow minded and selfish." The young King was exceedingly reserved as well as narrow minded, and vain in the extreme. His first step was to remove Reuterholm from the government. The previously all-powerful man was banished from the capital in disgrace and immediately left the fatherland. The former advisers of the King's father were again restored to influence and power, and the King's nearest advisers were henceforward Count Wachtmeister, Lord High Chancellor, General Toll and others. Negotiations with the Court of Russia for the marriage
of the Princess Alexandra to the King were again resumed, but they failed once more. Shortly afterwards he married the beautiful sixteen-year-old Princess Frederica of Baden, a sister of the wife of Grand Duke Alexander of Russia.

The general satisfaction which followed the first year of the reign of Gustavus IV. did not last long. During the following years the country was visited by a great failure of crops. The fisheries on the western coasts of Sweden failed, and commerce fell off and became embarrassed on account of the uncertainty of navigation. On this account great suffering and hard times followed. The paper money which was used as the medium of exchange fell to nearly half its value. Dissatisfaction, restlessness and complaints spread all over the country. On the top of this came the bitter spirit which the government exhibited toward the liberty of speech and the press, apparently fearing the inroad of the ideas of the French Revolution. The embarrassing position in which the country was placed compelled the government at last to take the necessary step of calling the Estates together in Riksdag, after it had sought to avoid doing so as long as possible. The Estates were called to meet in Riksdag at the city of Norrkoping in 1800. The King was crowned here with many festivities. On this occasion the "Act of security" was embodied in the oath of allegiance, which was on this occasion assented to by the nobility. The old opposition party among the nobility was henceforth dissolved, but in its place there appeared in the House of Nobles a number of young men who favored the new ideas of liberty promulgated by the
French Revolution, and they made persistent attacks on the royal absolutism. At the head of this new party organization were Hans Hjerta, George Adlersparre, A. F. Skoldebrand and many others. The struggle began when the secret committee presented the plans for appropriations in the House of Nobles. The President of the House of Nobles assisted by General Toll succeeded in carrying the plans of the government through, but only by fraud and the exercise of arbitrary power on the part of the presiding officers. The greatest indignation and tumult broke out in the House of Nobles. Some protested, others resigned their privileges as members of the Riksdag for the present, and five noblemen, among whom was Hans Hjerta, resigned their privileges as noblemen. This conduct of the House of Nobles exasperated the King and he became very adverse to the meeting of the Riksdag. The proposition of the government appeared to be entirely impracticable. A foreign loan was made and Wismar with its surroundings was placed with Mecklenburg-Schwerin as security for a loan of 1,500,000 riksdaler for one hundred years. This enabled the government to redeem the outstanding paper currency at two-thirds of its nominal value.

The relations between Sweden and foreign powers underwent several changes during these years. Gustavus IV. at first approached Russia, making a personal visit to consult the Czar on the subject of taking stringent measures against the tyranny of England at sea. The result was that the armed neutrality of the year 1780 between Russia, Sweden, Denmark and Prussia was revived in 1800. This was a blow which
touched England in her tenderest spot. She at once seized upon all the vessels of the allied powers in the English harbors, and as soon as navigation opened in the Spring, an English fleet went up to the Baltic for the purpose of breaking up the alliance. It first proceeded against Denmark, and before the Swedish fleet could come to the assistance of that country it had reached Copenhagen and after a bloody battle compelled the Danes to withdraw from the alliance of 1800. Thereupon the English fleet appeared in the harbor of Carlskrona to compel Sweden to separate from the alliance. Preparations were made to meet the attack when the information came that Paul, the Czar of Russia, had been assassinated, and that Alexander was ready to negotiate with England. All warlike demonstrations ceased, and after Russia had yielded to the demands of England, Sweden was in no position to continue the struggle, but had to yield also. The alliance between Russia and Sweden was thereupon dissolved. The two rulers, although brothers-in-law, viewed each other with suspicion and goaded each other on to all kinds of petty disputes.

Sweden at War with Napoleon.—The French Republic did not last very long. After several convulsions and party struggles the power passed into the masterful hand of Napoleon, and when the new ruler had concentrated the power in his own hands, being exceedingly ambitious and master of all the resources of France, he soon threatened the peace and security of Europe. Gustavus IV. of Sweden had at an early date approached Napoleon to ask his support against England, but his opinions changed entirely during a
visit which he and the Queen paid to her relatives in Baden in 1803-4. He was here surrounded by a host of French emigrants who flattered his vanity and endeavored in every way to arouse a feeling of dislike to Napoleon. His enmity was increased to the point of despising the ruler of France on the occasion when Napoleon caused the arrest of the French Prince, the Duke of Enghien, within the boundary of Baden, and thereupon caused him to be executed. Gustavus IV. from that time on nursed an irreconcilable hatred towards Napoleon. He considered him the scum of mankind. Yes, he regarded him as Anti-Christ himself, and thought that he recognized in him the wild beast described in the book of Revelation. He ceased all diplomatic relations with France and laid plans for bringing the whole of Europe in battle array against Napoleon in some way or another. In the meantime Napoleon had made himself Emperor of France. Gustavus IV. made approaches to the enemies of Napoleon—England and Russia—and when he returned to Sweden in the beginning of 1805 he joined the great coalition which was now organized against the French Emperor. In the Fall of the same year Gustavus IV. with a Swedish army crossed over to Pomerania where he wasted his time in unnecessary disputes, and when he at last advanced against Elbe it was too late. Napoleon had already worsted the Austrians and Russians at the battle of Austerlitz and compelled Austria to sign articles of peace. Gustavus IV. Adolphus retreated with his army to Pomerania and returned to Sweden at the moment when Prussia declared war against Napoleon. The scenes of the war were now,
in 1806, transformed to Northern Germany. Before the enemies of Napoleon had time to recover from their surprise he had won his great victory over Prussia at Jena and overran the country. The Swedish troops who were stationed at Lubeck were taken prisoners by the French Marshal Bernadotte, and another French army invaded Swedish Pomerania in 1807. As Napoléon for the present was anxious to gain the friendship of Sweden, the Swedish commander-in-chief succeeded in arranging a favorable armistice with the French Marshal Bernadotte, but nevertheless Gustavus IV. returned to Germany determined to continue the war, and although he had received news of Napoleon’s victory over Prussia and Russia, he was foolish enough to break the armistice. The result was that the French compelled the Swedes to vacate Pomerania and to cross over to the Island of Rugen where they were placed in a very dangerous position. General Toll was the man who brought the army safe out of the trap. He succeeded in persuading the King to return to Sweden and thereupon the general signed a stipulation with France whereby the Swedish army, consisting of 10,000 men, with all their ammunition and provisions, was permitted to return home unmolested.

The Czar Alexander was at last compelled to sue for terms from Napoleon. The two Emperors made peace at Tilsit the same year, 1807. This peace was followed by a secret treaty which contained a provision that if England should not yield, Russia should break with that power and adopt the continental system dictated by Napoleon, and at the same time compel Sweden
and Denmark to enter the alliance. The Czar of Russia, in violation of the treaty of alliance with these powers, abandoned them to their fate, waiting for the first opportunity to destroy either of them. The French Emperor was at this time short-sighted enough to abandon Sweden as a prey to Russia, when she might have saved him in his last struggle. The result was that England, in order to forestall her enemy, suddenly attacked Denmark, bombarded Copenhagen, and took away the whole Danish fleet. Denmark made common cause with France and Russia and the united powers endeavored to compel Sweden to an open rupture with England, but Gustavus IV. Adolphus could not be persuaded to yield. He did nothing to avoid the threatened storm and neglected to make necessary preparations for the protection of the country. Sweden was unprepared for war in February, 1808, when she was simultaneously attacked by Russia and Denmark.

The Russian and Danish Wars.—The French Emperor was the moving spirit in the dangerous attack which now threatened Sweden from all sides. It was his intention to crush the stubborn Swedish King at once and deprive England of her last ally. He ordered Marshal Bernadotte, who was posted in the city of Lubeck with 20,000 French and Spanish troops, to cross over to the Danish Islands and then unite with the Danish army and land in the southern part of Sweden in Scania. At the same time a Danish army under Prince August Christian of Augustenburg invaded Sweden from Norway, and it had been decided that the Russian army was to overrun Finland. Na-
Napoleon's plan was that the armies of the allied powers should meet at Stockholm and there dethrone the stiff-necked Gustavus IV. Adolphus. This plan was not as easy of accomplishment as Napoleon had supposed, for while the French army stood ready to cross over to the Danish Islands, the English fleet had already covered the waters of the Sound and the Belts and thereby made landing impossible. Sweden now prepared a most extensive armament. An army gathered in Scania under command of General Toll to oppose any attempted invasion by Napoleon, and another, the western army under command of Armfelt, advanced against the frontiers of Norway to check the Danes and Norwegians from that quarter. An army of volunteers numbering 30,000, mostly young men between eighteen and twenty-five, was raised, but all these preparations were rendered fruitless by the folly of the King. His orders, issued without definite plans, prevented the army, which had already crossed into Norway, from accomplishing anything. English troops to the number of 10,000 were sent to his assistance, but he refused to let them land at the city of Gothenburg and they were dismissed in disgrace when their commander declined to follow the foolish orders of the King. The army of volunteers was poorly equipped, unprovided with clothing or food and badly officered. It was naturally attacked by contagious diseases and the flower of the Swedish youth perished without having seen the enemy. The King was speculating on conquering Denmark and so left Sweden's faithful sister, Finland, to her fate.

In February, 1808, a Russian army of 20,000 men commanded by General Buxhovden invaded Finland
without a declaration of war. Sveaborg was garrisoned by 6,000 Swedish troops and the remaining 8,000 men were under command of General Klerckers at Tavastehus. Klerckers determined to meet the enemy there, but just then the King sent Klingspor, an old man without military experience and entirely unsuited for the position, over to Finland as commander to the army. He brought with him the King's orders that the army should retire before the superior forces of the enemy. The brave Finlanders retreated to the northward in bitter cold and in deep snow, cursing the King and the general for such orders. The Russians were now able to overrun Finland without hindrance from the Finland army. They took possession of the castle of Abo and took Aland and began the siege of Sveaborg. By the cowardice of Klingspor, Finland was left a prey to the enemy. To this was added the traitorous conduct of the officers, and the fate of Finland was decided. The proud work of Ehrensvard, and the best protection of Finland, the great and impregnable fortress of Sveaborg, could not be taken by assault so the enemy had recourse to treachery. Several of the commanding officers were purchased by Russian gold or promises of high stations in Russia. The Commandant, Carl Cronstedt, once the conqueror of the Russian fleet at Svensksund, was frightened by false rumors of the approach of a large Russian army and was finally persuaded to sign a capitulation, whereby he agreed to cede the citadel after four weeks, handing over not only the fortress, which could have resisted the enemy's attack indefinitely, but all the army, arms and ammunition of war, a vast quantity of stores, 2,000 cannons and a large number of coasting
vessels. The rumor of this traitorous conduct spread with great rapidity among the Finland army, which after retiring about fifty miles, had been allowed to halt in the neighborhood of Uleaborg. They were determined to wash away the stain which had disgraced the honor of the sons of Finland, and began now to proceed aggressively against the enemy. Sweden had some fighting officers in that army, but unfortunately they had not independent command. Charles J. Adlercreutz, a brave and courageous general, was next in command to Klingspor. He attacked the Russians, and time and again gained decisive victories and drove them before him southward. Shortly afterwards the peasants were roused and organized under command of General Sandels, who by successive victories drove the Russian army east as far as the Russian boundary, but the incapable Klingspor was not wise enough to follow up these successes swiftly. General Dobeln with inferior numbers defeated the Russians repeatedly. But though the enemy were from time to time beaten and driven backward, yet in the meantime they had received support by the arrival of other regiments. Thus the fortunes of war fluctuated. Sometimes the Russians had the upper hand and sometimes the united Swedish and Finnish army, until finally Finland was torn from Sweden by the increasing number of the Russians, aided by the cowardice of Klingspor and the treason of Cronstedt.

During the desperate fight which was being waged in Finland, nothing of importance had occurred at other places on the theatre of the war. The French army which was to assist Denmark was soon withdrawn, as Napoleon needed it at other places. At the
boundary between Sweden and Norway little was accomplished on account of suffering and want, and finally an armistice was agreed upon. When the winter approached and the English fleet was called away from the north, Russia and Denmark decided to deal Sweden a decisive blow. In February 1809 the Russians were preparing to invade Sweden from three different directions. The Danish army stood ready to cross the Sound into Sweden and a Norwegian army was also preparing to invade the country. The Emperor Napoleon declared that he had turned Sweden over to the mercy of the Czar of Russia and he had no objection to her partition between Russia and Denmark. Many patriots feared that she was near to destruction, but the last hour of old Sweden's existence had not yet struck. Providence still held above her a protecting hand. Ever since the war in Pomerania the Swedish people had recognized that the King was unfit to govern a free people and had made preparations if possible to remove him from the throne. When the Swedish nation was on the point of annihilation and Gustavus IV.'s conduct became more and more idiotic, all lovers of the Fatherland were of the same conviction that the only salvation of Sweden was to dethrone the King. The principal leaders in this plan were a few higher officers, such as George Adlersparre, commander of the western army and Charles J. Adlercreutz, the hero of Finland, General Skoldebrand and Major Ankarsvard. Adlersparre took the first step in carrying the plan through. He ordered his troops to march against the capital. When this information reached Stockholm the King attempted to seize the treasure of the government and flee with
the royal family to the southern army. The officers who had prepared for the revolution determined that the departure of the King from Stockholm must be prevented in order to avoid a civil war which would bring still further misfortunes on Sweden. On the 13th of March, 1809, Charles J. Adlercreutz and six companions entered the royal palace and told the King that they had come to consult with him about his journey and to persuade him not to leave the city. The King accused them of treason, drew his sword and called for assistance. He was seized and disarmed. The guard outside the royal apartments, on hearing the cry of the King for help, hastened to his assistance, but was quieted by Adlercreutz. After some delay the King succeeded in getting away by a hidden door and hastened to escape to another part of the palace, where his life guards were stationed. However, before he reached the guards he was overpowered and brought back to his rooms. The following day he was removed from the palace and imprisoned in the Castle of Drottningholm. No real attempt was made to assist or relieve him. The revolution was completed in peace and quiet and without the shedding of a single drop of blood. After Gustavus had been dethroned he was banished from the country together with his family, and they were transported from Sweden the same year. The deposed monarch with the royal family went to Germany, where he soon separated from the Queen and for the future spent most of his time in Switzerland. Here he assumed the name of Colonel Gustafson, and passing his life in quiet and simplicity finally died at St. Gallen in 1837.
CHARLES XIII.
CHAPTER XXXVIII.

CHARLES XIII.

1809—1818.


The New Constitution.—Prince Charles, the uncle of the deposed King, could with difficulty be persuad-
ed to assume the administration of the government of Sweden after the King had been put into the castle, but on taking control he immediately called the Estates to Riksdag, retaining the larger portion of the Council. Orders were sent by the government to General Adlersparre, prohibiting him from entering the capital with his army. Thereupon he called his officers together in consultation, when it was determined that the army should not be divided before the revolution was thoroughly established; so he continued his march to Stockholm, where he entered the city amid the rejoicings of the populace. Adlersparre was immediately given a place in the Council and exercised strong influence there, and became a great power in the government.

The danger that threatened from the foreign powers had to be dealt with immediately. The provisional government decided to appeal to the nobler feelings of Napoleon, but the Emperor gave a dubious answer. Meanwhile the great plan laid by the enemies of Sweden to attack her from every side had not succeeded according to their calculations. The landing of the Danish army in Sweden failed, and the commander of the Norwegian army, the Prince of Augustenburg, found it impossible to advance against the Swedish army of the west. The Russian army advanced against the northern part of Sweden, but a Swedish division under command of General George K. von Dobeln protected the country in that quarter. The Swedish troops crossed the ice in the winter, the Russians not daring to follow it. A part of the army in Finland was surrounded and capitulated. The Riksdag met in Stock-
holm, May 1st, 1809, to elect a new King and to adopt a new constitution. The Estates approved of the revolution, and by a solemn act May 10, 1809, declared that Gustavus IV. Adolphus and his descendants had forever forfeited the crown of Sweden. Thereupon a new and modified constitution had to be adopted before a new King could be elected. A committee was appointed to prepare and report upon this constitution, and this committee, of which Hans Jarta, the most prominent member of the Riksdag, was secretary, drew up a constitution within fourteen days, and reported the same to the Riksdag. This constitution was adopted by the Riksdag on June 5th, 1809. The Estate of the Bondes at first objected and was not willing to subscribe to the constitution except on the condition that the privileges of the other Estates should be abolished and that political liberty and equality before the law should henceforth prevail. Finally, after the privileged Estates had assumed some further burdens and the nobility waived the claim of exclusive right to control the crown property, the Bondes yielded and directed the speaker to sign the document.

On June 6, 1809, Charles XIII. was elected King of Sweden, when he accepted and signed the constitution, but Sweden was at present in need of a successor to the throne as well. Charles XIII. was an old man and had no children. Opinions were divided. There were those who wanted to elect King Frederik VI. of Denmark and unite the three northern crowns on the same head. There were others who wanted to choose Prince Gustavus, son of the deposed King; and a third party,
with Adlersparre at their head, desired Prince Christian August of Augustenburg. This Prince had, when commander of the Norwegian army, acted generously toward trouble-smitten Sweden. In Norway he was generally admired for his honorable, popular, and frank conduct, and people hoped that by his election Norway might be united to Sweden. Adlersparre succeeded in winning over King Charles XIII. The King proposed to the Riksdag that Prince Christian August be chosen successor to the throne of Sweden, and he was accordingly elected, assuming title of Charles August.

Peace Established Between Sweden and her Enemies.—Sweden's crying need was now for peace. Negotiations were opened between Sweden and Russia in Fredrikshamn. In order to obtain as favorable terms as possible the Swedish government secretly ordered a new army to proceed northward and if possible to entrap the Russian army in the northern part of Finland. The plan was well prepared, but badly carried out. The Swedish troops landed at Savar but were attacked by the Russian army and after a bloody battle near Ratan compelled to retreat, embark, set sail, and return to Sweden. There was nothing for Sweden to do but to submit to the severe conditions imposed by the conqueror, and sign the terms of peace, the most severe to which Sweden had ever submitted. Peace was closed in Fredrikshamn, Sept. 17, 1809. Sweden was compelled to cede to Russia more than one-third of her territory, namely, the whole of Finland, Aland, part of Westerbotten and Swedish Lapland, so that the rivers Torneo and Muonio became
the boundary between Sweden and Russia. Treason, fraud, deceit, violence, and a stubborn and idiotic King had at last succeeded in tearing away from Sweden her beloved sister land, Finland, which for 600 years had faithfully clung to her through changes and vicissitudes. Runeberg in his Poetic Cycle "Fanrik Stals Sagner" has immortalized the heroes of Sweden and Finland who fought and bled and died to prevent Finland from falling into the hands of the Russian Autocrat. The kindred countries who had thus fought and struggled together, and for so long a time shared each other's joys and sorrows, had from this time forth to tread separate paths. Even before peace was concluded Russian authority was established in Finland. The Finlanders submitted to their victorious oppressor, Russia, upon her promising them their ancient laws and privileges. The Estates of Finland were called together to a Diet at Borgo in March, 1809, when the Czar Alexander in person met them and as Grand Duke of Finland guaranteed them the maintenance of their constitution and their laws and religious liberty, which liberties it seems are being constantly encroached upon.

Peace having been concluded with Russia there was no difficulty in making peace with the other nations at war with Sweden. After the Czar of Russia had gained the prize for which he had so vigorously contended, he left his ally Denmark to her fate and did not keep any of the promises by which he had tempted the Danish King to take part in the war. Peace between Sweden and Denmark was concluded at Jonköping, 1809, without any advantage being
AXEL VON FERSEN.

VÆDEL-JARLSBERG.
gained by either party. Peace was closed with France in 1810, whereby Pomerania was restored to Sweden, but on condition that no English merchandise except salt should be imported into Sweden.

The Riksdag had been continuously in session at Stockholm for over a year when it adjourned, during which time many questions concerning the internal welfare of Sweden had come before it. Count Baltzar von Platen submitted a proposition to build the Gota Canal, which was passed. The most important of all was the adoption of the constitution, which contains certain limitations on the royal prerogative and makes the ministers responsible to the Riksdag, the succession to the throne, and the regulation of the Riksdag, all of which were adopted in 1809. The regulations for the press, enacted in 1810, remain parts of the fundamental laws of the land.

Charles August, lately elected Crown Prince, arrived in Sweden in the beginning of 1810. Straightforward in character, genial in manners, affectionate and openhearted, he won the confidence of all with whom he came in contact in his new fatherland. The Court party kept at a distance from him and did not receive him kindly. Their wish had been to elect Prince Gustavus, the son of the deposed King. The great expectations with which the Swedish people looked forward to the reign of the elected Crown Prince were never to be realized.

His health for some time had been precarious; and in May, 1810, during a journey to the southern part of Sweden his malady increased. He was much troub-
led with dizziness. He was present at certain field manoeuvres at Quidinge reviewing the troops when he suddenly complained of dizziness and, his charger becoming unmanageable, he was thrown to the ground, picked up insensible, and shortly after died.

On account of the peculiar symptoms of his sickness rumors had previously been current that he had been given poison, which accounted for his singular malady. These groundless rumors were now, after his death, greatly exaggerated. It was openly charged that the Prince had been poisoned by the party favoring the election of Prince Gustavus, the oldest son of the deposed King. Great indignation was aroused among the population of Stockholm and was more particularly directed against the two Counts von Fersen and their sister, Countess Piper.

On the day of the funeral of the late Prince the populace of Stockholm was on the verge of riot. The remains of the Prince had been conveyed by land from the southern provinces to Stockholm. The hearse was plain and the coffin covered with a black cloth, which was dusty from the long journey, but in contrast with the simplicity of the funeral cortege, Count Axel von Fersen, Lord High Steward, in his capacity as the highest official representing the government, appeared in brilliant uniform riding in a magnificent equipage drawn by six white horses which were led by six grooms. His place in the procession was directly in front of the hearse. The contrast was striking, and the fact that Fersen had been opposed to the election of the late Prince tended to inflame popular feeling.

The procession had not proceeded far when Fersen
was attacked. Stones were thrown at him wounding him severely, and finally his horses were seized, and he was pulled out of the line and taken from his carriage, beaten, kicked and the clothes torn from his body. He was rescued by a merchant and brought into his house, but a general assault was made upon the house, Fersen was dragged out into the street, and clubbed and kicked to death. His lifeless body lay there for hours perfectly naked, no one either daring or caring to remove it.

The most remarkable thing in this disgraceful murder is that, although the Capital was full of troops, the government and police took no steps to prevent the outrage, or afterwards to remove the mutilated body. No thorough investigation followed and the leaders in the riot and murder were not discovered.

It is known that King Charles XIII. and his party looked upon the humiliation of the proud Fersen family and their adherents as essential for the safety of the country, and one of the means for preventing the election of Prince Gustavus to the throne.

Second Election of a Successor to the Throne.—After the sudden death of Charles August, Crown Prince of Sweden, the Swedish people had to elect another heir apparent. There was as usual great diversity of opinion concerning the most suitable candidate. The King of Denmark was put up, as he had been before, and had many supporters; while General Adlersparre, with his influence undiminished and a firm determination to exclude the descendants of the deposed King, proposed Frederick Christian of
Augustenburg, brother of the deceased Crown Prince. He won over to his side the King and most members of the royal Council. The government hastened to inform Napoleon, the Emperor of France, and to ask his consent or advice in the matter. Lieutenant Baron Otto Moerner was dispatched to the Swedish minister in Paris. The young man with many other Swedes desired a French general as successor to the throne, hoping thereby to gain the good will and assistance of Napoleon, and believing that only a general with reputation and experience could restore to Sweden her lost influence and power.

Baron Moerner also began, while on this mission of the government in Paris, to lay plans for the accomplishment of such an election and entered upon negotiations with the French Marshal Jean Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, a man of high military reputation as well as of noble and independent character. Bernadotte was known to the Swedish army by his magnanimous treatment of them during the late war.

Moerner, although on a mission in the interest of another candidate, waited on Bernadotte, who consented, if the choice should fall on him, to become the King of Sweden. Moerner hastened to return to Sweden to work for his cherished plans. The government learning with indignation that it had been deceived by its own messenger proceeded with severity against the young lieutenant and also continued to exert its influence in favor of the Prince of Augustenburg. The Riksdag was convened and met at Orebro in the Summer of 1810, to elect a successor to the throne. Baron Moerner's plan for the election of Mar-
shal Bernadotte gained supporters at the Riksdag and in the army. Bernadotte took an active part in the canvass and sent a special messenger to the Riksdag. The majority being in his favor, and Napoleon giving his consent, the government abandoned its former candidate, and came over to the side of Bernadotte and proposed to the Riksdag that he be elected Crown Prince of Sweden. Marshal Bernadotte was thereupon, amid great rejoicing, unanimously elected successor to the throne of Sweden. A French soldier and a son of the revolution was thus under these peculiar circumstances called to occupy the oldest established throne of Europe.

Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte was born in the City of Pau in Southern France on Jan. 26, 1764, of middle-class parents, his father being an advocate. At sixteen years of age he left the parental roof and entered the army as a common soldier, working his way up to the rank of non-commissioned officer. Not belonging to the privileged class, he could not advance any further and every avenue was closed to the further progress of the ambitious young man, and his career would doubtless have ended here but for that terrible convulsion which shook the monarchies of Europe to their foundations. The French revolution among many other abuses swept away the distinctions of birth as conferring a right to civil or military offices. Every Frenchman was equal before the law. The race was henceforward to the swift. Competition was free to all. Ambition, talent, competency, courage, and daring had now full play for brilliant achievements.

Bernadotte, who was endowed with extraordinary
qualities, courage, and military genius, advanced rapidly from one position to another, and during the great wars which France was waging all around her he played an important part, and was appointed general of one of the armies. Then he became governor of one of the provinces, an ambassador, and minister of war. He continued for some time to oppose the ambitious plans of Napoleon and defended the republican liberties of the French people. But on account of the misrule of the several parties in power he lost all confidence in democracy, and supported Napoleon, but never yielded or surrendered his personal independence. He took a brilliant part in the wars of Napoleon and contributed materially to his victories at Austerlitz, Jena, Wagram and other battles. Although the friendship between Bernadotte and Napoleon was strained, the former was raised to the rank of a Marshal of France and Prince of Ponte Corvo in Italy.

The election of Bernadotte to the throne of Sweden was not in reality pleasing to Napoleon, as was generally supposed. The Emperor feared that Bernadotte might secretly antagonize France; and the future showed that these suspicions were not groundless when the interests of his new fatherland were concerned. Napoleon none the less gave his consent to the election and released Bernadotte from his oath of allegiance, and the two parted as friends.

Bernadotte adopted the names Charles John as Crown Prince of Sweden, and arrived in his adopted country in the Fall of 1810, accompanied by his son, Oscar. He was received by the people with enthusiastic
From the start he took an active part in the administration of the country and by his influence really became the head of the government. He was now in the full bloom of his manhood, and his fine physique, his erect head covered with black wavy hair, his eagle nose, his brilliant penetrating eyes accustomed to command, his clear distinct enunciation in speech, the activity of his every movement, all indicated an extraordinary personality. Although his origin was middle-class he was a man of polished manners, refined and sociable in his intercourse. He amazed all who approached him by his exquisite courtesy and his knowledge of mankind. Richly endowed by nature he had acquired most of his education in the school of experience. He was unusually bright, intelligent, and far-seeing, and swift to execute when his plans were laid. He was moreover eloquent, a born orator.

Charles John came to Sweden fully determined to be no vassal of Napoleon but to consult the best interests of his new country. Napoleon had been indignant over the indifference Sweden had shown to the application of his continental system, when she allowed English vessels to enter her harbors under American colors and more particularly the harbor of Gothenburg. To put an end to this fraud, as Napoleon termed it, he demanded that Sweden should declare war against England, unless she wanted him for her enemy. Sweden was therefore compelled to submit to the humiliation of declaring war upon England against her will on command of Napoleon. England was secretly informed that this declaration of war was not to be taken seriously. Not a single gun was fired on either side. The
commerce and intercourse between the two countries proceeded to the great advantage of Sweden. This exasperated Napoleon still further and he began to treat Sweden in the most insulting and outrageous manner.

The position of Charles John now became very embarrassing. Lately a subject of the French Empire, he was by his new position as Crown Prince of Sweden placed in antagonism to Napoleon. The dissatisfaction among the bondes on account of the conscription for the army which had been decreed by the Riksdag for the defense of the country brought about riots and violence in many places, particularly in the southern provinces. However, these disturbances were soon suppressed without serious difficulty.

Charles John determined finally to bring about a change in the politics of Sweden and to cause the Swedish government to break loose from Napoleon. Negotiations were made with Russia, whose relations with France were also strained, and a secret alliance was made between Alexander of Russia and Charles John. Great caution was necessary as the Swedes were still fervent admirers of Napoleon and hoped by his assistance to regain Finland and to revenge themselves on Russia, their old enemy in the East. Charles John, on the other hand, felt convinced that Finland could not be protected against Russia and that the truest security for Sweden would be found in the union between herself and Norway. He further saw clearly that the unbounded ambition of Napoleon would at last cause his downfall and that of all his friends.

The intrigues and insults heaped on Sweden by the
Emperor Napoleon reached their climax when in the beginning of 1812 he invaded Swedish Pomerania. He intended thereby to frighten the Swedes into submission, but on the contrary this overt act exasperated them and aroused their enmity. “Napoleon has thrown down the gauntlet, I am ready to take it up,” exclaimed Charles John Bernadotte when he received information of the invasion.

Once war had been decided upon, Sweden, under the guidance of her Crown Prince, made every preparation for the coming conflict, both by gathering armaments at home and by negotiating alliances with foreign powers. The Estates were called together in extra Riksdag at Orebro in 1812, when many important acts were passed for the welfare of the country. Appropriations were made for her defence. The army was largely increased; new levies were made; arms, ammunition and equipments were purchased. The law dealing with the liberty of the press, which under the old regime had been constantly violated, was amended and restricted. Large appropriations were made for military expenditures. A feeling of great surprise came over the people when they learned that it was not against her old enemy Russia, but against France her constant friend for centuries, that Sweden was directing her warlike efforts.

The foreign policy of Charles John had laid the foundation for a new coalition against Napoleon. Sweden entered into an alliance with Russia whereby Alexander promised to aid Charles John in annexing Norway to Sweden, and Charles encouraged the perplexed Alexander to a firm resistance against Napo-
Leon, who made preparations for an attack on Russia. Now for the first time did Napoleon endeavor to gain the friendship of Sweden, and made alluring offers to Charles John, but it was too late. Sweden entered into still closer relation with the enemies of Napoleon. By the mediation of the Swedish Crown Prince, Russia made peace with Turkey and England.

Napoleon had in the meantime invaded Russia with an army of nearly half a million and was marching directly on Moscow. The Russians steadily retreated before the invading enemy, devastating the country and burning the cities. Placed in this embarrassing position the Czar desired a consultation with the Swedish Crown Prince, and they met at Abo in August, 1812. A personal friendship was here formed between the two royal personages which lasted throughout their lives. A new treaty was made which assured Charles John of the annexation of Norway to Sweden, and a secret article was signed whereby the allied Princes promised mutual assistance against all attacks.

The object of the Swedish Crown Prince's efforts was the maintenance of sovereign power in his family and its defence in case of any attempt on the part of the deposed royal house to regain possession of the crown of Sweden.

Shortly after the meeting of the Czar and Crown Prince of Sweden at Abo, Napoleon entered Moscow at the head of his army, but this was the limit to his world conquering plans. The victorious career of the Corsican whom nothing so far had been able to check was stopped by the elements. A fierce conflagration
broke out in Moscow; the army evacuated the city, and on the approach of winter retreated from Russia, suffering untold privation and surrounded by enemies. The proudest army known to history dwindled down within a few weeks to insubstantial from starvation, cold, and the ravages of disease. Napoleon had reached the height of his ambition; but he could not maintain his position. On his return he hastened to organize new armies, and again took the field in Germany. But the disastrous campaign against Russia had given his many enemies courage and a formidable coalition was organized against him.

Russia, England and Sweden were the first powers to unite against him. England in conjunction with Russia now promised aid in annexing Norway to Sweden, granted her large subsidies, and ceded the Island of Guadeloupe in the West Indies to the Swedish royal house. Prussia next broke loose from Napoleon and joined the alliance of Sweden, Russia, and England. In the Spring of 1813, Charles John landed in Germany with an army of 30,000 Swedes. But he was placed in a very awkward position when his allies were routed by Napoleon and separately closed an armistice with the conqueror.

During the suspension of hostilities the Czar of Russia, the Swedish Crown Prince and the King of Prussia met at Trochenburg in Silesia and there prepared plans for a general attack by all the allied powers upon Napoleon. According to this plan, after Austria had joined the coalition, which she soon did, the united powers were to advance to the attack with three armies, the Bohemian, the Silesian, and the
Northern army, the last of which was composed of Swedes, Russians and Prussians and was placed under the command of Charles John, the Swedish Crown Prince. Now began a continuous chain of military operations. The allied powers endeavored to surround Napoleon in Saxony. He on the other hand tried to break the combination which encircled him, directing his attack mainly against the Northern army which was now encamped in the neighborhood of Berlin. But he was driven back on two different occasions by the skilful manoeuvres of Charles John, first at Gross-Beeren and afterward at Dennewitz. The troops engaged in these two battles were mainly Prussians, save that at the battle of Dennewitz, the Swedish artillery aided materially in securing the victory of the allied armies.

The Swedish Crown Prince, Charles John Bernadotte, who commanded the Northern army of the allied powers, consisting of 75 Swedish and Russian battalions, appeared near Dennewitz where Marshal Ney had overpowered the Prussians. Charles John considered that the Prussians ought to bear the brunt of the battle, since Berlin was threatened; he therefore held the Swedish troops in reserve. However, the Swedish artillery was given an opportunity to take part in the battle, and, under General Carl von Cardell contributed more than any other of the arms of the allies to the defeat of the French army. Cardell and his Swedish artillery proved to the world that the Swedes could still fight as well as they had done in the olden days, and on this occasion they exhibited a gallantry that won for them undying fame. Cardell had reorganized this arm and made of it a light mov-
able fighting force. The French had overwhelmed the right wing of the Prussian army which wavered and became disorganized. Marshal Ney cheered his men on by exclaiming, “My children the victory is ours.” General Cardell was now ordered to support the Prussians. He deployed his regiments, ordering the caissons in line with the guns, presenting the appearance of a division of cavalry, and bore down on the advancing French at a gallop, every artillerist being mounted and flashing a drawn sword. The enemy seeing the close column but not the guns, prepared for what they supposed to be a cavalry charge by closing ranks and with fixed bayonets awaited the Swedes. When within 500 feet of the French line, the caissons were halted; the pieces advanced, were reversed, and then from the fiery jaws of a thousand cannon loaded with grape and canister, death and destruction were poured into the solid ranks of the French infantry. As a military manoeuvre the ruse was entirely successful; its results were awful and the scene on the field occupied by the previously victorious French beggars description. The ground was strewn with the dead and dying—as if grim death with his scythe had mowed down a cornfield. The remnant that escaped destruction fled in confusion. This action turned the day in favor of the allies and Napoleon's army beat a hasty retreat.

The Northern army crossed the river Elbe, where it united with the Silesian army under command of Blucher, whereupon the united armies advanced from the north on Leipzig, at the same time as the Bohemian army approached from the south. On October 16, 18, and 19, 1813, was fought the great battle of Leip-
zig. The allied powers gained a decided victory over Napoleon's army which was routed and fled in confusion. Of the Swedish army none took part in the battle except the artillery. But in the assault on Leipzig General Adlercreutz with the Swedish infantry and the sharpshooters took part in the storming of Leipzig and helped to drive Napoleon out of the city.

Charles John had purposely spared the Swedish army for the campaign which was now commenced against Denmark. While the remaining portion of the Northern army accompanied the allied armies in their operations against France, the Swedish Crown Prince with the Swedish army supported by Prussian and German troops advanced toward the north, took possession of the city of Lubeck and drove the Danes back as far as the river Eider. The latter were in a fighting humor and insisted upon continuing the defense of their fatherland. But their King, Frederik VI., lost all courage. He first asked for cessation of hostilities. An armistice was granted and finally peace was agreed upon at Kiel, in January, 1814, whereby he ceded Norway to the Swedish King, and Denmark in turn received Swedish Pomerania.

Norway was henceforth to form one kingdom with Sweden, and the united kingdoms undertook to assume a proportionate part of the Danish government debts as due from Norway, which agreement the Norwegians later repudiated. Sweden, in order to retain the good will of Norway, had to fulfill the obligation.

Peace having been concluded with Denmark at Kiel, the Swedish Crown Prince with his army again
marched southward to assist the allied powers against Napoleon. After advancing as far as Belgium he halted and refused to support the advance of the allied powers against France. He also objected to the restoration of the Bourbons. At last he was by circumstances compelled to yield to the inevitable and gave his consent to the restoration of the old French regime. Sweden was one of the seven powers who signed the articles of peace in Paris. By this peace Sweden ceded to France the Island of Guadeloupe, in return for which England paid Sweden twenty-four million francs.

Union Between Sweden and Norway.—The Swedish King and people had during the past centuries cast longing eyes in the direction of the West, endeavoring to absorb Norway and to make it a province of, or to incorporate it with Sweden. And when the faithful Finland, which for over 600 years had been a part of Sweden, was ever being threatened from the East, both King and people became more anxious to secure Norway and thus to be safe in that quarter. Now, after the loss of Finland, it became an absolute necessity for the protection of Sweden, lest Russia on the East and Denmark with Norway on the West should threaten her independence. The union between Sweden and Norway became, therefore, a subject of general interest to the men guiding the destinies of Sweden during the years following 1809, and Charles John immediately on his election as Swedish Crown Prince used his influence to bring about this result. The plan was at last carried out and the union accomplished through the war with Napoleon,
which caused the dissolution of the treaty between Denmark and Russia. England gave Sweden her assistance as a reward for the aid of the latter in helping to overthrow Napoleon.

The union between Denmark and Norway was dissolved by the peace of Kiel. The Norwegians were not willing, however, to be forced into a union with Sweden. They wanted to have their say in determining their political destiny. There was indeed a party, with Count Vedel-Jarlsberg at the head, who desired a union with Sweden, but the majority of the people were determined to make Norway independent. This majority made overtures to the popular governor, Prince Christian Frederik, who assumed to act as regent and called the representatives together to Storthing at Eidswold. A committee, with Magnus Fatsen as chairman, prepared a constitution which on May 17, 1814 was adopted by the Storthing as defining the fundamental laws of Norway. Prince Christian was elected King of Norway on the same day.

Norway having thus declared her independence was in a very uncomfortable situation. Her population was small. She was without funds for carrying on the government. Her defenses were in a poor condition. The army was officered by untried men, the ranks were full of new recruits, the recently elected King was inexperienced, and the foreign allied powers urged her to yield to necessity and consent to the union with Sweden. Nevertheless, the Norwegians, with the blood of the old Vikings flowing in their veins, determined to appeal to arms and to venture a fight with the well equipped Swedish army, commanded as
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G. K. VON DOBELN.
it was by the most distinguished generals of the time. With such fearful odds against them the result was clearly to be foreseen, though the Norsemen were determined to fight for their newly won freedom to the utmost.

Charles John had returned with the Swedish troops from the continent to Sweden in the Summer of 1814, when he began the campaign, and separating the army into two divisions he invaded Norway from the west and south, supported by the navy. Frederikstad surrendered and the Norwegians retreated. The Swedes crossed the river Glommen and threatened Christiania, when negotiations were opened and the belligerents agreed to an armistice and to meet in convention at Moss, in August, 1814. King Christian agreed to call together the Storthing, and to place the crown at its disposal, and in turn the Swedish King promised, with the exception of certain new amendments, to approve the constitution in the event of a union between the two kingdoms. The Storthing met and entered into negotiations with the Swedish commissioners at Christiania to agree upon terms of union. By reciprocal concessions the respective parties soon came to terms. The result was, that the Storthing declared for a union of Norway with Sweden, and on the 4th day of November, 1814, Charles XIII., King of Sweden, was elected King of Norway.

Norway thus became united to Sweden, not as a conquered province but as an independent and equal kingdom possessing identical rights and privileges in its internal administration, which were not subject to interference on the part of Sweden. This peculiar po-
sition they owe mainly to Charles John, the Swedish Crown Prince. Most of the Swedish statesmen desired the incorporation of Norway with Sweden to offset the loss of Finland. But Charles John saw the difficulty of conquering a brave people who, if brought to the verge of despair, would fight to the last gasp, and after being conquered would only be dissatisfied subjects. An enforced union would engender only hatred and bitterness, and weaken rather than strengthen the bond between the kingdoms.

By the election of the King, Sweden and Norway acknowledged a single royal house, but there was no further union between them. The latter was, however, accomplished the following year when the Estates of Sweden met in Riksdag and passed the "Rikskact," "Act of Union" which contained the conditions necessary for the union of the two kingdoms. This Act of Union was ratified by the Norwegian Storthing and constitutes the fundamental laws on which the union is based. It was adopted August 6, 1815.

The Congress of Vienna.—The European powers, who were assembled in congress at Vienna about the same time, recognized the new relations between the Northern kingdoms. It was at this congress that new relations were established between the European powers. The interest of Sweden was looked after by Count Charles Lowenhjelm. It was not without difficulty that all interests were amicably settled. Sweden refused to vacate Pomerania and surrender it to Denmark until the latter had recompensed her for the Northern war.
At the intercession of the Czar, Sweden surrendered Pomerania to Prussia for a payment of seven and a half million crowns, and Prussia ceded Lauenberg to Denmark in 1815. The twenty-four million francs paid for Guadeloupe was considered by the Bernadotte family as its individual property, although the Crown Prince undertook to pay the Swedish debts to foreign capitalists, amounting to about sixteen million crowns, in return for which the Riksdag appropriated to his yearly support 300,000 crowns. This made Sweden one of the few governments of Europe which could boast of freedom from debts.

From the time that Charles John as Crown Prince took hold of the administration, the government was conducted with prudence, economy and a firm hand. The defences were placed in good condition. A higher military school was established for the education of the youth, and agricultural colleges were founded for the instruction of the farmers. The finances were not in so encouraging a condition on account of the uncertainty in the monetary system, and the many changes in the political relations of Europe.

Norway.—The year 1814 was for Norway of great importance. During the wars on the continent when Napoleon kept all Europe in turmoil, the people of Norway took advantage of Denmark's feeble condition and declared Norway an independent kingdom, and adopted the present constitution, and they owe it to Bernadotte and the Swedish people that that independence has been preserved.

Norway is a free and independent kingdom, indivisible, united with Sweden under one King, a limited
constitutional and hereditary monarchy. The order of succession to the throne is the same as that contained in the Swedish constitution. The King is commander-in-chief of the army—can mobilize the same, declare war, conclude peace, make and annul treaties, send representatives to foreign powers and receive accredited representatives from foreign powers. The representative and consular service is one or joint for the united kingdoms. Before war is declared the King must call the Swedish and Norwegian ministers and councillors together and seek their counsel which, however, is not binding on him—minutes must be kept and the advice of the ministers must be in writing under their signatures. Questions in which both kingdoms are interested are settled in a joint ministerial council.

Norway’s internal affairs, laws, customs and religion are entirely under the control of its own people. Norway has probably a more popular government than any other monarchy or republic. The King has a veto power, but when three Storthings pass a measure over the King’s veto it becomes law, and King and people must abide thereby.

Norway having secured independence and the people having gained control of the internal affairs without outside interference, her economical, intellectual and industrial development have been rapid. The brave people inhabiting this narrow strip of land washed by the stormy Atlantic have during the last century kept abreast of all other civilized nations. Her government is one of the best regulated of civilized communities. Many of her sons have immortalized themselves by their works in science, literature, music and other arts.
The New University of Christiania has accomplished great things and from it many able men have gone forth to do honor to the university and credit to the nation.

Norway has produced many eminent men; among astronomers, Hausteen, and among mathematicians, Abel has won renown; Keyser and Munch have accomplished great work in their researches into Norway's history; while the names of the poets and authors, Vergeland, Velhaven, Bjornstjerne Bjornson, Henrik Ibsen are well known, and Frithiof Nansen of polar fame, the immortal Ole Bull, and Edward Grieg, the composer, would be a credit to any nation.

Sweden is proud of the fraternal relations existing between the two peoples. They are a mutual protection to each other against foreign aggressors, and are spurred on by a laudable ambition to compete for honors in the higher and nobler spheres of life.
CHAPTER XXXIX.

CHARLES XIV. JOHN.

1818-1844.


The uniting of Sweden and Norway under the sceptre of one King is the beginning of a new era in the history of these two peoples. By this union their po-
political status for the future was established and since that time the united countries have enjoyed uninterrupted peace.

Charles XIII. ruled over united Sweden and Norway only for a few years. He died in February, 1818, and his successor Charles XIV. John ascended the throne of the united kingdoms without arousing any political animosity. In reality Charles XIV. John had ever since his election as Crown Prince and his arrival in Sweden been at the head of the administration and the ruler de facto; now he was ruler in name as well.

The new King ascended the throne with a full determination to continue the great work which he had begun with such signal success. His ambition was to help the country along the road to prosperity, and to intellectual and material development. He exerted himself to the utmost to strengthen the bond of union between Sweden and Norway and to give stability to the new constitution which the Swedish people had adopted in 1809 and that which the Norwegian people had adopted in 1814.

The New Constitution.—The constitution of Sweden is composed of four fundamental acts:

1. That regulating the government, adopted on June 6, 1809, with later amendments.
2. That regulating the Riksdag, adopted on February 10, 1810, completely remodeled in 1863—1866.
3. That regulating the order of succession to the crown, adopted on September 26, 1810.
4. That regulating the liberty of the press, adopted on July 16, 1812.
To these may be added certain constitutional statutes, such as 1st, the act of union between Sweden and Norway, adopted on July 31, and August 16, 1815; 2nd, the government regulation of the House of Nobles of January 4, 1855, and divers other government regulations.

The object of the constitution was to place in the hands of the King such power as would be necessary to carry on the internal administration of the kingdom and secure the independence of its relations to foreign powers without impediment; and at the same time to prevent the abuse of the royal power, and to place the Estates in a position of independence by the side of the King.

The governing and executive power were vested in the King alone. He had power to declare war, and make peace with foreign powers, to conclude treaties and form offensive and defensive alliances; but in domestic and foreign affairs he was obliged to consult responsible councillors; no royal edict being valid unless countersigned by one of these advisers.

The Council of State consisted of ten members, namely, the minister of justice, the minister of foreign affairs, six councillors and the court chancellor, besides a secretary of the Council who kept the records of the meetings.

The councillors, though they were the officials of the King and appointed by him, were nevertheless responsible to the Riksdag and accountable to it for their advice to him. For their own protection they retained the privilege of disagreeing with the King and having their opinions or objections added to the record.
The highest court of judicature was the King's Supreme Court. The regulation of internal economy was attended to by the King, but all legislation had to be passed both by the King and the Riksdag. The power of voting taxes as well as the budget belonged to the Riksdag exclusively. It was in the power of the Riksdag, which was composed of representatives of the various classes of the people, to stop supplies and thereby coerce the King. The four Estates met in ordinary Riksdag every fifth year. The King could call them together in extra session when he considered it necessary to do so.

The King had the privilege of proposing new laws and amendments of old laws to the Riksdag; the latter could not only reject these, but also propose and pass laws on its own initiative. The Riksdag appointed its own committees to prepare and report upon all questions coming before it, among which may be mentioned in particular the committee on the revision of the constitution and the committee for the estimating of the income and budget expenditure of the state.

Generally all questions were decided and became law by a majority vote of three of the Estates, except cases of granting certain privileges and amendments of the constitution, when an affirmative vote of all four Estates was required. Any amendment to the constitution could only be passed by the succeeding Riksdag to that at which the proposed amendment was made. The control and supervision of the finances and the banks, and the regulation of the currency, were vested in the Riksdag. The Riksdag also had supervising authority over the Council of State.
through the constitutional commission; over the judiciary and other officials through a superintendent of justice; and over the collection and expenditure of the revenues of the state by specially appointed auditors.

By the constitution the individual citizen was guaranteed several important rights; to-wit: security for his person and property, religious toleration, freedom of the press, and speedy decisions in all actions relating to violation of the freedom of the press (libel and slander). According to the act passed by the Riksdag of 1815, the trial in such cases must be by jury, which passes on the guilt or innocence of the accused.

The act of Union between Sweden and Norway provided that the same order of succession should apply to the thrones of the two kingdoms and that in the event of an election of a successor, the same should be held simultaneously.

In relation to the foreign powers Sweden and Norway were to constitute a united whole, having the same foreign policy; but each country retained its own laws, its self-government and internal administration. The union was of a very elastic character.

Charles XIV. John and the Swedes.—Charles XIV. John had by his military genius and statesmanship, ably supported by the Swedish people, lifted Sweden within a few years from the deepest prostration to a respected position among the powers of Europe. He had also the satisfaction of reaping his reward in the admiration and gratitude which the Swedish people showered upon him. His charming personality, his genial manner, his sociability and lavish generosity, all had a tendency to attract to him devoted
friends and admirers. To all appearance, therefore, it seemed that King and people were advancing in peace and harmony. But there were circumstances due to the personal characteristics of the King, as well as to other causes, which later occasioned dissatisfaction and party disputes, and developed a strong opposition.

Charles XIV. John, in many respects a man of superior genius, and by his military education accustomed to command, did not yield cheerfully to opposition. Nor did he feel comfortable within the limits which the constitution had placed on the exercise of the royal prerogatives. He had difficulty in restraining his imperious spirit and in ruling according to the provisions of the constitution. Most of his advisers had also been brought up and educated in the principles of royal absolutism and did not gracefully yield obedience to the spirit of the new constitution which made Sweden a limited monarchy.

After 1815 a spirit of political reaction set in all over Europe, which was felt in Sweden as well. The new King showed himself less liberal under all these influences of social and political conditions than had been expected of the former republican Bernadotte. The timorous policy of the government was criticized by the people; thereupon freedom of speech was discouraged, and the press was restrained. The least criticism of the government policy was received with displeasure. A conservative policy was adopted in every thing pertaining to reforms in the internal, social, political and commercial affairs of the country.

Charles XIV. John accustomed to the plaudits of
the people, and conscious of the great services he had rendered them, expected them to continue to yield to his wishes and accept his policy without a murmur. But he was disappointed in his expectations.

The Swedish people undoubtedly anticipated too much from their ruler. They were looking forward to the continuous progress of a more liberal policy; and to a reform in the several branches of the government, changes for which the people may not have been prepared.

The King had already passed the prime of life while he was Crown Prince, and when he ascended the throne was considerably advanced in years. Added to this he had remained a stranger to the language, customs, and social conditions of the people over whom he was called to rule. He became suspicious as he grew older. His southern fiery disposition and hasty temper caused him much discomfort and frequent misunderstandings.

The advisers who surrounded Charles XIV. John at the beginning of his reign had been brought up and educated during the Gustavian period and had imbibed their principles from the spirit of the age. The French revolution and the Napoleonic successes that followed it impressed and influenced the Swedish mind. The Council was composed of many able men; Lars von Engerstrom, the minister of foreign affairs, was succeeded by the polished and talented Gustave Wetterstedt; Mathias Rosenblad, an experienced and learned man, became minister of justice; Gustave F. von Wirsen, a good financier, was considered its strongest man.
The King's favorite and most intimate friend was a young man belonging to one of the oldest of the noble families, Magnus Brahe, a man of highly aristocratic tendencies. There was no possibility of approach to the King except by first enlisting the sympathies of this nobleman. All appointments to offices, benefices, and other royal favors were dispensed according to his recommendations. This favoritism created jealousy among other influential Swedish families and many were the efforts made to change this state of affairs, but without success.

The most important questions before the Riksdag during the first years of the reign of Charles XIV. John were the demoralized condition of the finances and the completion of that most important of internal improvements in Sweden, the Gota Canal. This is a work of great magnitude, for it is the highway of navigation between the North Sea and the Baltic, directly connecting the two largest cities of Sweden, Stockholm and Gothenburg.

At the Riksdag of 1815 the government attempted to relieve the stringency of the money market by issuing paper money, but without setting aside corresponding reserves of precious metal in the treasury for its redemption. For a while money became plentiful and cheap, but a spirit of extravagance and speculation was fostered. The Riksdag had hardly adjourned before a financial crisis broke out. Large numbers of merchants failed, bankruptcy became frequent, the doors of numerous banks backed by the government were closed, and the country was threatened with a general panic. The Riksdag was con-
vended in extra session in 1817-1818 to adopt means for the relief of the general depression and financial disorder. The charters of the private banks which had been heretofore aided by the government were revoked. The presentation of the paper money for redemption and the withdrawal of silver from the Riksbank were prohibited. Large sums of money were voted in aid of the depressed industries, for the completion of the Gota Canal, and for other public works.

At the two Riksdags of 1815 and 1817-1818, opposition to the policy of the government began to develop. This opposition originated first in the House of the Nobles and was led by Count von Schwerin, who had adopted the clerical profession. He was a brilliant speaker, highly educated, and a man of persuasive, genial, and polished manners. His associate Baron Charles H. Ankarqvist was an able and influential man, of firm character and indomitable will, talented, eloquent and fearless. These two organized the opposition forces and exposed the weakness and errors of the government. The opposition soon spread to the House of the Bondes where Anders Danielson and Nils Monson were the leading spirits; the latter in particular was a man of old Swedish honesty and integrity, swayed neither by fear nor favors. This opposition was at first directed more against the policy of the government than the personality of the King, who still continued to be an object of the admiration and homage of the people.

The opposition to the government increased, and the Argus newspaper was the main instrument used for fostering it among the people. At the Riksdag
of 1823 an opposition party was organized, which gave the government a great deal of annoyance. This party insisted upon a wider freedom of the press, and the abolition of a large number of sinecures or unnecessary offices, filled by men who without doing anything were living at the expense of the state. Strenuous efforts were made to reduce the extravagant expenditure laid out on the defenses of the country during time of peace.

By the persistent efforts of Count von Schwerin a law passed the Riksdag of 1828-1830 regulating the finances, which was intended to assist the redemption of the large amount of paper money with which the country was flooded and which at this time was considerably below par. This law was further amended at the following Riksdag, 1834, when specie payment was resumed.

The great national undertaking, the building of Gota Canal, had through many vicissitudes been pushed forward by the indomitable perseverance and iron will of Count Baltzar Bogislaous von Platen who was always ably assisted by the councilor, Berndt Harder Santesson. Originally begun by a private corporation and so continued, these patriotic and farseeing men, Platen and Santesson, always keeping in view the incalculable value which this highway of navigation would be to the country, continued to work and to present the importance of the undertaking at each succeeding Riksdag, and managed to obtain loans and privileges from the government until finally the great waterway was completed. Count von Platen lived to see this work, to which he had devoted
his life, completed in 1832. It had then cost over eighteen million crowns. It was a day of general jubilation when the canal was opened throughout its entire length and dedicated by the King, attended by Crown Prince Oscar and all the state officials, and in

the presence of an immense concourse of people all along the route from Stockholm to Gothenburg.

Charles XIV. John’s Foreign Policy.—The foreign politics of the united kingdoms during the rule of Charles XIV. John had been conducted conservatively during several important events. After the close of
the European wars and the separation of Norway from Denmark the debts of the latter became the subject of dispute between the northern kingdoms. The European powers composing the Holy Alliance were assembled at a congress in Aix and they directed a request to be sent to Charles XIV. John that he should satisfy the demands of Denmark. The Swedish-Norwegian King replied with firmness that he would not consent to interference in the internal affairs of the united kingdoms, and asserted that he was ready to uphold their independence. This dispute was at last amicably settled by the mediation of the English government to which it was submitted.

Sweden became in 1830 involved in a less honorable transaction. The government had sold some old war vessels to certain foreigners without any positive knowledge of the purpose for which they were to be used. But as these vessels were intended for certain insurrectionists in the Free States of South America, the Czar of Russia interfered and the transaction was annulled.

Russia attempted in 1826 to encroach on the northern part of Finland where the boundaries had not been clearly defined. A rupture was near at hand, when the dispute was amicably settled.

In July, 1830, a revolution took place in France, called the July Revolution, which was a signal for many of the thereupon following demonstrations by the popular element in different parts of Europe. Charles XIV. John looked with suspicion and disfavor on these demonstrations, and approached closer to the Czar of Russia who was then considered the embodi-
ment of royal absolutism. The July Revolution and the rebellion of the Poles against the despotic rule of Russia awakened general sympathy among the Swedish people, and were the first causes of their discontent with Charles XIV. John; strained relations set in between the King and the people, and he lost much of the popularity which he had previously enjoyed. Other opposition papers, such as Aftonbladet and the Dagligt Allehanda, appeared on the field and exerted a great deal of influence on the public mind against the conservative policy of the government.

The Liberals and Conservatives.—The main object of the liberal party which now came into existence was to break down the barriers of the old division of the Swedish people into the four Estates; to abolish the House of Nobles as a constituent part of the Riksdag and to create a representation in harmony with modern ideas. This struggle continued for over thirty-five years before the privileged classes yielded to the demands of the people.

An effort had already been made in 1809 to embody the modern representative theory in the constitution, but it was defeated and continued to be defeated by one Riksdag after the other. This agitation accomplished this much, that representation was extended to the universities and the mining districts.

At the Riksdag of 1830 Baron Ankarsvard and the Jurist John Gabriel Richert proposed an amendment to the constitution providing for representation according to modern ideas. This question now became an all important one and was pressed upon the Riksdag with firmness, vigor, and skill. But the friends
of the old order of things increased in number at the Riksdag of 1834 and 1835 and the proposition was defeated. The Riksdag adjourned May 27, 1835. The liberal party made great preparations to agitate the question of abolishing the privileges of the nobility and clergy.

During the Summer of 1834 the cholera appeared in several parts of Sweden. The Riksdag being in session took early action to prevent the spreading of the plague. In Russia and other parts of Europe great numbers fell before the scourge. Its ravages were mainly confined to Stockholm and Jonkoping, but the panic was general among all classes.

During the years following 1835 the relations between the government and the liberal party became increasingly strained. This opposition was directed more and more against the King personally and against his favorites, who were considered to be standing in the way of the needed reforms. The government at length adopted measures and instructed the court chancellor to suppress the opposition newspapers. The brilliant and talented publisher, Magnus Jacob Crusenstolpe, was arrested for seditious libel affecting the King, tried, convicted, and sentenced to penal servitude. When it became known that this popular writer had been sentenced, a violent outburst of indignation took place throughout Stockholm, and riotous meetings were frequent on the streets. The military were ordered out and many persons were killed or injured. At last, when the liberal party had become exasperated and were not disposed to be reconciled, the influence of the press became more pow-
erful and a storm gathered over the government at the coming Riksdag which assembled in January, 1840.

The opposition to the government was now stronger than ever among the nobility and considerable in the other three Estates, and was ably led by Professor Thomander and others. The government's policy was greatly assailed on account of its conservatism, and the old King was made the target of many personal attacks; suggestions were even made from many directions through the press that he should resign the crown. He was finally prevailed upon to change most of his advisers and to appoint a new ministry. He also yielded to the demands of the Riksdag and reorganized the Council of State. This reorganization consisted in the establishment of several government departments, so that each of the councillors of state became chief of a particular department, and had a seat and a voice in the Royal Council. The King's cabinet consisted of seven ministers of state, each the head of his department, and three consulting councillors without departments.

The want of harmony, which prevailed during the last years of Charles XIV. John, between the government and the Swedish people, may be ascribed to two causes. The King was far advanced in years; his councillors were mostly old men who held to conservative principles. They had seen liberalism and reform change to conservatism. One system of government was superseded by another in rapid succession in France, whence the agitators for a change mostly drew their inspiration.
The other cause was the rapid growth and development of the material resources of the country. Imports and exports had increased greatly. The former restraints and restrictions upon commerce acted as a damper upon the free exchange of commodities. The younger generation demanded a modern system of free trade, the removal of protective and in some cases prohibitive duties which were still in force.

The Riksdag Ordning or constitution of 1810 gave the right of appointing the landmarshal (president of the House of Nobles) and the speakers of the Houses of Burghers and Bondes to the King. The archbishop was ex-officio president of the House of Clergy. The King had the initiative in legislation and also the power to veto it, and no legislative act became operative except by his sanction. When the King and his advisers were conservative it is readily seen that a radical reform could not easily be accomplished.

The conservative ministry was more to blame for this ultra conservatism than the King. Many of the friends of the government were strongly in favor of reform. Charles O. Palmstjerna, one of the conservatives, advised Count Magnus Brahe, the King's favorite, as follows: "The people love their King; they are loyal and patriotic and fully determined to support the government; but they also demand in return for their loyalty that the government shall advance their interests, be just and impartial, and pursue a course proper and serviceable to the community. It is feared that the government is taking a course which leads to sea, without bearings, and may lead to shipwreck. The Nation is waiting with impatience, and hopes that its beloved
King may listen to her requests at the coming Riksdag."

The Riksdag of 1840 passed a general school law which was immediately promulgated and was received by the people with great satisfaction.

The opposition which had embarrassed Charles XIV. John during the larger portion of his reign and which reached its climax at the Riksdag of 1840 when it was even suggested that the King should resign, diminished greatly during the last year of his life; and the old King became the recipient of much sympathy, kindness, and homage from his people. On the 8th day of March, 1844, he died, aged 80 years. On his death bed he said, "No man has filled a place like mine." And truly it was a kind Providence which laid out such a path for him, which had called him, a poor boy beginning his career in the lowest station of life, and a stranger from the foot of the Pyrenees, to occupy the Throne of Sweden, whose foundation was laid in the centuries far back of the time of authentic history. Although a soldier by profession, he was the first of the Swedish Kings not to be involved in war during his reign, which extended over a period of 26 years.

No Swedish King before him attained such a great age as Charles XIV. John. Not one of his predecessors lived as he did to see his grandchildren. He was married to Desiderie, daughter of M. Clary, a wealthy merchant of Marseilles. They had one son, Oscar, who after his father's death became King of Sweden.

The Domestic Administration of Charles XIV. John. —Sweden had never enjoyed such a protracted time of peace and prosperity as that which began with the
year 1814. The main credit for this long peace must be given to Charles XIV. John, through whose successful efforts the whole of the Scandinavian peninsula was united under one sceptre, and who thereafter carefully avoided embroiling Sweden and Norway in the intrigues of the other powers of Europe. This long period of peace was utilized by King and people for a continuous, prudent, and careful development of the resources of the country, in order to promote the material and intellectual, moral and spiritual prosperity of the united kingdoms.

The internal administration of the government was simplified and divided into departments. The board of customs and the postal department were separated into distinct branches. The departments were seven in number, namely, the department of Justice, the department of Foreign Affairs, the department of the Land Forces, the department of the Navy, the Civil department, the Finance department and the Ecclesiastical department, each having a separate bureau with a minister of state at its head; and all of them, together with three councillors without departments, constituted the King’s Council. A separate court of appeal for the provinces of Scania and Blekinge was created in 1820, and located at Christianstad.

The land defenses received great attention and were brought to a high degree of perfection, mainly owing to the great military experience of the King. The army was constantly drilled,—was newly uniformed and armed. The officers received regular instruction at military schools established for that purpose. Charles XIV. John devised a plan for a new system
of defenses called the central defenses. It consisted of a group of strong fortifications in the center of the kingdom which were to constitute a central base for all the armies. Carlsberg on the inland lake Vettern at its junction with the Gota canal was selected and strongly fortified. The navy had thus far not received an amount of attention proportionate to that bestowed upon the land defenses. Commerce and diversified industries developed rapidly during these years of peace and plenty.

After the crisis of 1815, trade took an important turn, partly owing to the new finance regulations and partly to a more liberal import and export law, which gave the country a new tariff. Manufactures were encouraged by high protective duties. The most important of them were the woolen mills at Norrkoping, the cotton mills and the machine shops and other mechanical workshops at Motala. Agriculture and kindred industries were not neglected either, and advanced to a high degree of perfection. The law restricting and in some instances prohibiting the partition of land was repealed, and accordingly the cultivators of the soil greatly increased in numbers. Agricultural societies were formed, and agricultural schools founded for the instruction of young men. Savings banks were established and proved a great blessing to the wage-earning class. The population multiplied rapidly as a result of the general prosperity. Communication between different parts of the country was greatly facilitated by the building of new roads and improving the old ones. The most important of all these improvements were the building and comple-
tion of the Gota Canal, before referred to, and the re-
building of the Trollhattan Canal as well as those of
Sodertelje and Hjalmaren. New harbors were built,
rivers were dredged, and sailing vessels were seen on
every inland stream and sea. Steamboats were to be
seen plying on the waters. The first steamer built in
Sweden was constructed in 1818.

The intellectual development of the country made
great strides. The Caroline Medical Institution was
founded in Stockholm. New professorships were en-
dowed at the Universities of Upsala and Lund. Gym-
nasiums were founded in Stockholm and in several
other cities. A school of forestry grew up at Stock-
holm, and a school of mining at Fahlun; schools of
navigation were attached to the principal ports. Sloyd
(industrial and manufacturing) schools became nu-
merous throughout the country. Institutions were
founded for instructing and supplying the country with
school teachers. In 1842 a new school law was passed,
establishing common schools in every parish in all the
larger villages. It was compulsory on every parent
to keep the children at school. This law was enforced
by penalties for neglect, and where poverty made it
impossible for the parents to keep the children at
school they were kept there at the charge of the par-
ish. The ministers and select men of the parishes
were charged with the enforcement of the law. The
result was that a smaller percentage of illiteracy ex-
ists in Sweden than in any other country. The scienc-
tific and literary growth of Sweden culminated during
this reign. Two special branches of science aroused
the investigating spirit of Sweden’s learned men dur-
ing this period, the natural sciences and history. The government was generous in providing stipends for the scientific and literary men, whereby they were enabled to devote themselves to their specially chosen field.

Foremost among the scientific men stands Jacob J. Berzelius, one of the greatest of chemists and the systematizer of this science. In botany, Agardh and Fries, in zoology, S. Nilson, in ethnology, Retzius have become world renowned. John Ericsson, who was born of humble parents, was started in life during
the reigns of Charles XIV. and Oscar I., being employed in various capacities by the government. For a long time he resided in America, where he achieved universal fame by his wonderful inventions. The reports of his success inspired many of the sons of Sweden to seek fortune abroad. Historical research was encouraged; and the great historians, E. G. Geijer and A. Fryxell, by their ably written histories have spread new light over the past of the Swedish people. Among those who won fame in the world of song and music was Jenny Lind, whose name became known all over the civilized world. Fogelberg and Bystrom were sculptors of the highest order. The last work of Fogelberg was the mounted bronze statue of Charles XIV. John, which was erected by order of Oscar I. at the capital of Sweden.
OSCAR I.
CHAPTER XL

OSCAR I.

1844—1859.


King Oscar was born in Paris, France, July 4, 1799, and received his early education in that metropolis. As hereditary prince he came to Sweden in company with his father at eleven years of age, where he soon became a Swede in both language and habits.

When he ascended the throne he was 45 years of
As Crown Prince he had exercised very little influence on the government, except during the last years. This was mainly due to his liberal views on the questions of the day, for which reason his father, the old King, had not full confidence in him. He was richly endowed both in mind and body, possessing a handsome person, a bright intellect, and a clear judgment. He was moreover a lover of the fine arts and had great artistic talents. King Oscar was of a gentle disposition, upright and equitable in all his dealings, and not slow to show mercy when he thought it would accomplish the most good. When once, after weighing matters carefully, he had come to a decision on any subject he proceeded energetically to accomplish the task he had undertaken.

One of the aims of his life was the reform of prison discipline; one of his first acts was to abolish torture—that remnant of barbarism. It will be to the eternal glory of the house of Bernadotte that each succeeding King has had a share in removing the last remnant of the cruelties that had gradually crept into the penal code of the country during the rule and domination of priestcraft; for during the heathen age such practices were unknown in the north, and were nowhere tolerated in the several old provincial laws of Sweden during pagan times. It was after the establishment of the Catholic Church in Sweden that torture was ordered to be applied to the accused.

Oscar I. was married at the age of 24 years to the beautiful sixteen-year-old Princess Josephine of Leuchtenberg, daughter of Prince Beauharnais, a stepson of the great Napoleon by his marriage to the Em-
press Josephine. Five children were born to King Oscar I. and Josephine: Charles, Gustav, Oscar, August and Eugenia. A descendant of Empress Josephine, wife of Napoleon I., is occupying one of the oldest thrones of Europe.

King Oscar on succeeding to the government was welcomed with every demonstration of joy and happy expectations for the future by the people of the united kingdoms. Nor were they deceived in their anticipations. The new King appointed a ministry of able and liberal men and at the Riksdag which met in 1844 he gave his sanction to several important reforms, such as the meeting of the Riksdag every third year instead of as formerly every fifth year. A law was passed giving greater freedom to the press. The law of inheritance for brothers and sisters, which prior to this time had varied considerably in different provinces, became uniform over the country and placed brothers and sisters on terms of equality.

The party in opposition to the government had now disappeared altogether and King and people were on the best of terms. There was, however, a small party in the House of Nobles and in the House of the Clergy who considered that the government was too liberal. But the voice of this conservative element was hushed in the general rejoicing of a happy people whose energy and ambition could now find an open field for the pursuit of happiness.

During the three years following the coronation of Oscar I. there was great activity in all branches of industry. The government exhibited an energy seldom manifested before. The Estates had appointed
a commission to prepare a revision of the constitution providing for a reconstruction of the Riksdag and a new mode of representation. When the Riksdag met in the fall of 1847 the proposition submitted by the commission did not please either the government or the Estates.

The question concerning reforms in the representation of the people at the Riksdag had been lost sight of, when suddenly in 1848 the news spread that the February revolution in France was an accomplished fact and that France had been proclaimed a Republic.

This sudden change of government by the French people was followed by a great agitation all over Europe. All the crowned heads were threatened by this sudden apparition which appeared so unexpectedly.

This event gave a new impulse to the struggle for reforms and although Sweden with her long standing political liberty had nothing to fear from those convulsions which visited other parts of Europe, still the more violent leaders of the party, anxious for a change of government, stirred the people up to such an extent that several riots occurred in the streets of Stockholm during March, 1848, which had to be quieted by force. The newspapers, by their violent attacks on the ministry, helped to increase the disorder. The Riksdag expressed dissatisfaction at the advisers of the King. This gave Oscar occasion to dismiss his ministry and appoint a new one in harmony with the opinion of the majority of the representatives at the Riksdag. The first duty of this new ministry was to prepare amendments to the constitution providing for a change in the manner of representing the people at the Riksdag.
The amendments were laid before the four Estates of the Riksdag and in accordance with the constitution were to be taken up at the succeeding Riksdag; when passed they would become a part of the fundamental laws of the land.

During the meeting of the Riksdag the foreign relations of Sweden had become very interesting. The clouds of war which hovered over Europe drifted northerly and threatened Denmark, who requested the assistance of Sweden. The long time of peace which had continued unbroken in the north since 1814 had brought the three kingdoms closely together, and the spirit of enmity and jealousy had disappeared; for several centuries previous they had been constantly at war and mutual disputes prevented their real progress. They now began to feel that a close relationship existed between them and that they ought to stand by each other in the hour of distress, and that their interests were common. The great Swedish poet, Esaias Tegner, when he crowned the Danish poet, Ohlenschlager, sang: "The time of bitterness and strife has passed." In 1859 the scientific men of Sweden, Norway and Denmark met and formed an organization in the city of Gothenburg. Gradually a spirit of friendliness and harmony drew the people nearer together, and the spirit of Scandinavianism spread to the youth of all the schools and universities, who began to work for harmony among the sister kingdoms. When Denmark in 1848 was visited by a rebellion in Holstein and Schlesvig, and when the Prussians supported the rebellion and attacked Denmark, it was a struggle which aroused general sympathy
OSCAR I., THE PRINCES AND STAFF.
and support in Sweden and Norway, and many volunteers hastened to the aid of Denmark and fought for her cause, which they believed to be just. King Oscar of Sweden perceived the importance of assisting Denmark; the danger which threatened her concerned the whole north, and he did not consider long before taking an active part in the struggle. Supported by the Riksdag of Sweden and the Norwegian Storthing, he mobilized an army in Scania of twenty thousand Swedish and Norwegian troops, five thousand of which were sent over to Fyen in order to be ready if the enemy should attack Jutland. The mobilization of the troops having prevented this, the King succeeded in bringing the belligerent countries to an armistice, after which the Swedish troops were withdrawn from the Danish Island.

In the meantime the question of the reform of the representation at the Riksdag had been thoroughly canvassed by many meetings all over the country, lectures, discussions and the circulation of pamphlets. The proposition for a new representation which had been introduced at the Riksdag in 1848 pleased neither the conservative nor the liberal parties and was rejected by the three Estates at the Riksdag in 1850-1851.

At this time King Oscar began to withdraw from the liberal party and approach the conservative, and in accordance with the change of his political views he dismissed the liberal ministry and appointed a more conservative one. The opposition party, which had been quietly resting since the time of Charles XIV., began to make itself felt again, and a great deal of bitterness was displayed against the King and his ministers,
although no attacks were made, as previously, on the King personally. At the following Riksdag which met in 1853-1854 the political questions were not considered of such great importance as they had been earlier, for political parties were not standing in such bitter opposition to each other but they could agree upon several very important reforms. The freedom with which the people all over the country had been permitted to distill their own brandy had an unfortunate and deteriorating effect upon the temperance of the people. The law permitted every householder to distill his own brandy, and this had been the cause of a great deal of drunkenness. This law was repealed and instead of it a law was passed licensing distillation of spirits only on payment of a heavy tax. A more liberal import and export law was passed which greatly developed the resources of the country. At this Riksdag the first appropriation was made for the building of railroads in Sweden, and from 1854 the increase in the means of transportation by railroad has wonderfully developed the products and industries of the country.

During the Riksdag of 1853 and 1854 the relations of Sweden with foreign powers again came to the foreground. A great war broke out in the Orient in which France and England came to the assistance of Turkey against Russia. It was easy to see that the scene of the war might be shifted to the Baltic and it was important for Sweden to determine whether she would take part with Russia or with the other powers. Charles XIV. had faithfully continued his close relations with Russia, but King Oscar saw plainly that
UPSALA CATHEDRAL.
this alliance was in direct opposition both to the sympathies of the people and to their real interest, and he therefore approached the western powers and in conjunction with the Danish King promulgated a declaration of neutrality. Negotiations were made between Oscar I. and Emperor Napoleon III. which resulted in a treaty between the two powers, signed in November, 1855, and assuring the united kingdoms of Sweden and Norway of the assistance of France and England against every attack by ocean. By this new alliance the treaty of 1812 between Sweden and Russia was broken.

The firm position taken by the Swedish King hastened the peace which was concluded between Russia and the western powers at Paris in 1856. Sweden, however, derived no benefit from this peace, except that Russia agreed not to fortify the islands of the Baltic. After this important change in the foreign relations of Sweden, Oscar I. determined to strengthen the united kingdoms by a closer alliance with Denmark, and his politics became more Scandinavian. In an address to a large number of students from the various universities and schools of the two kingdoms, he used the important words: "Henceforth a war between the Scandinavian brethren is impossible." He offered to form an alliance with the Danish King for the protection of Denmark as far as the river Eider, which he considered the natural boundary between the North and the South.

The neutral stand which Sweden had taken during the war and the presence of the French-English fleets in the Baltic had been of great importance for Swed-
lish commerce and navigation, which had never been as flourishing as it was during that time. The government was able to represent the condition of the country as very flourishing at the Riksdag of 1856-1858. Large votes were made for internal improvements, such as railroads, for which over twenty million dollars were appropriated. Considering the long distances, the scarcity of population, and the large tracts of barren and unproductive land, the railroad system of Sweden has few parallels.

The Domestic Administration of Oscar I.—The development of the natural resources as well as of other industries of Sweden had never progressed so rapidly as it did during the reign of Oscar I. In fact the increase was too sudden to last. A time of depression was bound to follow, bringing with it suffering and calamity.

The cause of this sudden impulse to the industries, independently of favorable relations, rich harvests, abundance of provisions, and plenty of fish from the fisheries, was the sudden change in the tariff law, and the reduction of duties, taxes, and imposts.

Steps were taken to free commerce from the many restrictions that had been placed upon it; to reduce taxes, to improve communications and transportation and to make the monetary system better. Even at the beginning of the reign of Oscar I. the many restrictions that had held commerce, factories, mining and other industries back, had been gradually removed. The principles of free trade were applied to commerce and imports. Farming and horticulture were practiced on improved
ART GALLERY AT STOCKHOLM.
methods. Farming machinery was introduced in place of simple hand labor. Several institutions were founded for the instruction of farmers’ sons. A new systems of weights and measures was adopted which simplified business dealings. Savings and mortgage banks were established, as well as private banks; trade and navigation were quickened by a new commercial treaty removing the duties on vessels passing through the Sound, which was made with Denmark in 1857. The several canals built through the country and the new railroads brought the cities into closer communication. The telegraph connected the most distant parts of the country so they could now communicate with each other in a few seconds, whereas it formerly took days or weeks and sometimes months. The postal system was greatly improved. The first railroad in Sweden was built by a private corporation between the cities of Orebro and Arboga. In 1854, however, the Riksdag passed a law to appropriate funds for the building of all trunk lines throughout the kingdom and to bring the same under control of the state. Money was raised through appropriations and partly by foreign loans, and the work was pushed forward under the direction of Nils Ericson, elder brother of the celebrated John Ericsson, the inventor of the Monitor used by the United States during the Civil War.

The fruits of these endeavors to improve the country were not slow in making their appearance. Agriculture developed at such a rate that the grain export, which during the first year of the reign of Oscar I. had amounted to only one million eight hundred
thousand bushels, amounted to over 10,000,000 bushels in the year 1855. Manufactured goods amounting to 25,000,000 crowns during 1844, increased to over 60,000,000 in value in 1855 and were steadily growing. Sweden took an honorable part in the second Exposition at Paris, in 1855. Her commerce with foreign countries made greater progress during a decade than it had previously done in a century. The exports as well as the imports during the year 1856 were more than treble what they had been during the first year of the reign of King Oscar I.

King Oscar more than any of his predecessors took a special interest in the literary as well as the intellectual welfare of his people. It is true that many great intellectual and influential men had died during the early years of his reign, but others took their places and literature received a great impulse. The common school system was greatly improved during his reign, many higher schools, gymnasia and colleges being established. Several professional institutions were organized, and were well supported by appropriations voted by the Riksdag. Especially did the King take under his protective care those who devoted themselves to fine arts. The school of painting at Stockholm was in a more flourishing condition than it had ever been before. A beautiful National Museum was built in the capital, to contain all the country's art treasures, which is one of the choicest collections in Europe.

A new revision of the Civil Code was enacted in compliance with the general demands of the people. Many of the old laws unsuited to the present mode
of life were amended, modified or repealed, one of
the most important alterations being that women
came of age at twenty-five.

The criminal law was revised and its administra-
tion changed to exclude and abolish the old practice
of torture, and each province was ordered to build its
own prison in which to confine its criminals. The
civil procedure of the courts was also greatly simpli-
fied, several unnecessary courts were abolished, and
identical rules of procedure in all the courts of the
realm were by law established. The state depart-
ments for mining and commerce were united to form
one department; a statistical bureau was organized
to replace the former complicated system of record-
ing births, deaths and marriages.

The land defenses were greatly improved by the
erection of several new fortifications and the strength-
ening of existing ones; large appropriations were
made for the enlargement of the navy, and several
new war vessels were built after the newest pattern.
The army was reorganized and instructed in new
tactics; and large numbers of young men received free
instruction at the military academies. All able-
bodied young men were compelled by law to spend a
certain time after their twenty-first year in the army;
thus every citizen virtually became a soldier for the
defense of his fatherland.

When the Riksdag of 1856-1858 adjourned King
Oscar had already ceased to personally govern his
kingdom. His health had previously been precarious
and during 1857 broke down completely. In the fall
of the same year, by consent of the Riksdag, the gov-
ERNING power was vested in his eldest son, the Crown Prince Charles. The King's life ebbed away gradually and his formerly bright intellect became clouded. On the 8th of July, 1859, he died, aged 60 years, mourned by all his subjects. The altars in the churches all over the land were draped in black and white after his death.
CHAPTER XLI.

CHARLES XV.
1859—1872.


King Charles XV. who at the age of thirty-three years ascended the throne of Sweden was a tall well-built and handsome man with manly determination written in every lineament. He was not free from faults, but he always showed himself patriotic, generous, merciful and just, and he won the sympathy and support of his people by his open noble character and his simple frank conduct toward all. The part of the government which mostly interested him, was the efficiency of the army and navy and the improvements
in the defenses both by land and by sea; but he devoted himself especially to the army. He was a fine artist, particularly in painting from nature,—and also a successful poet. The device upon his shield, adopted from the old pagan law of the province of Upland, "Law shall build the Fatherland," was adhered to by him throughout his life.

When Charles XV. became King over the united kingdoms, he had already governed as regent for nearly two years. During the two years of his father's sickness he had considerably changed the ministry; Baron Louis de Geer had become Minister of State, and Baron Christopher R. L. Manderstrom became Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1858.

Shortly after Charles XV. had become King, the Estates met in Riksdag in 1859 and 1860. The building of railroads through the country was one of the most important undertakings brought before this Riksdag and large appropriations were voted, over $25,000,000 being expended for the extension of the trunk lines in addition to former appropriations. Several other important questions also came up for consideration. The exercise of religious freedom had been heretofore considerably restricted, for since the State church of Sweden became Lutheran, considerable opposition to churches of other denominations had been manifested. These restrictions were now removed, and people were allowed to worship according to the dictates of their own conscience, although it was obligatory upon all to support the state church. In 1862 a new law was passed reorganizing the communes,
and thereby enlarging the people's powers of self government.

The question which most interested the Swedish people at the Riksdag in 1860 was what was called the Norwegian question. Great dissatisfaction prevailed among the Swedish people because the Norwegians showed a disposition to repel every approach on the part of Sweden towards closer unity. This feeling between the sister kingdoms was brought to a crisis when the Norwegian Storthing determined that the governorship of Norway should be abolished; this being an office which under the Act of Union could be filled by a Swede as well as by a Norwegian. After many heated discussions at the Riksdag as well as throughout the country the Estates proposed that the King should appoint a commission to revise the Act of Union between the two kingdoms and that a new Act of Union should be presented to the Riksdag as well as to the Storthing, and in connection therewith the question concerning the office of governor of Norway should be decided. The Storthing on the other hand passed a resolution that no revision should take place. The King determined to make no changes in the governorship of Norway but also declined to approve any proposition for the revision of the Act of Union. The vigorous discussion which had been carried on for some time was dropped and a more friendly feeling began to prevail between the people of the two kingdoms. The fiftieth anniversary of the union between them was approaching and when they day arrived it was celebrated by the entire population of Sweden and Norway with general rejoicings.
Shortly after the Riksdag of the year 1860 there was a general movement for the organization of sharpshooters all over the country. It was a voluntary movement on the part of the young men, who organized themselves into companies and regiments and were anxious to devote themselves to military tactics and the use of fire-arms, for the purpose of being ready in any emergency for the defense of the fatherland.

At this time the question concerning the reform of the representation in the Riksdag, which had been dormant for several years, again came to life; and as at the last Riksdag the burghers and peasants petitioned the government that the Riksdag might be reorganized, and as large numbers of addresses, from all parts of the country, were presented to the government, asking the same thing, Louis de Geer, then Minister of Justice, together with John A. Gripenstedt, Minister of Finance and others, prepared and submitted amendments to the constitution for the reorganization of the Riksdag in harmony with the spirit of the age, that representation in the future should be by general elections. The amendment was passed unanimously by the Riksdag in 1862-1863 and was ordered to lie over until it should be passed by the succeeding Riksdag. Several important acts were also passed, among them the adoption of a new criminal code and a new maritime law. The restraints which had previously been placed on the industries of the country were removed. A new church law was passed by which several changes were made in the government of the state church. Meetings of the clergy were
ordered to be held at stated times at which the laity were to have an equal representation with the clergy. These meetings, or synods, were to be held every fifth year. The clergy henceforth would be removed from the temporal affairs of the state to devote themselves to the spiritual welfare of the church. The Riksdag appropriated 28,000,000 Riks dollars for the extension of the railroads; the trunk line between Stockholm and Gothenberg had already been completed, and the one between Stockholm and Malmo was finished shortly afterwards.

The old dispute between Denmark and Germany concerning the Duchy of Holstein had recommenced, and threatened to take a very serious turn. The Swedish-Norwegian government immediately took the part of Denmark and supported it without hesitation, endeavoring to prevent Germany’s interference with the internal affairs of Denmark. King Charles XV. interested himself particularly in the cause of Denmark, as he was a personal friend of her King, Frederik VII. Negotiations were commenced for an offensive and defensive treaty between the kingdoms of the north, when just about the time this treaty was ready to be signed King Frederik VII. suddenly died, in November, 1863. His demise made a great change in the position of Denmark. Prussia and Austria found it a favorable opportunity to attack and plunder her; and when France and England were not willing to support Denmark, the Swedish-Norwegian government considered it was safer to abandon its former policy and accordingly withdrew from and broke off the negotiations of the treaty. The struggle of Den-
mark against her more powerful enemies aroused the sympathy of the Swedish-Norwegian people and many thousand soldiers hastened to offer their services and enlist under the Danish flag.

The Swedish Riksdag which was to decide upon the changes of the constitution relative to the representation met in the fall of 1865. This most important question awoke very deep interest among the people, who were eager that this reformation might be brought about. The whole country was restless. The two Estates, the Burghers and Bondes, immediately passed the constitutional amendments. The final result depended principally upon the Nobility, whose opinions were divided. After a protracted struggle and lively debates the constitutional amendments were passed by a majority of the Nobility on the 7th of December, 1865, to the accompaniment of general rejoicing all over the country. The Clergy thereupon passed them and thus the representation of the Swedish people at the Riksdag underwent a marked change.

The amendments to the constitution which were adopted by the Riksdag in the year 1866 made a change in the legislative branch of the Swedish government and provided that the representatives of the country shall meet once a year in Riksdag at Stockholm. The Riksdag is divided into two chambers having equal power and authority.

The First Chamber.—The members of the first or upper chamber are elected for a term of nine years, by the Landsting in the rural districts, and by the city councils in cities having a population large
enough to entitle them to one or more representatives. One representative is elected for each 30,000 inhabitants. The members of the first chamber serve without pay, must be over thirty-five years of age, and either possess an amount of property assessed at 80,000 crowns or else have an annual income of 4,000 crowns.

The Second Chamber.—The members of the second or lower chamber are elected for three years and receive specified salaries, 1,200 crowns and mileage. One representative is elected for each judicial district in the country and one for each city of at least 10,000 inhabitants; the smaller cities may unite for the election of one representative. The qualifications for membership of the second chamber are; payment of taxes on real estate assessed at 1,000 crowns, or the possession of a certain income, and being not less than twenty-five years of age.

The King is invested with power to prorogue the Riksdag or to dissolve it and order a new election. He may summon the Riksdag to extra session if he deem it necessary.

The representatives of the country met in Riksdag for the first time under the newly adopted constitution on the 19th of January, 1867. Since that time they have regularly met every year for about four months. The session begins every year on the 15th of January or the first working day thereafter. Internal improvements under the new order of things received a great impulse owing to the united and harmonious action of the government and the Riksdag. Religious liberty was extended, and the condition of woman was greatly improved, by placing her on an
equality with man in every respect except voting. The course of instruction at the common schools as well as at the gymnasia and universities was made still more liberal. Every parish had to look after the children within its boundaries and see that they were instructed in the first principles of education. Great credit is due to F. F. Carlson, the historian who at this period was Minister of Education and at the head of this branch of the government. The uncertain taxes which had previously been paid for government lands were now reduced to a definite ground rent. Large sums of money were appropriated for new railroads, for new equipments of the army and for the improvement of the fortifications and the naval service. The privilege of hiring substitutes to serve in the army was annulled and every able-bodied man was compelled by law to enroll himself in the militia and for a certain time take part in military service manoeuvres and encampments; but when the government at this time laid the proposition of reorganizing the army before the Riksdag, it was rejected.

During the year 1860 and the years following, the crops failed and great depression ensued, which caused a large outflux of the population. Several hundred thousand of the most able-bodied men and women of the artisan and working classes emigrated to America, but although the emigration continued, the population of the country nevertheless increased. Sweden had about 5,000,000 inhabitants at the end of the reign of Charles XV. Although King Charles XV. was endowed by nature with a good constitution he was attacked by a sudden illness while in the prime of life.
He took a journey to the city of Aix where his health did not appear to improve, so he desired to return to his kingdom that he might end his days there. He landed at the city of Malmo, where he died on the 18th of September, 1872, when only forty-six years of age. His Queen, the gentle Louisa, Princess of the Netherlands, had died the year before. They left one surviving child, a daughter, the Princess Louisa, now Crown Princess of Denmark.
CHAPTER XLII.

OSCAR II.

1872.


The order of succession, which is a part of the constitution of Sweden, and likewise a part of the constitution of Norway, and also the Act of Union between the two kingdoms prescribes that the crown shall descend to the male heir of the King. The female descendants are excluded from the throne of the united kingdoms.

Charles XV. died and left surviving him a daughter, the Princess Louisa, married since, July 28, 1869, to Frederik, Crown Prince of Denmark. The only son of Charles XV. died in childhood, on March 13, 1854. The next in order of succession after Charles XV. was his brother Oscar II. who now became King of Sweden and Norway on September 18, 1872.
The historian finds it difficult to portray a person at so close a range, particularly a historical personage. The sources whence materials may be drawn are not always reliable. Flattery and prejudice exaggerate their respective sides of the characteristics of living personages, the one because it expects everything, the other because it has not received its supposed proper share from a generous bounty.

Historians, travelers and biographers have united in describing His Majesty, Oscar II. “King of Sweden and Norway, the Goths and the Vendes” as the most learned, gifted, courteous and charming gentleman they have ever met; they all agree that his winning ways and democratic manners fascinate all with whom he comes in contact; and that he is on the best of terms with all his subjects and with all the world; a man worthy and well fitted to sit on the ancient throne of the Vasas.

Oscar II. was born in Stockholm January 21, 1829. He was the third son of Oscar I. and was rather far from the throne. But death removed his brothers and a nephew, so the crown and sceptre came to him under the order of succession. He was educated for the navy and spent much time aboard the men-of-war. But his education was not neglected. He was a hard and brilliant student. He acquired knowledge with great rapidity and is considered the most learned monarch of Europe. He is said to be master of the classical and most of the modern languages. He is an author of great renown, and a poet whose works are known and read wherever the Swedish language is read and spoken. He is entitled to more credit than most Swed-
ish authors, because in a series of the most beautiful poems, he sings of the heroic deeds performed by the officers and men of the Swedish navy. Not since the days of the Vikings have the naval heroes of Sweden received such praise as has been given them by the present King.

Sweden has produced many immortal poets, but they have mostly sung of other and more familiar subjects. Oscar II., a genuine Swede, is worthy to sit among the bards of old who drank from the fountain of Mimer. As an author he has been rewarded by the Swedish Royal Academy. He is an orator, expressing his thoughts in beautiful and felicitous language. He is an admirer of art in its various branches, a promoter of science, and a patron of education. He is easily approached by all his subjects, and is indeed a father to his people. He is a constitutional King, keeping himself strictly within the rules prescribed by the constitution. He has always endeavored to live up to the device on his coat of arms, "The Welfare of the Brother People." Although certain radical leaders of the Norwegian people have caused him some anxiety he has nevertheless by a prudent and wise administration won the hearts of the whole population of his dual kingdom. During his now nearly thirty years' reign the two united countries have advanced wonderfully in material prosperity and intellectual development.

Oscar II. was married on June 6, 1857, to Sophia, Princess of Nassau. They are blessed with four sons, Oscar Gustavus Adolphus, the Crown Prince of Sweden and Norway, Prince Charles, Prince Eugene and Prince Oscar Bernadotte.
The Crown Prince Gustavus is married to Princess Victoria of Baden, a grand-daughter of William I., Emperor of Germany, and cousin of William II., and also the great-grand-daughter of Gustavus IV., the dethroned King of Sweden. This union is blessed with three sons. The prospects are, therefore, that in the years to come, Kings of the old Swedish line will occupy the throne of Sweden.

The census of the population of Sweden, taken during the last decade of the past century, is given as 5,009,632. The population of Norway is given as 2,098,400, making a total population of the united kingdoms 7,108,032, over which Oscar II. is ruler.
The Material Development of Sweden During the Past Century.—The history of Sweden cannot show such wonderful material development in any past age as during the century just closed. The causes which brought about this development are various. For eighty years Sweden has enjoyed uninterrupted peace with all her neighbors. The people have been able to devote themselves to the pursuits of peace, and how numerous are the industries and occupations which a civilized community can pursue! It is hardly possible to specify them in detail. And from these various pursuits there follows in a modern state of civilization a corresponding demand for goods, wares and merchandise which in a lower state of civilization would be considered extravagant. And from an advanced stage of civilization there follows also a development of ideas, together with the broadening of the peoples' thoughts, sympathies and generosity. The greatest Christian gift of charity finds room in the human breast. The principle of live and let live obtains in a civilized community more than among half-civilized nations.

After centuries of a ruinous protective system, which prevailed in Sweden, the statesmen began to study Adam Smith's celebrated work, "Wealth of Nations," with the result that a more liberal policy gradually found favor with the people. The many rules and regulations which held manufactures and trades in bondage were loosened, and the effect was at once visible, as the statistics of exports and imports clearly show.

Legalized protection, a prohibitive tariff, and
trades-unionism restricted the importation of foreign goods and skilled labor. Such laws acted as a restraint upon individuals, by preventing them from engaging in certain trades, manufactures, and branches of commerce, unless permission was given by the monopolists in the particular industry affected. Certain cities had special commercial privileges which other cities and towns could not invade. The trades-unions could prevent manufacturers from employing more labor or engaging more assistants than the special permit granted them allowed. The number of apprentices was limited. A person had to serve a certain number of years before he could become a journeyman, and the position of a master mechanic was not easily obtained.

The principle of trades-unionism is centuries old; at least in the cities of Sweden, there are charters, regulations and lodges in existence 500 years old. The extraordinary demand for manufactured goods burst these fetters, and the various trades and occupations were opened to willing, faithful and industrious hands.

The battles that were fought at the successive Riksdags between the defenders of the old protective system and the promoters of free trade were many and sharp. They were oratorical conflicts, but none the less important. The liberals, or free traders, carried one stronghold after the other of their opponents until at last the protectionists had little to protect. The Swedish people, who never would submit to any restraints on the liberty of thought and action when once awakened to a realization of the hindrance, removed all obstructions in a lawful way through the legislature, the Riksdag. Combination of capital
made great undertakings feasible. Several persons with limited capital combined, and large industrial enterprises were started.

Farming and Husbandry.—Up to the beginning of 1803 large tracts of land were in the hands of persons who either would not sell or divide the same, for the law was so peculiarly worded that it was difficult for the purchaser to obtain an absolute title in fee. There were also certain restrictions upon the subdivision of land. These conditions had a discouraging effect on the farming industry. The manner was also primitive; large portions of arable land are rolling and rockbound and not well suited for agricultural machinery, hence the most primitive methods of farming long prevailed among the farmers.

In 1811 there was established in Stockholm the Swedish Academy of Agriculture, whose object it was to encourage the development of agriculture and husbandry and kindred branches.

In 1846 an agricultural college was established at Ultuna, near Upsala, and in 1859 a model agricultural college was founded at Alnarp in the rich agricultural province of Scania, and several similar institutions have been established elsewhere in the country, where theoretical and practical instruction is given in husbandry to the youth of Sweden. The results of these schools have been remarkable. The farming communities have been wonderfully blessed by the instruction given to the students; and by the publication of various agricultural papers and magazines which reach the farmers all over the country they are kept well posted on all improvements in
farming. The increase in grain has been manifold. Dairying has been stimulated and the Swedish inventive genius has done more for the perfection of the creamery and the making of butter than any other nation. The De la Val separator used in creameries all over the world was invented by a Swede in Sweden, and is a Swedish product. Many other inventions connected with the dairy industries are due to Swedish genius. The exceeding modesty of the Swedish inventors and the difference of language appear to stand between them and the English-reading public.

There are now agricultural societies in parishes, harads, (counties) and provinces which encourage and reward the successful farmer. The raising of livestock, and poultry-farms, have received a wonderful stimulus. The population of the large cities in Europe has increased rapidly, and the demand for the farmer's products is great, while the pay for them is good. Scania, the southernmost province, is the granary of Sweden. The country along the eastern and western coasts is level, the soil is alluvial and a rich loam, which, when carefully drained and cultivated, produces almost incredible crops. The inland country is less fertile, but nevertheless rewards the husbandman handsomely for his labor.

The Mining Industries.—The manufacture of iron, steel and copper has been developed with great rapidity, and many new discoveries have been made by Swedish inventors for improving and refining these metals. The export of this important industry has lately increased. Nearly a hundred per cent of this
raw material ought to be manufactured in Sweden for the foreign markets; thereby giving employment to the people at home, instead of shipping the raw material abroad. The value of goods manufactured in Sweden has increased as shown by statistics a thousand per cent during the last fifty years, and the goods are of a very high order.

The Swedish exhibits at the several expositions in Europe and America testify to the high degree of skill which the Swedish mechanics and artisans have attained. The further fact that in the United States and other countries hundreds of thousands are employed in every kind of industry and manufacture, and always with the highest praise as skilled mechanics, is an evidence that the Swedes should not be excelled when they are at home on their own soil.

The Forestry.—Forestry, which in Sweden has been for ages a large and profitable industry, has received the attention of the government on account of the reckless destruction of the forests by parties who looked to present profit rather than to a steady income for the future. A Forest Commission was created by the Riksdag in 1859. Several institutions have been established where young men are receiving instruction in theoretical and practical forestry.

The Manufactures.—Manufactures received a great impetus after the repeal of the laws that hampered their free and unrestricted development. As the country was rich in raw material and possessed plenty of water power, it was natural that as much as possible of the water power should be utilized for the saving of fuel and labor. Many important factories, machine shops, and mills have been erected along the
rivers at the great waterfalls and thus nature has been harnessed to serve mankind.

Sweden has an excellent system of transportation. Before the introduction of railroads the people and the traveling public were dependent upon the public highways, stage roads, and stage coaches which were regulated by law. Ten to fourteen miles apart were stations, called Gastgifvaregardar, where the traveler changed horses and obtained refreshment or lodging. The highways were maintained by the community under the inspection of the sheriff. The roads were mostly macadamized. The great throughfare across Sweden is the Gota Canal, an artificial waterway extending from Stockholm to Gothenburg, and built at an expense of many million dollars. Besides this main artery there are several other canals, and the many streams which flow into the oceans have been dredged and made navigable.

The railroads, as has been mentioned, received a great impetus and are penetrating the country in every direction. The trunk lines are under control of the government, but many of the branch roads are owned and controlled by private corporations.

Sweden was one of the first nations to join the postal union. The postal system is under control of a special government department. It is claimed that a Swede was the first to suggest and plan the uniform postal charges for transmission of letters. For a small population like that of Sweden, the postal business is large, being about ten dollars a year per capita.

The telegraph and telephone systems have reached a higher degree of development than in any other country. It is claimed there is a telephone in almost every house.
CHAPTER XLIII.

SWEDISH LITERATURE BEFORE THE 19TH CENTURY.


The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Swedish People.—The influence of a nation in this world cannot be measured solely by the battles they have fought and victories they have won, nor by their accumulation of material wealth, their temples and buildings, their monuments, nor even by their fine arts.

What Makes a People Truly Great.—A nation’s true greatness will appear in its intellectual, spiritual and moral development as reflected in its literature. The nation possessing crystallized thought expressed in history, poetry, philosophy, physical, mental and
moral science, a broad, liberal and tolerant religion, pure spiritual thoughts which influence the individuals to fulfill the highest demands of purity and love, a literature in which the noble, the true, the pure, and the beautiful are abundantly set forth—such a nation is truly great.

That part of the Holy Bible or the Scriptures called the Old Testament is the literature of the Hebrews, and it is this book that has immortalized that people and will keep them together as long as the world and their literature shall endure. The Vedas will forever commemorate the greatness of the dwellers of India. The followers of Confucius will always look back to the golden age when the philosopher formulated his precepts. Greece was a small country, but she built beautiful temples. Her arts will never be surpassed in beauty and variety. They have suffered decay; but the thoughts of her poets, Homer, Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides; of her philosophers, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle and others; of her historians, Xenophon and Thucydides; and of her orators, Demosthenes and Pericles, are today, after two thousand years, moulding, elevating and inspiring men to a higher, better, and nobler life.

Alexander the Great, a Macedonian Greek, constructed a vast empire which soon fell apart, but the thoughts of Greece exert as great an influence on mankind as ever. The Roman Empire was wonderful in its military achievements and famous for its great cities, its magnificent temples, and its wealth. Rome was the mistress of the world. Yet all her splendor perished and disappeared within a few days
at the hands of the victorious Goths and Vandals, who erected their empire on the Roman ruins; and they in turn disappeared from the face of the earth and would be unknown today except for the few remnants of their literature, such as the Bible of Ulfilas and the history of Jordanes. Rome perished; her martial hosts are no more; her influence and glory lie in the dust; her system of government is no longer in existence; but her ten tables and her civil law form the jurisprudence of the Latin states, modified to suit another civilization. Her poets, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Catullus, still inspire and inflame passionate youth; her philosophers, Cicero, Cato, Seneca and Quintillian, are yet influencing the thoughts of men and inspiring them to action in the varied spheres of life. Nor would her greatness be known except for her historians, Livy, Tacitus, and Julius Caesar. These great writers are alive today; their genius exerts the same potent spell that it did of old, and therefore we acknowledge Greece and Rome to be immortal.

It is Shakespeare and Milton, Hume, Macaulay and Gibbon, Newton and Bacon, and hundreds of other writers who have inspired the people of Great Britain and made the British Empire.

It is Goethe, Schiller, Leibnitz, Luther, Melancthon and a host of German thinkers and writers who have elevated the German nation, and crystallized it; and their influence on the minds of its warriors and statesmen has made it today a great and powerful empire.
While the hard-won empire of the great Napoleon crumbled away, his Civil Code is and will be an enduring monument to his memory as long as the French language is spoken. It was Moliere, Voltaire, De Stael, Guizot and the many other authors of France who inflamed French patriotism to acts of heroism.

The old Scandinavian North is known by its Eddas and Sagas, by its provincial laws and poems. These are today read and studied more diligently than heretofore, and form the literary heritage of Sweden as well as of Iceland, Norway, and Denmark. It is surprising how little attention has been given to the study of the Swedish language and literature among English and American scholars, students, and readers. The Swedish language is beautiful, expressive, rich and sonorous. Her literature is prolific on all the various subjects on which human thought has expressed itself.

Literature.—The great activity of the Swedish intellect is shown in the production of a bountiful and beautiful literature. The poet is generally the first to crystallize a language, inasmuch as it is he who usually awakens the national sentiment and arouses feelings of patriotism; after him follow the historian, the philosopher, the scientist, the prophet, and the priest.

Swedish literature developed slowly, but when encouragement was given to it and it was recognized, valued and protected by the Throne, it burst forth and blossomed as flowers do under the quickening influence of Spring.

We have already referred to the Runes, and to the
old provincial laws, the heritage of each individual community and province, as well as to the Eddas and the Sagas which are common to all Scandinavia, and which, but for religious fanaticism during the middle ages, would have thrived and developed in Sweden as well as in Iceland.

During the Middle Ages the literature of Sweden was meager and of very little interest. The darkness covering the earth spread like a pall over Sweden no less than over the rest of Europe. The religious legends which seem to have been the only product of the Roman catholic church have been forgotten and are now almost extinct. Some few works of note, however, were written during the 14th and 15th centuries. Eric Olaus wrote a history of the Swedes and the Goths. Some Chronicles in Rhyme had also been composed by unknown authors at an earlier date and form the foundation on which historians have built ever since. Another important work dating from this period is the Encyclopedia of Medicine, Mining, and other Sciences, written by Peter Mansson who died in 1534. There is also a book, which became very famous, entitled “On the Reign of Kings and Princes.” The author’s name has not come down to us, but it is a work of great merit and an ornament to the Swedish language, being one of the best things written during the Middle Ages and comparing favorably with the Proverbs of Solomon and the Havamal of the Elder Edda.

The first attempt to translate the Bible into Swedish was made by Canon Moses who died in 1350, before he had finished his task. It is not to be wondered
at that people were living in superstition and ignorance, seeing that for 500 years the Roman Catholic religion was alone professed and the Christians had no Bible in their own tongue but had to be satisfied with legends and stories of saints and monks, over and above what little they could gather or learn from a Latin mass. But the Reformation bore fruit in the shape of a translation of the Bible by Olave Petri and Lawrence Petri into the Swedish tongue. And, as the discovery of the wonderful art of printing now made books comparatively cheap, it was decreed by royal mandate that a copy of the Scriptures be placed in every church, to be read every Sabbath day, not in a foreign tongue, but in the vernacular. Thus love of the Bible became general, and people were anxious to own the sacred volume themselves. Luther's Catechism, the Apostolic and Nicene creeds and the Athanasian Symbola were translated into Swedish and became a public heritage. The Bible further helped to make the people intelligent and created a craving for more knowledge. A common prayer and hymnbook in the native language was also prepared by the reformers, adopted, and sanctioned by royal decree. A similar process was taking place in Germany, England, France, and over the whole continent. The age of the Reformation was the age of the awakening of learning. Prior to that time, none of the now great and intelligent European nations could lay claim to any national classic literature. The literature of all the European nations came into being, flourished, and grew during and after the Reformation.
As Sweden had for ages past been a warlike nation it is natural that she should at an early date develop a historical literature. Her conflict with Denmark inspired the Swedish historians to relate the many wars which had been waged between the two peoples and to descant upon the heroism of the Swedes, going into minute details touching the organization of the troops, their weapons and their tactics. Historical investigation has always been a favorite study with the Swedes, which accounts for the many and voluminous histories in the Swedish language, both general and special. Not only Gustavus Vasa but also his sons and successors on the Swedish throne gave special encouragement and support to the Swedish literary men and authors, especially when they devoted their energies to historical researches and literature.

The Vasa Kings had their histories written under their personal supervision. Gustavus Adolphus himself wrote a brief history of his father in pure, beautiful Swedish. All his state papers, proclamations, and orders are models of their kind, his diction being as pure as his language was clear and concise.

The old laws which had been codified first by the sanction of Magnus, and afterwards by Christopher, for the use of all Sweden, were again revised, and by royal mandate adopted. A proclamation was issued by Gustavus Adolphus directing that the revised code be put in force throughout the whole realm. The code of 1736 is a model lawbook, and worthy of study for its clear, definite, and simple rulings on all subjects relating to the rights of persons and things and to the proper application of legal remedies.
The Stjernhjelm period, from 1640 to 1740, was a time when war and the results of disastrous wars were engrossing the attention of the people. While they were suffering from the effects of the cruel and protracted struggles, literature received but slender support. Yet the universities prospered and their reputation was upheld by many able men. The younger generation, however, were for the most part absorbed by the army and navy. From 1740 to 1780, which is known as the Dalin period, a new life began to show itself in Swedish literature. Louisa Ulrika, consort to Adolph Fredric and a sister of Frederik the Great of Germany, was an extraordinary personality, endowed with great talents and devoted to literature, the fine arts, music, and science. She gathered around her whatever of genius the Swedish soil could produce; and as she manifested a decided preference for the French school, it became the model for Swedish men of letters. The Queen organized literary, historical, scientific, musical, and dramatic societies at Stockholm, in all of which she was the living, moving, and directing spirit. It is natural that under such a protectress the talent and the genius of the country should flock to her court at the capital of the nation.

Among those who became famous at this time was Olaf von Dalin, whose refined and polished writings greatly contributed to simplify and beautify the language. Gustav F. Gyllenborg and Gustav Philip Creutz won much admiration as poets, and the poems of Hedvig Charlotta Nordenflycht are gems of beauty.

It was during this period that Sweden gave to the world the renowned naturalist and botanist Carl Lin-
naeus (1707-1778), Carl W. Scheele, the chemist, and several of their followers. Learned men in every quarter of the world listened with rapt attention to their teachings. Their discoveries in the field of science, particularly those relating to medicine, have been of inestimable benefit to mankind.

Linnaeus stands head and shoulders above other scientists of his generation. A greater reputation than his has been acquired by no scientist of any age. He is an honor and credit to his fatherland, and therefore monuments have been erected to his memory in Stockholm, and in the New World in Lincoln Park, Chicago, by his admiring country-men. By his contemporaries he was lauded, and he is today considered the greatest natural philosopher of all time. Most of his works were written in Latin, but some also in Swedish. They show a versatility and an interest in all that is worth knowing, as well as a clearness and grandeur of style which make their study a delight. Such was the penetrating power of his intellect that when only 23 years old he was able to demonstrate the sexual system in the vegetable kingdom.

Carl Wilhelm Scheele, (1742-1786) a druggist, made many great discoveries in the field of natural science and especially in chemistry and physics. He was the first to discover and turn to practical use the several natural gases, a feat which for utility may be placed on an equal footing with the discovery of gunpowder and printing. Sweden produced at this time many other great scientists and inventors, the list of whose names alone would be quite lengthy, whose writings are now treasures of the civilized world.
It is, however, the Gustavian period in Swedish literature which is the most remarkable. Poetry, which had made a very creditable beginning, reached its highest development after Gustavus III. had ascended the throne. In studying the literature of this period in all its branches the conclusion is forced upon an impartial mind that Gustavus III. was one of the most extraordinarily gifted persons who ever sat upon a throne. He was a lover of all that was beautiful in art, in literature, and in nature, and he showed this taste and love in his intercourse with men. Himself an eloquent orator, a writer of remarkable talents, and a man of letters, he was not slow to appreciate the gifts of others. The Swedish Academy, which he created, became a center for Sweden's literary men. But above and beyond this institution, whenever he heard of or discovered a literary genius, however poor he might be, the King extended protection and favor to him, and therefore the Swedish people owe to Gustavus III. such rich treasures of literary genius as cannot be surpassed in any other language. The Swedish writers have divided the poets of this period into two classes—and in point of fact such a classification or division is possible. But why classify and make invidious comparisons between great and beautiful minds? The poets of the days of Gustavus are stars of the first magnitude in the Northern firmament.

John Henrik Kellgren (1751-1795) is a poet whose memory will always live. His poems are gems of extraordinary beauty. Most of them are either satirical or erotic. The former may not be clearly understood by a later generation although they are pithy,
sharp, and full of wit; but the latter are so full of passion, so spiritual, so imaginative, and abound in such vivid descriptions and coloring as to equal the finest efforts of Greek, Latin, French, German or English writers. Not even Shakespeare's masterpieces excel some of these beautiful gems of Kellgren.

Karl Michael Bellman (1740-1795) is one of the most remarkable and also original of the many poets who sang during the reign of Gustavus III. He was a poor young student, struggling for a bare existence, when his genius was discovered by the King, who forthwith appointed him to a lucrative position, which enabled
him to live and at the same time develop his poetical talents. He did not follow the French models or any rules and regulations laid down by other literati. He was an original genius—a fountain whence flowed genuine poetry. He wrote for the common people and on subjects with which they were familiar, but it was poetry full of music, music of the wind kissing the leaves and the lilies of the field, music of the rippling brook, music of the daily occupations of the busy throng and of their leisure hours. It was poetry which charmed the courtier as well as the mechanic, the scholar as well as the ordinary reader, because it found a response in the national feeling of every patriotic Swede. Bellman was not confined within the narrow limits of prescribed aesthetic theories, nor bound by old models. He wrote on the inspiration of the moment; let the critics dip their pens in gall as much as they pleased—it did not affect this extraordinary genius. By some he was christened the Northern Anacreon, who sang of roses, wine, and love, while others saw in him a Swedish Pindar and marvelled at his richness of thought and wild fantastic flights. Bellman is, without doubt, a star of the first magnitude. The great poet Kellgren says of him, "Bellman was a genius, and genius must have its own way—be itself and no one else—genius must be considered immeasurable greatness and therefore incomprehensible." Bellman's Fredmans Epistles are poems of strong individual character, profound in thought and models of versification. The whole history of literature can show nothing better. He is a Swedish national poet and lives in the hearts of the people. His
statue was erected in one of the parks of Stockholm, and there, on the 28th of July, he is annually crowned by the populace who make the day a general holiday.

Carl Leopold (1756-1829) was a poet of the same school as Kellgren. His poem "Virginia" is full of beauty and animation but is surpassed by his masterpiece, "Oden eller Asarnes Invandring," Oden or the Migration of the Asas, for which Gustavus III. crowned him with a laurel wreath plucked from the grave of Virgil.

Bengt Lidner (1757-1793) was another poetical genius. His one volume of poetry contains lyrics full of beautiful thoughts expressed in most melodious phrases. His "Stahara's Death" contains a description of an earthquake, the destruction of the city and the agony, despair and death of the people—the most awe-inspiring and graphic word picture that has ever been written.

Anna Maria Lengren (1754-1817) is one of the most interesting figures that adorn this creative period. Her father was a professor at Upsala and gave her a university education. Her volume of poems contains many gems.
JOHAN O. WALLIN.
CHAPTER XLIV.

SWEDISH LITERATURE DURING THE 19TH CENTURY.


The Swedish literature at the beginning of the Nineteenth century began to assume a more independent and national character, and to free itself from the strict rules of foreign conventionalities which to a great extent had retarded its growth.

The revolution of 1809, which was followed by an almost unrestricted freedom of the press, gave an impetus to all literary activity. Names worthy of historical mention are many. The first poet whose voice
had been heard prior to this event is Frans Michael Franzen (1772-1847), Professor at Abo and later Bishop of the diocese of Hernosand in Sweden. He is justly considered one of the charming poets of Sweden. During times of war, commotion, violence, revolution and despotism, Franzen, like a bird in the woods, sings of innocence, peace, reconciliation, love, and fraternity. His poems, “To Selma,” “Den Gamle Kneckten” (The Old Soldier), “Blommorna” (The Flowers), “New Year’s Morning,” “The Starry Heavens,” etc., breathe purity and simplicity, clear as the crystal stream flowing from the fountain. In addition to being a poet Franzen was also a great orator, and his many addresses delivered on various festal occasions, are models of the orator’s art. He was a member of the Swedish Academy.

Johan Olaf Wallin (1779-1839), the son of a poor non-commissioned officer in the Swedish army, began life under great disadvantages, with the world against him, but by hard work and diligent study he rose step by step until he became Archbishop of Sweden. Wallin is called “The David’s Harp of the North.” The name is not misapplied. He wrote many beautiful poems in which exquisite thought is allied to perfect diction; and he is especially well known by his many sacred hymns. To him more than any other person the Swedish Lutheran Church is indebted for the unexcelled hymn book used every Sunday in all the churches of the land, and also in many Swedish churches and homes in other lands—a hymn book which need not shrink from comparison with that of any church. Wallin was also one of the most eloquent preachers of his time.
Per D. A. Atterbom (1790-1855), a professor in Upsala University, is regarded as one of Sweden's meritorious poets. Many separate poems in his great cycle "Lycksalighetens O," (The Isle of Bliss) and "Fogel Bla" (Blue Bird) are exceedingly beautiful, although these works as a whole are not of such merit as to compare with those of the great poets of Sweden.

Atterbom was one of the most bitter antagonists of the old French school as well as of the Gothic school, which wanted to revive the old Norse literature and build up a modern one on the basis of the old poetry and sagas.

Even during the previous century a great change had taken place in the literary world; the rules and restrictions of the French school, which during the time of Gustavus III. had been considered binding, were henceforth thrown off and the literati followed their own bent or adopted German models, and discussion became both lively and bitter as to which was the superior.

The Gothic school had the greater influence because it numbered among its adherents the greatest literary men and poets of the age and particularly Sweden's greatest poet, Esaias Tegner. Professor Geijer the great historian, poet, and musician, and Ling, poet and founder of the Swedish system of gymnastics, both belonged to the Gothic school of literature.

The Gothic School.—In the beginning of 1811 there was organized by a few young men, in Stockholm, a literary society called "Gotiska Forbundet," the Gothic Alliance or Society, whose main object was to inter-
est the people in the old time spirit of freedom, in manly exercise, in nobility of character, and in the old songs and sagas, as well as to forward the study of Scandinavian antiquity. The society published an organ or magazine called Iduna in which many literary productions and poems of unusual merit appeared.

Two of the greatest literary men of Sweden were introduced to the public through this publication. They were Eric Gustaf Geijer (1783-1847), and Esaias Tegner (1782-1846). Geijer became professor at the University of Upsala. He wrote several poems in the old Viking spirit which found an immediate response in the hearts of the Swedes. The themes were drawn from Viking days. Yet it is not as a poet but as a historian that Geijer has been of the greatest service to
the Swedish people. In his "History of the Swedish People" Geijer has immortalized himself and his fellow Swedes. This work ends with the reign of Christina, June 6, 1654, but so far as it goes it surpasses all prior Swedish histories. He also began a critical Swedish history of the early times which was left unfinished.

Geijer's historical essays on the condition of Sweden during the period of her political liberty from the death of Charles XII. to May 29, 1772, when Gustavus III. ascended the throne, and his sketches of the persons who controlled and guided the destinies of Sweden during those times, are masterpieces from the pen of the philosopher and historian. His collected works fill ten large volumes. He wrote poetry and history, as well as treatises on philosophy, on politics, on economy, on the school and educational system, and on the various questions of the day.

By the last will and testament of Gustavus III. his private papers were to be kept sealed for fifty years. The time having expired, the seals were removed and Professor Geijer published in several volumes the writings of the lately departed King. By means of this publication a new light was shed over the life and character of that noble monarch, and the prejudices against him were gradually overcome. Professor Geijer was comparatively young when he was elected a member of the Swedish Academy.

Esaias Tegner, Sweden's most celebrated poet, was, like many great men, born in moderate circumstances, and during his course of study had to struggle with adversity. But he made rapid progress at the Uni-
versity of Lund, where he took his degree at the age of 19 years. Remaining there he became first Docent and then Professor of Greek at his Alma Mater. Tegner's writings have exerted an influence upon the culture, education, refinement, and thought of the Swedish people which cannot be fully estimated or described. As a poet and orator (for he was both) he has not been surpassed nor even approached by any one else in refinement and picturesqueness of language, in the multitude and variety of his figures of speech, in perspicuity of thought, and flights of imagination. No poet either has been or still is so loved and cherished by the Swedish people as Tegner. The first poem which brought him fame was the "Krigssang for Skanska Landtvartnet" (War song for the Militia of Scania), in 1808. It was a time of war and this poem sounded like a tocsin in the night. Reading it now its sentiments breathe into the soul patriotism and courage; but imagine the fire and enthusiasm it kindled when the war clouds were hanging over Sweden and the lightning and thunder of Asa Thor were shaking her very foundations. In 1811 Tegner was awarded the great prize of the Swedish Academy for "Svea," a patriotic poem, a song whose notes reverberated throughout the land and charmed all who lived in it. Tears of joy filled the eyes of men, women, and children, when this poem entered as it did every cottage as well as palace. Its sentiments so inspired the people during these trying times that no enemy would have subdued Sweden unless he had walked over the corpse of every Swede in the land.
Tegner wrote many other poems, the Maysong, The Book, The Migratory Birds, Charles XII., Song for Jamtland's Sharpshooters, The Fire, Ode to the Sun, and an Epilogue at the graduation exercises of Lund University in 1820. Here is a model for University Presidents. It is one of the most beautiful poetical addresses ever delivered to a class of young men standing on the threshold of the sacred precincts of Alma Mater, with the days of student life behind them and the gates of the world opening before their ambitious gaze.

Among Tegner's larger poems is "Axel," a romantic poem taken from the times of Charles XII., which has been translated and printed in all the European languages. It is one of the most beautiful poems that has ever been written but the translations do not express the beauties and the thoughts of the original. "Nattvardsbarnen," the children of the Lord's Supper, translated by Longfellow, is an idyl which breathes purity and holy aspiration, and is worth the perusal of every youth. "Kronbruden" and "Gerda" are fragments. The latter contains sentiments which, for purity and exquisite sweetness, are not surpassed by anything written on a similar subject.

"Frithiofs Saga" is Tegner's most celebrated work. The subject is taken from the Norse sagas, and the poem is divided into 24 cantos. It is undoubtedly the best-known and the most beautiful composition in the Swedish tongue and can hardly be surpassed by the literary masterpieces of any language. It is a triumph of art. The versification changes with each canto. It has been translated into all the Euro-
pean languages, and many translators have exercised their ingenuity in trying to approach the original.

Tegner was highly successful in poetical alliteration as is shown by the following stanzas from Ring's Drapa in Frithiof:—

RING'S DRAPA.

Sitter i högen
Högättad höfding,
Slagsvärd vid sidan,
Skölden på arm.
Gångaren gode
Gnäggar derinne,
Skrapar med guldhof
Grundmurad graf.

Nu rider rike
Ring öfver Bifrost,
Svigtar för börдан
Bågiga bron.
Upp springa Valhalls
Hvalfdörrar vida;
Asarnes händer
Hänga i hans.

Välkommen, vise
Valhalla-arfving!
Länge lär Norden
Lofva ditt namn.
Brage dig helsar
Höfviskt med horndryck
Nornornas fridsbud
Nerifrån Nord!

Sepultured sits he,
Sovereign descended,
Battle sword by him,
Buckler on arm;
Chafes his good charge
Champing impatient,
Pawing with gold-hoof
The gate of the grave.

Ring, great in riches,
Rideth o'er Bifrost;
Bends with its burden,
Bridge of the gods.
Wide for his welcome
Valhall it opens,
Hands to the hero
The Asas extend.

Welcome, thou wisest
Winner at Valhall!
Long thou'lIt be lauded
Loved of the North.
Brage, the bearded,
Bears thee the mead-horn,
Favored of fortune,
Friend from below.

“Axel,” Tegner’s celebrated poem, has been referred to as having been translated into English. It is a romance of a high order, laid in the time of Charles XII. and representing an incident of frequent occurrence during those stirring times. The principal character is a young officer, Axel Roos,
ESAIAS TEGNER.
one of the trusted body guards of that monarch while he sojourned at Bender in Turkey, after his unfortunate battle of Pultava. Axel was one of those fearless Caroliner who had followed Charles XII. during his meteoric career, had fought in many battles—never reckoning the odds against him but always courting danger. One evening the King placed a letter in Axel's hand directing him to ride day and night until he should reach Sweden and there deliver the letter to the Council of State. Axel was riding through the enemy's country when suddenly an armed band of Russians surrounded him and demanded the letter. Axel placed his back against a tree and with his long sword fought against overwhelming numbers and cut many down; but ere long his arm was wearied out, and he was grievously wounded and left for dead. At this instant a company of hunters, with Maria, a young noblewoman at their head, came to the rescue. This maiden took Axel home to her castle where she bandaged his wounds and nursed him until his wounds were healed. But love wounded him yet more deeply. One evening Axel's gray steed stands ready saddled and bridled for him. The lovers must part; Axel to pursue his journey toward Sweden in obedience to the commands of the King, Maria to remain, waiting for happier days. There in the shadows the following episode takes place, and, as related by the poet, it runs thus:

The nightingale was singing clear and loud,
The moon stood listening from his silver cloud,
When, warm as life, and true as death, a kiss
Dissolved their souls in harmony of bliss.
The mingling breath ascended to the skies
Like blended flames from one pure sacrifice.
For them the world stood still, and Time had laid
His hour glass, all forgotten, in the shade.
Yes! mortal hours their courses must fulfill;
Rapture and agony are measured still;
But Death's cold kiss, and the warm kiss of love,
Are children of Eternity above!

The blest ones! Earth upon her funeral pile
Had blazed—and they unconscious stood the while;
Its mighty bulwarks been in fragments hurl'd,
And they not recognized a falling world.
Thus fondly locked together, mouth to mouth,
Had stood these Genii of the North and South;
And passed unheeding even that bridge of sighs,
That transports human bliss to Paradise!

O Axel! since on wounds received in war
Time laid his hand, and left thee scarce a scar,
Since all forgotten was the external smart,
Fond dreamer, say, how fares it with thy heart?
Less fatal were to thee the Turkish brand,
Or Russian carbine, than that milk white hand
That bound thine wounds—'twere safer for thine ear
Pultova's thunders once again to hear,
Than those fresh rosy lips, which only part,
To whisper hopes delusive to thine heart.
When in the grove thou'dst fly the noontide heat,
Stay on thy faithful sword thy trembling feet,
And that round snowy arm forever shun,
Where Love himself might rest—and be undone.
Oh, Love! thou wonder both of earth and sky!
Whisper of more than earth's felicity!
Refreshing zephyr of celestial breath,
Sweeping along this thirsty vale of death!
Thou heart in nature's breast! thou healing rill,
Whence peace and hope for gods and men distill!
Even in the depths of ocean's blue abyss,
Drop clings to drop, with instinct's wondrous kiss;
From pole to pole, the planets in the sky
Weave bridal dance around the world's bright eye.—
Thou shinest upon man like twilight ray,
Or pale reflection of some brighter day
Of blessed infancy, whose pastimes free,
Beneath heaven's silver-fretted canopy,
Claim'd kindred with a bright-wing'd cherub strain!
Alas! how oft, since first he fell to earth,
Is Love unmindful of his heavenly birth!
Yet there are moments when his upward eye
Explores, with wistful glance, his native sky;
When, 'mid life's tumult, on his ravish'd ears
Steals once again the music of the spheres;
Like that resistless melody which fills
The Switzer's soul with memory of his hills.

Axel first returned to consciousness from his ecstacy of bliss, and told Maria that he was bound by an oath to hasten to Sweden. And so he departed, promising to return ere long to his youthful love, rode on his way and soon arrived in Sweden. Maria doubted Axel's sincerity and concluded that his oath bound him to a Swedish maiden—so she put on a soldier's uniform and joined a Russian regiment which invaded Sweden. Axel, being yet in Sweden, collected a Swedish army and attacked them like the angry Thor—the Russians fell right and left and the field was covered with the dead. The sun had set and the moon spread its silver light over the battle field—Axel is wandering among the fallen, where friend and foe embrace each other. Suddenly he hears
his name softly called; he finds a youth reclining against a tree in death’s embrace, who whispers “Axel I am thirsty! give me water!” In this piteous figure he recognizes his beloved Maria, who confesses her error and prays him not to forget her, and before he can relieve her agony her soul takes its flight. Axel buries his beloved Maria on the hill by the sea and plants a rosebush on her grave. But the wand of insanity has touched his mind; and night and day he either wanders like a shadow among the tombs, calling Maria’s name, or sits by her grave bidding the waves be still and not disturb her sleep. One morning this Carolin is found cold in death on his beloved Maria’s grave.

The poem is graphic, soul-stirring, sympathetic and tender. If Tegner had written nothing more than this poem, his name would have been entitled to immortality.

Tegner’s “Gerda” is a poetical narrative of the dedication of the Cathedral of Lund, which is supposed to have occurred during the 9th century. As a description of the dedication of temporal things to the use of religion and divine worship it is almost unique.

Tegner tells how, according to the gorgeous ceremonies of the Roman Catholic Church, the bishop and a host of priests and choristers having marched thrice around the cathedral enter through the high portals into the temple, which is illuminated by thousands and thousands of burning candles on the altar and in the candelabra. The Hosannas and Holy, Holy, Holy, accompanied by cymbals and harps, float out upon the air. The incense fills the sacred edifice:
jublande på kullar blå.
Än det lät som aftonvindar,
suckande i Edens lindar,
änsom Herrans stämma i
dundret öfver Sinai.
Och de höga Hosianna
studsa emot hvalfrets panna,
och hvart menskligt sinne tar
flygten opp till menskors far.
När till slut den vigde talar
i sin vigda kyrkas salar,
talar saligheter om
nåden, som från himlen kom,
och förlåter och välsignar,—
da hvart knät till jorden dignar,
och hvor målad ängel ser
levande från hvalfvet ner.
O! att äfven du der varit,
äfven du, som jag, erfarit
kraftens ord och fridens bud—
skulle trott, som jag, på Gud.

He compares the cathedral to Mount Tabor excavated and made into a temple—the sweet odor filling the temple is Eden’s perfume, and God Jehovah is dwelling unseen in the lofty chancel. For the first time from this altar is declared to mankind: “Peace on earth, good will to men.” Then the great organ, the lungs of heaven, takes its first deep breath, and peals out such melodies as the Heavenly Hosts sing when they stand around the Throne.

Whatever Tegner wrote contains the same splendid rhetoric, and the exuberant gorgeousness of his imagery; whether in his professor’s chair, or in his pulpit as Bishop of Vexio, he is always the same inspired poet, teacher and orator.

During the last three years of his life Bishop Tegner was greatly afflicted by a mental malady, which com-
pelled him to rest from his labors, and although he recovered, his bodily health was broken and he died November 2, 1846.

Next to the Bible, no writings have been treasured by the Swedish people like the writings of Bishop Tegner.

Every subject upon which Tegner wrote, he touched with the fire of inspiration. He is entitled to the first place among Sweden’s literary men. He, like Geijer, had been elected a member of the Swedish Academy.

Per Henrich Ling (1776-1839), another member of the Gothic school, was also its most enthusiastic adherent. His poetical cycles “Gylfe” and “Asarne” are imitations of the old Sagas and Eddas. It is a resurrection of the old Sviar and Gotar in thought and action; the return of the Asa to earth. His “Agne,” “Domalder,” “St. Birgitta,” and “Engelbert” contain many passages of great beauty, and are distinguished by the harmonious flow of the phrases.

But Ling attained greater celebrity as the creator of the Swedish system of gymnastics, which has greatly influenced military tactics on the continent.

Arvid A. Afzelius was a poet and historian. He translated and edited the Eddas and several of the old Sagas. He collected the old Folk-lore, Songs and Sagas that lived in the memory of the people, and gave them in printed form to the nation.

Bernard von Beskow (1796-1868), began his literary work as a poet. His first poems were recognized by the Swedish Academy of which he soon became a distinguished member. He early devoted himself to
prose literature, especially historical and biographical subjects. His prose writings are masterpieces of Swedish; their elegance of style, purity of thought, beauty of expression, and lofty sentiments make them classics. His historical works on Charles XII., Baron Gortz, and Gustavus III., as King and man, have thrown a new light upon these great personages.

There are several other poets and literary men who are a credit to their country: e. g., Carl August Nicander, the dreamy Eric John Stagnelius, whose poems are full of fanciful and ideal themes. He is master of poetic forms and diction, though sad and melancholy. All nature mourns with man in his fallen state, but
the music of the spheres give him hope of future bliss.

Eric Sjoberg, John A. Wadman and Christian E. Fahlcrantz lived during this period and their writings are worthy of their fatherland.

Fredrika Bremer (1797-1848), is better known to American readers than almost any other Swedish author. She was a prolific writer. She spent some time in America, and wrote on many subjects interesting to Americans. Many of her compositions have been translated into English and other foreign tongues. Her stories have reached farther into distant lands in the world of letters than the writings of any other Swede except Tegner. Her novels are vivid and graceful. Her descriptions of travel and of the countries and people whom she visits are true, full of color, naive and charming in their simplicity. During the past century Sweden has produced prolific novelists, some of whose romances are masterpieces of their kind.

John L. Runeberg (1804-1877), a native of Finland, wrote in Swedish, and his two volumes of poems contain lyrics of the most exquisite beauty. They must be read to be appreciated. Any country may well be proud of such a poet, and the literature which contains such beautiful sentiments will not die.

Writers on historical and other subjects are numerous. F. F. Carlson wrote a history of Charles X., Charles XI., and Charles XII. Professor Abraham Cronholm wrote a History of Gustavus II. Adolphus and the Thirty Years' War, in eight volumes, a work of great merit and profound research.

Of the poets who have already been mentioned the majority also distinguished themselves in prose. The
first prose-writer of the time was, without question, the novelist Karl Jonas Ludvig Almquist, around whose extraordinary personality and career a mythical romance has already collected. He was encyclopaedic in his range, although his stories preserve a consummate charm; whatever the subject he wrote upon, his style was always exquisite. Fredrik Cederborgh re-

vived the comic novel in his “Uno von Trasenberg” and “Ottar Tralling.” The historical novels of Gamaelius created a taste for history. Swedish history supplied themes for the stories of Count Per Georg Sparre and of Gustaf Henrik Mellin. Sofia Zelow, Baroness von Knorring wrote a long series of novels dealing with high life, which became very popular.
At the beginning of the romantic period a high position was taken as an independent thinker by Benjamin Hoijer, who owed much at the outset to Kant and Fichte. Geijer also distinguished himself in philosophical writing, but the most original of Swedish philosophers is Kristofer Jakob Boström, a peripatetic talker, who wrote little, but whose system has been reproduced in print by K. Claeson, Professor Axel Nyblæus, and other disciples. A polemical writer of great talent was Magnus Jakob Crusenstolpe, of whose work it has been said, "It is not history, it is not fiction, but something brilliant between the one and the other." As an historian of Swedish literature Per Wieselgren has composed a valuable work, and he has made other valuable contributions to history and bibliography. In history we meet again with Jonas Hallenberg, and with Anders Magnus Strinnholm whose labors in the field of Swedish history are extremely valuable. Geijer and Strinnholm prepared the way for the most popular and perhaps the most voluminous of all Swedish historians, Anders Fryxell, whose famous "Berättelser ur Svenska Historien" appeared in 46 parts during the period of nearly sixty years, an extraordinary example of persistent and uninterrupted work. He was followed by Starback, Backstrom, and the great History of Sweden in six volumes by Montelius, Hildebrand, Alin, Veibul, Hojer, Tengberg, Boetius and others. In legal history the first place is easily won by Karl Johan Schlyter, whose edition of the Old Provincial Laws of Sweden is of great interest, seeing that they represent the oldest extant Swedish literature. Hans Jarta was
a statesman who wrote with vigor on economic subjects. In science it is only possible to mention the celebrated names of Jons Jakob Berzelius, the chemist, Elias Fries, the botanist, Karl Adolph Agardh, the physiologist, and Sven Nilson, the paleontologist.

In the generation which has just passed away, the first poet of Sweden, without a rival, was Charles W. Bottiger, the son-in-law and biographer of Tegner, who contributed much to Swedish literature. The other leading verse-writers were Johan Borjesson, the last of the Phosphorists, an author of various romantic dramas; Vilhelm August von Braun, a humorous lyricist; "Talis Qualis," whose real name was Karl Wilhelm August Strandberg; and August Theodor Blanche, the popular dramatist. Novel-writing was well sustained by Karl Anton Wetterberg, who called himself "Onkel Adam;" by Emilie Carlen, whose autobiography has lately appeared; by Asker Patrick Sturzen-Becker, "Orvar Odd;" and by Maria Sofia Schwartz. Lars Johan Hjerta was the leading journalist, Johan Henrik Thomander, Bishop of Lund, the greatest orator, Matthias Alexander Castren, a prominent man of science, and Karl Gustaf Forsell, the principal statistician of this energetic period. Elias Lennrot is distinguished as the Finnish Professor who discovered and edited the Kalevala. It is impossible to give an exhaustive list of names in so short a sketch as this.

Swedish literature is being enriched by many authors of merit. The most popular living poet is Zakris Topelius. Of higher artistic merit are the finished lyrics of Count Karl Snoilsky. Carl David af Virsen
is an active political writer on the conservative side. The best living Swedish author is undoubtedly Viktor Rydberg, who has written masterly novels and historical works. His Teutonic Mythology, done into English by Rasmus Anderson, is a masterpiece and has greatly elucidated the period of the Sagas. The latest influences from Denmark and France are beginning to be represented by Strindberg the novelist, and by Anna Charlotta Edgren, the most successful Swedish dramatist of the moment. The literary revival which has been so marked in the other two Scandinavian countries has not failed to extend as far as Sweden, and to hold forth promise of important contributions to her literature in the near future.

It may not be out of place to say a few words here about Baron Nils Adolph Eric Nordenskjold, who, by his contributions to Geography, Natural Science, and the study of Navigation, has climbed to a pinnacle of fame.

The most interesting and successful scientific expedition in Northern waters is the Vega's circumnavigation of the continents of Asia and Europe during the years 1878—1880, conducted by Baron Nordenskjold under the special patronage of H. M. Oscar II. of Sweden, and with the generous support of the Riksdag. It was the Swedish flag, with the blue field and the yellow cross, bearing the emblem of the united sister kingdoms in the upper left hand corner, and a crowned O (Oscar) in the centre of the cross, which was first carried round the northern confines of the Old World, returning home by way of China and Japan. Dr. Nansen, a Norwegian, was justly applauded for his journey
to "the Farthest North"; and credit is due to the many explorers of other nationalities, who have risked their lives in scientific investigations of the regions lying within the Arctic circle. But it was reserved lately, as it had been in the past, for a Swede, (a Finlander of Swedish descent, and naturalized in Sweden) and for the Swedish Government, encouraged by an enlightened and patriotic monarch, to accomplish a marvel, viz: the exploration of the northern shores of Europe and Asia. The results of this voyage, as related by Nordenskjold in the two volumes of his "Vega's Circumnavigation of Asia and Europe," are of great interest to the student and to the world at large; and the description of the territory that he skirted will prove of special value to the commercial world, inasmuch as it indicates new fields for trade; since vast stores of mineral wealth and great forests have been discovered in hitherto unknown regions, and only need labor and industry to yield an abundant return.

Honors and distinctions were bestowed upon Nordenskjold for his arduous adventures and his contributions to the stores of human knowledge; and when he died at Stockholm, on August 12, 1901, he passed away in the happy consciousness that his labors had not failed of recognition.
CHAPTER XLV.

SWEDISH MUSIC, COMPOSERS AND SINGERS.


Sweden has always been a musical country. Her earliest literature was poetry; her earliest history was written in rhyme; her early laws were drawn up in verse and in that shape committed to memory. When victory had been gained in battle then the bard who could best sing the deeds of valor and heroism was the man to win the highest approval of the grim old Vikings. Hence we have preserved in the Elder Edda words of wisdom expressed in beautiful, poetic language. These strains were sung by the people who committed them to memory from childhood, singing them in seclusion as well as in company.

Music is an art; although it differs in most essentials from the arts of architecture, sculpture and paint-
ing, which being pictorial, appeal to the senses through the eye. Music is emotional, appealing to the feelings through the ear. Music is the most expressive language of the soul; it represents the beautiful by means of sound, as architecture, sculpture and paintings do by means of lines and colors. Music embodies and portrays the emotional life of the mind and heart as no other art can; every shade of feeling from the most agonized despair to the supreme ecstasy of joy, the calm self surrender of bliss, or the wildest mirth, finds its most natural and fitting expression there. So it is natural that the Swedes, who are of an emotional nature, should be lovers of music and devote themselves to its cultivation as they do on all occasions.

In the history of Swedish music the first place is assigned to the singing society of the students of Upsala University. The foundation of this society was laid during the years 1625 to 1630 under the leadership and direction of Jonas Columbus, Professor of Poetry and Music of the Upsala University. The students loved music and songs, and cultivated them with energy and zest. The greatest influence on the musical culture of Sweden was exerted by the talented musical genius, J. C. X. Haffner (1759-1833), who prepared most excellent music for the Church Hymn Book; music which came home to every member of the community; tender, sweet, and spiritual. He wrote and collected many musical compositions in connection with the folk lore of the common people. Abraham Mankel has lately added new tunes to the hymns of the Church Hymn Book.
The Upsala students have always kept up their reputation as being the best choral singers of Europe. This reputation they justified a few years ago, when, at a jubilee held in Paris of all the European singing societies, the Upsala students' singing society was awarded the first prize in song and music.

Outside of Upsala University many musicians and composers have adorned the pages of Sweden's musical history, such as J. W. Roman (1694-1758), H. F. Johnson (1717-1779), the genial Krause (1756-1792); the renowned and in many ways accomplished musician and composer, L. Hjortsberg (1772-1843); Bellman, the poet and composer; and Professor E. Geijer, poet and composer, who with Afzelius did so much to save from oblivion the songs and music of the people, by collecting the folk-songs, and reducing to writing the traditional airs of ancient songs and ballads. Mention must also be made of Ivar Hallstrom, a productive musical composer and writer, Bernard H. Crusell, Johan E. Nordblom, Adolph Lindblad, the celebrated Jacob A. Josephson, Otto Lindblad, and many others. Special mention must be made of the much beloved and spiritual-minded Prince Gustavus, a brother of King Oscar II, one of the most highly gifted musical composers among the sons of Sweden. His music is of the tender, sympathetic and spiritual character which charms the soul and produces a longing to flee from this vale of tears to the realms of happiness, peace and bliss. This truly noble and good prince was an ornament to the royal house of Sweden. He departed this life in the very bloom of youth.

Gunnar Wennerberg (1817-1901) ecclesiastical min-
ister and provincial governor, lately deceased, whose happy and jovial student songs, set to most appropriate melodies made him one of the most admired and popular of Swedish composers and musicians, may not be very familiar to English speaking people, but he is well known to the Swedes as poet, musician and composer; and he well deserved his honored place on the roll of the Swedish Academy.

It was he, probably, as much as Geijer and Afzelius, who made the folk-lore and the old folk-songs with their melodies so popular among all classes; who rejuvenated the sagas and the old tales preserved for centuries among the dwellers on the hills and in the valleys; and who modernized them in his "Trollrunor."

In Wennerberg's poetical composition "Gluntarna," consisting of poems, songs and melodies, which picture the student's happy and jovial days, alternately with his struggles, privations and hopes at the university, the poet and composer is at his best. As these are the creations of an enthusiastic idealist of fifty years ago, they may perhaps not find an echo in the hearts and minds of the more sober and practical generation of the present day. Yet it is this very idealism, these identical fantasies, which make Gunnar Wennerberg so much admired and idolized in Sweden. It is his creation of the student's romantic life, which has nationalized the songs and music of this poet-composer, and which caused these songs and melodies to be received with rapture and enthusiasm, when sung by the Student's singing societies of Sweden, not only in their native land, but in Europe and other parts of the world. These are songs of patriotism, songs which
breathe love of the fatherland, and all that is great, noble and heroic in the existence of Sweden. They inspire the same feeling as do Tegner's poems, feelings of pride that one was born a Swede,—coupled with a readiness and willingness to fight for the old Swedish liberty, independence, and honor. They constitute a heritage of indescribable value; and therefore Gunnar Wennerberg is most justly entitled to be one of the immortals.

The most celebrated and world renowned Swede in the sphere of song and music is Jenny Lind Goldschmidt. She was born in Stockholm of respectable, although poor, parents. The insinuation by certain writers that her father and mother are unknown is a baseless calumny, and a most unfair attack on the memory of one of the most admired personalities who has graced this earth. Her biographers, Canon H. S. Holland, and W. S. Rockstro, give October 6, 1820, as her birthday, her father's name as Nicholas J. Lind, bookkeeper, and her mother's maiden name as Anna Maria Fellberg. The selfsame Lind appears in the church books of the parish by the side of his daughter's when she was baptized. Jenny Lind was admitted to the royal theater of Stockholm at an early age, and spent several years there. She received instruction from the best teachers; her phenomenal voice developed rapidly, and she soon showed herself a musical prodigy. She sang before the Swedish Court with success, and at the age of sixteen appeared in the role of Agatha, in Der Freischutz. Four years later she went to Paris to take lessons from Garcia. It seems that he expressed an unfavorable opinion on the condition of her voice,
although, thanks to her unremitting zeal in carrying out his instructions, she gained absolute control of her matchless resources; but her appearance in Paris was not a success. She resolved never again to appear in Paris or sing in France, which resolution she appears to have kept, although after she had acquired renown at the other capitals of Europe many opportunities of singing in France were given her. Returning to Stockholm, she was heard with enthusiasm in Robert le Diable, and at the instance of Meyerbeer was engaged at Berlin in 1845. After singing for two years in Berlin, Dresden, Leipzig, and other parts of Germany, she visited Vienna and other cities of the Austrian Empire, and made her debut in London in 1847, with very marked success. Her return to her Fatherland was greeted with an ovation, such as seldom falls to the lot of any person. The tickets for the operas in Stockholm in which she appeared were sold at auction, and brought fabulous prices. Great was the triumph of the once poor and struggling girl. She returned to London in 1849, where her extraordinary voice and artistic talents were truly appreciated by a music-loving people. The royal family and court were present at nearly every performance, and the receipts are said to have been often over 2,000 pounds. After the London season was over she made a concert tour in the provinces with the most phenomenal success. Probably one cause of her great popularity was her great generosity, for out of her large receipts she gave considerable amounts to charities.

In 1850 she made an engagement with Mr. P. T. Barnum of New York for a season in America. Con-
certs were given in the United States, Canada, Mexico, and the West Indies. The receipts for the season are said to have been over three quarters of a million dollars, one-half of which was her share. While in America she married Otto Goldschmidt, her accompanist, after which time the public had few opportunities of hearing the celebrated Swedish Nightingale. She spent the rest of her life in England, teaching and resting on her laurels; for she loved that country as much as her fatherland. Much of her time was devoted to the Royal College of Music in London. She died at her villa, Wynds Point, Malvern Hill, on November 2, 1887.

That the world was bettered by the gifts of Jenny Lind there can be no doubt. By her heavenly voice and art she touched the inmost consciousness of the religious feeling of mankind. By her great accomplishments in the musical art she raised it to an exalted position, and encouraged the taste for music, so that the demands upon artists were greatly increased.

By her many deeds of charity she gave an example to the world which the fortunate, successful, and highly gifted may follow to their own and their fellow-men's happiness. Jenny Lind is an exceedingly interesting character, and is well worthy of a place on the pages of her country's history.

In a little hut among tall pines on the estate of Count Hamilton, near Vexio in Sweden, belonging to a poor forester, was born on August 20, 1843, a little towheaded girl, the youngest of seven children, who received the name of Christine Nilsson. In her early years she tried to give full range to her voice in the surround-
ing forests. Her elder brother had a violin, and so the two accompanied each other to the fair at Vexio and other country fairs, where they gave concerts on the streets, and this little girl collected the pennies which the crowd would give them. At one of the fairs, Christine, accompanied by her brother, was giving a concert, the majority of the people attending the fair forming the audience. Curiosity at seeing the large crowd brought Baron Tornerhjelm to the place, and there he heard the sweetest girl voice he had ever listened to. He made enquiries of the children about their parents and their home, and interesting himself in the girl, by the parents' consent placed her in charge of the celebrated musician Miss Valerius, who gave her her first lessons in music, languages, and other necessary accomplishments. When Christine was sixteen she was so far advanced in her studies on the violin, in music and in singing, that by arrangement of her protector, Baron Tornerhjelm, she gave a concert at Stockholm with great success. She was then sent to Paris, where she pursued her musical studies with such energy that she was soon given an opportunity to make her debut. She was given a trial before M. Carvalho, who after hearing her in several operas, engaged her seance tenant for three years at a salary of 2,000 francs per month for the first year, with large increase for the following years. It is no trifle to confront a large audience for the first time, and especially in Paris, the most critically severe of all cities, where the jury is composed of all the celebrities, keenly on the alert and closely observant. The judgment upon her singing and acting was favorable and her reputation was made.
She sang in quick succession, Traviata, Martha, Donna Elvira in "Don Giovanni," Sardanapale, Les Bluets, and Astrafiammante, the Queen of Night, in Il Flauto Magico. In this latter part she was able to exhibit the full range of her voice, reaching up to F in alt, and the extraordinary traveling power of her staccati.

In 1866 she went to London and sang in Her Majesty’s presence, with the same great and instantaneous success as in Paris. For several years she continued to gather laurels, increasing meanwhile her repertoire, and always devoting herself to hard and constant study of her parts. She further appeared in Barbiere di Siviglia, Linda di Chamounix, Mignon, and Faust.

After so many triumphs in France and England, it is natural that Christine Nilsson should have been engaged for a tour in the United States. Her triumphs in America in operatic and concert tours were unparalleled, and her receipts were enormous.

She was married in 1872 to a French banker, Emile Rouzaud, who died about a year later, and a few years ago she married Count Miranda of Spain.

While the personal reminiscences of these world-renowned singers, and their advance from poverty and the lowly walks of life to honor, wealth, and social position are interesting, yet these circumstances alone are not sufficient to make them historical characters. It is their contributions to musical art, the fact that they elevated and ennobled it, and the good influence they exerted through their wonderful endowments, which entitle them to this distinction. The great love and admiration felt by the people of Europe and America for song and music was enhanced by these highly
gifted Swedish singers, and the accomplishment of such results makes them worthy of a place in history. In so far as these singers used their voices as instruments to elevate human thoughts, feelings, and passions from things sordid, selfish, and worldly to objects noble, spiritual, and divine, so far they have also been benefactors of the human race, and the world has become better through the medium of their admirable gifts.
CHAPTER XLVI.

SWEDISH EMIGRATION—JOHN ERICSSON.

The Great Migration of the Swedes to America—At first a Religious Movement—Swedish Sentiments in Favor of the Union during the American Civil War—Swedish Soldiers in the Federal Army—Swedish Emigrants and their Success in America—Their Characteristics—Culture; Churches, Colleges and Schools—Swedish Literature, Newspapers, Libraries and Benevolent Organizations—John Ericsson—His early Life—Inventor—Engineer—Construction of Battleships—His Invention of the Monitor and Heavy War Ordnance—His Inventions Revolutionized the Navies of the World—His Death—Funeral Obsequies in Sweden—Honors to his Memory.

The Swedish Settlers on the Delaware, though not under the political influence of Sweden, were nevertheless tenderly cherished by her as being children in a distant land; and this filial affection was reciprocated by the descendants dwelling in America. Reports of the many opportunities offered by a new country reached every community in Sweden and became constant topics of conversation. Literature dealing with America, and descriptions of the country, were read with great avidity. Hardy youths determined to see a country so celebrated for its vastness. Many of them visited America and returned home again to tell of what they had seen; others settled down and made their homes within the borders of the new Republic. Yet Swedish emigration was not of such great importance as to attract special attention, until about the
year 1846. It then had its origin in a religious movement. During the decade commencing with the year 1830, a religious opposition to the Established Lutheran Church of Sweden sprang up in the northern part of the country. As both parties went to extremes, the dissenters emigrated to America and settled in Henry County, Illinois. From that time on, the emigrants, especially from the laboring classes, increased in numbers, and the Western prairies were usually their goal. In 1861, when the Civil War broke out between the Federal and the Confederate States, Swedish sentiment was on the side of the former, and many young men from the Swedish army flocked to the standard of the Union. After the war was over, in response to an increasing demand for laborers and artisans, and because wages were higher than in Sweden, or in any part of the world, great numbers of able-bodied laborers and artisans left their homes and migrated to America. They are now happy and contented in their adopted country. Nevertheless, their family connections with home and the associations of their childhood, coupled with the memories of Sweden's greatness in the past and her present renown, have forged connecting links of tender sympathy and love that cannot be broken.

The statistics of the United States for the ten years, 1880 to 1889, place Sweden third on the list of countries contributing by emigration to swell the population of the United States, and give the number of intelligent, healthy and vigorous men and women who settled in America during those ten years, as 401,330. Owing to the large influx of Swedes during
the last 70 years, from 1830 to 1900, and their prolific marriages, the number of Swedes at present in America is large. The American population has increased, on an average, 25 per cent each decade. The Swedish-Americans have been equally fruitful, and have shared in the increase. It may therefore safely be estimated that the Swedes and their descendants in America do not total less than two and a half millions, or one half of the population of Sweden.

The emigrants brought with them a sterling character, industrious and frugal habits, inventive genius, respect for law and order, conservative sentiments, which did not, however, exclude positive convictions on the subject of political and civil liberty, Christian faith, love of the Bible, and a belief in the common schools and higher education. Nor have they degenerated in America. The bracing climate of their native country has endowed them with a vigorous constitution and fertile brains. They neglect neither their opportunities nor their mother tongue; indeed, they rather pride themselves on being able to read and write several languages, according to the prevailing custom in Sweden among the more fortunate classes.

The material development of the Swedish-Americans in the United States has been remarkable. This fact is evident in all parts of the country, wherever they have settled, from their well-cultivated farms; their refined homes in the towns and cities; their churches, which in some places may even be called temples; their institutions of learning, generously supported; and the large number of educated and able
preachers, professors and teachers who are everywhere appreciated and fairly compensated. Large numbers of Swedish newspapers, journals and other periodicals are printed and circulated in all parts of the country and are extensively patronized. By these various and powerful agencies Swedish culture, thoughts and ideas are disseminated, and inculcated into the minds of the young people. Yet it is peculiarly characteristic of the Swedes that they readily become Americanized in thoughts, ideas and manners. Many young men of Swedish parentage have availed themselves of the educational advantages furnished by the local Swedish schools, and, spurred by an ambition to stand in the front ranks of educated men, have entered the first universities of the land, particularly Yale, where they graduated and fitted themselves to fill positions of honor and credit to themselves and their fellowmen. It is therefore only natural that many of the Swedes and their descendants have occupied and are now filling public and private stations, in which their conduct has won the respect and admiration of the community.

In Sweden all persons are members of the Established Church, and receive religious instruction from their childhood. The Swedes therefore not only respect religion universally, but the larger portion of them are of a religious disposition. This accounts for the many churches they have erected in their adopted country. The Established Church in Sweden is under episcopal government, but in America the several Swedish church organizations are under a representative government. The various denominations have
greatly increased during the last fifty years. The largest of them, the Augustana Lutherans, has about 500 pastors and a larger number of churches, with several colleges, schools and hospitals, and church journals and periodicals. The Mission Friends, an evangelical body, has about 300 preachers, some 300 churches, with colleges, charitable institutions, church journals and periodicals. The Baptists and Methodists are also well represented by a large corps of preachers, and professors, and by many churches, schools, charitable institutions and religious journals. All of these associations have Swedish book concerns, and they exert a powerful influence on the spiritual and moral character of the Swedish-American population.

Outside of the church organizations, the Swedish-Americans, where larger numbers are congregated, support many benevolent and social organizations; they also support libraries and reading rooms, and contribute liberally to the relief of the needy and less fortunate of their members.

These various organizations and the social relations existing among the people, re-enforced by a vast amount of Swedish literature which is of a high though conservative order, foster and sustain a fondness and love for old Sweden, not derogatory to American citizenship, among the Swedish-Americans.

John Ericsson—Kings and Emperors, generals and admirals, are usually placed in the foreground of history, and they frequently receive more attention, and are given more credit in the course of human events, than other persons of superior genius. When great changes occur in the world, there is an unseen spirit
moving mankind individually and collectively to acts of heroism, a hidden cause impelling humanity to adopt certain policies which produce unforeseen results. In great emergencies, in sudden crises, when a people stand terror-stricken, it often happens that great men appear suddenly upon the scene, who turn disaster and defeat into victory, and reverse, as it were, the course of nature, as Joshua did, when he ordered the sun to stand still in the heavens.

John Ericsson was one of these great men and one of the greatest geniuses of the past century. He was born July 31, 1803, in the Province of Vermland, Sweden. His father, after financial reverses, was employed in the building of the Gota canal. John Ericsson received a good education, and at the age of thirteen was employed to assist in preparing the surveys and drawings needed for that canal. His ability, skill, and inventive genius attracted the attention of Count Platen, the general director of the canal, and he was promoted rapidly. He enlisted in the army, was commissioned lieutenant, and, coming under the observation of Prince Oscar, was employed by the government in the preparation of military maps, and other engineering undertakings. Meanwhile he was engaged in various mechanical studies and experiments pertaining to steam and caloric engines.

In 1826 John Ericsson left the army with the brevet rank of captain, and, by the financial assistance of his friend, Count von Rosen, sailed for England, where he soon took a prominent position in his profession. In 1829 he entered into competition with George Stephenson for the construction of a railroad engine, and built
an engine called "The Novelty," which became the wonder of the world at the time, and which contained the essential principles of railroad engines. On account of the short time given for its construction, this engine did not fulfill all the requirements of the contest, and the prize was given to Stephenson. The judges and the spectators, however, were unanimous in praising Ericsson's Novelty as the swifter and better engine of the two. The prize went to Stephenson, but the success was Ericsson's.

In 1830 Ericsson had become a partner in a well-known London house. He applied the centrifugal fan-blower, afterward universally adopted upon American river steamers, to the engines of a Liverpool steamer. He invented the deep sea lead, recording depths without reference to the length of the line. This lead came into extensive use in the navy and was a source of profit to the inventor.

For his instrument to measure distances at sea; an alarm barometer, which warned the mariner of approaching storms; and a pyrometer for measuring temperature up to the boiling point of iron, the International Exposition held at London, in 1852, bestowed upon Ericsson a prize and a gold medal. He invented various devices for propelling boats upon canals; in one of these the principle of ascending heavy grades, now in use on the Swiss Mountain and White Mountain railroads, was applied. He constructed a large number of engines with constant improvements, as this kind of power was still in an undeveloped form. In 1833 his caloric engine appeared, in which the motive power is hot air instead of steam.
In 1839 Captain Ericsson was offered special inducements to come to the New World. He arrived in New York Nov. 2, 1839. It was at this time that Ericsson invented and introduced the propeller for steamboats. Captain Stockton, by whose advice Ericsson had crossed the Atlantic, was all-powerful at Washington, and by his influence the government decided to build a vessel on the plans of Ericsson, and driven by his propeller. The Princeton, a United States war steamer, was completed in 1844. But men of commercial enterprise were far in advance of the United States government, for there were then in use forty-one vessels having the Ericsson screw propeller for motive power.

In 1844 the French government ordered a forty-four gun frigate to be fitted out with the Ericsson propeller, and engine below the water line. Other European powers began to avail themselves of the same motive power for their navies. This was the first instance in which Ericsson's invention changed and reconstructed the navies of the world. The second soon followed.

Mr. Bourne in his standard "Treatise on the Screw Propeller" writes that the engines of these vessels were the first engines in Europe which were kept below the water line, as well as the first horizontal engines used to give motion to a screw propeller; and that Ericsson's invention made screw vessels available for commercial purposes. Ericsson showed himself far in advance of other engineers of his time by coupling the engine immediately to the propeller.

He was also an expert artillery officer, and had made many experiments in connection with heavy
ordnance; he therefore suggested to the United States Ordnance Department the importance of mounting larger guns on vessels, and on the fortifications. But it was not until England and France adopted Ericsson's patents that the United States began to listen to his counsel. His relations with the government were not confined to his work upon the Princeton alone. During the Mexican war his inventions, patents and services had been in demand by the Quartermasters' Department of the Army, and by the Revenue Marine vessels of the Treasury Department, as well as by the Navy.

His inventions required such a vast outlay of money that no individual could be found who was ready and willing to aid him in his experiments, and to put these inventions into actual practice. He was, therefore, obliged to lay his plans before the government and abide the time when it should be ready to act. Ericsson seems to have had a clearer conception of the necessity of an entire reconstruction of the navies, after the introduction of steam, than had the members of the Naval Board at Washington.

It was not until the Civil War had broken out, in 1861, between the United States of America, and the Confederate States of the South, that John Ericsson was given an opportunity to put his theories into actual practice, although his great knowledge of heavy ordnance was known to the Administration at Washington prior to 1862.

Ericsson's superiority to all other naval engineers was so marked at the time he undertook his work upon the Monitor, that the soberest statement of facts ap-
pears like extravagant assumption. He had accomplished wonders with the Princeton in 1842, and during the twenty years following had had unusual opportunities for extending his experiments. His judgment matured, and he lost nothing of his capacity for rapid and effective work. These facts were known, at Washington, since he had in the past had considerable dealings with the Administration, particularly with the heads of the Navy and Army Departments. Yet the suggestions of a man who had shown such capacity to deal with the problems of naval warfare, were not only not invited, but they were at first treated with disdain. One of the members of the Naval Board on armor-clads, when the model of the Monitor was shown him, said: "Take the thing home and worship it; in so doing you will violate no law, for it resembles nothing that is in heaven above, or that is in the earth beneath, or that is in the water under the earth." And yet, it was not long before this instrument, of which the Naval Board had spoken so contumptuously, was to strike terror, not only into the navy of the Southern Confederacy, but also, by the terrible conflict on March 9, 1862, to dismay all European governments, as it virtually destroyed all the navies of the world. The Federal Government was slow to perceive the necessity of iron-clad vessels. Before the rebellion it had made no direct experiments in this direction. When it became known to Lincoln's Administration that the Southern Confederacy had equipped the old Virginia, or the Merrimac as she is commonly called, with steel armor, the Administration awoke to the realization of a necessity for iron-clad
vessels. A proposition was made by Congress, and an advertisement was issued for proposals, and a commission appointed to examine the plans suggested. Seventeen proposals were presented for vessels of different sizes. Three of these plans were taken into consideration, two of them being modelled after existing war vessels.

Of an altogether different class was the Monitor proposed by John Ericsson, then of New York. Her design was so wholly new in every respect that the approval of the commission was cautiously guarded; they said: "It is novel, but seems to be based upon a plan which will render the battery shot and shell proof. We are somewhat apprehensive that her properties for sea are not such as a sea-going vessel should possess, but she may be moved from place to place on the coast in smooth water. We recommend that the experiment be made with one battery of this description on the terms proposed, with a guarantee and forfeiture in case of a failure in any of the points and properties of the vessel as proposed."

Novel as the plan was to others, it was no sudden conception of the inventor. It had been thought out to the minutest detail, and been constructed in drawings and models for years. So confident was Ericsson of the perfect success of his invention that he proposed for it the name of the Monitor, "In order to admonish the South of the fate of the rebellion, Great Britain of her fading naval supremacy, and the English government of the folly of spending millions in fashioning fortifications for defense." His plans were accepted, and the price was to be $275,000.00; the contract was
signed on the 5th of October, and the vessel was completed in one hundred days after the keel was laid.

The hull of the Monitor was constructed of a double thickness of iron, three-eights of an inch thick, strengthened by iron ribs and knees; it was 140 ft. long, 30 ft. wide at the broadest part, and 12 ft. deep; the shape and proportion were those of an egg shell, slightly flattened at the bottom. This hull was so protected that when afloat no shell could reach it. Five ft. below the top an iron shelf, strongly braced, projected nearly 4 ft. from the sides. This shelf was filled up with oaken blocks 3 1-2 ft. thick, over which were bolted five series of iron plates, each 1 in. thick; this armor shelf, or platform, projected 16 ft. at the stern in order to cover the rudder and propeller, and 10 ft. at the bow to protect the anchor. The entire length of the deck was 166 ft., the breadth 42 feet. When afloat, the entire hull and 3 ft. of the armor platform were submerged. To the eye the vessel was merely a low float, rising only 2 ft. above the water. No shot from a hostile vessel could reach the vulnerable hull, without passing through the invulnerable armor. This defensive structure of the Monitor was solely the invention of Ericsson.

But a vessel of war must possess offensive as well as defensive powers. In the Monitor these took the shape of two 11-in. guns, heavier ordnance than had ever before been placed on any vessel. Ericsson had struck upon a principle which all European engineers had overlooked. In the field, you must destroy the enemy's soldiers. In naval warfare, you must destroy the enemy's vessels. A rifle bullet will kill a soldier
as effectively as a cannon-ball, but heavy ordnance must be used to put a hostile vessel out of action. The rifle would in such a case be useless. The guns of the Monitor could be placed only upon the deck, so this, as well as the gunners, had to be protected. The necessary shelter was afforded by a revolving turret, placed in the center of the Monitor, and constructed of plates of iron, 1 in. thick, about 3 ft. wide and 9 ft. long. Eight of these plates constituted its thickness. It was thus 9 ft. high and 8 in. thick, with a diameter of 20 ft. There were two port-holes side by side, oval, and just large enough horizontally to allow the gun to be run out, with sufficient vertical height to give room for the elevation of the guns, so as to secure the range for different distances. It was made to revolve upon a central shaft by means of a separate engine. When not in action, by drawing back a wedge, it rested firmly upon a metallic ring upon the deck. The guns were loaded within the turret, and only run out to be discharged. The deck was perfectly flat, without even a permanent railing. The smoke stack and draught pipe for admitting air to the hull could be lowered below the deck. When the vessel was prepared for action the deck presented a smooth surface broken only by the huge round turret, and by the low, square pilot house near the bow. The vessel drew 10 ft. of water, and was rated at 776 tons. She proved her redoubtable character in the memorable conflict with the Merrimac.

When the tidings of the fight crossed the Atlantic, it was said in Parliament that England had on the day before one hundred and fifty first-class war ships,
now there were only two; beyond these there was not one that could be pitted against the Monitor, and even these would have been of little use against such invulnerable antagonists. English statesmen came to the conclusion that it was useless to build the old style battle ships, which could easily be destroyed by those of the Monitor class, and thus the invention of John Ericsson, as exemplified in the Monitor, gave the death-blow to all the navies of the world as at that time constructed.

John Ericsson's love for his native land was manifested by his generosity in giving his inventions, ideas and counsel to the defense and protection of her sea coast.

France, Spain and Turkey employed him in reconstructing their respective navies; and his ideas and inventions were utilized by other civilized powers. He was honored and applauded by a civilized world for his services to mankind.

Ericsson died March 8, 1889, at a ripe old age. The United States Government was not unmindful of the services he had rendered them in the hour of trouble. Before his death he had expressed a wish that he might eventually rest in his native land. To comply with this desire, the United States Government, in 1890, ordered his remains taken aboard the United States war cruiser, Baltimore, commanded by the future hero of Santiago, Rear Admiral (then Captain) Winfield Scott Schley, and directed the latter to proceed to Sweden and there deliver the earthly remains of Ericsson to the Swedish Government. The Baltimore arrived in the harbor of Stockholm Sept. 14, 1890, and
was welcomed by the Swedish fleet, which fired minute-guns, as if saluting a royal personage. The flags on palaces and fortresses were placed at half-mast; all the population was out in waiting; the King's representative received the casket, and a funeral procession was formed, the like of which had never been seen. The remains of John Ericsson now rest in the Province of Vermland, the place of his birth. Magnificent monuments have been erected both in America and Sweden to the memory of this great man.
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NYARE TIDEN.

SVERIGE under CARL XII.

Svenska folket styrtet av erövrenheten, införer på en bana lika oblik de fornäm vikingatiden. Efter kroppar, allvarde inom världshistoria, brytes

Sveriges magt i kampen mot övermäktens. Sveriges återvigt i Norden upphor.

XIII.