ANTHROPOLOGY

By far the greater part of the population of Norway belongs to the Germanic race, *Northmen* in the proper sense of the word. In addition to these, there is a small proportion of Finno-Ugrian origin — *Lapps* (1 %) and *Finns* (½ %).

The first comprehensive anthropological investigation of *Norwegians* — as of several other nations — was made during the American civil war. The following measurements for the troops of the Northern States are given according to BAXTER:

Nationality	Number	Height cm.	Breadth of Chest cm.
American	365,670	171.9	84.9
Norwegian	2,290	171.4	87.2
Swedish	1,190	169.9	87.2
Scotch	3,476	170.3	85.9
Irish	50,537	169.5	85.8
English	16,186	169.1	84.8
German	34,996	169.0	86.1
French	3,243	168.3	85.8

The Norwegians prove to be the tallest of all Europeans, but come after the Americans (and Indians). In breadth of chest they are excelled by none.

We find information on the subject of other anthropological characteristics in GOULD. All Scandinavians are classed together, but the difference between them is not very considerable, and more than half of those examined were Norwegians. The figures may

perhaps be arranged synoptically in the following manner, where *dark* types are given, in proportion to *light*, letting *light* = 10.

Nationality	Number	Eyes	Hair	Complexion	Dark : Fair
Scandinavian . .	(6,782)	2 : 10	2 : 10	2 : 10	2 : 10
German	(89,021)	4 : 10	4 : 10	4 : 10	4 : 10
Scotch	7,313	4 : 10	5 : 10	4 : 10	4 : 10
English	30,037	4 : 10	5 : 10	4 : 10	4 : 10
Irish	83,128	3 : 10	6 : 10	5 : 10	5 : 10
North American .	544,000	5 : 10	7 : 10	4 : 10	5 : 10
French	6,809	9 : 10	9 : 10	12 : 10	10 : 10
South European .	897	14 : 10	31 : 10	36 : 10	27 : 10

Scandinavians, and with them Norwegians, are thus characterised on the whole, as the fairest among the so-called white races, just as we have seen that they are the tallest (after the Americans) and the broadest.

For the last 21 years, it has been possible to find anthropological data in our own recruiting statistics, which, however, do not include the three most northern provinces. The results for the last few periods of five years may be summed up as follows:

	1878—82	1883—87	1888—92	1893—97
Height (average of battalions)	168.8 cm.	169.1 cm.	169.6 cm.	170.1 cm.
Less than 158 cm. . . .	1.9 %	1.9 %	1.4 %	1.3 %
Fit for service (line) . . .	52.0 %	58.0 %	65.0 %	66.0 %
Of weak frame	8.7 %	6.0 %	3.3 %	2.3 %

These figures show a constant and rapid improvement in the physical development of Norwegians during this period. The height has not yet indeed reached that of the Norwegian volunteers in America in the sixties, but the latter were, on an average, older, and growth after 22 years of age is without doubt considerable (in a battalion observed to be about 3 cm. from 22 to 25). Full-grown Norwegians are now, on an average, scarcely less than 172 cm. (5 ft. $7\frac{3}{4}$ in.), and the Americans' former maximum among the white races is probably reached. The Norwegians in the most northerly provinces are above the average.

It has been thought that the extraordinarily large amount of emigration during these 20 years would lower the physical efficiency of the nation. Recruiting statistics show, however, that the reverse is the case, and that in years of great emigration in the districts, there is a better quality in those left behind (a greater percentage of able-bodied men, fewer men incapable of all military service, fewer with narrow chest or with weak frame).

The Norwegians are no more an unmixed race in an anthropological sense than any other European nation. C. O. ARBO's comprehensive investigations have shown that a distinction must be made between two pronounced anthropological types. There is a type which possesses in a marked degree those very qualities already mentioned, which characterise Norwegians as a whole, namely, great height and fairness (white skin, fair hair and blue eyes). It proves to be further marked by the form of its skull. It is a dolichocephalic (cephalic index about 75, of living persons about 77), with narrow, straight forehead, strongly-marked superciliary arch, flat lateral surfaces, and a somewhat projecting occiput, and powerful muscular attachments. The face is long, the nose narrow and prominent. The occurrence elsewhere of these characteristic features shows that this is the true Germanic, or rather *Aryan type*.

By the side of this type, we find, however, another — the brachycephalic type (cephalic index about 83, of living persons about 84), with a more rounded forehead, and less pointed occiput, a shorter face and a broader nose on a flatter base. This type seems originally to have been dark-complexioned, as a yellowish complexion, dark hair and brown eyes, are far more general than among the dolichocephali. Height only medium. The type is certainly closely related to the Central European brachycephali in South Germany, France, etc., the Alpine type.

Between these two anthropological types, a very extensive crossing has of course taken place. ARBO's investigations, however, show that there are many districts in the country where the long-skulled type appears in a tolerably pure form, and with marked mental characteristics, and others where the short skulls, with their peculiar mental habit, are the prevailing. The latter is especially the case along the coast as far as it has been examined, and in a few of the forest districts inland. One specially strong centre of the short skulls is in the Stavanger province, where they perhaps amount to $^{3}/_{4}$. Even there, however, the Aryan element in the

crossing has had so strong an influence on the population, that it can only be characterised as fair with gray eyes; and the stature, especially on the coast farther north (More), is very considerable.

On the whole, the Norwegians principally bear the impress of the fair long-skulled Aryan type, which must be supposed to have taken a comparatively larger share in the composition of the people than in other countries, perhaps three fourths.

The *Lapps*, who are generally called Finns in Norway, are a brachycephalic race, which, however, is very clearly distinguished anthropologically from the short-skulled type found among the true Norwegians. The cranium is lower, more rounded, and with weak muscular attachments. Cephalic index about 85, in life 88 (according to MANTEGAZZA and SOMMIER). The face is very broad across the cheek-bones, but tapers off to a weak chin. The nose is flat, with a broad base, and the mouth is large. The skin, except in children, is rather dark. The hair is generally chestnut brown, but quite as often fair as dark. The growth of hair on the face is weak, generally confined to the upper lip and a little on the chin. The eyes are quite as often light as dark, are deep-set, sometimes obliquely placed under heavy, often inflamed eyelids.

Their stature is very small, perhaps not averaging more than 5 feet in men of pure Lapp race. Mantegazza and Sommier found among 58 men a height of 152 cm., among 22 women, 145 cm. It is true that the average height of 112 «Finns», who were examined the year after the introduction of compulsory enlistment in the three northern provinces, was 162.5 cm.; but many of these cannot have been of pure Lapp blood; and the very way in which the heights appear to be distributed indicates a Finnish type with a height of 157 cm., and perhaps this number, too, increased by crossing. Even if these recruiting measurements only gave 23 % below the standard, it would be reasonable to suppose that the typical mean height of the true Lapps is quite below the minimum for Norwegian recruits, viz. 158 cm. The frame, moreover, is slender, with round chest, and slight muscular development. They are generally bow-legged, with short, broad feet and a waddling gait.

How far, too, the fairness is due to the long-continued crossing with Scandinavians, it is difficult to determine; but the shorter-skulled half of Mantegazza's Lapps were, if anything, fairer than the less short-skulled. In any case, however, the Lapps form a

very distinct race, having their nearest relatives among the Mongolian tribes. Their language is nearly allied to that of the Finlanders, more distantly to the other «Finno-Ugrian» or «Ural-Altaic» languages.

There is now no longer any reason for upholding the old doctrine that the Lapps originally peopled the whole of Scandinavia. They probably came to Norway later than either of the two types that are found among the Norwegians proper. They must have come from the east by a northern route, as a hunting and fishing people with the culture of the stone age. A special type of stone implements has been referred specially to them — «the arctic stone age» — and these implements must have been in use *among* them much longer than among the Scandinavians. The reindeer, upon which the true nomadic Lapps are so dependent for their subsistence, they possibly first learnt the full use of *from* the Scandinavians. A thousand years ago, however, they were found as fishers at the head of the fjords, or wandering as nomads among the mountains in very much the same districts as now, hardly south of Jemtland. It is only recently that they have advanced in any numbers worth mentioning, along the mountain ridge, south of 64 .

During the last few centuries, the Lapps in Finmarken have multiplied more than the Norwegians, — from about 4000 in 1567 to 9000 in 1891. Since 1825, however, the number of Norwegians has increased so enormously, that the Lapps do not now amount to more than 40 % of the population of Finmarken. In the Tromso and Nordland provinces, they are also *relatively* retrograding; but the race cannot be said to be dying out, when, throughout the country, it has increased from about 7000 in 1724 to 13,000 in 1845, and 21,000 in 1891. Barely $\frac{1}{10}$ of these are now true nomadic Lapps; most af them live as fishermen in the two most northerly provinces. In the two inland districts of Finmarken, Karasjok and Kautokeino, 95 % of the population are Lapps.

Norway has received other immigrants from the east, belonging to the Finno-Ugrian race. There is no trace in the population of the present day, of an immigration of *Permians* from Northern Russia to Malangen in the Tromso province, in the 13th century. The immigration from *Finland*, about the year 1600, to the extensive border-forests east of the Glommen, was of more significance. It is true that most of these Finns settled in clearings on the

Swedish side; but not a few came right into Norway, some even as far west as Liers Finmark (north of Drammen). In spite of their lonely dwellings in the great Finn forests, these Finns are now almost completely assimilated with the Norwegians. In Solor (north of Kongsvinger), however, in 1891, 855 were still reckoned as Finns, in Grue alone, $\frac{1}{7}$ of the population; but there are not many more than 100 who really talk Finnish. Anthropologically, however, the Finnish element can still be distinctly traced.

But the most important immigration from Finland has taken place recently, to the two most northerly provinces. These Finns are called in Norway «*kvæner*», from the ancient name of the people living round Bottenviken. During the great Scandinavian War, 1700—1720, many immigrated; but it was not until about the middle of this century that the number became considerable, almost quadrupling itself in the Tromsø and Finmarken provinces between 1845 and 1875, having increased to 10,000. Of late years, however, the immigration has almost ceased, and the increase of Finns from 1875 to 1891 has only amounted to 5 %, as against 12 % of the Lapps and 21 % of the whole population. But the Finns and Lapps together still make up more than half of the population of Finmarken (23 and 32 % respectively), and $\frac{1}{5}$ of the Tromsø province (6 and 14 %).

Anthropologically, the *Kvæns* occupy in most points an intermediate position between Norwegians and Lapps. In every-day life, too, they occupy a kind of mediatory position between the two so different nationalities. Marriages are more frequently contracted between Kvæns and members of one of the other races, than between the two latter; and the social distance, and difference in mode of living are distinctly equalised in districts where Kvæns are found in any number.

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POPULATION

The present section treats of the population of Norway, considered from a statistical point of view. The subject is divided into the following five heads:

I. The size of the population.
II. The geographical distribution of the population.
III. The composition of the population.
IV. The growth of the population.
V. The movement of the population.

The population of our country presents to the investigator several peculiarities, most of which, however, are common to our kinsmen, the Swedes and the Danes, of whom the first especially are very closely allied to us in several ways. This similarity finds its explanation, not only in the relationship, but also in the outward circumstances in which the population lives, — the climate, conditions of trade, etc., which, especially in the two nations inhabiting the Scandinavian peninsula, are in many respects identical.

I. SIZE OF THE POPULATION.

Particulars as to the population of Norway in olden times are few and uncertain. Towards the middle of the 14th century, the land is supposed to have had 300,000 inhabitants; but during the years 1349 and 1350, this number underwent a sudden and great reduction. In the autumn of 1349, the infection of a ravaging pestilence was brought over to Norway in an English trading vessel; the disease gained a footing, and carried away in a short

space of time, at least 1/3 of the population. Our ancient legends have much to relate about this terrible calamity, which entirely laid waste large tracts of the country. Not until the beginning of the 16th century is the population supposed to have again attained the size it had before the «black death» ravaged the country; and a little beyond the middle of the 17th century the country seems to have had about 450,000 inhabitants, this number increasing by the end of the century, to about half a million.

Our first general census, including women as well as men, dates from the year 1769. This gave a total of circ. 727,600 inhabitants. The next census was on the 1st Feb. 1801, and showed the population of the country to be 883,038 domiciled inhabitants, and on the 30th April 1815, according to the third census, there were 885,431 inhabitants, a figure which, however, must have been too low, as very reliable calculations that have been made, give a result of 902,700 on the 31st Dec. 1814.

Since that time, a general census has been taken in Norway every 10 years, in 1825, 1835, 1845, etc., except in 1885, when the census which should have been taken then was put off for 5 years, in order to coincide with the census-year of several other countries.

The next census is to be taken on the 1st Jan. 1901. The time for the census, since 1845, has always been fixed for the beginning of the year.

With each of these censuses — which, owing to the scattered population and the difficulty of communication in former times, have cost much labour and money — more and more detailed information has been obtained concerning the sex of the persons numbered, their age, station in life, etc. These specifications are for the most part worked out and published in the official statistics of Norway, and afford good and abundant material for the study of the demography of our country.

The censuses taken during the present century have given the following results:

Aug. 15, 1769	727,600	inhabitants
Feb. 1, 1801	883,038	»
April 30, 1815	885,431	»
Nov. 27, 1825	1,051,318	»
Nov. 29, 1835	1,194,827	»
Dec. 31, 1845	1,328,471	»
Dec. 31, 1855	1,490,047	»

Dec. 31, 1865	1,701,756 inhabitants
Dec. 31, 1875	1,813,424
Jan. 1, 1891	2,000,917

These figures refer to the domiciled population of Norway, and are calculated from the specifications gathered in the domiciles of the enumerated persons. When we add to these the number of Norwegians that were abroad at the time of the census, and subtract those persons temporarily in Norway, but with their homes abroad, the population rises in 1891 to 2,004,102. The domiciled population on the 1st Jan. 1897, is calculated to have been about 2,110,000 persons.

The position our country occupies as a sea-faring country *par excellence*, involves the necessity of a comparatively large number of seamen being constantly outside the boundaries of the country. The difference between the actual and the legal population becomes thereby comparatively considerable. The former amounted, in 1891, to 1,988,674 persons, thus 15,428 less than the latter, of whom 14,945 were seamen, some with wives, children, etc. Moreover, 3,429 other Norwegians were abroad on the census day, while on the other hand, 2,946 of the persons in Norway had their homes abroad.

The population of the kingdom present on the 1st Jan. 1897, was calculated to be about 2,095,090 persons.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION.

While Norway occupies rather more than 3 % of the total area of Europe, her population amounts to only ½ % of the population of the continent. It follows from this that the denseness of the population of the country is considerably less than the European average, and Norway is actually the most thinly populated of the European kingdoms.

The area of Norway is 124,495 sq. miles, of which 4,955 sq. miles are occupied by lakes, etc. Leaving these out of consideration, there were, in 1891, about 16.80 inhabitants to the sq. mile, while the proportion when the whole area is taken into account, would be about 16. The corresponding figure for Finland was 16.50, and for Sweden 27.70 inhabitants per sq. mile. In Denmark, on the other hand, in 1890, there were 147.60, and in Bel-

gium as many as 533.50 to the sq. mile. For the whole of Europe, the proportion is calculated to be about 98 inhabitants to the sq. mile.

As in thinly populated countries generally, the denseness of the population in Norway is very different in the several districts. Of the legal divisions *(amt)*, not including those of Kristiania and Bergen, Jarlsberg-Larvik is the most thickly populated, there being on an average 116 inhabitants to the sq. mile. Even this, however, is considerably below the mean for Denmark. Next comes Smaalenene with 80.20, and Akershus with about 51. These three divisions lie round the Kristiania Fjord, which thus forms the most thickly populated district in the country. If Kristiania be included in Akershus, which surrounds it on all sides, the denseness of the latter's population becomes about 121 per sq. mile, or rather more than in Jarlsberg-Larvik. On the other hand, the thinnest population is to be found in Finmarken, where there are only 1.50 persons to the sq. mile, or not quite so many as in Iceland, where the corresponding ratio is 1.80. On the west coast, the Stavanger division is the most thickly populated, with a ratio of 34.90. The two large eastern inland divisions, Hedemarken and Kristian's amt, on the contrary, have a population of only about 11.60 inhabitants to the sq. mile.

These ratios, however, give only an approximately correct idea of the way in which the population is scattered over the country. It may, indeed, show that human habitations are distributed unevenly, but it does not show how men have selected their dwelling-places according to the geographical nature of the land, and the natural productiveness and fitness of the various districts to afford them a subsistence. In this respect the state of affairs is very different in Norway from what it is in most other countries, because those tracts of land which are at all habitable by human beings, are not only disproportionately small, but also, on account of the peculiar formation of the country, more scattered over its surface. Rather more than $^3/_4$ of Norway's area is not only uncultivated, but totally incapable of being cultivated; and of the remainder about $^4/_5$ is occupied by forest, so that the amount of cultivated land is only between 3 and 4 per cent of the total area of the country. For purposes of comparison it may be mentioned that the amount of cultivated land in Denmark is about 76 % of its total area, in France about 70 %, and in Europe as a whole, more than 40 %.

With regard to the density of the population, it will be advisable to distinguish between Northern Norway, comprising the Tromso diocese, and Southern Norway, under which the five southern dioceses may be classed. The former extends generally as a narrow coast region through 6 degrees of latitude, with a rugged shore, dotted with innumerable islands, and is generally only about a fourth part so thickly populated as the remainder of the country. The greater part of the population has gathered along the coast and upon the islands, of which a few in the Lofoten group, which are the scene of the great annual cod-fisheries, are comparatively thickly populated. A few coast districts, too, on Helgeland, have a relatively large population. On the other hand, throughout Northern Norway, the inland districts are for the most part uninhabited.

South of the Trondhjem Fjord, the country increases considerably in width, the coast-line sloping very much westwards as far as Stad, south of which, the country between about 62° and 59° maintains the same width, and then tapers off to the south. Almost the whole of this space is filled by mountains, which descend precipitously to the sea towards the west, and afford only scant room for building along the coast, on the islands fringing it, and along the fjords. Towards the south and south-east the incline is more gentle, and the mountain masses are broken up by several narrow, but long valleys, traversed by rivers, and affording a narrow space for the building of habitations. In the south-eastern part of the country, about the Kristiania Fjord, the country has a flatter character, and the rivers coming from the N and NW, form lakes of varying sizes in their course, in the vicinity of which the land is cultivated and to some extent quite thickly populated. South of Trondhjem, Norway is represented on a population-chart as a large blank surface with a more or less narrow margin of inhabited country along the coast, interrupted in several places by stretches of altogether uninhabited country; and south of the Dovre Mountains, running chiefly in a south-south-easterly direction, and north of those mountains, running in a northerly direction, are inhabited clefts in the mountain masses. The boundaries between the inland thinly-peopled-district, and the outer, better populated coast region, cannot of course be drawn with perfect precision, but are yet generally quite distinct.

The districts on the east and south sides of the Trondhjem Fjord are among the most thickly populated in the country. Here

lies Trondhjem on ancient, classic soil. South of this fjord, the strip of population tapers off along the coast, but in Sogn pushes far inland. South of the Sogne Fjord, the line of habitation again becomes broader along the coast about Bergen, Haugesund and Stavanger, and several of the islands outside are quite thickly inhabited. In the Lister-Mandal division there comes another broader belt of inhabited country, which, however, diminishes again in width at Arendal, but then once more becomes broader, and, with a few off-shoots upwards — large valleys — merges into the well-populated districts around and north of the Kristiania Fjord. This inhabited country continues in an almost unbroken line through Osterdalen and Guldalen to Trondelagen, through Gudbrandsdalen and Raumadalen to the Romsdal division, and through Valdres to the country round the head of the Sogne Fjord.

About two thirds of the entire population of the country live upon the coast and up the fjords, about a fourth part in the interior lowland districts, while the remainder, about 10 % of the population, belong to the mountain districts. The dwellings in the latter extend to a considerable height above the sea, the height in some places being more than 3000 feet for farms for winter habitation.

We will now proceed to consider the distribution of the population from another point of view, namely, its division into country and town population.

In 1891, the population of the Norwegian towns amounted to 474,129 persons or 23.70 per cent of the whole population, while the remaining 76.30 per cent fell to the rural districts. The growth of the town population in Norway belongs principally to the present century. In 1801, the towns did not amount to quite 10 % of the population of the kingdom, and not until about 1880 was 20 % exceeded; but at the close of 1896, they amounted to about 26 %. Sweden, and still more Finland, have a relatively less numerous town population than Norway; Denmark on the contrary, a very much more numerous one. The average for Europe may be put at 33 %. In England, in 1891, between $^2/_3$ and $^3/_4$ of the population lived in the towns. Comparison, however, is difficult, as the idea expressed by the word «town» is very vague. In Norway, the limit is legal, in several other countries only conventional, every collection of people, that is above a certain size, being reckoned as a town.

There are now 61 towns in Norway, as against 42 in the year 1801. They are nearly all small. In 1891 there were 42 with less than 5000 inhabitants, 9 from 5000 to 10,000, 5 from 10,000 to 20,000, 3 from 20,000 to 50,000, and 2 above 50,000. The growth of late years has chiefly gone on within the same groups, whose relative size is thus still almost unaltered. The three largest towns are Kristiania, which, on the 1st Jan. 1899, numbered 221,255 inhabitants, Bergen with 68,000 in 1899, and Trondhjem with 33,033 on the 1st Jan. 1897.

The population of Kristiania and Bergen together amounts to about half the town population of the country, which, according to the calculation of the 1st Jan. 1897, amounted to 550,000, but has since grown a little.

With a few, comparatively slight, exceptions, the Norwegian towns lie along the coast, the tract from Fredrikshald to Kristiansand being thickly studded with large and small towns. The largest inland towns are the mining town of Kongsberg with about 5500, and Hamar with about 5000 inhabitants. Outside the towns, the buildings are as a rule scattered, as the Norwegian rural population does not live, as in several other lands, in villages, but in solitary farms, with their cultivated land round them. Upon the coast, however, the fishing population has formed village-like groups of houses in several places, and these villages have also sprung up in a few inland places, where industrial undertakings have occasioned any considerable concentration, e. g. Lillestrommen and Roros.

III. COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION.

At the last census, there were enumerated in all 443,317 separate households, 385,220 of which were true family households, while the corresponding figures in 1876 were respectively 389,611 and 341,868. The average number of persons in each family household in 1891, was 5.01, reckoned from the domiciled population, and 5.15 in 1876.

Besides the family households, in 1891 there were 623 other households (poor-houses, infirmaries, houses of correction, etc.), and 57,474 solitary persons, of whom 27,275 were men, and 30,199 women, or respectively 2.82 and 2.92 per cent of the total population of each sex. If all the households are taken together, and the actual population at the time is used as a basis for the calculation,

there were 4.55 persons in each household in Norway in 1891. The corresponding figure for England and Wales was 4.73, for Germany 4.66 and for Sweden 3.80.

The average number of inhabitants to each dwellinghouse amounted in 1891 to 6.50 for the whole kingdom, and for the country districts and the towns separately, 5.78 and 11.85 respectively. While the density of our population has risen in several of our towns, in consequence of the increasing taste for a barrack-like manner of building, the country districts in this respect exhibit a contrary tendency. The number of inhabitants per house was greatest in Kristiania, viz. 22.90 (as against 21.90 in 1876), while the next largest Norwegian town, Bergen, had only 13.10 (11.70 in 1876), and Trondhjem 11.90 (12.20 in 1876). In the country districts, the difference between the various parts is comparatively small.

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO SEX.

If we compare the distribution of the Norwegian population according to sex, with the corresponding conditions in other countries, we find that there is a greater preponderance of the female sex in our land than in most of the European countries, and also that of late years, this preponderance has been on the increase. In the year 1891, the Norwegian women numbered 1,035,006, as against 965,911 men, or an excess of 69,095 women; while in 1876, it only amounted to 42,688. In 1891, there were 1072 women to a thousand men, as against 1048 in 1876. If the proportion at an earlier date be investigated, it will be found that according to the census of 1801, the excess of women was 8.90 per cent, but that owing to a diminished death-rate, it fell to an average of 4 % during the years 1835—1870. Since that time, emigration has once more considerably increased the relative number of women.

The average proportion of strength between the two sexes for Europe in the beginning of the nineties is calculated at about 1021, while the other continents, in so far as particulars are forthcoming, all exhibit an excess of the male sex. In Sweden, in 1894, the proportion was 1061, in Denmark, in 1893, 1053. Among the countries of Europe, only Portugal has a larger excess of women than Norway, namely, 1084 women to every 1000 men.

There is, moreover, considerable difference in the proportion between the rural districts — which in 1891 had an average of 1058 women to every 1000 men —, and the towns, where the sexes

are divided in the proportion of 1206 women to 1000 men. The large excess of women in the towns is due in a great measure to the influx of domestic servants.

When the population is classified in age-groups of 10 years, it appears that the male sex — in consequence of the more frequent birth of boys than of girls — now, as hitherto, preponderates in the first two groups of 10 years, or, speaking more accurately, in 1891, up to and including the 18th year. On the other hand, the preponderance of the female sex is greatest in the highest age-classes.

The comparatively large preponderance in our country of women, which, viewed from the side of political economy must be regarded as a weakness, is explained by the higher rate of mortality among the male sex generally, and especially during the ages from 10 to 30. This again, among other things, is due to the prominent position that our nation occupies as a sea-faring nation; moreover, the emigration that has been going on for the last 50 years, and in which the male sex has greatly preponderated, has contributed largely to disturb the natural conditions.

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO AGE.

The age-classification of the native Norwegian population at the census of 1891 was as follows:

Age	Actual Figures			Percentage		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
0— 10	252,997	242,761	495,758	12.62	12.11	24.73
10— 20	203,142	199,949	403,091	10.17	9.98	20.15
20 — 30	131,743	158,884	290,627	6.57	7.93	14.50
30— 40	110,966	130,972	241,938	5.54	6.53	12.07
40— 50	90,089	102,579	192,668	4.49	5.12	9.61
50— 60	73,229	81,419	154,648	3.65	4.06	7.71
60— 70	62,932	70,322	133,254	3.14	3.51	6.65
70— 80	31,922	37,851	69,773	1.59	1.89	3.48
80— 90	7,721	10,804	18,525	0.38	0.54	0.92
90—100	711	1,193	1,904	0.03	0.06	0.09
100—104	3	13	16	—	—	—
Not stated	1,111	789	1,900	0.05	0.04	0.09
Total	966,566	1,037,536	2,004,102	48.23	51.77	100.00

If the population be divided into the three age-groups that most nearly correspond with successive generations, and the result

per cent be compared with the corresponding proportion during the years 1801 and 1845, the following table is produced:

	Under 30	From 30—60	Above 60	Total
1801	58.40	32.70	8.90	100.00
1845	61.60	29.80	8.60	100.00
1891	59.40	29.40	11.20	100.00

These figures show changes that are not altogether without importance in the composition of the population. It must not, however, be forgotten, that the intermediate periods are of considerable length, and that the enumerations here given show, to some extent, the outside limits of the variation during the present century. In 1845 the youngest, in 1801 the middle, and in 1891 the oldest group, was relatively more numerous than at some of the other censuses, while the years 1801, 1891 and 1845 show the minima of the groups during the same period.

The great increase in the number of old people during the same period (from 9.20 % in 1876 to 11.20 % in 1891) is of a more chance character, being accounted for by the great increase in the number of births during the first few years after 1814. Compared with other countries, the number of old people in Norway is very great, exceeded by only a few countries, e. g. Sweden and France.

If we compare the composition of the Norwegian population according to age in general, with corresponding conditions in other countries, we find that the first 20 years are represented about normally, but that the succeeding period, when the population is in its most productive and useful age, is comparatively weaker in numbers than in European countries generally. This condition is most marked in the rural districts, where the relative number of children and old people is greatest, while the number of young men and women is comparatively greatest in the towns, a circumstance which is more especially appreciable in Kristiania. This fact places the productive power of the population in a more unfavourable position than is the case in most other countries.

The total number of children under 15 years of age in 1891 was 712,435, of whom 363,164 were boys and 349,271 girls. Compared with the domiciled population as a whole, this amounted to 35.55 per cent, a proportion that to some extent corresponds with the normal, and shows a certain advance since 1876, when the proportion of children was 34.37 per cent.

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO MATRIMONIAL STATE.

In 1891, those of the population who were above the age of 15, could be divided into two almost exactly equal parts, one of which — 647,288 persons, or 50.11 % — consisted of the married persons, while the remaining 49.89 % (in which are included the comparatively few unspecified) were unmarried or previously married persons. In 1876, the relative number of married persons was somewhat smaller, but at the first census of the century, showed a noticeably larger percentage.

The percentage of married persons varies considerably in different countries. The number is greatest in Hungary (in 1890 66 per cent of the population over 16 years of age); next to it comes Saxony with 56 per cent (over 15 years of age), while in Ireland, in 1891, only 39 % of the population were married. In this respect, therefore, Norway takes up an intermediate position. If, however, account be taken of the fact that in northern lands matrimony is entered upon at a comparatively later age, the number of married persons in Norway may be said to be comparatively large.

The relative number of married persons varies somewhat in the two sexes. Thus while out of 100 adult males in 1891, 53.36 were married, the corresponding proportion of women was 47.45. On the other hand, the number of widows was much greater than the number of widowers, namely 11.71 and 6.30 per cent respectively of the total number of adults of each sex above 15 years of age. Of unmarried persons, there were 40.29 men and 40.80 women in every 100 adults of each sex.

Both as regards men and women, there is some increase in the relative number of married persons since the census of 1876.

The greatest number of married men in proportion to the whole adult male population — 84.10 per cent — are in the age-group 45—50, while the maximum for the women — 72.85 per cent — belongs to the group 40—45 years of age. The reason is the greater mortality among the male sex, which, in this section of life, makes more women widows, than men widowers.

The number of unmarried women of all ages is comparatively greater in the towns than in the country, a circumstance which is principally due to the great influx of domestic servants. The same is the case with widows, of whom the towns number com-

paratively many more, while the married women are more strongly represented in the rural districts.

The number of divorced husbands and wives is considerably smaller in Norway than in most European countries.

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO STATION IN LIFE, AND OCCUPATION.

In recent censuses in various countries, special importance has been attached to the obtaining of minute and accurate information as to the position and occupation of the persons enumerated, matters which, with the ever-increasing interest in the material conditions of the people and the advancement of business, are of very great importance. The information on these matters, obtained by the censuses, affords, as a rule, the best and most reliable that can be obtained concerning the importance of the various livelihoods for the economy of the entire nation. Comparison, also, of one census with another, yields excellent material for throwing light upon the development, stagnation or retrogression of the several means of livelihood in the course of time.

In Norway too, very detailed information has been obtained concerning these matters, by the censuses. A brief résumé will be given here of their principal results.

The first question that presents itself is: How large a portion of the population of the country can be described as working? As an answer to this, the following tabular survey of the composition of the domiciled population during the years 1876 and 1891 is subjoined, calculated per cent:

	Males		Females		Total	
	1876	1891	1876	1891	1876	1891
Persons with occupation	60.50	57.90	61.60	60.40	61.10	59.20
Persons with independent means	2.60	2.80	2.80	3.00	2.70	2.90
School-children and students . .	15.50	17.40	14.20	15.30	14.80	16.30
Other children	19.50	20.20	18.10	18.10	18.80	19.10
Persons entirely or mainly supported by the parish	0.80	0.90	1.40	1.40	1.10	1.20
Other unproductive persons . .	1.10	0.80	1.90	1.80	1.50	1.30
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

It will be seen from this that the relative number of persons with an occupation, which in 1876 amounted to 61.10 per cent of the entire population, fell in the course of the succeeding 15 years to 59.20 per cent. This decline may be partly accounted for by the comparatively greater increase in the older age-classes during this period; and in addition to this, the working age on the whole begins rather later now than formerly. It will also be seen that the number of school-children and students has increased notably in the course of the period here under discussion. In addition to this, we may presume that the particulars in 1891 have been more accurate than those of 1876.

If we compare the sizes of the earning and the non-earning portions of the Norwegian population with the corresponding conditions in other countries, we find that in this respect our land is very unfavourably situated, the productive portion of the population here being comparatively small. This, moreover, is a consequence of what has previously been stated about the unfavourable distribution of the Norwegian population according to age. One result of the protracted physical development in cold climates is that the working-age begins later in the northern countries.

On account of the exceedingly great importance that the relative size of the productive portion of the population has for the economical development of each country, the following comparative table for Norway and a few other countries, from the German statistics of social position for 1882, is subjoined.

Out of every 100 persons in the 2 following age-groups, there was, according to the above-mentioned table, the following number of working persons:

Countries	Above 15 Years of Age			Under 15 Years of Age		
	The two Sexes	Males	Females	The two Sexes	Males	Females
Norway	54.00	80.40	30.40	2.10	2.00	2.20
Germany	63.00	92.40	35.40	3.30	4.00	2.60
Scotland	63.60	94.80	36.20	3.40	3.70	3.10
England & Wales	64.40	93.90	37.20	4.90	5.90	4.00
Ireland	66.50	92.30	42.70	5.60	6.80	4.50
Italy	70.80	90.50	51.10	21.30	24.20	18.20

As it will be seen, Norway shows all through the smallest percentage of earning persons.

We now pass on to consider by what livelihoods the population of our country chiefly seeks its maintenance, and how large a part each of the great branches of industry plays in the economy of the country. Here, too, it may be interesting to compare the results of the last two censuses. For this purpose, the following survey is subjoined of the total number of persons who were associated directly or indirectly with the various occupations and businesses, considered absolutely and relatively.

	Total Number of Persons		Percentage	
	1876	1891	1876	1891
Agriculture, cattle-farming & forest cultivation . . .	1,052,638	975,047	58.06	48.65
Fishing	102,685	171,885	5.46	8.58
Industries & mining . . .	352,716	461,756	19.39	23.04
Trade, transport by land, etc.	129,279	189,392	7.10	9.45
Navigation	118,679	118,729	6.53	5.92
Intellectual work	62,856	87,293	3.46	4.36
Total	1,818,853	2,004,102	100.00	100.00

Thus in 1891, almost half the Norwegian population gained a livelihood by agriculture, and about a fourth part by industries and mining, while trade and transport by land came third, fishing fourth, and shipping fifth. The first and largest group, however, exhibits a marked decline since the previous census, namely from 58.06 to 48.65 per cent. It must here be remarked, however, that the line of demarcation between agriculturists and several of the other groups, fishermen in particular, is very uncertain, as a considerable number of persons along the coast carry on both fishing and farming. It is therefore probable that a comparatively greater number of these persons have been classed as fishermen in 1891 than in 1876. This circumstance, however, does not detract from the correctness of the figures, as in any case there is a considerable falling-off in the number of persons associated with agriculture, while all the other groups, except shipping, give occupation to an increasing percentage of the inhabitants of the country.

A reliable comparison of the classification of the population of the several countries, according to occupations, is very difficult to obtain. We shall therefore here confine ourselves to the

statement that a comparatively large proportion of the population of Norway maintains itself by agriculture, fishing and trade, while the Norwegian industrial population is still comparatively small.

If the Norwegian *working* population in 1891 be classified according to their occupation and station in life, the following result is obtained:

	Persons with Independent Occupation	Private Servants, etc.	Labourers, etc.	Total
Public functionaries & the professions	6,048	16,102	4,846	26,996
Agriculture, cattle-farming, forest-cultivation	123,382	3,743	207,968	335,093
Fishing	11,394	189	16,084	57,667
Mining & smelting, etc.	44	337	4,133	4,514
Manufacture, road-making, etc.	1,166	4,455	49,255	54,876
Handicrafts	32,722	675	42,395	75,792
Minor industries	30,763	107	14,103	44,973
Trade & money transactions	16,959	15,070	10,620	42,649
Inn & tavern keeping	3,194	359	2,716	6,269
Transport by land, railway works, post, telegraph, etc.	2,968	2,787	7,735	12,590
Shipping, piloting, harbour & lighthouse administration, flotage, etc.	1,819	13,742	29,807	45,368
Domestic work	305,324	13,142	153,547	472,013
Insufficiently defined daily work	1	115	8,543	8,659
Total	564,884	70,823	551,752	1,187,459

On account of the extent and very varied physical character of our country, the various stations in life are distributed in very unequal proportions throughout the country. Thus while 69.20 per cent of the population of the whole country in Northern Bergenhus, and rather less in Kristian's and Romsdal's divisions derived their subsistence from agriculture, this was the case with only 18.30 per cent of the rural population of Finmarken, of which more than ⅔ lived by fishing. In Tromso division too, more than half of the rural population was dependent on this last occupation, which in Nordland provides 44 per cent of the country inhabitants

with means of subsistence, and is of great significance generally for all the west country divisions. Forest cultivation was especially important in Hedemarken and Bratsberg, while Smaalenene, Akershus, Buskerud and Bratsberg were the divisions in whose parishes the manufacturing industry was most advanced, judging from the relative number of persons employed in it. Handicraft showed a somewhat even distribution, but plays a rather more important part in the east country than in the west and the northernmost divisions, while Jarlsberg-Larvik, Nedenes and Lister-Mandal divisions showed the comparatively largest sea-faring population.

As regards the towns, the distribution according to station in life was quite even throughout, except as regards fishing, manufacture and shipping. As fishing towns, the towns in the three most northerly divisions were especially prominent, while factory work gave occupation to a considerable portion of the population of the towns in Smaalenene and Buskerud, and in Kristiania. On the other hand, shipping was represented with comparatively greatest strength in the towns along the coast from Jarlsberg-Larvik up to, and including, the Stavanger district.

The population of the towns and of the rural districts was of course quite differently constituted as regards domestic industries and stations in life. In the country parishes, rather more than half the number of inhabitants were associated with farming and the trades connected with it, while 16 per cent maintained themselves by various industries, 10 per cent by fishing, and rather more than 7 per cent by trade, shipping and traffic. In the towns, on the other hand, the industries, trade, etc. played the principal part, the first of these supplying about 42 per cent with a living, and trade, shipping and traffic, 35 per cent of the entire town population. The intellectual occupations were also, as might be expected, much more strongly represented in the towns than in the country.

This classification then, applies to the population in general. In addition to this, it will perhaps be interesting to note how the matter stands with regard to *women* especially. The total number of working Norwegian women in 1891 was 627,238, amounting to 27.90 per cent of the total number of inhabitants, and 52.80 per cent of the total number of working men and women together. The first-named proportion exhibits some decrease since 1876, the last, on the contrary, a certain increase (29.60 and 51.60 per cent

respectively). In 1891, 73.40 per cent of the working women were employed in domestic work. Of these, 305,267 were mistresses of households. Farming gave employment to 88,544, or about 14 per cent. In both these groups, there has been an appreciable decline in the relative number since 1876, while the other spheres of action, on the other hand, show an increasing proportion. Among these may be named minor industries (sewing, washing, ironing, etc.) which occupy 6.10 per cent of the working women, while the remaining 6.40 per cent are divided among trade and money transactions — 1.45 % —, factory work — 1.30 % —, public work and private intellectual occupation — 1.19 per cent —, handicraft — 0.69 % —, and various — 1.77 %.

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY.

The composition of that part of the population which is of Norwegian origin, is treated of in the article on Anthropology.

As regards other nationalities, the total number of persons born abroad, and living in Norway at the time of the last census in 1891, amounted to 47,572, or 2.39 per cent of the population. The great majority of these — 38,017 persons — were born in Sweden, 2475 in Denmark, 2661 in Finland, 1738 in Germany, 1094 in the United States, 655 in Great Britain and Ireland, 98 in France, etc.

The percentage of foreigners in Norway has risen during the last few decades. In 1865 they amounted to 1.25 per cent, and in 1876 to 2.07 per cent of the total population. In other European countries, the corresponding proportion varies very much. In Luxembourg, for instance, about the year 1890, 8.50 per cent of the population were foreigners by birth, in Spain only 0.20 per cent, and in France 3 per cent.

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO RELIGIOUS BELIEF.

The great majority of the Norwegian population belong to the Protestant faith. In 1891, 30,685 of the population belonged to various dissenting communities, or were otherwise outside the established church. This number shows a great increase in the number of dissenters since 1876, when the total number was only 7180.

The most numerous class of dissenters is the Lutheran Free Church, numbering 8194 members, next to them the Methodists, 8187, and Baptists, 4228, while 1374 belonged to various communities with a methodist-baptist form. In 1891, there were only 1004 Roman Catholics, and in addition to these, a few hundred Quakers, Jews and Mormons; while 5095 were entered as belonging to no religious sect at all.

BLIND, DEAF & DUMB, ETC.

At the time of the last census, there were in all 2565 *blind* persons, of whom 1287 were men, and 1278 women. To this class are reckoned only those who cannot see to walk about. The ratio is thus 1.28 in every 1000 inhabitants. Although this proportion, compared with most other civilised countries, is rather large — Sweden has 0.83, England and Wales 0.81, Scotland 0.70 — yet it shows considerable improvement since 1845, when the relative number of blind persons in Norway was 2.07 per 1000 inhabitants. The majority belong to the higher age-classes, the number only beginning to rise rapidly at about the age of 55. Of the ages 85—95, there were 40.60 blind persons per 1000 inhabitants, of a greater age, as many as 64.60 per mille.

In 1891, the *deaf and dumb* numbered 2139 persons, 1176 males and 963 females. The ratio — 1.07 per 1000 inhabitants — as compared with that of other countries, is a more favourable one, it is true, than that of the blind, but several European countries have a much smaller figure to show, e. g. England and Wales 0.49, Scotland 0.53. Sweden has 1.11 and Austria 1.29.

In 1891, there were 1357 persons of the male sex, and 1074 of the female sex, 2431 in all, who were idiots from birth or early childhood. Of other *mentally diseased* persons, there were 5318. The total proportion of mentally diseased persons was 3.88 per mille of the population.

IV. GROWTH OF THE POPULATION.

It will be seen from the previously recorded (pp. 86 f.) results of the censuses, that the growth of the Norwegian population, as time has passed, has been rather unequal. During the period 1801—1815, the latter half of which was an unhappy and disturbed time for

our land, the population increased by only 0.17 per cent annually, while the growth during the 20 years that followed — until 1835 — was very rapid — 1.34 per cent annually. Subsequently it went down once more, and was on an average 1.18 per cent during the years 1835—1865, but only 0.65 per cent per annum from 1865 to 1890. Of late years the growth has once more increased considerably, on account of the great falling-off in the emigration from Norway. For the whole period 1801—1891 the average annual increase in the population of Norway has amounted to 0.90 per cent, while for the previous century, it has been reckoned to be about 0.58 per cent, and still farther back, between 0.30 and 0.40.

The percentage of growth has thus increased considerably during the last century. Its increase will be still more considerable, if the extraordinarily large number of persons is taken into account, who, during the latter half of the present century, have emigrated from the kingdom, and have settled and multiplied in foreign countries. The number of Norwegian-born persons who, in 1891, were settled abroad, amounted to about 350,000. To these must be added their children born abroad. At the same time, the number of the country's own inhabitants has risen since 1801 from 880,000 to more than 2,000,000. Thus the Norwegian race, in the course of the 50 years from 1840 to 1890 must have about doubled itself, which is equivalent to an annual growth of about 1.40 per cent.

But although the Norwegian race, as a whole, is strong and full of vitality, and can compare favourably in this respect with almost any other, the actual population of the country, since about 1865, has increased more slowly than in most European countries, on account of emigration; whereas, during the period 1815—1865, the circumstances were reversed. The average percentage of increase in the whole of Europe about the time 1881—1890, is reckoned at about 0.87 per cent annually of the mean population, Western Europe separately being 0.66 per cent, and Eastern Europe 1.23 per cent. The population has increased most rapidly in Servia, namely about 2.00 per cent, and in Russia, 1.35 per cent. The population in Norway increased, during about the same period, by 0.40, in Sweden by 0.48, in Denmark by 0.96 and in Finland by 1.38 per cent, while France only increased by 0.23 annually.

In Norway, as elsewhere, there is considerable difference between the increase of the population in the towns and in the country, the former growing more rapidly than the latter. This

is not due to the comparatively greater number of births in the towns, as this advantage is counterbalanced by the greater mortality, but to the influx of persons seeking employment, students, etc., to the towns. Moreover, the towns are frequently enlarged at the expense of the country, as the suburbs are incorporated in them — a circumstance, however, which here, where it is a question of the *natural* growth-percentage of the town population as compared with the rural population, cannot be taken into consideration.

In order to illustrate the increase of these two groups since 1825, a table is given below of their relative growth during the period from one census to another, the distinction between country and town that was held in 1890 being taken as the basis of the calculation.

Periods	The Kingdom	Rural Districts	Towns
1825–1835	1.29 %	1.28 %	1.28 %
1835–1845	1.06 »	0.93 »	1.99 »
1845–1855	1.15 »	0.99 »	2.22 »
1855–1865	1.34 »	1.02 »	3.11 »
1865–1875	0.64 »	0.27 »	2.29 »
1875–1890	0.66 »	0.33 »	1.86 »

Thus the influx to the towns seems to have reached its relative zenith in the period from 1855 to 1865, when the increase was very considerable, but subsequently fell off a little, partly on account of emigration to America from the towns, and partly as a consequence of less moving-in from the rural districts. Since 1890, however, migrating to the towns has taken a fresh start.

The Norwegian towns have grown during the present century at a greater rate than those of Sweden and Denmark. The frequent emigration during the early eighties, already referred to, reversed the conditions for a time; but during the nineties, the Norwegian town population, owing principally to the exceedingly rapid growth of the capital, has increased more rapidly than that of the neighbouring countries. With regard to the growth of the several larger towns, the following remarks are to be made:

Kristiania, the capital and largest town of the country, possesses a singularly favourable situation in the south-eastern corner of the country. In 1801, on its present area, the town numbered

12,423 inhabitants, while its population, on the 1st Jan. 1899, was 221,255. This gives an annual increase of 3 per cent. From 1855 to 1865, the population rose on an average 4.60 per cent, and from 1891 to 1898, 4.90 per cent per annum. On the other hand, the increase during the years 1880—1885 was only 1.70 per cent per annum.

Bergen increased slowly up to 1855 — during the years 1801—1845 only 0.60 per cent annually —, but afterwards more rapidly. In 1801, the population numbered 18,127, and in 1891, 53,684, but is now more than 68,000, which gives an annual percentage of growth for the years from 1801 to 1897 of 1.50 per cent.

Trondhjem, the largest town in northern Norway, has had a slow, but fairly even growth, namely 1.10 per cent from 1801 to 1845, and 1.20 per cent from 1845 to 1885. From the last-named year, when the town numbered 23,753 inhabitants, until 1st Jan. 1897, when the number was 33,033, partly in consequence of an incorporation of suburbs in 1893 (4097 inhabitants), the annual increase was 3 per cent.

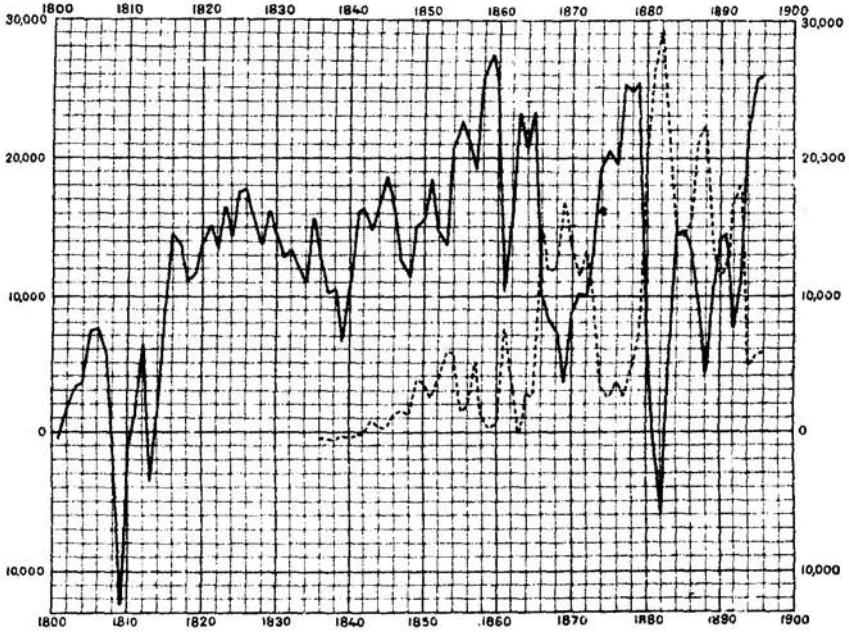
The growth of the rural population has varied considerably at different times in the various districts, in several of which, on account of the continual emigration during the last few decades, there has been an actual decrease from one census to another.

If the population be grouped according to the natural character of the inhabited districts, it will be found that during the course of the present century, the coast population shows the most rapid increase, the inland fjord districts somewhat less, while the lowland, and still more the mountain population has increased much more slowly. The emigration that has been going on of late years from the last two has even in some places caused a decrease in the actual number.

After having now discussed the question of the growth of the population in Norway under various heads, we pass on to subject the increase itself to a closer analysis. The movement of the population in a country depends, as we know, not only on the number of births and deaths, but also on immigration and emigration. If we leave migration out of the question, we have the so-called *natural* growth of the population, which thus, if we consider humanity as a whole, is the only foundation for the increase of the population. In a country where migration is trifling, the *actual* growth of the population is identical with its natural growth.

This was in the main the case in Norway until 1845; subsequently, however, the emigration surplus has detracted to a considerable degree from the growth. While the actual growth during the years 1856--1865 still amounted to 89 per cent of the natural, from 1866 to 1875 the country retained only 51 per cent, and from 1876 to 1890, no more than 46 per cent of its excess of births.

To illustrate the actual growth of the population, and its dependence upon the amount of emigration, the following diagram is subjoined. The unbroken line represents the actual growth of the population, while the dotted line indicates the surplus of emigration.



The proportion of the actual to the natural increase of the population, however, is very different in the cases of the towns and of the rural districts, the latter having always borne the excess of emigration for the whole country, and having, moreover, been obliged to relinquish a part in order to augment the towns. How the proportion in this respect has stood since 1845 will be seen from the following table, which gives the actual increase of the population in the form of a percentage of the natural increase.

	Rural Districts	Towns
1846—1855	73.20 %	185.10 %
1856—1865	74.00 »	182.50 »
1866—1875	22.40 »	178.70 »
1876—1890	14.60 »	145.40 »

The rural districts, from 1876 to 1890, have only been able to retain 14.60 per cent of their excess of births, while the remainder is absorbed by emigration to the towns and abroad.

How the growth of the Norwegian population stands as compared with other European countries will be seen from the following figures, which are taken from the Swedish statistician, SUNDBÄRG's statistic tables, and give the annual growth-percentage for the years 1881 to 1890.

	Excess of Births	Excess of Migration	Actual Growth percentage
Norway	1.38 per cent	— 0.98 per cent	0.40 per cent
England	1.32 » »	— 0.22 » »	1.10 » »
Germany	1.15 » »	— 0.28 » »	0.87 » »
France	0.19 » »	0.04 » »	0.23 » »
All Europe	1.04 » »	— 0.17 » »	0.87 » »

None of the above-mentioned countries, and in reality no other country in Europe except Ireland, loses so large a portion of its births-excess by emigration as Norway.

V. MOVEMENT OF THE POPULATION.

MARRIAGES.

The number of marriages in Norway has amounted to from 13,000 to 14,000 per annum during the last few years. If the number of marriages be compared with the mean population, it will be found that for the years 1881—1890, the average percentage of marriages was 0.65 per 100 inhabitants. During the ten years immediately preceding, the percentage was considerably larger — 0.72 —, and has moreover varied not a little during the present century. It was largest in 1815 and 1816, when the country was at peace once more after the unhappy years from

1807 to 1814; in 1816 it rose to 1.02 per cent, and during the entire period from 1816 to 1826, it remained very high. After a fall in the succeeding period, it attained, during the very good business year of 1854, a new maximum of 0.86 per cent, a figure which has not since been reached. The average for the years 1891—1895 was 0.65 per cent.

Compared with conditions elsewhere in Europe, the number of marriages in our country is small. For the years 1881—1890, the number per 100 inhabitants for all Europe was calculated to be 0.80, Eastern Europe being 0.89 and Western Europe 0.74; Sweden 0.63, Denmark 0.73, Germany 0.78, while Servia appears with a maximum of 1.11 per cent.

With regard to the frequency of marriages, there is some difference between towns and rural districts, the number of marriages in Norway, as elsewhere, being relatively larger in the former. This has been more marked during the last 50 years, as the relative number of marriages in the country, owing to the continual migration of young men and women to the towns, has diminished more than in the towns. This will be better seen from the following table, showing the frequency of marriages from 1846 to 1895.

	The Kingdom	Rural Districts	Towns
1846—1855	0.78	0.77	0.85
1856—1865	0.72	0.71	0.81
1866—1875	0.68	0.66	0.78
1876—1885	0.69	0.67	0.78
1886—1895	0.64	0.59	0.80

As there are considerably more women than men in Norway, it follows that a relatively larger number of women remain unmarried, or in other words, that the frequency of marriages is rather greater in the case of men than of women.

If the number of marriages in Norway is comparatively small when compared with several other countries, this is due partly to an age-classification of the population that is unfavourable to this state — the quota of marriageable men and women being comparatively small —, and partly to the fact that in Norway, as in the other Scandinavian countries, marriages are generally contracted at a later age

than in Europe generally, a circumstance which is partly due to the slower physical development of Northmen generally, but also has various other reasons. In all the age-classes up to 30, therefore, there is a comparatively greater number of unmarried men and women in the Scandinavian countries than elsewhere in Europe. In this, however, a change sets in in the succeeding age-classes, so that the number of married men from their 35th year, and of women from their 40th year, is comparatively larger than in most European countries.

The average age in Norway, in 1881—1885, for entering the state of matrimony was 30.25 for men, and 27.07 for women. In Sweden the corresponding ages (1882—1886) were 30.10 and 27.80, in Denmark (1880—1884) 30.10 and 27.20, and in France 29.60 and 25.40 respectively. Thus the average difference in age between bride and bridegroom in Norway was 3.20 years, in Sweden 2.60, in Denmark 2.90 and in France 4.20.

The percentage for the years 1887—1891 of men who married before the age of 25 was — according to Bodio — in *Norway* 28.30, Sweden 26.80, Denmark 25.20, France 26.50, England 45.50 and Russia 66.10.

The following percentage of women entering the state of matrimony during the same period, were under 25 years of age: in *Norway* 47.10, Sweden 42.40, Denmark 46.50, France 62.70, England 60.70, and Russia 85.80.

With regard to the civil standing of the persons married, it is to be remarked that out of 100 marriages during the years 1866—1885, 85 were between bachelors and spinsters, a proportion which is still in all essentials correct, and which exhibits a certain increase from the period 1841—1865, when the percentage of this kind of union was a little below 83 per cent. On the other hand, the number of marriages between bachelors and widows exhibits a marked falling-off in the corresponding period. Marriages between widowers and widows are also fewer in number. The number of unions between widowers and spinsters does not amount to quite 10 per cent of all the marriages, and seems to have undergone no change during the last 50 years. Marriages contracted by widowers with widows in Norway, occupy, as regards their frequency, an average position among the countries of Europe.

When considered in comparison with the bachelors, the widowers in all age-classes in Norway, contract marriages more frequently

than the former. Out of 100 widowers. for instance, from 30 to 35 years of age, 24 per cent married annually during the years 1871—1880, and out of 100 bachelors, only 12 per cent. The same proportion holds good in the case of women.

The number of marriages in Norway, in which one of the parties had been previously divorced, amounts to 0.05 per cent, and is thus unusually small.

A comparatively large number of marriages in Norway are made between nearly-related persons. At the last census, it was demonstrated that 6.70 per cent of all married persons were mutually as nearly, or more nearly related than second cousins. Consanguineous marriages are most frequent in the more remote valleys, and are greatly dependent upon the development of the means of communication.

BIRTHS.

At the present time in Norway, rather more than 60,000 children are born annually, not including still-born children. This number is equivalent to rather more than 3 per 100 inhabitants. The proportion varies somewhat from year to year. The lowest birth percentage for a period of 5 years in Norway, during the present century, is shown by the years 1806—1810, which, as already mentioned, was a time of war, with much want and misery. During these years, only 2.68 children per 100 inhabitants were born annually, and in the famine year, 1809, only 2.22. At the conclusion of peace in 1815, the number of births rose, and in 1816 attained the hitherto highest ratio, viz. 3.51 per cent. Until the end of the thirties, they remained at a comparatively high level, but then fell off somewhat until the sixties, when they once more showed a comparatively high figure — about 3.30 per cent. Since 1871, the number has kept comparatively regular — from 1871 to 1880, 3.09, during the next 10 years, 3.08, and from 1891 to 1895, 3.02 per cent.

Most of the other European countries show a higher percentage of births than Norway. The average for Europe for the years 1881—1890 is reckoned at 3.81 per cent, that for Eastern Europe being 4.62, and for Western Europe 3.29 per cent. The considerable difference is due, on the one hand, to the exceedingly large percentage of births in populous Russia — 4.80 per cent; while the small number of births in France — 2.39, less than half that of Russia — con-

tributes greatly to reduce the ratio for Western Europe. Of our more immediate neighbours, Sweden, from 1881 to 1890, showed a rather smaller, Denmark and Finland a rather larger number of births than Norway.

The average percentage of births is rather larger in the towns than in the country.

That there are always more boys born than girls is one of the oldest experiences in birth-statistics. In most European countries, the difference, in children born alive, is about 5 or 6 per cent. During the years 1887—1891, for instance, in Norway, 105.80 boys came into the world to every 100 girls, and the proportion during the present century has remained constant, the average for the years from 1801—1885 being 105.27 to 100. In England, during the 5 years 1887—1891, the proportion was 103.60 to 100, while in Greece, on the other hand, for the years 1881—1885, it is stated to have been 118 boys to 100 girls.

If the still-born children are taken into account, the difference becomes somewhat greater, as here the majority of boys is much greater than among those born alive.

The number of still-born children in Norway is about the same as in Sweden and Denmark, but somewhat less than in most other European countries. It is considerably larger among illegitimate than among legitimate children. During the years 1887—1891, 3.92 per cent of the illegitimate children in Norway were still-born, but only 2.58 per cent of the legitimate. In France the difference was even more marked, 7.82 per cent being illegitimate still-born children, as against 4.27 per cent legitimate still-born children.

The classification of births as legitimate and illegitimate is of much interest, as it helps to throw light upon the moral conditions of a country; but from a purely statistical stand-point, it cannot be accorded the same significance. On the other hand, however, it cannot be pronounced altogether destitute of interest to population statistics, more especially because the illegitimate children, as a rule, do not bring to society the same strength as the legitimate, as they more frequently fall into unfortunate conditions of life, and become a burden to society. If we compare the state of affairs in this respect in Norway with that in other European countries, it will be found that although in our land there are indeed fewer illegitimate births than in the neighbouring countries (in Norway, for instance, during the years 1891—1895,

7.22 per cent of the total number of births were illegitimate, in Sweden, 10.52 per cent, and in Denmark, 9.45), yet the average proportion for Europe is much more favourable, although both Germany and France, as well as a few other countries, have a higher illegitimate percentage than Norway. In Russia, the number of illegitimate births is strikingly small — 2.78 per cent —, which may be chiefly ascribed to the very early marriages in that country. In Norway, too, the number of illegitimate births was considerably lower in former times than it has been during the last 50 years, amounting, during the last third of the previous century, to only about 5 per cent of the entire number of births.

The number of births at which more than one child came into the world, seems to be about the same in Norway as in Europe generally.

With regard to the frequency of births at the various seasons of the year, it may be remarked that the largest number of children are born in September, and the fewest in November, the number for the years 1866—1885 being 176 and 141 respectively in the 24 hours, for births in general. Of the four quarters of the year, the spring quarter, March to May, showed the greatest average number of births in the 24 hours, viz. 163, while from June to August, there were 151. The annual average for the above period of 20 years was 158.50 per 24 hours. This greater frequency of births in the spring quarter, which is also found in several other countries, has both social and physical causes.

The number of births is not dependent only on the number of married, or rather adult women, but also on their fecundity. This is comparatively good as far as Norway is concerned. According to a calculation for the years 1871—1880, there is the following annual number of births per 100 women of ages from 15 to 50: in Norway 12.90, Sweden 12.50, Denmark 13.20, Galicia 17.50, and France 10.60.

If, on the one hand, the number of married women in child-bed be compared with the total number of married women of ages from 15 to 50, and on the other, the number of unmarried women in child-bed, with the total number of unmarried women of the same ages, the comparison will be found to be favourable to Norway, the percentage of fecundity in married women being relatively high, while it is not so in a corresponding degree in the case of the unmarried women.

The age of the mothers is of great significance to their fecundity. According to calculations based upon the census of 1875, and upon the number of births during 1875 and 1876, the following numbers of births occurred in Norway in the several age-classes. (For purposes of comparison, similar calculations according to SUNDBÄRG, for Sweden, Denmark and Germany, for the years 1881—1890, are subjoined.)

Per 100 married women in each age-class, there was the following annual number of births:

Age *)	Norway	Sweden	Denmark	Germany
15—20	54.80	50.80	72.90	59.30
20—25	48.00	44.80	49.10	50.40
25—30	40.70	37.50	39.10	40.50
30—35	35.00	32.20	31.50	29.90
35—40	28.90	25.60	24.00	22.10
40—45	17.60	14.60	12.00	10.20
45—50	4.00	2.20	1.30	1.30

It thus appears that fecundity in Norway, as in other lands, is greatest in the youngest age-class, but that it diminishes much more slowly in Norway than in the other countries. The youngest class, however, is not very numerous in Norway, and does not yield even 1 per cent of the total number of births. The greatest number of these, namely rather more than a fourth part, are by mothers in the 30—35 years' class, and an almost equally large number in the preceding 5 years, while not quite an eighth part came in the 20—25 years' class. The largest number of fathers — about 25 per cent — were also between 30 and 35 years of age, while about 20 per cent came in the preceding and succeeding periods of 5 years.

The average age of the parents, which shows the average distance between the generations, was, in the case of legitimate children in Norway, in the period 1881—1885, 35.60 years between the *fathers* and their children, and 31.90 years between the *mothers* and their children. In the case of illegitimate births, the fathers' average age during the same 5 years was 28.20, and the mothers' 26.40.

*) For Norway, $14^1/_2$—$19^1/_2$, and so on.

An earlier calculation of the number of children in every marriage in the various countries shows that Norway stands well in this respect, the average number of children by a marriage in our country being 4.70; in Holland, where the number is greatest, it is 4.88, and in France there is a minimum of 3.46.

DEATHS.

When, in spite of the very large amount of emigration during the last half century, the Norwegian nation has still been able to show such a rapid growth as it has done, this has its explanation, as will appear from what has been already said, not in any specially large number of births, but in an unusually low death-rate among the population.

The number of deaths varies far more from year to year than the annual number of births. For the last few years, the figures are as follows for Norway: in 1893, 32,915 deaths, in 1894, 34,355, in 1895, 32,189, in 1896, 31,574 — thus showing a difference, between 1894 and 1896, of between 8 and 9 per cent.

Considered in relation to the population of the country, there were in the years 1881—1890, as in the preceding 10 years, 1.70 deaths in every 100 inhabitants. If this rate of mortality be compared with the conditions in this country some time ago, there will be found a regular decrease in the mortality since the twenties, the death-rate falling from 1.98 per cent during the years 1826—1835, to 1.91, 1.83, 1.80 and 1.75 per cent successively during the following periods of ten years. During the years 1890—1892, the rate of mortality showed some increase, but has since again shown a decrease, the year 1896 presenting the unusually low death-rate of 1.62 per cent.

This steady decrease in the mortality bears witness to the growing culture and prosperity of the population, as also to the progress of the science of medicine during the century just expiring.

The death-rate is more favourable in Norway than in any other country in Europe, with the exception of Sweden, that country being able of recent years, to show just as low a death-rate. The average death-rate for most European countries during the years 1881—1890 was 2.77 per cent (during the years 1801—1820, 3.15 per cent). It was highest — 3.45 per cent in Russia.

As is the case in almost all other countries, so it is in Norway, that the general percentage of deaths is not equally large for men and women, but considerably smaller for the latter. Bodio has calculated how the matter stands in the various countries for the years 1890—1893 (or thereabouts), and has found the following coëfficients of mortality:

	For Men	For Women
Norway . . .	1.83 per cent	1.65 per cent
Sweden . . .	1.78 « «	1.67 « «
England . . .	2.06 « «	1.78 « «
Germany . . .	2.50 « «	2.25 « «
France . . .	2.36 « «	2.16 « «

For every 100 men that died in Norway, there were 91 women, in Sweden 91, in England 89, in Germany 90, and in France 92. In Ireland the number is about equal for the two sexes, while on the other hand, Saxony shows a proportion of 100 to 86. Thus in the case of Norway, the proportion is neither specially favourable nor specially unfavourable.

In Norway, as in almost all other countries, the mortality is less in the country than in the towns, and less in the small towns than in the larger ones.

The classification of the deaths according to *age* is of great importance. There is considerable difference in this respect between the various countries, although one and the same law holds good for all of them, viz. great mortality in infancy, then a decrease until the later years of childhood, and afterwards a more or less steady increase up to the more advanced ages. To demonstrate this proportion in Norway, the following table is given, showing the number of deaths per 1000 of each age-class. For the sake of comparison, the corresponding figures are added for Western Europe, for Bavaria, which is remarkable for its great mortality, and for France (after Bodio's calculations). (See table, page 116.)

The low death-rate our country shows for the first 5 years is here evident, although both France and Bavaria, in the succeeding groups of 5 years, present a much more favourable proportion of deaths than Norway, a proportion which continues, in the case of Bavaria, up to the age of 30. The mortality in the more advanced ages also, is again considerably less with us than in the above-named countries. Thus, while the strength of the Norwegian

Age	Norway 1881—1890	Western Europe 1871—1880	Bavaria 1881—1890	France 1882—1890
0— 5	40.70	89.20	105.40	63.80
5—10	7.80	8.80	6.90	6.20
10—15	4.50	4.60	3.00	4.00
15—20	5.70	6.00	4.20	6.10
20—25	7.70	8.30	6.70	7.50
25—30	8.10	9.20	7.70	9.10
30—35	8.10	10.00	9.20	9.70
35—40	8.40	11.40	10.80	10.20
40—45	8.60	12.90	12.00	12.00
45—50	9.60	15.20	14.40	13.40
50—55	12.80	19.50	18.90	17.20
55—60	17.20	26.30	26.60	22.40
60—65	24.70	37.90	39.30	33.80
65—70	34.20	56.90	59.10	49.20
70—75	46.60	88.00	91.30	76.60
75—80	74.60	131.60	141.00	108.20
80—85	129.10	217.60	198.10	163.70
85—90	193.50		314.20	196.20
90 et upwards	281.60		401.20	220.70
	17.00	25.60	27.80	22.00

population is displayed in an unusually low death-rate during infancy, and from 30 years upwards, its weak point lies in a comparatively high death-rate in the important years of youth and early manhood, of the causes of which only a partially satisfactory explanation can be given.

The death-rate in the first year, which is of such great significance in the natural growth of the population, is extremely favourable in Norway. Bodio has calculated the mortality-coëfficient for the years 1884—1891 in Norway to be 95.10 per 1000. At the same time, he gives 279 for Bavaria for the years 1884—1893, and 157.10 for France.

There is a great correspondence between the two sexes as regards the mortality at various ages, although the ratio, with some few exceptions, is more favourable for the female sex than for the male sex. During the 10 years 1881—1890, the death-rate in Norway for the first year was almost 20 per cent higher for boys than for girls, but for the second and third years, scarcely 3 per cent higher. At ages from 5 to 15, the mortality was greater among

females than among males, a circumstance which was also found between the ages of 32 and 42. From that time, however, the death-rate is continually less in the case of women than in that of men, the difference reaching its maximum at 55—60 years, with a mortality percentage for the male sex, that is more than 20 per cent higher than for the female.

As already stated, the death-rate in Norway, as a whole, has become considerably less in the course of the present century; but the proportion in this respect is different for the several age-classes. Thus the first year shows considerable improvement, while in the two following years, the improvement is very slight. From 3 to 10, the mortality is rather higher, a fact which is chiefly explained by the diphtheria epidemics that have appeared since 1859. Taken as a whole, however, classes 0—10 for the period 1851—1891, compared with the years 1821—1850, show a considerable improvement in the death-rate for both sexes. In the next two ten-years' classes, i. e. from the 10th to the 30th year, a remarkable rise in the death-rate is apparent for both sexes, asserting itself very strongly during the years 1881—1890, and affecting especially the male sex. From 30 to 40, the mortality of the male sex from 1881 to 1890 shows some decrease compared with the period 1821—1830, while the mortality among the female sex is the same for the two periods. In all the succeeding age-classes, i. e. from the 40th year upwards, a constant diminution in the mortality is apparent in the course of the century.

In order to demonstrate the effect of the mortality in gradually reducing the ranks of the various age-classes in the kingdom as a whole, in the rural districts, the towns, and especially in Kristiania, the following *survival table* for the years 1881—1890 is subjoined. (See table, page 118.)

Thus while out of 10,000 boys, born at the same time, in the rural districts, 8,391 were still living after the expiration of 5 years, in the towns generally, there were only 7,674, and in Kristiania, only 6,963 left. At the age of 50, there were respectively 6,034, 4,969 and 4,543 still living, and in Norway as a whole, 5,801 persons (of both sexes together), the corresponding number in England being 5,352, and in Italy 4,078.

As a standard for measuring the mortality in a country, the length of a medium life-time is employed, i. e. the average number of years a person of a certain age has still to live.

Age	The Kingdom		Rural Districts		Towns		Kristiania	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0	100,000	100,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000
1	89,508	91,026	9,067	9,108	8,728	8,812	8,254	8,498
5	81,874	83,394	8,391	8,522	7,674	7,770	6,963	7,171
10	78,828	80,160	8,101	8,215	7,306	7,393	6,557	6,726
15	77,056	78,197	7,920	8,020	7,136	7,192	6,405	6,521
20	74,519	76,093	7,682	7,807	6,898	6,986	6,229	6,367
30	67,943	71,021	7,063	7,297	6,277	6,501	5,728	6,001
40	62,662	65,216	6,581	6,727	5,681	5,904	5,224	5,505
50	56,720	59,370	6,034	6,159	4,969	5,279	4,543	4,985
60	48,405	51,972	5,218	5,424	4,012	4,512	3,560	4,224
70	35,315	39,522	3,884	4,158	2,638	3,314	2,153	3,084
80	16,732	20,639	1,880	2,206	1,113	1,605	820	1,422
90	2,595	3,816	290	423	116	236	86	203
100	46	80	6	11	1	3	1	2

In no other land, with the exception of Sweden of quite recent years, can so long an average life-time be shown as in Norway. For the years 1881—1890, the average life-time in our country is calculated at 49.94 years for both sexes together (as against 50.02 in Sweden); separately — for men 48.73, and for women 51.21 years.

It may be added, by way of comparison, that Italians, during the years 1876—1887, only attained an average age of 35¼ years. At the age of 50 in Norway, a man had still 23.08 years of life to live, a woman 24.45, and men and women together on an average 23.76; while an Italian who had attained the age of 50, had only 19½ years more in prospect.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.

As there is no obligation to foreigners settling in the country to report themselves to the authorities, it is difficult to obtain reliable information as to the annual *immigration*. On the subject of immigration from Sweden, whence comes the largest proportion of immigrants to Norway, there is, however, a certain amount of information obtainable from Swedish statistics, showing that immigration to Norway from Sweden during the years 1881—1890 amounted to 1347 persons annually, as against 1634 during the previous 10 years. In the case of other countries, we are reduced

to conclusions that may be drawn from the declarations as to place of birth in the censuses. The subject is treated of above. It will there be seen that immigration from other countries than Sweden is comparatively trifling. The increase of the foreign element in Norway during the last few decades, is also mainly due to the excess of emigration to Norway from her above-named sister country.

With regard to *emigration*, it may be expedient to distinguish between emigration to European countries, and transatlantic emigration. Particulars as to the former are very incomplete, and it is only indirectly, by the aid of information contained in the censuses of the various countries, concerning those in their enumeration who are Norwegians by birth, that the extent of emigration can be guessed. Sweden, however, in this respect also, forms an exception, as she gives in her population-statistics annual statements relative to the immigration from Norway. From these it appears that during the years 1881—1890, 6315 persons emigrated from Norway to Sweden. This shows a very great increase from the previous 10 years, when the entire number of Norwegian emigrants to Sweden was 2835 persons. The total number of Norwegian-born persons settled in Sweden on the 31st Dec. 1890, was 6287, in Denmark on the 1st Feb. 1890, 3385, while in addition to these, rather more than 8000 persons, including Norwegian seamen on foreign, but not on Norwegian, ships, were resident in European countries.

It has been already mentioned that in the course of the present century, Norway, by her *American* emigration, has lost a comparatively larger portion of her population than any other country in Europe, with the exception of Ireland. The majority of the emigrants have shaped their course to the United States, selecting especially several of the north-western states for their future home. Large parts of these states, particularly Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois and Iowa are occupied by settlements of Norwegians. The total number of Norwegians in the United States on the 1st June 1890, according to the American census, amounted to 322,665 persons.

Besides to America, some Norwegians have emigrated to Australia since the middle of the sixties. During the years 1871—1875, there were about 1500 persons, while since 1880, the number has been quite small. Their destination has been chiefly South Australia, Victoria and New Zealand. Some have also settled in the Sandwich Isles. The total number of Norwegians in

Australia may be estimated at about 3500, while about 500 are in the above-named islands. Moreover, during the last few decades, some Norwegians have settled in South Africa, in the Argentine Republic, etc.

The regular emigration to America began in 1836, but first assumed larger proportions in 1843, when the number of emigrants rose to 1600. The movement has been by fits and starts, with great variations from year to year. During the years 1866—1870, which were here in a great measure a period of financial depression, the number rose to about 15,000 per annum, or an average of 0.86 per cent of the population. In the seventies it fell once more, the annual number being about 8500, with a minimum of 3200 in 1873. In the eighties emigration assumed such proportions as it had never had before, rising in 1882 to 28,800 persons, or 1.50 per cent of the population. For the 10 years 1881—1890, it averaged 18,669, or 0.96 per cent annually. It was also considerable during the years 1891—1893, but of later years has been comparatively small — 5000 to 7000 per annum

The male sex has been in the majority among the emigrants, but the proportions have varied considerably in the different years. The average for the period 1866—1885 was 56.30 per cent men, and 43.70 per cent women.

Most of the emigration has been from the rural districts, including especially day-labourers, etc., artisans, seamen and peasants, but also people of all classes. All the age-classes have been represented, but the comparatively greater number of both men and women have been of the ages 20—35, and especially 20—25.

Concerning the influence of emigration on the growth of the population at home, we would refer the reader to what has been said in the section on the growth of the population.

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PREHISTORIC PERIODS

The earliest evidences of human habitation that are found in Norwegian soil, show us a people that have not known the use of metals, and have, in their stead, employed stone, bone, horn and wood for their weapons and tools. When this people came to Norway cannot with certainty be said, but it must, at any rate, in all probability have been at least 4000 or 5000 years ago. The first inhabitants of Norway immigrated through Sweden and Denmark; and there is no ground for supposing that the original inhabitants have subsequently been mixed up to any considerable extent with new elements. Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and part of Germany, together form an archæological province, that is to say, in these countries the same types of antiquities, and the same periods, are found again. Every new influence has then naturally come last to Norway.

The palæolithic period is not represented in Scandinavia. Of the earlier part of the neolithic period, which is represented in Denmark by the kitchen-middens there are almost no remains in Norway; but antiquities from the latter part of the neolithic age have been found, though not in great numbers, all over the country, up to far within the arctic circle. That Norway at this time had a settled population is proved by the fact that in several places, the so-called workshops of the stone age have been found, i.e. places where the quantities of fragments of stone strewn around, and finished and half-finished tools and weapons, show that quite a wholesale manufacture of implements and other similar articles has been carried on in the stone age.

The Norwegian population in the stone age was in all probability not very numerous; the Scandinavian cultural centre of the stone age lay farther to the south, and it is therefore only by inferences from Sweden and Denmark, that any idea can be formed of the life in Norway during the stone age. It is probable that up to the end of the stone age, the population of Norway continued to be a hunting and fishing people, while in the neighbouring countries it can be proved that cattle-rearing was carried on.

The stone age here in the north continued longer, and was therefore able to develop more than elsewhere in Europe. The antiquities — in Norway also — bear witness of a far-advanced culture, and are remarkable for their beautiful, often elegant shapes and careful workmanship.

The most populous parts at this time were the coast districts round the Kristiania Fjord, Jæderen, and the districts round the Trondhjem Fjord. Antiquities from the stone age that have been buried with their owners are very rarely found in Norway. They are almost exclusively found in fields, that is to say, have found their way into the earth quite unconnected with any burial; as a rule, they have been lost, or hidden away during war or danger, or from religious motives. It cannot be said with certainty when the stone age ended, but a knowledge of metals certainly came here between 1500 and 1000 years before the birth of Christ.

The so-called arctic stone implements form a characteristic group. They are remarkable both for their peculiar shapes and for the kind of stone of which they are made. The ordinary stone-age implements are of flint, sandstone, or some kind of eruptive rock, while the arctic stone implements are almost exclusively of slate. They are chiefly found in the most northerly districts of the country, where the ordinary stone implements are never, or hardly ever found. In Sweden, it is the same. It is therefore believed that the so-called artic stone implements did not belong to the same race of people, and the same culture, as those which have left their evidences elsewhere in Scandinavia. It is believed that this stone-age culture belonged to the forefathers of the Lapps, who inhabited those northern regions even in prehistoric times. As it is historically certain that the Lapps long continued to use stone implements, several of the so-called arctic stone articles may be from fairly recent times. The only kitchen-midden from the stone age, hitherto found in Norway, contained only arctic stone implements.

The first metal that the people of the north became acquainted with was bronze, a mixture of copper and tin. Copper, which is found in great quantities in many places, though not in the north, was first used alone. It was gradually discovered, however, that a harder metal could be obtained by adding a little tin to the copper. Implements made of pure copper are, however, also found in the north. Bronze is very superior to stone and the other materials used in the stone age. It was therefore easy for it to supersede stone, the difficulty being that all bronze had to be imported from southern lands, and it was therefore very costly Stone implements have therefore also been employed to no small extent in the bronze age. A great many, especially stone axes, were used far on into the bronze age, but no certain distinguishing mark has been found between the stone articles from the stone age and those from the bronze age. In the Scandinavian museums, therefore, all stone implements are classed under the stone age, unless they are actually known to have been found with bronze things.

We cannot of course expect to find any close connection between the forms of the stone age and those of the bronze age, as the materials are so different. Moreover, the acquaintance with metals came from foreign nations, and the primitive types were developed on foreign soil The earliest bronze articles arrived here in a ready-made condition; and it is these, and not the forms of the stone age, that have been the foundation for the forms of the Scandinavian bronze age. During the bronze age, the knowledge of yet another metal was possessed, namely, gold, which was used for trinkets. The ornaments of the bronze age are very characteristic, and it is therefore easy to distinguish them from those of other periods. By the discovery of moulds, etc., it has been proved beyond doubt that weapons and implements were manufactured by the people dwelling here.

Up to the present, there have been few discoveries of articles from the bronze age in Norway, as compared with Sweden and Denmark; but as most of them have been made within the last 25 years, it is certain that many more will follow. We have hardly any *graves* from the stone age, while from the bronze age, we have many. It can be proved that in the early part of the bronze age, the dead bodies were not burnt before burial, while cremation was general in the second, later part. A large proportion of our antiquities from this period, however, do not come from graves, but

have been accidentally found in the ground, where they have been lost, or buried by their former owners as in a place of security. Several such have been found under large stones, or on inclines covered with *débris*. Things are seldom found in bogs here. Discoveries of remains from the stone age are far more numerous in Norway than of those from the bronze age; but as already mentioned, a great many of our stone articles must have belonged to the bronze age. Moreover, stone objects keep much better in the earth than bronze, which, in unfavourable circumstances, may disappear altogether. Stone things, on the contrary, are almost imperishable. In this case, therefore, it would be wrong to infer the size of the population from the number of things found. In Norway the distribution of the population during the bronze age was very much as it was in the stone age.

Among the permanent memorials from the bronze age, we have the rock engravings, rough drawings, scratched upon stone. They are most frequently found on the solid rock, on slightly sloping, so-called «*svaberg*» (smooth mountain-side); less frequently they occur upon large loose stones. Two classes of figures can be clearly distinguished. The first class consists of figures that are not actual representations of things in nature, but which must have a symbolic significance. The second class comprises representations of actual things in nature. It is evident from these pictures, that navigation has played a very important part, and that farming was known.

The bronze age probably lasted in Norway until 300 or 400 years before the birth of Christ.

The knowledge of iron also came to the Scandinavian countries from the south, namely, from the countries nearest — on the north side — to the Alps. The iron age is generally reckoned as lasting until about the year 1050 A. D., i.e. until the time when Christianity was established in the country, and, as a consequence, the heathen burial custom of burying weapons and implements with the body ceased. The iron age is divided into two great main divisions, viz. the early iron age until about 800 A. D., and the later iron age, or the *viking* period, from 800 to about 1050. The early iron age is further divided into three sub-divisions, according to the various influences that have prevailed in the Scandinavian countries, namely, the pre-Roman, the Roman, and the post-Roman or middle iron age. In the first part, the Roman influence has not yet reached the north, in the second it is very perceptible.

and in the third, the antiquities exhibit a great resemblance to those that occur in the Frankish, Burgundian, and Anglo-Saxon graves from the later period of migration, but display to a still greater extent than these, a barbaric development, deviating farther and farther from the Roman patterns that had previously influenced them. By the year 800, new influences again assert themselves, with the commencement of the *viking* expeditions to the West from the Scandinavian countries. These expeditions and the close connection with Western Europe resulting from them, have contributed more than anything else to give to the later iron age its peculiar stamp here in the north. The influence from these countries is very clearly apparent in the remains of this period.

With the close of the later iron age, the principal task of prehistoric archæology is concluded. From that time the written historical sources gain in fulness and trustworthiness, while the archæological sources are dried up. The introduction of the Christian form of burial has resulted in the almost total absence of antiquities from the period that followed. What there are go principally to illustrate the written history; they no longer possess an independent significance.

In the stone and the bronze ages, Norway was poor in prehistoric remains as compared with Sweden and Denmark. This dissimilarity is already lost in the early iron age. As regards the number of discoveries of antiquities, Norway is now not very far behind Sweden and Denmark. From this it may be concluded that the population has made more rapid progress in the beginning of the iron age in Norway than in the neighbouring countries. Not until the iron age did Norway have a population that corresponded to her ability at that time to afford sustenance to human beings.

Norway is very abundantly furnished with antiquities from the later iron age. Although this period comprises a much shorter time than the early iron age, yet the number of known discoveries of antiquities from the later iron age is about twice as many as those from the early iron age. The graves, moreover, are generally richer in remains than those of Sweden and Denmark, especially as regards weapons and all kinds of implements, the latter especially being far more abundantly represented in Norway than in the neighbouring countries.

The first indication of the use of letters appears in the early iron age. The runes, which are based upon the Latin alphabet,

seem to have come to the Scandinavian countries at the same time as the antiquities that indicate the earliest influence of Roman culture. The runic characters are only found in short inscriptions, of which the language has proved to be a Germanic dialect.

Both cremation and burial without cremation are found throughout the iron age. Generally a barrow was raised over the dead. One peculiar method of burial, only met with in the later iron age, is the laying of the body, either burnt or unburnt, in a boat or ship, covered with a round, or oval barrow. Remains of graveships of this kind have been found in various barrows in Norway, and in two cases, the barrows have been made of potter's clay, in which the wood has been so well preserved, that the ship is almost unimpaired (the ships from Tune and Gokstad, in the Museum of antiquities in the Kristiania University).

The largest collections of antiquities are in Kristiania, Bergen and Trondhjem.

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HISTORY

NORWAY, whose name in its ancient language was Norvegr or Noregr, was once of somewhat larger extent than it is at present. The Swedish provinces, Jemtland, Herjedalen and Baahuslen were Norwegian until the middle of the 17th century. Finmark was originally a Norwegian tributary land, reaching to the White Sea, and also including the Kola Peninsula. By immigration from Russia, it early became partially dependent upon the rulers of that country; and the consequence of this was a contraction of its boundaries towards the NE.

Norway was inhabited long before all tradition and all history. The probability is that its colonisation was effected by the progenitors of the Norwegian people, who were established there at the opening of the historic period. According to the old tradition, the country was divided among a number of mutually independent tribes, under chieftains who directed the worship of gods, and took the chief command in war. In all the tribes, the people's liberty was carried to the furthest extent. The free men settled their legal disputes, and passed laws. Outside the community and the laws stood the unfree men, the thralls. The religious conception was the same as that which prevailed in Germanic heathendom.

The earliest organised political community must have originated in the regions round the Trondhjem Fjord, where the Trønder tribes had early united in a peasant community consisting of 8 small shires (fylker) each of which settled its own affairs at its own Thing; but they were also united in wider associations, with a common worship and administration of justice.

As far as can be ascertained, the Trønders' tribal league stood almost exclusively in peaceable relations with the outside world, and only had a small share in the great development of power which took place in the later iron age, through the viking expeditions.

These warlike expeditions began at the end of the eighth century. Through them, the Norwegian tribes which had not yet attained to the harmony characteristic of the Trønders, came into immediate contact with neighbouring and far-distant races living in conditions developed under the influence of the Græco-Roman and Christian culture. Warriors from the west set out on expeditions to the British Isles, where they founded new kingdoms without breaking off the intercourse with their native country. Warriors also went from the south or east country, and, in conjunction with armies from Denmark and Sweden, laid waste the land of the Franks.

It is possible that this movement was accelerated by the revolutions in connection with the establishment of the Norwegian monarchy. In the east country, in the districts nearest to the Kristiania Fjord, during the first half of the ninth century, several shires were united under one royal race, the Ynglings, who came from Vestfold, but traced their descent from the old Upsala kings and from the god Frey. Under one of the Vestfold kings, the able and beloved HALVDAN SVARTE (»the Swarthy«), who died about the year 860, their kingdom was extended to the districts round and to the north of the Kristiania Fjord (Viken and Oplandene). Halvdan's son, HARALD, afterwards called HARALD HAARFAGRE (»the Fair-haired«), had first to secure the kingdom he had inherited from his father, and thereupon crossed the Dovre Mountains to Trondhjem, which he succeeded in subjugating. He then took up his abode in this well-populated and excellently organised community, and made thence one expedition after another against the western shires, whose opposition was at last completely broken down at the great battle of Hafrsfjord (872). From this time is reckoned Norway's union into one kingdom. In order to strengthen the monarchy, Harald attached to himself the mightiest men in the various shires by conferring upon them positions of dignity, such as *herser* or *lendermænd*, as they were afterwards called. At the same time he limited the influence of the yeomen, and compelled them to pay taxes. But by so doing, he caused great discontent, and many who could not become

reconciled to the new order of things, left the country. Some of them joined the vikings, who were scouring the seas, and some settled down on the Faroe Isles, or the islands off the coast of Scotland, and thence made frequent inroads upon the Norwegian coast. One summer — about the year 875 — Harald himself set out on a warlike expedition to the Orkneys, the Shetland Islands and the Hebrides, which he subjugated, and placed under the government of earls *(jarler)*. The emigration from Norway and the Norwegian settlements in the west subsequently took the direction of Iceland, which had shortly before been discovered by Norwegian sailors. During the two succeeding generations, an active emigration went on to this lonely island, where a free political community was developed after the pattern of the old conditions in the mother-country.

In his old age, Harald Haarfagre marred his great achievement by dividing the kingdom between his sons in the year 930. It was to be governed, however, by a supreme sovereign. For quite a century, this occasioned disputes between the various branches of the royal house who fought for the throne. It also gave occasion for the interference of the Danish, and to some extent of the Swedish king in the affairs of the kingdom, and was the origin of endeavours to re-establish the former order of things. But with all this schism, the achievement of Harald Haarfagre made itself apparent in the growing consciousness in the mind of the nation that it constituted *one* people.

Three years before the death of Harald, his son Erik Blodøks («Bloody-axe») had become the supreme sovereign of the country. In 934, however, he had to yield to his youngest brother Haakon, who had been brought up in England by King Athelstane, and was supported by the Trønders. Haakon's reign was marked by a series of meritorious reforms. The old Thing-association of the Trønders was extended by the union with it of several shires; and the common Thing-place was now removed to Frosta *(Frostathing)*. The *Ørething*, however, continued to exist as well, and it came to have a special importance as the place where the oath of allegiance to the Norwegian kings was taken. The west-country Thing too, which originally consisted of the three shires that joined one another at the mouth of the Sogne Fjord, was enlarged by the addition of three other shires. They had common laws, and a common Thing-place at Gulen *(Gulathing)*. The defence of the country was also now organised

by the imposition of a levy which obliged the yeomen in the coast districts *(«skibreder»)* to equip and man war-ships. Haakon, who was honoured by his people with the surname of THE GOOD, fell in 961, while defending his country against the sons of Erik Blodoks, who were assisted by the Danish king. After the brothers had governed cruelly for 9 years, the eldest of them, HARALD GRAAFELD, was assassinated in Denmark, whereupon the others were obliged to yield to Earl HAAKON, the chief of the Trønders. This chieftain succeeded in liberating himself from the condition of dependence on the Danish king, in which he had originally stood, and defeated the renowned warriors, the Jomsvikings, whom that king sent against him. Although Haakon had submitted, under compulsion, to baptism, he was a fanatical heathen; and at last, by his cruelty and licentiousness, he alienated the affections of his people. They rose against him, and he was murdered, while fleeing, by a thrall who accompanied him (995). Just at this time, OLAV TRYGVESSØN, a descendant of Harald Haarfagre, came to the country, and was immediately chosen king by the Trønders. Olav is one of the most brilliant figures in Norwegian history. After a romantic boyhood, he had distinguished himself as leader of a viking army that had ravaged England. Immediately before his coming to Norway, he had embraced Christianity; and now, after becoming king of the country, he began to enforce the adoption of the Christian faith. In the course of a few years, he had, in true viking fashion, brought the population of the entire coast, from Viken up to the borders of Finmarken, under the dominion of «the White Christ». His proclamation of Christianity extended also to the Norwegian settlers in the Orkney and Faroe Isles, to Iceland, and to Greenland, then just discovered. When returning from an expedition to Venden, Olav was attacked by an army of superior force, that had been gathered against him by Earl Haakon's son ERIK, the Swedish king Olav Skotkonung, and the Danish king Svend Tjugeskæg. After a most heroic defence, his men were nearly all killed, and he himself, mortally wounded, sought a grave beneath the waves (9th September, 1000)

Norway was now divided between the Danish and Swedish kings and Earl Erik; but the kings gave up their shares to Erik and his brother SVEIN, who governed them as their vassals. When the Danish king, Knud den Store («the Great») [illegible] to invade

England, he called upon Earl Erik to assist him. The Earl obeyed the call, and never saw Norway again.

In the spring of 1015, OLAV HARALDSSON, a descendant of Harald Haarfagre, returned to Norway from a viking expedition, determined to carry on the life-work of his kinsman, Olav Trygvesson. With the aid of the Upland kings, he succeeded in overthrowing the earls' rule and the foreign dominion; and in Trondhjem, where «the chief power of all the land appeared to him to dwell», homage was done to him as king of Norway. Olav brought the little Upland kings under the Norwegian dominion, and sought in every way to place the long-inherited power of the great chieftains under that of the king. He further strengthened his power by the introduction of Christianity, and the laws were adapted to the requirements of the new doctrine. But by his hard-handed policy, Olav Haraldsson soon aroused a strong opposition against himself. The rebels sought the aid of the Danish king, Knud the Great, who came with an army to Norway in 1028, and received homage at the Øreething. Olav fled to Russia, and when, some time after, he attempted to win back his kingdom, he was slain by the chieftains at Stiklestad in Værdalen (*29th July, 1030*). Not long after, he was regarded as a holy man. A rising of the people overthrew the Danish dominion in a short space of time, and Olav's saintly fame shed a radiance over the throne, and over his kinsmen and successors. It is not without reason that the century which now followed, after Olav's son MAGNUS had ascended the throne in 1035, has been called the period of Norway's greatness. The kingdom was now, by the unity brought about between the royal power and the aristocracy, enabled to extend its influence to the world around.

Olav the Holy's son Magnus (1035—1047) became also, by inheritance, king of Denmark. But after his death, that kingdom passed into the hands of Svend Estridsson, although Magnus's successor, HARALD HAARDRAADE, brother to Olav the Holy, laid claim to it by force of arms. He subsequently tried to conquer England, but fell at Stanford Bridge, shortly before the Norman conquest of the country (1066). The efforts of his grandson, MAGNUS BARFOD (1093—1103), were directed towards the amalgamation of the Norwegian settlements on the islands off the coast of Scotland, and others, into the kingdom. Magnus fell during a descent upon Ire-

land. A few years afterwards, his son, SIGURD JORSALFAR, set off on a crusade to the Holy Land, where in 1110 he took the strong town of Sidon, which had hitherto defied the efforts of the crusaders.

But these warrior-kings also had an eye to the peaceful development of their country. Towns which had sprung up in former times — Nidaros [Trondhjem], Tunsberg and Sarpsborg — were aided, and new towns, such as Hamar and Oslo, were founded. But the people participated especially in the benefits of civilisation under the peaceful kings OLAV KYRRE (1066—1093) and EYSTEIN MAGNUSSON (1103—1123). During the reign of the former, Bergen was founded as a centre for trade with England. Sigurd Jorsalfar was also a man of peace during the latter part of his reign.

After Sigurd's death in 1130, there followed a period of 110 years, that was occupied with contentions among the descendants of Magnus Barfod's sons as to the succession. In these quarrels, it was at one time the aristocracy and the clergy who had the upper hand, the latter playing an especially prominent part when the strong and powerful Eystein Erlandsson occupied the Norwegian archiepiscopal see. Special interest attaches to the struggle between Sigurd Jorsalfar's grandson, MAGNUS ERLINGSSON, and SVERRE SIGURDSSON, a great-grandson of Magnus Barfod. In 1164, Magnus Erlingsson, who was then a child, had been crowned by the archbishop, after his father, the chieftain ERLING SKAKKE, had promised on his behalf that the kingdom should be subject to St. Olav, and that after the king's death, the crown should be given as an offering to that saint. Simultaneously a change was made in the public law of the kingdom, which would have given the bishops the power to nominate the future king. On the other side, Sverre Sigurdsson, who had presented himself in 1177 as a claimant to the throne, upheld the hereditary monarchy and the supremacy of the king over the church. Erling Skakke fell in 1179, and Magnus Erlingsson in 1184; but the very year before, the archbishop had been obliged to come to an agreement with Sverre, and to recognise him as king. After archbishop Eystein's death, his successor continued the struggle, but king Sverre compelled him to leave the country. The king, in return, was placed under the pope's ban, and new parties, supported by the clergy, rose against him. During the struggle, king Sverre died (1202). It was his grandson, HAAKON HAAKONSSØN, who became king in 1217, who

first crushed the rebellious faction raised by the clergy, and slew the last of the claimants they supported, namely, Duke Skule (1240).

Once more a flourishing period intervened, which lasted for about 80 years, during the reigns of Haakon Haakonsson, his son Magnus Lagabøter («the Law-mender»), and the latter's sons Erik and Haakon. During the struggles that preceded it, the old chieftain-families had been associated with the monarchy, whose influence was then extended to the domain formerly reserved to the people themselves, namely, legislation and judicial power. The latter gradually passed into the hands of the judges (lagmænd) appointed by the king. Abroad too, king Haakon enjoyed the greatest esteem. The French king, Louis IX, offered him the supreme command in a crusade which he was undertaking to Egypt and Palestine. Iceland and Greenland became subject to his dominion (1261–62). When the Scottish king attacked the Hebrides, king Haakon visited his country with an army, but died during the winter in the Orkneys (1263). His son Magnus, surnamed the Law-mender, ceded the islands in dispute to the Scottish king, in return for an annual tribute. For the rest, Magnus's attention was mostly directed to the matter of legislation, in which he gained great renown by the drawing up of laws for towns and rural districts, common to the whole country. He strengthened the relations between the royal power and the aristocracy, but did not succeed in putting down the usurpations of the church. After Magnus's death (1280), there were disputes between the temporal chiefs acting as regents during the minority of his son Erik, and the clergy, with whom, however, a reconciliation took place when the king came of age.

In Erik's time, the temporal magnates — the Barons — obtained a considerable influence at the expense of the monarch; but his brother and successor, Haakon V Magnussøn (1299–1319) succeeded in diminishing it. The dignities of earl and baron were done away with, and a new administration brought about.

With the death of Haakon V, the male descendants of Harald Haarfagr became extinct, and the country now passed into new connections, which at first were of a chance and personal character, but, owing to circumstances, were to become of eventful importance.

The decline had already set in during the country's last period of prosperity. Magnus Lagabøter, before his death, had granted to the German Hanse towns extensive trade privileges, which were subsequently increased to such a degree, that it soon

became almost impossible for Norwegians to carry on an independent trade. From the middle of the 14th century — after the establishment of their factory in Bergen — the Germans practically ruled the commerce of the country, and in other matters also had the game in their own hands. Fresh misfortunes that occurred during the course of the 14th century, threw the country back still further. The population was reduced by one third, by three visitations of the plague — in 1349, 1360, and 1371. As a consequence of the fact that the king now always resided abroad, the defences of the country sank into decay, while the noble families became extinct, or were merged in the peasantry.

Even the first union of the country with Sweden (1319—1380) and with Denmark (1380—1397) proved to be very detrimental to Norway, although it had no influence upon her political and international position. But this was still more evident when the Kalmar Union was brought about in 1397 by the election of ERIK of Pomerania, the hereditary king of Norway, as king of Denmark and Sweden. By this act, Norway was brought into an actual union, in which she was to play a subordinate part, while yet continuing to be an independent kingdom, and — after a treaty made between Norway and Denmark in 1450 — co-ordinate with Denmark, with a state council of her own.

By a *coup d'état* in 1536, a change was brought about in this condition of affairs. King CHRISTIAN III promised in his charter to make Norway into «a member of the kingdom of Denmark», so that she should hereafter «neither be, nor be called, a separate kingdom». But this promise was little more than empty words, for King Christian soon, without more ado, excused himself from fulfilling it, after Norway, in the following year, had come under his dominion. Although, during the events that occurred, the Norwegian state council was dissolved, Norway did not enter into anything like provincial relations to Denmark, but continued to exist and be designated as an independent kingdom. The kings also continued to regard the country as their inheritance while, in Denmark, they had to be elected. It was a consequence of the impotence of the country, and the impoverished state of the nation, that the Danish influence made itself more strongly felt than before. Norway kept her own legislature, and not many years after King Christian had given his promise of Norway's dependence, a special Norwegian naval defence was organised by royal command.

It was always kept up, and during the wars with Sweden, was brought up to the requirements of the times. In 1628, supported by the old regulations regarding the military defence of the country, there was further established a national standing army. From the time of CHRISTIAN IV's reign (1588—1648) — thanks to the interest the king took in the country — Norway was once more aroused to an independent existence by the rapidly growing prosperity of trade. Owing, however, to the defeats of the Danish army during the unhappy wars which this king and his successor waged with Sweden, several of the best districts had to be relinquished. After the war in 1658, Norway, by the cession of the district of Trondhjem, was almost brought into a condition of total dissolution; but the very next year, the army, supported by a rising of the people, retook that important district.

By political changes in 1660 and 1661, Norway was again placed on an equality with Denmark, under the rule of the hereditary absolute monarchs. These created a new administration, chiefly in the hands of native office-bearers, and improved the legislation by the introduction of CHRISTIAN V's Norwegian law. In the course of time, the absolute power of the Dano-Norwegian kings passed into a bureaucracy, against whose encroachments the common people sought and found their surest defence in the absolute monarch himself. Two wars, the GYLDENLOVE War (1675—1679) and the great Northern War (1709—1720), in which the young and intrepid naval hero, Peter Wessel, who was raised to the nobility under the name af Tordenskjold, won great renown, shed a lustre over army and fleet, but retarded the development of the nation. But during the long period of peace after 1720, its prosperity grew continually. Among the peasant classes, the number of freehold proprietors was steadily augmenting, and large tracts of land were brought under cultivation. New towns sprang up, and the population increased. Trade and navigation were extended after the middle of the 18th century. During the North American struggle for liberty, the government concluded an armed neutrality with Sweden and Russia. Under its protection, trade and navigation attained a hitherto unknown level, greatly to the benefit of the country. When, in 1800, the same powers in conjunction with Prussia, entered upon a similar alliance for the protection of their commercial interests, England endeavoured to break it. A brief war with that country was the consequence. After the battle in

Copenhagen Roads (2nd April, 1801), the united kingdoms, under the regency of the crown-prince FREDERIK, retired from the alliance, without, however, suffering any detriment to their flourishing trade.

This happy condition of the united kingdoms came to an end during the summer of 1807, when the agreement made at Tilsit between the emperors of France and Russia, as to the blocking of the continent, necessarily had a far-reaching significance for the Scandinavian countries. If Great Britain refused to accept Russia's mediation, and conclude peace with France upon conditions laid down by Napoleon, Denmark and Norway, as well as Sweden and Portugal, should be compelled to join the continental system. The Dano-Norwegian king was to surrender his fleet to the French emperor, in return for the Hanse towns. If Sweden refused to close her harbours to the British, Denmark and Norway should be compelled to wage war with the former, and the Czar would be at liberty to take Finland from Sweden, who was «Russia's geographical enemy».

The British government got wind of this agreement, and determined to forestall the emperor by compelling Denmark and Norway to fall in with their policy. There can hardly be a doubt that the outrage intended by the agreement at Tilsit would have obliged the Dano-Norwegian government to join cause with the British; but the short-sighted and violent action of British statesmen gave a different turn to affairs. They demanded that the fleet of the united countries should be brought to a British haven, where it should be kept until restoration of peace. While negotiations were still in progress, they sent a strong fleet of men-of-war to Öresund, and landed an army in Zealand. Copenhagen was surrounded, and after 4 days' bombardment, compelled to surrender (7th September, 1807). The British captured the Dano-Norwegian fleet, and plundered the dock-yards. They then gave the crown-prince the choice between peace, alliance, or war. In the event of his keeping peace, his fleet would be returned to him at the conclusion of the war. If he entered into an alliance with England, she would give him powerful support in the defence of his countries, which he would see extended by fresh acquisitions. If, on the other hand, he declared war against Great Britain, he should also have war with Sweden, and thereby expose himself to the loss of Norway. Moreover, he would see the trade of his subjects ruined, and his dependencies made subject to England. Look

at the matter as he would, the crown-prince could not for a moment doubt that in any case he would fare badly; but it was the action of the British that drove him into the arms of the emperor Napoleon. In November, 1807, the war broke out with England, and not many months later, hostilities were also opened with Sweden, who was abandoned to the mercy of Russia. Immediately after the arising of these complications, the crown-prince became king, by his father's death, of Denmark and Norway, under the title of FREDERIK VI.

As soon as the intercourse between Denmark and Norway had been broken off, Norway received a government of her own, the so-called government-commission, whose labours were continued until the end of 1809. At its head was General Prince CHRISTIAN AUGUST OF AUGUSTENBORG, under whose leadership the Norwegian army defeated the Swedish detachments in a series of actions, and drove them back across the frontier. At the same time, Russia overran Finland, and threatened to invade Northern Sweden. Lastly, an attack was organised on the southern part of the country by the Danes in conjunction with French troops under Marshal BERNADOTTE. Sweden was now in a most desperate situation, with utter ruin staring her in the face. Swedish patriots saw that the salvation of the country depended upon the removal of the stubborn king Gustaf IV Adolf, to whose narrow policy all the blame was ascribed. By an armistice with Norway, Lieutenant-Colonel Adlersparre, who had the supreme command on the Norwegian frontier in the spring of 1809, succeeded in obtaining liberty of action. He accordingly went with his army to Stockholm, Gustav Adolf was deposed, and his uncle proclaimed king under the title of CARL XIII, prince Christian August, the Norwegian general, being chosen as his successor. Sweden purchased peace with Russia by the cession of Finland. Subsequently Denmark and Norway also concluded peace.

The war between the last-named countries and Great Britain, on the other hand, continued. It cost the Norwegians little bloodshed, but although the resolution to cut them off from the continent was not carried into effect, the prosperity of the country suffered severely. The exportation and importation of provisions was frequently hindered, and as the crops failed in the country itself, famine and want prevailed. In these circumstances, many Norwegians began to consider means for promoting the good of

their country, and relieving its necessity. At the end of 1809, Prince Christian August's friend, Count HERMAN WEDEL-JARLSBERG, and other patriots, founded the «Society for Norway's Welfare», whose object it was to labour for the material welfare and mental development of the nation. As early as 1811, the founding of a Norwegian university had been accomplished, a proceeding which the Danish government had hitherto opposed. But it appeared that the Society had another and wider aim in view, namely, that of freeing Norway from her union with Denmark. The union between the countries, however, was to be broken sooner than was expected, and without the intervention of the Norwegian people.

Immediately after the conclusion of peace in 1809, the prince of Augustenborg had repaired to Sweden, where, as heir to the crown, he assumed the name of Carl August. Great were the hopes that attached to this popular prince; but in the summer of 1810, he suddenly died during a gathering of troops in Skaane. The Swedes then chose as heir to the throne, the French marshal Bernadotte, hoping thereby to gain the friendship of the emperor Napoleon, and thus regain possession of Finland. They had reckoned, however, without their host. Napoleon and Bernadotte had never been friends, and the latter, who, as crown-prince, took the name of CARL JOHAN, took up his position in his new home independently of the interests of the empire. Soon after his arrival in Sweden, he undertook the government on behalf of the senile Carl XIII, and joined the friends of his predecessor, Carl August. They, remembering with gratitude the magnanimity of the Norwegian people towards their nation in 1809, endeavoured, in conjunction with various Norwegians, to bring about, in a peaceable manner, a union between the Scandinavian kingdoms. Towards the same goal, but from an altogether different point of view, another party was striving, who craved compensation for the loss of Finland. For the present, however, the crown-prince was able to work with both parties.

It was not long before a rupture took place between Napoleon and Carl Johan; and when the war broke out between Russia and France, the Russian emperor Alexander concluded an alliance with the Swedish crown-prince, promising him the possession of Norway (1812). After the destruction of the great French army in the course of the winter, Prussia, England and Austria joined the alliance. The first two powers guaranteed to Sweden the acquire-

ment of Norway, England also adding the proviso that whatever consideration was due to the liberty and happiness of the Norwegian people should be taken.

This reservation did not prevent the British government from sending their cruisers to blockade every Norwegian port, so that it was impossible for grain vessels to come across from Denmark. The condition of affairs in Norway, in consequence of this, was distressing. A terrible year of scarcity ensued, and to crown the work of destruction, a national bankruptcy occurred, which completely ruined what little prosperity still remained.

In these circumstances, the Swedish crown-prince put in his claim to Norway. King Frederik VI wanted to keep hold of this kingdom of his as long as possible. He saw that in the storm that was lowering, the union between the kingdoms must be completely dissolved; but in order that a re-union might take place when quieter times supervened, he sent up his cousin and heir, CHRISTIAN FREDERIK, as governor. In the autumn, the long-impending war with Sweden broke out; but at first little was to be heard from the frontier.

It was at a foreign seat of war that the question of a union between Norway and Sweden found its solution. In the spring of 1813, Carl Johan crossed to North Germany, where he commanded one of the allied armies in the decisive struggle against the emperor Napoleon. After the power of the latter had been broken at the battle of Leipsic (Oct. 1813), Carl Johan advanced against Denmark, and Frederik VI found himself compelled to conclude peace at Kiel, in which he gave up to the king of Sweden all his rights over Norway (14. Jan. 1814). But the treaty, clumsily drawn up as it was, was a remarkable specimen both of the ignorance of the negotiating parties regarding everything touching the constitutional position and history of Norway, and of the diversity of opinion that prevailed within the Swedish governing circles as to the future of the country. Merely the clause providing that the dependencies, Iceland, Greenland and the Faroe Isles should be loosed by a stroke of the pen from the mother-country, is in itself sufficiently characteristic of the inconceivable vagueness and superficiality with which it was drawn up. But the treaty also tried to impose upon the foreign powers, the allies of Sweden, a conception of the state of affairs that was opposed to the foregoing agreements. When these powers were called upon to interfere, a modification of the

provisions of the Kiel treaty took place, which in reality accorded with the manner in which the Norwegian people asserted their independence.

In absolving the Norwegians from their oath of allegiance to him, Frederik VI called upon them to become subject to the Swedish king. But the Norwegians were far from wishing to do so. The greater number of them considered it almost treason to think of a union with Sweden, and the events of the last year had in no wise contributed to change this feeling. The vice-regent, Prince Christian Frederik, supported by the prevailing opinion, wished to set himself up as king, after receiving the preliminary communication regarding the Treaty of Kiel. In order to gain time, he made a tour through Gudbrandsdalen to Trondhjem, seeking everywhere, by his engaging personality and his eloquence, to influence public feeling in his favour. In Trondhjem he received some support, but a large number of the citizens of that town agreed to draw up an address, in which they intended to point out to him the necessity to the country of having a constitution. The prince, however, looked upon his position as that of next heir to the throne, who could straightway have himself proclaimed king. On his way back from Trondhjem, he summoned some of the most respected men of the east country to an assembly at Eidsvold Ironworks, on the 16th February. These maintained that though there was nothing to prevent the Danish king from giving up his own and his descendants' claim to the Norwegian throne, he had no right to hand Norway over to another ruler, as he had done by the Treaty of Kiel. On the contrary, this had given the Norwegians themselves the right of deciding their own future, and consequently of determining all constitutional matters. This view, which was expressed by Professor GEORG SVERDRUP, won immediate sympathy, and it was resolved that a national assembly should meet at Eidsvold, to give the country a constitution. In the mean time, Prince Christian Frederik was to govern as regent. As a sign of the country's independence, she immediately received a flag of her own, which was the Danish one hitherto in use, with the ancient arms of Norway in the upper square next the pole.

The national assembly met at Eidsvold on the 10th April. The majority of the 112 members were in favour of Norway's being a separate kingdom. A minority of 30, led by Count Herman Wedel-Jarlsberg, held that a union with Sweden would be beneficial

and desirable, but that Norway should enter the union as an independent state with constitutional liberty. The national assembly drew up a fundamental law, which was passed on the 17th May; and it then proceeded to elect a king, a proceeding which the minority would have preferred to postpone. Christian Frederik was unanimously chosen king. He immediately surrounded himself with a council, and divided the affairs of the country among 5 departments, each governed by a cabinet minister. Councils were established for the Ecclesiastical and Educational Department, and for the affairs of the army and navy. For several reasons, no Foreign Office could be established; but the king took upon himself the charge of all matters belonging to that department.

Immediately after ascending the throne, Christian Frederik endeavoured to open negociations with the Allied Powers, in the hope of thus gaining a recognition of the country's independence and constitutional self-dependence. Political considerations prevented his emissaries from being officially received; but the king found other means of enforcing his representations, which were not without their influence on the attitude subsequently held by the Powers.

After the Treaty of Kiel, Carl Johan had gone southwards with his army to assist the combined Powers in the last decisive battle with Napoleon. In various ways, he aroused the suspicion and displeasure of the princes; but having, on his side, fulfilled his obligations, he could also claim that his allies should make good their promises. He desired that the Allied Powers should send commissioners to Denmark and Norway, to see that the Treaty of Kiel was carried out to the letter.

Carl Johan had a suspicion that the rising in Norway was the result of a plan agreed upon between the Danish king and his heir. Frederik VI, however, had given up all thought of a reunion of the countries, and had nothing whatever to do with it. The commissioners of the Powers too, found that there was nothing to complain of in his attitude, as he had in vain enjoined his heir, time after time, to quit Norway. When they came to Kristiania at the end of June, 1814, far from demanding the fulfilment of the Treaty of Kiel, they approved in a great measure of what had taken place in Norway. Their demands were to the effect that the king should resign his authority, and leave the country. The Norwegian fortresses, Fredrikstad, Fredriksten and Kongsvinger were to be occupied by Swedish troops, until the Storthing had

settled the question of the union of the kingdoms. Christian Frederik expressed his willingness to resign his authority into the hands of the Storthing, but required that the fortresses should be occupied with Russian, Prussian and Austrian troops, until the decision was come to. To this Carl Johan would not consent, and an appeal to arms had to be resorted to.

At the end of July, the Swedish army, under Carl Johan, crossed the southern border in several places, while a large fleet under the command of King Carl XIII menaced the coast. The Norwegian army was badly equipped, and suffered from want of everything; but its one desire was to fight for its country. It was forced to retreat continually, although at several places it fought with decided success. The fortress of Fredrikstad, however, was given up to the enemy.

At Kongsvinger, where General GAHN led the secondary attack, the most serious conflicts took place. The Swedish army was defeated by Col. KREBS in the engagements of Lier and Matrand; and at the latter place, it was broken up and driven out of the country.

When hostilities had lasted for a fortnight, Carl Johan again opened negotiations, principally upon the same basis that the commissioners of the Allied Powers had laid down. The Norwegians were to retain the constitution given at Eidsvold, with only such alterations as the union with Sweden made necessary. But Christian Frederik was immediately to abdicate the throne, call the Storthing together, and leave the country. The king agreed to this, and on the 14th August, a convention with an armistice was concluded at Moss. The Norwegian army evacuated that part of the country that lies east of the Glommen, and the fortress of Fredriksten opened its gates to the Swedes.

Christian Frederik resigned his authority into the hands of the council of state, and an extraordinary Storthing was summoned. Until this met, he stayed at Ladegaardsøen, just outside Kristiania, sick in mind and body. The convention at Moss had aroused grief and wrath in a large proportion of the nation, and some detachments of the army mutinied. But the excitement subsided when the council ordered a legal investigation into the conduct of the suspected officers.

On the 7th October, the first extraordinary meeting of the Storthing took place. Three days later, Christian Frederik laid down his royal authority, and left the country. Carl Johan desired

that the Storthing should promise allegiance to the Swedish king, before the negotiations concerning the conditions of the union were opened; but the Storthing handed over the government of the country to the council of state, and as its number was no longer complete, it was reinforced with men who enjoyed universal esteem. The Norwegians were firm in their determination not to enter into any union with Sweden, if, in so doing, they would have to give up a particle of their constitutional liberty. They therefore desired, through the Storthing, to make their own conditions for the union; and if the Swedes would not accept them, the war should be continued.

Six commissioners came to Kristiania to negotiate with the Storthing on the king of Sweden's behalf. They brought with them a proposal for alterations in the fundamental law, drawn up at the instigation of Carl Johan. The Storthing, however, determined that the Eidsvold constitution should form the basis of the new one, and that only such alterations should be made in it as a union with Sweden demanded. The Storthing would not negotiate directly with the commissioners, but appointed a committee of 9 men, who were to receive the necessary information from them.

On the 20th October, when the end of the armistice was approaching, the Storthing resolved that Norway should be united to Sweden as an independent kingdom. Before, however, proceeding to the election of a king, unanimity was arrived at on the subject of the changes in the constitution. The amended constitution became law on the 4th November, and immediately after, Carl XIII was chosen king of Norway. On the 10th November, Carl Johan was present in the Storthing, where he took the king's oath to the constitution.

Thus, by accommodating the conditions of the union to the constitutional conditions established in Norway, by yielding to the will of the Powers, and by giving the Norwegian Storthing free choice, Carl Johan had succeeded in bringing about the union, and achieving all that could be achieved. To the European Powers, the Swedish Minister for Foreign Affairs declared on behalf of the crown-prince that the Peace of Kiel was given up. «It is not to the Treaty of Kiel», he said, «but to the confidence of the Norwegian people in us, that we owe Norway's union with Sweden.»

But there was a party in Sweden, whose real opinion found expression in the words attributed to the old king, namely, «that it was a union to weep over.»

The Norwegians, on their side, had no exaggerated confidence in the Swedish promises. As a matter of prudence, provisions touching the union were embodied in the Norwegian fundamental law; and the Act of Union, which was passed by the Storthing on the 5th August, 1815, became fundamental law for Norway, without being so in Sweden. In the history of the Union, this circumstance, of which the sole intention was to secure guarantees for the Norwegian nation, has gained significance from the fact that Swedish politicians, by its means, have claimed rights for Sweden over the fundamental law of Norway.

The composition of the Norwegian government also contained a proof that Carl Johan approved in the main of all that had taken place in this country in 1814.

For the first 15 years after the union, vice-regents (statholders) of Swedish birth stood at the head of the government. The council itself was composed of men belonging to the various parties in the country. Two or three of Christian Frederik's ministers also had seats in the new ministry.

There was at first no possibility of establishing the democracy on which the constitution was based. On the contrary, the bureaucracy which had developed under the former absolute power, attained its highest level, and being of an extremely marked national character, became the constitution's best defence during the reaction that soon supervened under the pressure of the Holy Alliance.

When Norway entered upon the union with Sweden, her condition was anything but a prosperous one. Great want and poverty prevailed, and all trade was depressed. Since the great national bankruptcy in 1813, the finances of the country had been in the most grievous plight. The first ordinary Storthing (1815—1816) saw no other way out of the difficulty than to depreciate still further the paper currency. In order, however, to impart a fresh firmness to money matters, the Bank of Norway was founded in Trondhjem, its paid-up capital being procured by the assessment of an extraordinary tax.

This, of course, could not but increase the depression at first, and, as a result of the growing discontent, a rising of the peasants in the Uplands took place, with the object of dissolving the Storthing, and bringing in an absolute government. Some have therefore claimed to see the machinations of the royal power behind the rising, which was organised by a large farmer in Hede-

marken, named HALVOR HOEL, and was directed against the interference of public functionaries in affairs of all kinds, and their supposed extravagance in the administration of the public revenue. The rising, however, soon subsided.

In order to lighten the burdens of the people, the Norwegian army, which consisted of 33,000 men, was reduced, after 1818, to half the number; the defence of the frontier was considered unnecessary after the union.

It was the painful financial condition of the country that first endangered its independence. By the Treaty of Kiel, the king of Sweden, in his character of sovereign of the kingdom of Norway, had pledged himself to assume as large a portion of the national debt of the dissolved Dano-Norwegian monarchy, as answered to Norway's population and resources in relation to those of Denmark. From a general point of view, there could be no fault to find with such a division, even if the validity of the Treaty of Kiel could not be recognised in other respects. But the Norwegians had counter-claims upon the Danes, and Carl Johan found, moreover, that circumstances had turned out so differently from what had been foreseen in the Treaty of Kiel, that he thought the whole matter could be settled by drawing his pen through it. But the Vienna Congress had resolved that in its relations to Denmark, the Treaty of Kiel should remain in full force. The negotiations about a settlement made slow progress. The Danes complained to the Powers, and demanded that Sweden should help in paying Norway's share of the national debt; but Sweden, of course, would not hear of such a thing. In 1818 the Holy Alliance took up the matter seriously, ranging itself entirely on the side of Denmark. The princes of each of the five Powers sent an autograph note, corresponding in substance, to Carl Johan, who had ascended the throne of Norway and Sweden in 1818. In this he was required or commanded to come to a final arrangement. Carl Johan gave the princes a sharp answer in return for their officiousness, and refused to suffer any interference in a matter which exclusively concerned Denmark and Norway. He accepted, on the other hand, England's mediation, and in September, 1819, it was arranged that Norway should take upon herself 3,000,000 speciedaler (12 millions of kroner) of the debt. But both the Norwegian government and the Storthing in 1821 considered that this was still too much, and that Sweden, who had concluded the Treaty of Kiel of her own accord, ought

to be responsible for whatever Norway would not pay. This attitude of the Storthing nearly occasioned a fresh interference of the Powers, such as they had previously indicated. In order to avoid any such intervention, Carl Johan determined to set about military preparations; but at the same time he made a declaration to the Continent that he would manage the affair himself. The Storthing had also in other ways aroused the anxiety of the foreign ambassadors in Stockholm. At the Storthings of 1815 and 1818, it had been resolved that the nobility in Norway should be abolished; but the king had refused his sanction to the measure. It was now passed for the third time. As the king had gathered a number of Swedish and Norwegian troops in camp outside Kristiania, at the time the matter was to be finally discussed, his action was regarded as a menace to the Storthing and the constitution. It appears that in certain quarters plans were really being formed, whose object was nothing less than an amalgamation of the two kingdoms in accordance with the most ultra interpretation of the provisions of the Treaty of Kiel. But the storm passed over, as the Storthing, influenced by the king, and on the representation of one of its members, C. M. FALSEN, who had rendered great services to the constitution at Eidsvold, approved in the main of the settlement. An understanding having been come to between the king and the Norwegian people, the law abolishing the nobility was sanctioned.

This collision, however, only opened the way for fresh antagonism between the Storthing and the king.

A few days after the question of the debt was settled, Carl Johan despatched a note, in which, referring to the plans for amalgamation, he declared that he would never agree to them. On the other hand, he wished to propose a series of constitutional changes, which were to remove from the Norwegian constitution all that was at variance with the monarchical form of government. The changes he thus proposed were 13 in number. The most important were absolute veto, the king's right to appoint presidents and vice-presidents in the Storthing and its sections, to dissolve the Storthing after a three months' session and call for a new election, and to dismiss without legal form any public officer except a judge. Moreover, various public officers in high authority were to take their seats, as a matter of course, in the «Rigsret» (the supreme court for political offences) and a new hereditary nobility was to be founded. Certain changes in the constitution which the

above-mentioned C. M. Falsen proposed were in the same spirit. But the Storthing of 1824 put aside unanimously and without debate all the constitution proposals, both royal and private. The king repeated his proposal at the following assemblies. They were discussed, for the last time, in 1839, the result being the same as before.

The Norwegians' observance of the 17th May as Constitution Day is also closely connected with the opposition that was raised against the attempt to remould the existing constitution. This day was first observed in Trondhjem, and after 1824 in Kristiania too, and gradually the whole country followed their lead. At first, as it was known that Carl Johan objected to its observance, it was limited to private arrangements; but in 1827, it was said that Count SANDELS, the statholder of the country, had succeeded in showing the king that his prejudice against the day was groundless, and that the king had yielded to the wishes of the people. The 17th May, 1827, was consequently celebrated in a very marked manner. On the 4th November of the same year, some young men hissed a Swedish company at the theatre, who were performing some wretched stuff called «The Union» or «The Festival of Peace». This foolish trick was put before the king in such a bad light, that for a time he believed that a rebellion had broken out. He thought that Sandels was not equal to his duties, and had him replaced by Count PLATEN, a good and upright man, but a one-sided and narrow-minded politician. Hitherto, however, he had always shown himself to be a friend to the Norwegians. In 1828, Carl Johan succeeded, by a royal command, in preventing the Norwegians from celebrating Constitution Day. An extraordinary Storthing was summoned principally to receive notification of this matter; and in order to give the king's representations due emphasis, troops were encamped near Kristiania, and Swedish regiments stood, ready to march, upon the border. But the year following, great crowds gathered in the Kristiania market-place. Curiosity and the extraordinary preparations that had been made by civil and military functionaries, drew the people together, and they were dispersed and driven to their homes with sword and musket («the Market Battle»). From that time, the day was celebrated with rising enthusiasm as a national festival, and Carl Johan had to put up with it, although he did not change his opinion. Count Platen died not long after the Market Battle, and the feeling aroused by the events in connection with this, made it unadvisable to fill his

place with any Swede. The post therefore remained vacant for seven years.

The radical changes which the July revolution brought about, made themselves also felt throughout Norwegian society, as the broader strata of the nation now began to take part in the political life and the social and national development. This transition time is generally called in Norwegian history, the «Norwegianism Period». With regard to intellectual life, efforts were made to escape from the Danish influence in language and literature acquired in the days of fellowship. In politics, the public officers, who had hitherto been the constitution's best defence, were looked upon as wandering spirits from the old time of absolute government, while the peasants and those who joined them, were the only true patriots. The peasantry were also now beginning to understand that the constitution had placed the greatest influence upon the affairs of the country in their hands; and the Storthing of 1833 was the first «Peasant Storthing». The peasant Storthings-men who at first distinguished themselves chiefly by their great parsimoniousness in the administration of the public revenue, found a leader in OLE GABRIEL UELAND, a west-country man. He was an unusually clever, able, and influential politician, and was a member of every Storthing from 1833 to 1869.

Carl Johan would have liked the peasants in this way to have gained the upper hand in the Storthing, as he hoped that they would be more willing to agree to his proposed alterations in the constitution than the civil officers had been. But it soon appeared that in this respect he was mistaken. The tension between the kingly power and the legislature reached its height in the Storthing of 1836, when the royal constitution-proposals were laid on one side without passing through committee, and various steps towards greater independence were taken. It was pretended that the attitude of the Storthing attracted the attention of the diplomacy in Stockholm, and that the Russian government urged upon Carl Johan the desirability, under these circumstances, of dissolving the Storthing. LØVENSKIOLD, one of the cabinet ministers, who had been informed of the pretended Russian demand, alone advised the king to dissolve the Storthing, while the other members of the council dissuaded him from taking such a step. The Storthing was then sent home precipitately. At the last moment the Odelsthing (one section of the Storthing) impeached Løvenskiold, and he was sentenced to

a fine of 4000 rixdollars (16,000 kroner), but retained his post. COLLETT, on the other hand, was dismissed, the king laying the blame of Løvenskiold's sentence upon his passiveness towards the Storthing; and unity was brought about in the government by the appointment of Count Wedel-Jarlsberg as statholder of Norway. From this time, however, there was a steady, sincere drawing-together of the king and the people; and whereas Carl Johan in his later years was disliked by the Swedes, the Norwegians regarded him with increasing veneration and devotion.

This turning-point is marked by the extraordinary Storthing of 1836—37, and its address, in which various desires are expressed relative to the placing of Norway on an equality with Sweden, in accordance with what had been resolved on the occasion of the union of the kingdoms in 1814, and unequivocally expressed in subsequent negotiations with the foreign Powers. These desires were on the subject of the naval flag, the arms of the kingdom, the treatment of diplomatic matters, and the representation of the kingdoms at foreign courts.

For several years Norway had to be content with exceedingly unsatisfactory signs of the equality of the kingdoms. When the union was entered upon, it was resolved that Norway should have her own merchant flag, and that the naval flag was to be a union-flag. But the merchant flag was in reality nothing more than the Danish one, although the Norwegian arms were introduced into the upper corner next the pole. On the other side of Cape Finisterre, this flag could not be used, and Norwegian vessels had to sail under the Swedish flag, as the Norwegian state, on account of the hardness of the times, could not afford to pay tribute to the pirates who infested the Mediterranean. The form of the naval flag was still less satisfactory to the national feeling. It was simply the Swedish flag, except that the upper square next the pole was a white St. Andrew's cross on a red ground. After 1818, Norwegians had been allowed to carry this flag in distant seas, instead of the Swedish one.

In 1821, the Odelsthing and Lagthing resolved unanimously that henceforward the Norwegian flag should be scarlet, divided into four by a dark blue cross with white borders. The king refused his sanction to this measure, but, by royal letter, gave permission for the use of the proposed flag on nearer waters, while beyond Cape Finisterre, the naval flag only was to be carried.

When all danger from the piratical states had ceased with the conquest of Algiers in 1830, the Storthing, in 1836, claimed that a constitutionally originated merchant flag should receive universal recognition, and that the colours and marks on the union-flag should indicate more fully and clearly Norway's equality with Sweden in the union. A motion was simultaneously brought in to legalise the Norwegian flag of 1821. The sudden dissolution of the Storthing, however, prevented this matter from coming under discussion, while in the year following, it was laid before the king in the above-mentioned address, as a general wish of the people. In reply to this, the king, in 1838, conceded to Norwegian merchant-ships the right of using the national merchant-flag in all waters. This arrangement, although it was greeted with universal rejoicing, was not final, as the national flag was not fully recognised by the state, its use being only optional in addition to the naval flag. Concerning this, in the main Swedish, flag, it was declared in the address, that «the nation saw in it an ignoring of Norway's legitimate claims, that was mortifying to their national feelings».

With regard to the protection of Norwegian interests in the discussion of diplomatic affairs, a change was made. The Norwegians had hitherto had no influence here, but by a royal decree of the 13th April, 1835, it was ordained that when the Swedish minister for foreign affairs brought forward matters touching the relations of the united kingdoms or of Norway with foreign powers, the Norwegian prime minister, or some other member of the cabinet, should be present. It was declared in the address of 1837, that in this resolution, the nation would see an initiatory step towards an arrangement whereby matters touching Norway's relations with foreign countries could be attended to in a proper and satisfactory manner.

On the 30th January, 1839, Carl Johan appointed a committee consisting of 4 Norwegians and 4 Swedes, who were to consider the union questions that had been raised by the Storthing's address of 1837. While this first union-committee was sitting, the question of a complete re-making of the Act of Union was raised by the Stockholm section of the Norwegian council. At first this proposal did not meet with the approval of the government; but the powers of the committee were extended to undertake a comprehensive revision of this kind. Before the committee had ended their labours, Carl Johan died (8th March, 1844), and his suc-

cessor, OSCAR I, hastened to comply with several of the wishes expressed by the Norwegians. He immediately decided, for instance, that Norway's name should stand first in all documents concerning the internal government of that kingdom. After allowing the union-committee to lay before him their opinion concerning the Norwegian arms and union-flag, he resolved, on the 20th June, 1844, that both Norway and Sweden should have their national flag as naval flag, with the badge of union next the pole. At the same time it was decided that the merchant-flag of both kingdoms should bear the badge of union, and that only ships sailing under this flag could claim the protection of the state. The arms of Norway were immediately after altered by the substitution of an axe for the halberd held by the lion. No further results appeared from the labours of the first union-committee. It did, indeed, at last bring forward a plan for a new Act of Union, and the Norwegian government gave their opinion upon it; but both were put on one side by the Swedish government.

Both the latter years of Carl Johan's reign, and the whole of King Oscar's reign are marked by the carrying out of important legislative work, and reforms in the municipal self-government, in intellectual freedom, in means of communication, and in trade. The conditions of the people especially were considerably improved in Oscar I's time by quiet, but hard work, which was still further aided by a peaceful policy. The united kingdoms escaped being mixed up in the European wars, although it was once or twice difficult to keep out of them, e.g. in the Holstein rebellion in 1848—51, and the Crimean War (1854—56). On the other hand, the country was not unmoved by the great financial crises that passed over Europe after the February revolution and the Crimean War. In connection with the former of these, there was an agitation of a socialistic character got up among workmen, which caused some uneasiness, but was quelled by the imprisonment and conviction of the leaders. It acquired its greatest significance from the fact that it drove in the first wedge between the peasant groups, and caused a division which was most prominent in the latter part of King Oscar's reign. The bureaucratic party who had joined the king, now found a support in the large farmers of the east country, the latter being opposed to the representatives of the small farmers who lived mostly in the west. These were joined by a liberal fraction, nick-named the «lawyer-party», and led by JOHAN SVERDRUP

In the latter part of King Oscar I's reign, two union-commissions were appointed. One of these drew up a scheme for a new law concerning the mutual trade and navigation of the two kingdoms, which was to take the place of an older one made in 1826. The other commission brought in a bill for the execution of judicial sentences in both kingdoms. These bills were passed by the states of the kingdom of Sweden, while the Storthing rejected them as unsuitable for Norway. This roused Sweden's ire, and in November, 1859, the old Count Anckarsvärd, who had hitherto been supposed to be a friend of the Norwegians, contended in the upper house for a revision of the Act of Union. The basis of this revision was to be the Treaty of Kiel!

It soon appeared that the old Count was really the exponent of a political opinion that was widely spread in Sweden.

King Oscar I died on the 8th July, 1859, and his successor CARL — in Norway, IV, in Sweden, XV — had determined to commence his rule by complying with a wish that the Norwegians had long cherished. He promised privately to sanction a decision regarding the abolition of the post of statholder, if a proposal concerning it were accepted by the Storthing. This was done on the 9th December, 1859, and the government — the BIRCH-MOTZFELDT-SIBBERN ministry — recommended the sanction of the measure. But on learning the determination of the Storthing, the Swedish Riksdag declared that the post of statholder was a condition of the Union, that had come into the Norwegian constitution through the negociations between the Storthing and the Swedish commissioners in 1814, and could not therefore be abolished without the consent of the Swedish states. A sharp correspondence on the subject ensued, and the Swedish government subscribed to the opinions expressed in the Riksdag. As a consequence of this, the king refused to sanction the resolution in the Norwegian council. But the manner in which the matter was settled gave occasion for an exchange of opinions between the Norwegian and the Swedish councils. When the Storthing was informed of the refusal, they passed an address, in which they maintained Norway's sole right over her constitution, and firmly protested against the assertion of the Swedish states that the resolution concerning the abolition of the post of statholder, should be treated as a matter that had something to do with Sweden. Finally, the Storthing expressly declared that «a revision of the union provisions could not be made from

the Norwegian side, except on the basis given in the Act of Union, namely, the equal rights of the two kingdoms, and the independent power of each kingdom in all matters that are not union matters.

The following year (9th April, 1861) the Swedish council demanded a revision of the Act of Union, based upon the founding of a union parliament, made up according to the population, so that there would be two Swedes to every Norwegian. In accordance with this, there should be an extension of the duties of the composite council. In the report made by the Norwegian government, some expressions occurred which were supposed to be embarrassing for some of the members of the Swedish council, and as a consequence, the Norwegian council was broken up. But in reality, the reconstructed government agreed with the retiring one in thinking that for the present no revision of the Act of Union was to be recommended, as it appeared that Sweden's attitude towards Norway was the very same that the Swedish Riksdag and government had manifested in 1859 and 1860. In consequence of this, the matter was to be allowed to rest for the time being. The king however, expressed a wish, as far as he was himself personally concerned, that there might be a revision; but this must be based upon the perfect equality of the two kingdoms.

When the Storthing had consented to the appointment of a union committee for the purpose of revising the Act of Union, King Carl appointed one in 1865, which, in the autumn of 1867, laid before the public the fruit of its labours. This was a bill containing as many as 71 paragraphs. It was approved of in all essentials by the government, and was brought before the Storthing of 1868 –69 for discussion in 1871. It was rejected both by the Storthing (by 92 votes against 17) and the Swedish Riksdag.

Radical changes in Norway's internal political condition were now at hand. The Storthing of 1859—60 had agreed on an alteration in the constitution, consisting in an increase of the number of rural-district representatives from 61 to 74; while there should be a corresponding reduction in the number of town members (37 as against 50 formerly). In consequence of this, the liberal party, which had been weakened the year before, regained strength. In 1869, on a motion of the government, it was resolved that after 1871, the Storthing should meet every year instead of every third year, as it had formerly done. The next reform to be effected, related to the council. Ever since 1821, efforts

had been made to pass a constitutional measure that would give the ministers the opportunity of taking part in the Storthing's proceedings. FREDERIK STANG, the leading man in the government, had once been its chief advocate; but after entering the ministry that succeeded the Birch-Motzfeldt-Sibbern ministry in 1861, he changed his opinion, and had become an enemy to reforms. When a private bill, brought forward in 1869, was passed by the Storthing in 1872, it was refused sanction. Some of the members of the council who had advised its ratification, retired, among them Dr. O. J. BROCH. In the government's refusal of sanction in connection with various other steps, the Storthing saw an ill-timed assertion of authority. A great commotion ensued, and on the 13th May, 1872, a vote of want of confidence in the council was passed, of which the king, however, took no notice.

While matters were in this condition, King Carl died (September, 1872), and his brother OSCAR II ascended the throne. In 1873 the post of statholder was abolished, pursuant to the resolution of the Storthing in the matter, and the office of minister of state established in Kristiania. Frederik Stang was appointed to this post. A royal proposition concerning the state council matter was brought before the Storthing in 1874, in which various guarantees were demanded, such as the right of dissolution, the fixing of the time for the sitting of the Storthing and the allowance to the members, and a pensioning law for retired ministers. But the same year, the Storthing passed their former resolution, which, however, on account of the changes that had taken place in 1873, was not altogether identical with that drawn up in 1872. But both in 1874 and 1877, sanction was refused to the Storthing's resolution, while the motion of the government in the last-named year was rejected unanimously.

The struggle between the government and the Storthing was still further stimulated by the state council affair having become a contention about the royal veto in constitutional matters. While the majority in the Storthing maintained that in such matters the king had either no veto, or at most a suspensive veto as in ordinary legal provisions, the government and its followers held that in such cases he must have an absolute veto. In accordance with this, the royal sanction was refused, when, in 1880, the Storthing passed for the third — really the fourth — time their former resolution as to the admission of ministers to the proceedings of the

assembly. Only one of the members of the council, the minister for the navy, J. L. JOHANSEN, advised sanction. When the Storthing was informed of the refusal of the sanction, it voted, on the 9th June, that the resolution should nevertheless «come into force and be inviolably observed as a fundamental law of the kingdom of Norway.» The resolution was again sent up to the government, «with a request that it might be made known in the manner prescribed for the notification of constitutional measures.» But the government refused to notify it. In the autumn of 1880, Fr. Stang was replaced as prime minister by CHRISTIAN AUGUST SELMER; but the struggle was continued, and during the period that followed, several fresh matters for dispute arose. In 1882, the government refused to comply with a vote to the National Rifle Associations (volunteer sharp-shooter corps of a democratic stamp), and when, not long after, the Storthing resolved that a central board should be established for the government railways, and added the clause that two of its members should be chosen by the Storthing, the government only complied with the first part of the resolution, but not with the last, as it was considered to be at variance with the king's right to appoint public officers.

When the Storthing was dissolved in 1882, sharp attacks were directed, in the speech from the throne, against its attitude, and «all enlightened and patriotic men» were called upon to support the view of the constitutional questions that the government had tried to urge. The participation in the elections in the autumn was greater than ever, and the parties had never opposed one another so sharply as in the assembly of 1883. While the partisans of the government were only 32 in number, the opposition numbered 82 men, and occupied all the places in the Lagthing (one section of the Storthing, which together with «Høisteret» forms the Supreme Court for political offences). On the 24th April, 1883, after violent debates at 18 sittings, the Odelsthing decided that the entire government should be impeached for having been the cause of the royal resolutions by which sanction was refused to the resolution in the matter of the council, to the vote to the National Rifle Associations, and in a measure to the resolution relating to the central management of the railways. In 1884, the «Rigsret», which sat for more than 10 months, sentenced the state ministers SELMER and KJERULF and six of the councillors to be deprived of their posts; while three who had

either recommended the sanction in the council affair, or had entered the government after the matter was settled, were heavily fined.

A new ministry was now formed, the SCHWEIGAARD-LØVENSKIOLD, or the «April» ministry. It was an attempt to adopt the policy of the previous government in a moderate form; but from the very first it met with such decided opposition, that it sent in its resignation no later than May. An attempt was made to form a new government with the former minister, Professor O. J. BROCH as leader; but this did not succeed, from want of sympathy among the minority. The only way to end the strife was for the king to take a ministry in accordance with the majority in the Storthing.

On the 26th June, the SVERDRUP-RICHTER ministry was appointed, consisting largely of eminent Storthing's men. The Storthing now passed a new bill on the council matter drawn up in slightly altered terms, which also provided that retired ministers could be elected for the Storthing outside the district in which they lived. This resolution was immediately sanctioned, and the vote to the National Rifle Associations, and the Storthing's resolution relating to the central management of the railways, were acceded to. During the time that followed, the Sverdrup-Richter ministry succeeded in carrying out a series of important reforms, such as the Conscription Act (1885), and the new military organisation, based on this Act (1887), and by a law of the 1st July, 1887, the introduction of the jury was passed. On the other hand, a bill for congregations and congregational councils, brought in by JACOB SVERDRUP, and intended to give parishioners greater influence in church matters, met with strong opposition; and after being rejected by the Storthing, it resulted in the breaking up of the ministry, and a consequent disorganisation of the liberal majority. The ministry was indeed reconstructed in such a manner as to give it internal strength, but its prestige was weakened, notwithstanding that the liberal groups in the great questions of the carrying out of the jury law, and the organisation of public instruction, could still stand together. When a vote of want of confidence was brought forward by the conservative party in June, 1889, the Sverdrup ministry gave way to a conservative ministry on the 12th July, 1889, formed by EMIL STANG, barrister, and called the first STANG-GRAM ministry.

By moderation and caution, this ministry, which consisted of men with a good reputation from former Storthing achievements, or for administrative activity, succeeded in gaining great influence

and in passing various important bills. But they soon ran upon a sunken rock, which had once proved fatal to the Sverdrup ministry.

By a royal resolution of the 13th April, 1835, it had been ordained that the Norwegian minister of state (in Stockholm), or if he should be prevented, another member of the Norwegian council, should be present when Norwegian, or Norwegian and Swedish diplomatic matters were brought forward by the minister for foreign affairs. Unassuring and unsatisfactory though this arrangement was, it remained in force for 50 years.

By a change made in the Swedish constitution in 1885, the ministerial council in which diplomatic matters were brought forward, came to consist of the Swedish minister for foreign affairs and two other ministers, and of the Norwegian minister of state or his deputy. In order to remedy this glaring disproportion, the king proposed to determine the composition of the council by an additional article in the Act of Union. The representatives of the Norwegian council in Stockholm, Richter and Jacob Sverdrup, proposed that three members of the cabinet of each kingdom should have seats in the ministerial council, and that this decision ought to be embodied both in the Act of Union and in the constitution of both kingdoms. The Swedish council agreed to this, but it assumed in its declaration, that the minister for foreign affairs must continue as before to be Swedish. With reference to the proposition of the representatives, the king thereupon resolved in the Norwegian council, that the Norwegian government should submit proposals for a constitutional provision that in diplomatic affairs the king should «come to a decision after having heard the representatives of the Norwegian council who are present.»

During the debate to which the communication of the royal injunction on the 9th June, 1885, gave rise in the Storthing, Sverdrup let fall a remark which was taken to mean that Norway should embody the provision concerning the ministerial council in her fundamental law, whether the Swedes would embody it in the Act of Union or not. The Swedish government then conceived the suspicion that the Norwegians wanted to go their own way, and they demanded that the law to be passed should use the expressions that had been approved of previously in the composite council. In consequence of this, the matter was put on one side, but during the discussion in the Storthing of 1886, the majority, at the pro-

posal of President STEEN, expressed themselves in favour of the standpoint held by the government during the debates.

At the instigation of the king, these proceedings were resumed at the beginning of 1891, and the Stang ministry succeeded in coming to an agreement with the Swedish government as to the bringing in of a measure by which the Norwegians would obtain in the main all that the Storthing of 1886 had demanded, and the question of the nationality of the minister for foreign affairs was left for future discussion. But the proposal was rejected by the Riksdag, and in a sitting on the 21st February, 1891, the Storthing insisted on «Norway's right, as an independent kingdom, to full equality in the union, and therewith her right to watch over her foreign affairs in a constitutionally satisfactory manner.» It also expressed its conviction that the Norwegian people would never approve of an arrangement which might be a hindrance to the attainment of Norway's entire right in this matter.

The same day that this course was adopted, the Stang-Gram ministry resigned. On the 6th March, 1891, a liberal ministry, the STEEN-BLEHR ministry, came into office. The provision in the constitution, that the king could install the crown-prince, or the crown-prince's eldest son as vice-roy in Norway, was repealed by the Storthing in 1891, and the resolution was sanctioned. The special features in the programme of the new ministry were a separate ministry for foreign affairs.

After the Storthing in 1891 had made investigations preparatory to the establishment of a Norwegian consular service, and a committee appointed by the government had recommended the matter, it was determined on the 10th June, 1892, to establish it in accordance with a plan brought forward by the Department of the Interior. But the king refused to sanction the resolution, and the government sent in their resignation in consequence. It appeared, however, that it was impossible for the king, in the existing state of affairs, to form a new cabinet. At the Storthing's wish, and the king's request, the Steen ministry decided to stay in for the present; but the government made it a condition that the consular matter should be brought in again next year, and discussed in Norwegian council. It appeared, however, that the king did not change his view of the resolution of the 10th June, and the STEEN ministry therefore once more sent in their resignation on the 22nd April, 1893, and it was now accepted.